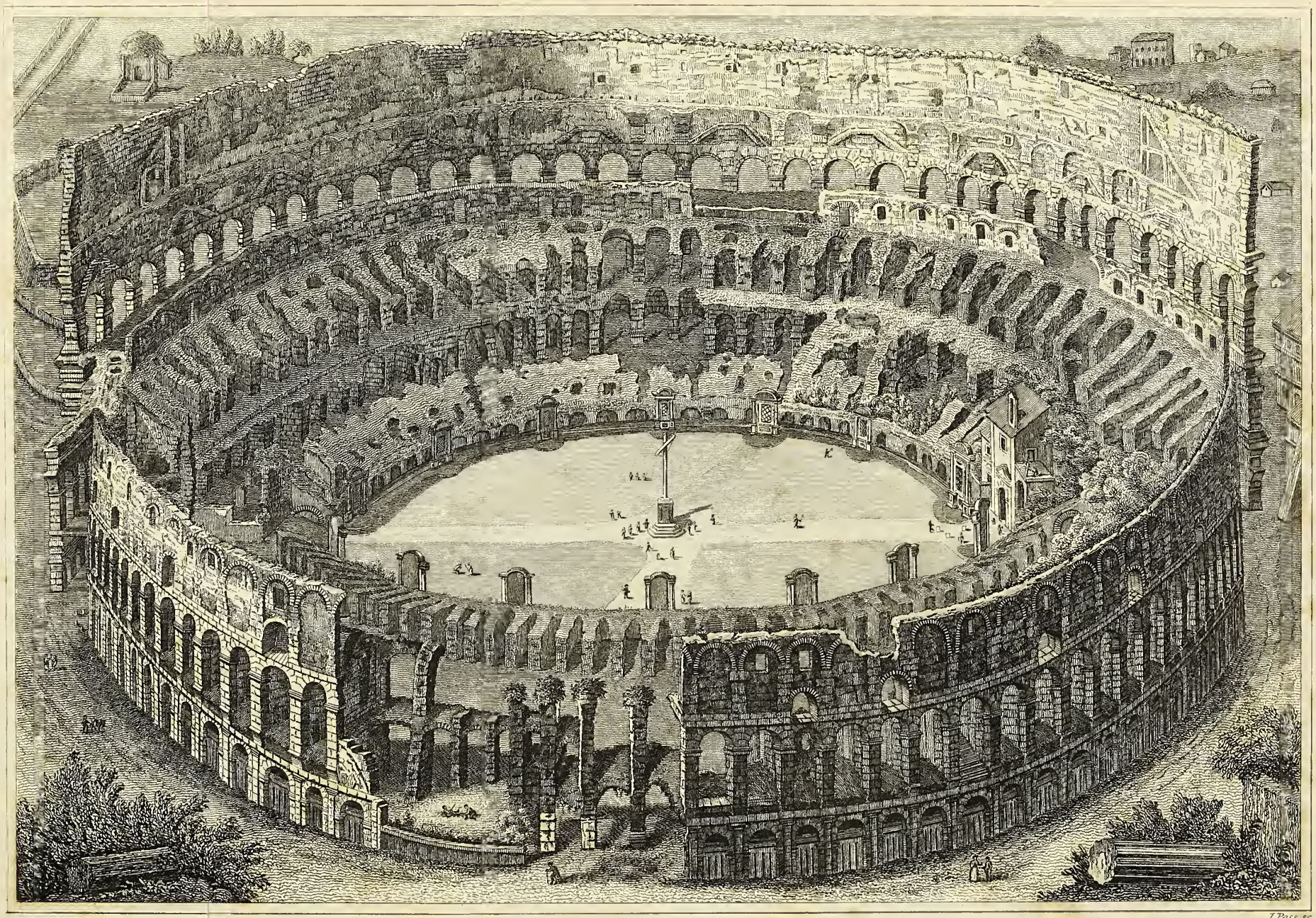

J. Pass sc.

Quamdiu stabit COLYSEUS, *stabit et Roma;*
quando cadet Colyseus cadet Roma;
quando cadet Roma cadet et Mundus.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1827.

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OR,

UNIVERSAL DICTIONARY

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PORTRAITS OF EMINENT AND LEARNED PERSONAGES, IN ALL AGES OF THE WORLD.

PROJECTED AND ARRANGED

BY JOHN WILKES, OF MILLAND HOUSE, IN THE COUNTY OF SUSSEX, ESQUIRE

ASSISTED BY EMINENT SCHOLARS OF THE ENGLISH, SCOTCH, AND IRISH, UNIVERSITIES.

VOLUME XXII.

Smithsonian Institution
254266
SWALES
COLLECTION
U.S. National Museum

London:

PRINTED FOR G. JONES, AT THE ENCYCLOPÆDIA OFFICE, 17, AVE-MARIA-LANE, ST. PAUL'S;

AND SOLD BY ALL BOOKSELLERS.

1827.

PRINTED BY GUNNELL AND SHEARMAN,
13, SALISBURY-SQUARE.

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ENCYCLOPÆDIA LONDINENSIS;

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REQUISI'TION, *s.* [*requisition*, Fr.] Demand; application for a thing as of right.—Had you been well, I am sure you would have written, according to your engagement and my *requisition*. *Ld. Chesterfield.*

REQUI'SITIVE, *adj.* Indicating demand.—Hence new modes of speaking; if we interrogate, 'tis the interrogative mode; if we require, 'tis the *requisitive*. *Harris.*

REQUI'SITORY, *adj.* [*requisitus*, Lat.] Sought for; demanded.—There are two sorts of these dreams; the one, which are called curious or *requisitory*, to which are referred the dreams sought out, demanded, and obtained, by wicked vows and profane sacrifices amongst the ancient pagans. *Summary on Du Bartas.*

REQUI'TAL, *s.* Return for any good or bad office; retaliation.

Since you
Wear out your gentle limbs in my affairs,
Be bold, you do so grow in my *requital*,
As nothing can unroot you. *Shakspeare.*

Return; reciprocal action.

No merit their aversion can remove,
Nor ill *requital* can efface their love. *Waller.*

Reward; recompense.

He oft would beg me sing;—
And in *requital* op'd his leathern scrip,
And shew'd me simples of a thousand names,
Telling their strange and vigorous faculties. *Milton.*

To REQUI'TE, *v. a.* [*requiter*, Fr.] To repay; to retaliate good or ill; to recompense.—If he love me to madness, I shall never *requite* him. *Shakspeare.*

Him within protect from harms;
He can *requite* thee, for he knows the charms
That call fame on such gentle acts as these. *Milton.*

Great idol of mankind, we neither claim
The praise of merit, nor aspire to fame!
'Tis all we beg thee to conceal from sight,
Those acts of goodness which themselves *requite*:
O let us still the secret joy partake,
To follow virtue ev'n for virtue's sake. *Pope.*

To do or give in reciprocation.—He hath *requited* me evil for good. 1 *Sam.* xxv. 21.

REQUI'TER, *s.* One who requites.—Honour is not only the guardian and parent of other virtues, but is a virtue of itself, which renders man a grateful resenter and *requiter* of courtesies. *Barrow.*

RERE FIEFS, a name given in the Scotch laws to those fiefs which were held by inferior tenants or feudatories, that cultivated the lands under the chief feudatories, who held by military service.

REREDOS, the skreen at the back of an ancient high altar, which separated it from the Lady-chapel, being, for the most part, highly ornamented with niches, canopies, and tracery work. The richest of these which have reached our time are those of Winchester and Durham cathedrals, and of St. Alban's abbey.

RE'REMOUSE, *s.* [hnepemuſ, Sax.] A bat.—See REARMOUSE.

RERIGONIUM, called by some Berigonium, a town of the Novantæ, situated somewhere in Galloway; according to Camden the present Bargeny in Carrict; but Horsley prefers Barton or Strathaven.

RERRICK, a parish of Scotland, in the stewartry of Kirkcudbright, about 10 miles long and six broad, lying on the coast of the Solway frith. Population 1224.

To RESAI'L, *v. a.* To sail back.

From Pyle *resailing*, and the Spartan court,
Horrid to speak! in ambush is decreed. *Pope.*

RESA'LE, *s.* Sale at second hand.—Monopolies and coemption of wares for *resale*, where they are not restrained, are great means to enrich. *Bacon.*

To RESALU'TE, *v. a.* [*resaluto*, Lat. *resaluer*, Fr.] To salute or greet anew.

We drew her up to land,
And trod ourselves the *resaluted* sand. *Chapman.*

To *resalute* the world with sacred light,
Leucothea wak'd. *Milton.*

To return a salutation to. *Huloet.*—Hippocrates, after a little pause, saluted him by his name; whom he *resaluted*. *Burton.*

RESAPHE, a town of Palmyrene, according to Ptolemy; but Procopius called it Sergiopolis. It was at some distance from the Euphrates.

RESCEIT, RECEPTIO, in law, an admission or receiving of a third person to plead his right, in a cause formerly commenced between other two.

As, when an action is brought against a tenant for life or years, and he makes default; in such case he in the reversion may come in and pray to be received, to defend the land, and to plead with the demandant.

Resceit is also sometimes applied to an admittance of plea, though the controversy be only between two. He in reversion may come into court, and pray to be received in a suit against his particular tenant.

Resceit of homage, receptio homagii, denotes the lord's receiving homage of his tenant, at his admission to the lands.

To RESCI'ND, *v. a.* [*rescindo*, Lat. *rescinder*, Fr.] To cut off; to abrogate a law.—It is the imposing a sacramental obligation upon him, which being the condition,

upon the performance whereof all the promises of endless bliss are made over, it is not possible to *rescind* or disclaim the standing obliged by it. *Hammond.*

RESCI'SSION, *s.* [*rescission*, Fr. *rescissus*, Lat.] The act of cutting off; abrogation.—If any infer *rescission* of their estate to have been for idolatry, that the governments of all idolatrous nations should be also dissolved, it followeth not. *Bacon.*

RESCI'SSORY, *adj.* [*rescissoire*, Fr. *rescissus*, Lat.] Having the power to cut off, or abrogate.—Primerose proposed, but half in jest as he assured me, that the better and shorter way would be to pass a general act *rescissory* (as it was called) annulling all the parliaments that had been held since the year 1633. *Burnet.*

RESCOBIE, a parish of Scotland, in Forfarshire, of an irregular figure, comprehending about 16 or 18 square miles. Population 920.

RESCOUS, or Rescussus, in law, an illegal taking away, and setting at liberty, a distress taken, or a person arrested, by process, or course of law. This is properly a rescous in fact. If one distrain beasts for damage feasant in his ground, and as he drives them along the highway towards the pound, they enter into the owner's house, and he withholds them there, and will not deliver them upon demand; this detainer is a rescous in law. For a rescous or the taking of goods by force, when, in a distress, they are in the custody of the law, which is considered as an atrocious injury, the distreiner has a remedy in damages, either by writ of rescous (F. N. B. 101.), in case they were going to the pound, or by writ de parco fracto, or pound-breach (ibid. 100.) in case they were actually impounded. He may also at his option bring an action on the case for this injury, and shall therein, if the distress were taken for rent, recover treble damages. (Stat. 2 W. & M. sess. 1. c. 5.) In case of the forcible delivery of a person arrested from the officer who is taking him to prison, the plaintiff has a similar remedy by action on the case, or of rescous (6 Mod. 201.); or, if the sheriff makes a return to such rescous to the court out of which the process issued, the rescuer will be punished by attachment. Cro. Jac. 419. Salk. 586. See Rescue.

He that commits a rescue or rescous, is called the rescussor.

Rescous is also used for a writ which lies for this fact, called breve de rescussu.

To RESCRI'BE, *v. a.* [*rescribo*, Lat. *rescrire*, Fr.] To write back.—Whenever a prince on his being consulted *rescribes* or writes back Toleramus, he dispenses with that act otherwise unlawful. *Ayliffe.*—To write over again.—Calling for more paper to *rescribe* them, he shewed him the difference betwixt the ink-box and the sand-box. *Howell.*

RE'SCRIPT, *s.* [*rescrit*, Fr. *rescriptum*, Lat.] Edict of an emperor.—The popes, in such cases, where canons were silent, did, after the manner of the Roman emperors, write back their determinations, which were stiled *rescripts* or decretal epistles, having the force of laws. *Ayliffe.*

When the rescript was made in answer to the inquiry of a community, it was called a pragmatic sanction.

The papal rescripts are a kind of bulls or monitories, beginning with these words, "Significabit nobis dilectus filius," &c. They never obtained either in England or France, when contrary to the liberties of the English and Gallican churches; but were declared abusive.

Among the Romans the contending parties and even the magistrates themselves, frequently consulted the emperor on the measures they were to take in certain and nice difficult cases; and the answers returned by the emperor on such consultations, were called rescripts. These had not, indeed, the full force of laws; but they were deemed a strong prejudice or presumption: and in succeeding ages, they had the force of perpetual laws, though they ought to be carefully distinguished, by every rational civilian, from those general constitutions which had only the nature of things for their guides.

Justinian has inserted a great number of them in the Code; and by that means given them the authority they before wanted.

The author of the life of the emperor Macrinus observes of that prince, that he would have his officers judge by laws, not by rescripts; as esteeming it absurd to admit the wills of ignorant men, such as Commodus and Caracalla, for rules of judging; and because Trajan never gave any rescripts at all, as being loth to countenance a custom, where what is frequently granted as a favour, in particular cases, might be afterwards pleaded as a precedent It is added, that Macrinus had a design to strip the rescripts of all their authority.

M. Schulting, in his Dissertations, does not at all approve of this design; and, to the emperor's reasons, answers, that indeed all rescripts are not to be admitted; that those which appear dictated out of favour, are to be thrown aside; but those which appear founded in reason, and natural equity, are, with Justinian, to be allowed. He adds, that it cannot be denied but the worst emperors have frequently made good laws, and useful rescripts.

As to what is urged of the emperor Trajan's never giving any rescripts, it appears but ill supported. For what is it but a rescript that he delivers to Pliny on the subject of the Christians, lib. x. epist. 28? Or that on the Isclastici, lib. x. epist. 120? The Digest, and Pliny's Epistles, need only to be opened and compared, to find rescripts of Trajan. The rescripts of the emperor, his grants and decrees, his edicts and pragmatic sanctions, were subscribed in purple ink, or a compound of vermilion and cinnabar; and transmitted to the provinces as general or special laws, which the magistrates were bound to execute, and the people to obey. But as their number continually multiplied, the rule of obedience became each day more doubtful and obscure, till the will of the sovereign was fixed and ascertained in the Gregorian, Hermogenian, and the Theodosian codes.

RE'SCUABLE, *adj.* [*rescuable*, Fr.] That may be rescued. *Sherwood.*—Every thing under force is *rescuable* by my function. *Gayton.*

To RE'SCUE, *v. a.* [*rescuo*, low Lat. *rescourrer*, old Fr.] To set free from any violence, confinement, or danger.—Sir Scudamore, after long sorrow, in the end met with Britomartis, who succoured him and *reskewed* his love. *Spenser.*

We're beset with thieves;
Rescue thy mistress, if thou be a man. *Shakspeare.*

RE'SCUE, *s.* [*rescous*, old Fr. *rescussus*, low Lat.] Deliverance from violence, danger, or confinement.

How comes it, you
Have holp to make this *rescue?* *Shakspeare.*

RE'SCUER, *s.* One that rescues.—They all took part with their *rescuer*, or restitutor, Quixote; and so pelted the guard, that they had very hard pay for their convoy. *Gayton.*

RESEA'RCH, *s.* [*recherche*, Fr.] Enquiry; search.—By a skilful application of those notices, may be gained in such *researches* the accelerating and bettering of fruits, emptying mines, and draining fens. *Glanville.*

To RESEA'RCH, *v. a.* [*rechercher*, Fr.] To examine; to enquire.—It is not easy to *research* with due distinction, in the actions of eminent personages, both how much may have been blemished by the envy of others, and what was corrupted by their own felicity. *Wotton.*

RESEA'RCHER, *s.* One who makes examination or enquiry.

To RESEA'T, *v. a.* To seat again.

When he's produc'd, will you *reseat* him
Upon his father's throne? *Dryden.*

RESEDA, (so named by Pliny), in botany, a genus of the class dodecandria, order trigynia, natural order miscellaneæ. Capparides, *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth inferior, of one leaf, deeply divided into narrow, erect, permanent segments, two of which are further asunder than the rest, for the accommodation of the honey-bearing petal. Corolla: petals several, unequal; some of them always cut half way down into three segments; the upper one gibbous at the base, bearing honey, the length of the calyx. Nectary,

RESEDA, RHAMNUS, AND RHODIOLA.

J. Pass sc.

1. Res. flava. 2. Rham. frangula. 3. Rhod. rosea.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1826.

tary, a flat erect gland, proceeding from the receptacle, situated at the upper side of the flower, between the stamens and uppermost petal, converging with the dilated base of the petals. Stamina: filaments eleven or fifteen, short; anthers erect, obtuse, the length of the corolla. Pistil: germ gibbous, ending in three or four very short styles; stigmas simple. Pericarp: capsule gibbous, angular, coriaceous, tipped with the styles, and gaping at the summit between them, of one cell. Seeds numerous, kidney-shaped, inserted into the angles of the capsule.

Linnæus observes, that there is scarcely any genus whose character is more difficult to determine, both the number and shape of the parts being different in different species. The essential character consists in the three-cleft petals, one petal bearing honey at its base, and the capsule not being closed, but always gaping.

1. Reseda luteola, dyer's-weed, yellow-weed, or weld.—Leaves lanceolate, undivided, flat. Calyx four-cleft.—Native of waste ground, rubbish, banks, and old walls, chiefly about villages, in most of the temperate parts of Europe. About Norwich it is very common; partly perhaps from the dispersion of its seeds, in consequence of the great use made of the cultivated herb, in the woollen manufactory of that city, for dyeing yellow. The colour it affords is very bright, and is especially useful for making a good green; the cloth being first dyed blue. The herb is annual, flowering in July. Root spindle-shaped. Stem erect, wand-like, two or three feet high, branched, leafy, striated, smooth. Leaves linear-lanceolate, entire, smooth, for the most part furnished with a small callous tooth, on each side, at the base. Flowers small, cream coloured, very numerous, in long, simple, solitary, terminal, slightly drooping spikes, which, according to Linnæus, follow the course of the sun, even in a cloudy day.

2. Reseda canescens, or hoary base-rocket.—Leaves lanceolate, waved, somewhat hairy. Branches hispid.—Native of waste ground near Cairo. *Forskall.* Probably also of the south of Europe. The stems are decumbent, branched, eighteen inches or more in length, round, leafy, rough with copious, minute, white, spreading, short, bristly hairs. Leaves scattered, lanceolate, one and a half or two inches long, bluntish, entire, wavy, and roughish at the edges, as well as at the midrib on both sides; otherwise smooth, and somewhat glaucous; tapering at the base, and sending down two elevated ribs, for some distance, along the branch. Flowers in long, terminal, stalked, hairy clusters, on short, partial stalks. Calyx five-cleft. Petals white. Germen, according to Forskall's description, stalked, with six styles. —Vahl has well remarked that reseda canescens of Sp. Pl. cannot be the same with the above. Indeed it appears to be no other than either reseda sesamoides or purpurascens, the figure of Clusius agreeing best with the former; his description and the Linnæan definition with the latter. Yet this same figure, adopted by Gerarde, seems to be the only foundation on which reseda canescens depends for a place in Hort. Kew.—We have never seen the canescens living, nor can we find a figure of it.

3. Reseda glauca, or glaucous base-rocket.—Leaves linear; toothed at the base. Styles four.—Native of the Pyrenæan mountains, and of Spain. The root is said to be perennial, but has the appearance of being annual. Whole herb glaucous, slender, and smooth. Stem twelve or eighteen inches high, simple, round, wand-like, leafy. Leaves about two inches long, very narrow; all nearly of equal breadth, furnished at the base with a few white bristly teeth. Cluster terminal, solitary, very long, of numerous white flowers, whose petals are less divided than in most other species.

4. Reseda dipetala, or flax-leaved base rocket.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope, from whence its seeds were sent to Kew, in 1774, by Mr. Masson. The plant is biennial, flowering in August, being preserved in a green-house through the winter. Vahl compares its general aspect to reseda sesamoides, hereafter described. Stem somewhat shrubby, erect, with round branches. Leaves about an inch long, rather fleshy, smooth. Cluster terminal, lax. Segments of the calyx six, minute, bordered with white. Petals only two, wedge-shaped, undivided.

5. Reseda purpurascens, or purplish base-rocket.—Native of Spain. Stems several, a span high, simple, leafy. Leaves scattered, the length of the nail, linear, obtuse, smooth. Cluster, or rather spike, long, lax. Petals very white, much divided. Styles five, sometimes, as Clusius describes them, only four. Capsule with as many protuberant, single-seeded knobs or pouches.

6. Reseda sesamoides, or spear-leaved base-rocket.—Native of Barbary, and the south of Europe. A hardy annual in Kew garden, flowering in July and August. The root is spindle-shaped, very long, tapering, and branched at the extremity. Stems numerous, spreading nearly horizontally, from three to twelve inches long, generally simple, smooth, leafy. Radical-leaves numerous, lanceolate or somewhat obovate, entire, smooth, an inch long, tapering down into a footstalk of about the same length; stem-leaves much smaller and narrower, linear and obtuse. Clusters terminal, rather dense. Petals white. Styles four or five. Capsule of the same number of spreading lobes, fringed at the edges, and assuming a star-like figure.

7. Reseda fruticulosa, or shrubby base-rocket.—Native of the south of Europe. The root and base of the stem are woody and perennial, producing a number of upright, less durable branches, two or three feet high, leafy, subdivided, smooth, round, with elevated ribs. Leaves alternate, stalked, pinnate, of five, seven, or many more, lanceolate, entire, decurrent, smooth leaflets, seldom regularly opposite; the terminal one much the largest, sometimes, but not always, recurved at the point; the lower ones gradually smallest. Clusters terminal, erect, long, and rather lax. Petals five, white, uniform, oblong, all cut, not nearly half way down, into three equal segments. Styles often four; sometimes but three. Stamens eleven.

8. Reseda alba, or white base-rocket, or upright mignonette.—Native of Spain and the south of France; as well as of Greece and the island of Zante. It has copious dense spikes, of elegant white flowers, whose petals have deeper, more numerous segments, than the foregoing. Otherwise their parts of fructification do not much differ. The number of styles, and of segments of the calyx, varies in both, according to the luxuriance of the plants. The leaflets of alba are more numerous, as well as more equal in size, than in fruticulosa, nor is the terminal one larger than the rest. Sometimes their edges are roughish. Dr. Sibthorp observed, that the whole herb, and also the bruised seed, were used in Zante to dye silk yellow.

9. Reseda undata, or wave-leaved base-rocket.—Native of Spain. A hardy perennial, flowering in summer. The stems are erect, branched, straight and wand-like, one to two feet high. Leaves unequally pinnate, very much crisped, or wavy. Flowers smaller than in either of the last, and of a less pure white, composing very long clusters, or rather spikes, for each flower is nearly sessile; the lower ones very remote. Some of the petals appear, by the dried specimens, to have three, others five, obtuse segments, of which the lateral ones are broadest. We have great doubts whether the specimen from which Linnæus took his remark of the great size of the capsules, really belongs to this species.

10. Reseda lutea, or yellow base-rocket, or wild mignonette.—Native of dry chalky hills in the temperate and southern countries of Europe; abundant in the chalky parts of England, flowering from June to the end of autumn. The root, generally annual with us, often survives a mild winter. Stems spreading, branched, leafy, a foot or more in height. Leaves tapering at the base; some of them with only one pair of lateral leaflets; others with many, which are occasionally subdivided; all the leaflets, or segments, are linear, channelled, more or less wavy; frequently very much crisped or curled. The flowers are numerous, sulphur-coloured, slightly, and not agreeably, odorous; their two upper petals with two fan-like lateral lobes, and a short linear one between; two lateral petals very unequally and

and variously three-cleft; two lower ones narrow, and almost simple.

11. Reseda phyteuma, or scentless mignonette.—Native of the south of Europe and north of Africa. The root is long and tapering. Stems very numerous, a span high, composing a large spreading tuft. Leaves broadish, tapering at the base; some of them simply obovate; others with a pair of lateral lobes. Flowers cream-coloured, in lax simple clusters. Calyx very much enlarged, and reflexed, after flowering. Petals four; the lower pair, in particular, elegantly pectinated at one side; but all of them are liable to vary, in the number and depth of their segments. Fruit pendulous, obovate, angular. Styles three.

12. Reseda Mediterranea, or Mediterranean mignonette.—Native of Palestine and of the Archipelago. This is a hardy annual, flowering all the summer, agreeing very much in appearance with the last, but still more with the following. The flowers have no scent. Their petals are six, most resembling those of reseda lutea in figure, but white, not yellow. The leaves are broader, and less divided, than in lutea, as well as quite flat; they vary, however, greatly in breadth, but are never undulated. The calyx is short, never enlarged like that of reseda phyteuma.

13. Reseda adorata, or sweet mignonette.—Native of Egypt. Well known throughout the gardens of Europe, as a hardy annual, blooming all the year round, if properly sheltered, and exhaling from its minute flowers, a delicious scent. This odour remains long in wooden boxes, where the flowers are dried. The petals are of a pale buff, prettily contrasted with the red anthers.

Propagation and Culture.—The last species is that which is chiefly cultivated in our gardens. This is raised from seed, which should be sown on a moderate hot-bed in March, and when the plants are strong enough to transplant, be pricked out upon another moderate hot-bed to bring them forward, having a large share of air in warm weather, to prevent their drawing up weak. Or they may be sown in pots of light mould, and plunged in the hot-bed, which is probably the better practice. In the first mode, about the end of May the plants may be planted out, some into pots, to place in or near the apartments, and others into warm borders, where they may remain to flower and seed. The plants which grow in the full ground, often produce more seeds than those which are in pots; but at the time when the seed-vessels begin to swell, the plants are frequently apt to be infested with green caterpillars, which, if they are not destroyed, eat off all the seed-vessels.

And when the seeds are sown on a bed of light earth in April, the plants come up very well; and when not transplanted, grow larger than those which are raised in the hot-bed; but they do not flower so early, and in cold seasons scarcely ripen their seeds. In a warm dry border, however, the seeds often come up spontaneously, and grow very luxuriantly; but to have the flowers early in spring, the seeds should be sown in pots in autumn, being kept in frames through the winter, or on a gentle hot-bed in spring. The plants may also be preserved through the winter in a green-house, where they continue flowering most part of the year, but the second year they are not so vigorous as in the first.

The seed becomes ripe in the beginning of the autumn, when it should be carefully collected in a dry season, and put by in a dry place for future use, after having been properly cleaned.

RESE'CTION, *s.* [*resection*, Fr.] Act of cutting or paring off. *Cotgrave and Sherwood.*

To RESEI'ZE, *v. a.* To seize, or lay hold on, again.—To reinstate. See *To* RESEIGE.

In wretched prison long he did remaine,
Till they outraigned had their utmost date,
And then therein *reseized* was againe,
And ruled long with honorable state
Till he surrendered realme and life to fate. *Spenser.*

RESEI'ZER, *s.* One that seizes again.

RESEI'ZURE, *s.* Repeated seizure; seizure a second time.—Here we have the charter of foundation; it is now the more easy to judge of the forfeiture or *reseizure:* deface the image, and you divest the right. *Bacon.*

RESE'MBLABLE, *adj.* [*resembler*, Fr.] That may be compared. *Obsolete.*

Man, of soul reasonable,
Is to an angell *resemblable.* *Gower.*

RESE'MBLANCE, *s.* [*resemblance*, Fr.] Likeness; similitude; representation.—One main end of poetry and painting is to please; they bear a great *resemblance* to each other. *Dryden.*—The quality produced hath commonly no *resemblance* with the thing producing it; wherefore we look on it as a bare effect of power. *Locke.*—Something resembling.—These sensible things, which religion hath allowed, are *resemblances* formed according to things spiritual, whereunto they serve as a hand to lead, and a way to direct. *Hooker.*

To RESE'MBLE, *v. a.* [*resembler*, Fr.] To compare; to represent as like something else.—Most safely may we *resemble* ourselves to God, in respect of that pure faculty, which is never separate from the love of God. *Ralegh.*—To be like; to have likeness to.—If we see a man of virtues, mixed with infirmities, fall into misfortune, we are afraid that the like misfortunes may happen to ourselves, who *resemble* the character. *Addison.*

To RESE'ND, *v. a.* To send back; to send again. *Not now in use.*

I sent to her, by this same coxcomb,
Tokens and letters, which she did *resend.* *Shakspeare.*

RESENIUS (John Paul), a Danish bishop and writer, was born at Resen, in 1561. He studied at various schools, and in 1583 became subdirector of that at Viborg. Some time after he travelled into foreign countries, took a degree at Wittemberg, and returned to Denmark in 1591. He was afterwards appointed professor of logic and theology in the university of Copenhagen, and received orders to accompany Christian IV., who proposed a visit to England to see his relation, King James. In consequence of another royal mandate, he undertook to translate the whole of the scriptures into Danish. He completed the New Testament first, which he published in two vols. 12mo. in 1605, and the Old Testament followed in 1607. This version of the bible gave rise, in 1609, to a controversy between Resenius and Ivarus Stubœus, professor of Hebrew at Copenhagen, the result of which was, that Stubœus was displaced from his office. In 1614, he was involved in another dispute with Olaf Coccius, the clergyman of Nicolas' church, Copenhagen, which ended in the disgrace and banishment of his opponent. Resenius was raised to the episcopal chair. He died in 1638, and bequeathed upwards of 5000 dollars to charitable purposes. He was author of many works, chiefly on subjects connected with theology. *Gen. Biog.*

RESENIUS (Peter), counsellor of state in Denmark, was descended from a respectable family, his father, as well as his paternal and maternal grandfather, having been successively bishops of Seland. He was born at Copenhagen in 1625, and in 1646 went to Leyden, where he applied to the study of jurisprudence and the belles lettres for four years; and then made a tour to France, Spain, and Italy. Having taken the degree of doctor of laws at Padua, he returned to Copenhagen, where he married in 1655, and two years after was appointed professor of moral philosophy. In 1680 he was ennobled, and in 1684 was nominated a counsellor of state. This learned man died in 1688, and bequeathed a thousand rix-dollars, together with his valuable library, a catalogue of which was published, to the University of Copenhagen. He was the author of various works, among which were the following: "Edda Islandorum Snorronis Sturlæ, Islandice, Danice, et Latine," *Havn.* 1665, 4to.; "Philosophia antiquissima Norvego-Danica dicta *Voluspa*, quæ est pars Eddæ Sæmundi," *Ibid.* 1665, 4to., and 1673, with an explanation or commentary by Gudmund

mund Andreæ; "Ethica Odini, vocata *Havamaal*, una cum ejusdem appendice. *Runa-Capitulo*, Islandice et Latine," *Ibid.* 1665, 4to.; "Inscriptiones Havnienses," *Ibid.* 1668, 4to.; "Jus Aulicum Norvegiæ, vulgo *Hirdskraa*, item Jus Aulicum vetus Danorum, vulgo *Vitherlags Ret*, Islandice, Danice, et Latine," *Ibid.* 1673, 4to.; "Descriptio Samsoæ," *Ibid.* 1675, fol.; "Atlas Danicus, cum fig." *Ibid.* 1677, fol. This work consists merely of copper-plates, as the text was never printed. "Gudmundi Andreæ Lexicon Islandicum," *Ibid.* 1683, 4to.; "Nonnulla Antiqua Jura Civitatum Daniæ, scilicet Havniensis et Ripensis, Latine, Danice, et Germanice," *Ibid.* 1683, 12mo.; "Eric Krabbe's German Translation of the Jutland Laws of Waldemar II.," *Cop.* 1684, 4to.; "The Laws of Christian II." *Ibid.* 1684, 4to. *Aikin.*

To RESE'NT, *v. a.* [*ressentir*, Fr.] To take well or ill.—A serious consideration of the mineral treasures of his territories, and the practical discoveries of them by way of my philosophical theory, he then so well *resented*, that afterwards, upon a mature digestion of my whole design, he commanded me to let your Lordships understand, how great an inclination he hath to further so hopeful a work. *Bacon.*—To take ill; to consider as an injury or affront. This is now the most usual sense.

Thou with scorn
And anger would'st *resent* the offer'd wrong. *Milton.*

Such proceedings have been always *resented*, and often punished in this kingdom. *Davenant.*

RESE'NTER, *s.* One who takes a thing well or ill.—Honour is not only the guardian and parent of other virtues, but is a virtue of itself, which renders man a grateful *resenter* and requiter of courtesies. *Barrow.*—One who feels injuries deeply: the most usual sense.—The earl was the worst philosopher, being a great *resenter*, and a weak dissembler of the least disgrace. *Wotton.*

RESE'NTFUL, *adj.* Malignant; easily provoked to anger, and long retaining it; full of resentment.—To soften the obdurate, to convince the mistaken, to mollify the *resentful*, are worthy of a statesman. *Johnson.*

RESE'NTINGLY, *adv.* With deep sense; with strong perception.—Hylobares judiciously and *resentingly* recapitulates your main reasonings. *More.*—With continued anger.

RESE'NTIVE, *adj.* Quick to take ill; easily excited to resentment.

From the keen *resentive* north,
By long oppression, by religion, rous'd,
The guardian army came. *Thomson.*

RESE'NTMENT, *s.* [*ressentiment*, Fr.] Strong perception of good or ill.—This psalm begins with an hallelujah—in which the people of God express a just *resentment* and grateful acknowledgment of the chiefest mercies received by their fathers. *Bp. Pearson.*—Deep sense of injury; anger long continued; sometimes simply anger.

Can heavenly minds such high *resentment* show,
Or exercise their spight in human woe? *Dryden.*

RESERVA'TION, *s.* [*reservation*, Fr.] Reserve; concealment of something in the mind.—Nor had I any *reservations* in my own soul when I passed that bill, nor repentings after. *K. Charles.*—Something kept back; something not given up.—This is academical *reservation* in matters of easy truth, or rather sceptical infidelity against the evidence of reason. *Brown.*—Custody; state of being treasured up.

He will'd me,
In heedfull'st *reservation*, to bestow them
As notes, whose faculties inclusive were,
More than they of note. *Shakspeare.*

Mental reservation is a gross hypocritical sophism, whereby the guilt of lying is supposed to be annulled by a deliberate consciousness of falsehood at the time an affirmation is made. A Scotch soldier swore to fight *for* the King of England, but being found in the ranks of the enemy, he explained a mental reservation, that by *for*, he meant *for the death of* the King.

RESE'RVATIVE, *adj.* [*reservatif*, Fr.] Reserving. *Not now in use. Cotgrave.*

RESE'RVATORY, *s.* [*réservoir*, Fr.] Place in which any thing is reserved or kept.—How I got such notice of that subterranean *reservatory* as to make a computation of the water now concealed therein, peruse the propositions concerning earthquakes. *Woodward.*

To RESE'RVE, *v. a.* [*reserver*, Fr. *reservo*, Lat.] To keep in store; to save to some other purpose.—I could add many probabilities of the names of places; but they should be too long for this, and I *reserve* them for another. *Spenser.*—To retain; to keep; to hold.

Reserve thy state, with better judgment check
This hideous rashness. *Shakspeare.*

To lay up to a future time.—The Lord knoweth how to deliver the godly out of temptations, and to *reserve* the unjust unto the day of judgment to be punished. 2 *Pet.* ii. 9.

RESE'RVE, *s.* Store kept untouched, or undiscovered.—The assent may be withheld upon this suggestion, that I know not yet all that may be said; and therefore, though I be beaten, it is not necessary I should yield, not knowing what forces there are in *reserve* behind. *Locke.*—Something kept for exigence.—Things are managed by advocates, who oftentimes seek conquest, and not justice, and ransack all *reserves* of law to support an unrighteous cause. *Kettlewell.*—Something concealed in the mind.—However any one may concur in the general scheme, it is still with certain *reserves* and deviations, and with a salvo to his own private judgment. *Addison.*—Exception; prohibition.

Is knowledge so despised?
Or envy, or what *reserve* forbids to taste? *Milton.*

Exception in favour.—Each has some darling lust, which pleads for a *reserve*, and which they would fain reconcile to the expectations of religion. *Rogers.*—Modesty; caution in personal behaviour.

Ere guardian thought could bring its scatter'd aid,
My soul surpris'd, and from herself disjoin'd,
Left all *reserve* and all the sex behind. *Prior.*

RESERVE GUARD denotes the same as a picquet guard, except that the one mounts at troop-beating, and the other at retreat-beating. See GUARD.

RESE'RVED, *adj.* Modest; not loosely free.

To all obliging, yet *reserv'd* to all,
None could himself the favour'd lover call. *Walsh.*

Sullen; not open; not frank.

Nothing *reserv'd* or sullen was to see,
But sweet regards. *Dryden.*

RESE'RVEDLY, *adv.* Not with frankness; not with openness; with reserve.—I must give only short hints, and write but obscurely and *reservedly*, until I have opportunity to express my sentiments with greater copiousness and perspicuity. *Woodward.*—Scrupulously; coldly.

He speaks *reserv'dly*, but he speaks with force;
Nor can a word be chang'd, but for a worse. *Pope.*

RESE'RVEDNESS, *s.* Closeness; want of frankness; want of openness.

Observe their gravity
And their *reservedness*, their many cautions
Fitting their persons. *B. Jonson.*

Dissimulation can but just guard a man within the compass of his own personal concerns, which yet may be more effectually done by that silence and *reservedness*, that every man may innocently practise. *South.*

RESE'RVER, *s.* One that reserves.—I am in this no *reserver* of my good will till the last. *Wotton.*

RESERVOI'R, *s.* [*reservoir*, Fr.] Place where any thing is kept in store.

Who sees pale Mammon pine amidst his store,
Sees but a backward steward for the poor;
This year a *reservoir* to keep and spare:
The next a fountain spouting through his heir. *Pope.*

RESET, in Law, the receiving or harbouring an outlawed person. Hence a receiver of an outlawed person is called a resetter.

To RESE'TTLE, *v. a.* To settle again.—Will the house of Austria yield the least article, even of usurped prerogative, to *resettle* the minds of those princes in the alliance, who are alarmed at the consequences of the emperor's death? *Swift.*

RESE'TTLEMENT, *s.* The act of settling again.—To the quieting of my passions, and the *resettlement* of my discomposed soul, I consider that grief is the most absurd of all the passions. *Norris.*—The state of settling again.—Some roll their cask to mix it with the lees, and after a *resettlement*, they rack it. *Mortimer.*

RESHD, a town of Persia, capital of Ghilan, and the only place in that province worthy the name of a town. It contains about 2000 houses, irregularly built. It is situated on the shore of the Caspian, and carries on a considerable trade in silk and other articles, with Astracan; but the harbour is unsafe in stormy weather, and commanders of ships generally prefer the neighbouring one of Lankeroon. Lat. 37. 20. N. long. 49. 50. E.

RE'SIANCE, *s.* [*rescancia*, low Lat. V. Du Cange.] Residence; abode; dwelling *Resiance* and *resiant* are now only used in law.—The king forthwith banished all Flemings out of his kingdom, commanding his merchant adventurers, which had a *resiance* in Antwerp, to return. *Bacon.*

RE'SIANT, *adj.* [*resseant*, Fr.] Resident; present in a place.—Solyman was come as far as Sophia, where the Turks' great lieutenant in Europe is always *resiant*, before that the Hungarians were aware. *Knolles.*

To RESI'DE, *v. n.* [*resideo*, Lat.] To have abode; to live; to dwell; to be present.

How can God with such *reside?* *Milton.*
In no fix'd place the happy souls *reside;*
In groves we live, and lie on mossy beds. *Dryden.*

[*Resido*, Lat.] To sink; to subside; to fall to the bottom. —Oil of vitriol and petroleum, a dram of each, turn into a mouldy substance; there *residing* in the bottom a fair cloud, and a thick oil on the top. *Boyle.*

RE'SIDENCE, or RE'SIDENCY, *s.* [*residence*, Fr.] Act of dwelling in a place.

Something holy lodges in that breast,
And with these raptures move the vocal air,
To testify his hidden *residence.* *Milton.*

Place of abode; dwelling.

Within the infant rind of this small flower,
Poison hath *residence*, and medicine power. *Shakspeare.*

[*Resido*, Lat.] That which settles at the bottom of liquors.—Separation is wrought by weight, as in the ordinary *residence* or settlement of liquors. *Bacon.*

By the rule of the ancient canon law, beneficiaries are obliged to residence, without just and necessary cause, and especially without the consent of the diocesan, under pain of deprivation of their benifices. The original reason is, that in the primitive church none were promoted to holy orders, but such as had a benefice in promptu, which they were obliged to serve; so that this service was necessarily attached to the orders; and whoever was honoured with them, at the same time was obliged to perform personal service.

Regularly, personal residence is required of ecclesiastical persons upon their cures; and to that end, by the canon law, if he that hath a benifice with cure be chosen to an office of bailiff, or beadle, or the like secular office, he may have the king's writ for his discharge. The intendment of the common law is that a clerk is resident upon his cure. 2 Inst. 625

Residence is also required by statute 9 Ed. II. stat. 1. c. 8. called the statute articuli cleri. Thus also, by 21 Henry VIII. c. 13. commonly called the statute of non-residence, persons wilfully absenting themselves from their benefices for one month together, or two months in the year, incur a penalty of 5*l.* to the king, and 5*l.* to any person that will sue for the same; but the king's service or king's pleasure exempts them, and by a more recent enactment, situations in the universities and some others are exceptions.

But by 43 Geo. III. c. 84. it is enacted, that so much of 21 Hen. VIII. c. 13. as imposes the penalty of ten pounds, shall be repealed; and that every spiritual person who shall wilfully absent himself from his cure for three months together (or several times in any one year), and make his residence at any other place or places, except at some other dignity, prebend, benefice, donative, perpetual curacy, or parochial chapelry, of which he may be possessed, shall, when such absence shall exceed such period, and not exceed six months, forfeit one-third of the annual value of his office; and when such absence shall exceed six months, and not eight months, one-half of such annual value; and when such absence shall exceed eight months, two-thirds of such annual value; and when such absence shall have been for the whole year, three-fourths of such annual value; to be recovered by action of debt, bill, plaint, or information, in any of his majesty's courts of record at Westminster, or the courts of great sessions in Wales, wherein no essoign, privilege, protection, or wager of law, or more than one imparlance, shall be allowed; and the whole of every such penalty or forfeiture shall go and be paid to the person or persons who shall inform and sue for the same, together with such costs of suit as shall be allowed; provided that no parsonage that hath a vicar endowed, or perpetual curate, and having no cure of souls, shall be taken to be or be comprehended under the name of benefice, within the meaning of this act. s. 12.

It shall be lawful for any bishop to grant licences to spiritual persons within his diocese, to reside out of the proper house of residence, or out of the parish, and within such distance therefrom, as the case may appear to such bishop to require, if such bishop shall, in his discretion, think the same fit and proper; provided, that in every such case, the reasons that have induced such bishop to grant such licence shall be transmitted to his archbishop, who shall allow or disallow such licence, or make any alteration therein which shall seem fit.

If any person, returning to residence on monition, shall before six months thereafter absent himself, the bishop may, without monition, sequestrate the profits of the benefice. s. 32.

If any clerk shall continue under any sequestration for non-residence for the space of three years, or shall incur three sequestrations in the said space of three years, not being relieved with respect to any of such sequestrations, upon appeal, the benefice shall become *ipso facto* void, and the patron or person entitled to present or nominate some clerk thereto, other than the clerk who shall have so continued under such sequestration or sequestrations.

RE'SIDENT, *adj.* [*residens*, Lat.] Dwelling or having abode in any place.—He is not said to be *resident* in a place, who comes thither with a purpose of retiring immediately; so also he is said to be absent, who is absent with his family. *Ayliffe.*—Fixed.—The unskilful, unexperienced Christian shrieks out whenever his vessel shakes, thinking it always in danger, that the watery pavement is not stable and *resident* like a rock. *Bp. Taylor.*

RE'SIDENT, *s.* An agent, minister, or officer residing in any distant place with the dignity of an ambassador.—The pope fears the English will suffer nothing like a *resident* or consul in his kingdoms. *Addison.*

Residents are a class of public ministers inferior to ambassadors and envoys; but like them, they are under the protection of the law of nations.

RESIDENT, *Residens*, in our ancient customs, was a tenant who

who was obliged to reside on his lord's land, and not to depart from the same, called also *homme levant* and *couchant*, and in Normandy *resseant du fief*.

"Quantumque de aliis teneat, ei magis obnoxius est; et ejus residens esse debet, cujus legius est." Leg. H. I.

RESIDE'NTIARY, *adj.* Holding residence.—Christ was the conductor of the Israelites into the land of Canaan, and their *residentiary* guardian. *More.*

RESIDE'NTIARY, *s.* One who keeps a certain residence.—*Residentiaries* in any cathedral or collegiate church shall, after the days of their residency appointed by their local statutes or customs expired, presently repair to their benefices. *Const. and Canons Eccl.* 44.

RESI'DER, *s.* One who resides in a particular place.—We being persons of considerable estates in the kingdom, and *residers* therein. *Swift.*

RESI'DUAL, or RESI'DUARY, *adj.* [*residuum*, Lat.] Relating to the residue; relating to the part remaining.—'Tis enough to lose the legacy, or the *residuary* advantage of the estate left him by the deceased. *Ayliffe.*

RESIDUAL ANALYSIS, is a branch of algebra invented by Landen, and applied to the solution of those problems usually solved by means of the differential and integral calculus, or the direct and inverse method of fluxions; by which he thought to avoid the objections generally made to the new calculus under either of the above forms. With regard to the fluxional process, he thought it more free from objection than the differential calculus; although many important ones might be discovered in it. However natural, says the author, it may be, in certain problems, to consider such magnitudes as enter therein, to be generated by motion, it seems very unnatural to bring motion into consideration in the solution of questions purely algebraical. Nor does it seem natural in the solution of problems concerning the motion of bodies, to superinduce imaginary motions, and thereby bring into consideration the velocity of time, the velocity of velocity, &c.; nor yet does it appear more natural, in the resolution of other problems, to make use of the fluxionary method, when (as is most commonly the case in that doctrine) the fluxions introduced into the process can, only in a figurative sense, be said to be the velocities of increase of the quantities called their fluents; such figurative expressions not being the natural language of analytics, but frequently, instead of conveying clear and distinct ideas, are confusedly employed in treating of quantities as generated by motion, which in reality cannot be conceived to be so generated. That these are legal objections to the doctrine of fluxions we are not disposed to deny; but it is now generally admitted, that the defect of the fluxionary calculus is by far less than that which has place in the residual analysis, which M. Landen was desirous of substituting for it. Indeed, we believe its defects were so obvious, that few, if any, mathematicians were induced to make it the foundation of any of their investigations; and it would, therefore, be useless for us to occupy our pages in explaining the principles on which the author rested his calculus. We shall, therefore, merely observe, that in this analysis, a geometrical or physical problem is reduced to another purely algebraical; and the solution is then obtained without any supposition of motion, and without considering quantities as composed of infinitely small particles.

RESIDUAL Figure, in Geometry, the figure remaining after subtraction of a lesser from a greater.

RESIDUAL Root, is a root composed of two parts or members, only connected together with the sign —.

Thus, $a - b$, or $5 - 3$, is a residual root; and is so called, because its true value is no more than its residue, or difference between the parts a and b, or 5 and 3.

RE'SIDUE, [*residuum*, Lat.] The remaining part; that which is left.—The causes are all such as expel the most volatile parts of the blood, and fix the *residue*. *Arbuthnot.*

To RESIE'GE, *v. a.* To seat again.

To RESI'GN, *v. a.* [*resigno*, Lat.] To give up a claim or possession.

Resign
Your crown and kingdom, indirectly held. *Shakspeare.*

To yield up.

Desirous to *resign* and render back
All I receiv'd. *Milton.*

Those, who always *resign* their judgment to the last man they heard or read, truth never sinks into those men's minds; but, cameleon-like, they take the colour of what is laid before them, and as soon lose and resign it to the next that comes in their way. *Locke.*—To give up in confidence: with *up* emphatical.—What more reasonable, than that we should in all things *resign* up ourselves to the will of God. *Tillotson.*—To submit; particularly to submit to providence.

Happy the man, who studies nature's laws,
His mind possessing in a quiet state,
Fearless of fortune, and *resign'd* to fate. *Dryden.*

To submit without resistance or murmur.—What thou art, *resign* to death. *Shakspeare.*

RESI'GN, s. Resignation. *Not in use.*

You have gain'd more in a royal brother,
Than you could lose by your *resign* of Epire. *Beaum. and Fl.*

RESIGNA'TION, *s.* [*resignation*, Fr.] The act of resigning or giving up a claim or possession.

Do that office of thine own good will;
The *resignation* of thy state and crown. *Shakspeare.*

Submission; unresisting acquiescence.—There is a kind of sluggish *resignation*, as well as poorness and degeneracy of spirit in a state of slavery, that very few will recover themselves out of it. *Addison.*—Submission without murmur to the will of God.

RESI'GNEDLY, *adv.* With resignation.

RESI'GNER, *s.* One that resigns.

RESI'GNMENT, *s.* Act of resigning.

Here I am, by his command, to cure ye,
Nay more, for ever, by his full *resignment*. *Beaum. and Fl.*

RESI'LIENCE, or RESI'LIENCY, [*resilio*, Lat.] The act of starting or leaping back.—If you strike a ball sidelong, the rebound will be as much the contrary way; whether there be any such *resilience* in echoes, that is, whether a man shall hear better if he stand aside the body repercussing, than if he stand where he speaketh, may be tried. *Bacon.*

RESI'LIENT, *adj.* [*resiliens*, Lat.] Starting or springing back.

RESILI'TION, *s.* [*resilio*, Lat.] The act of springing back; resilience.

RE'SIN, *s.* [*resina*, Lat.] The fat sulphurous parts of some vegetable, which is natural or procured by art, and will incorporate oil or spirit, not an aqueous menstruum. Those vegetable substances that will dissolve in water are gums, those that will not dissolve and mix but with spirits or oil are resins. *Quincy.*

RESINA, a town of Italy, situated close to Portici, from which it is separated by the royal palace. It is built partly on the site of the ancient Herculaneum, and is a populous place, containing 7800 inhabitants; 5 miles east of Naples.

RESINAR, a small town of Transylvania, in the province of Hermannstadt, and the see of a bishop of the Wallachian Greek church.

RE'SINOUS, *adj.* [*resineux*, Fr.] Containing resin; consisting of resin.—*Resinous* gums dissolved in spirit of wine, are let fall again, if the spirit be copiously diluted. *Boyle.*

RE'SINOUSNESS, *s.* The quality of being resinous.

RESIPI'SCENCE, *s.* [*resipiscentia*, low Lat.] Wisdom after the fact; repentance.—So powerful is the impression of a Divinity in human nature, that the most erring beliefs are forced to discern the utility, and the most perverted lives the necessity, of such a sovereign; who abounds with such benignity even towards these irritations, that he provides motives

motives respectively proper for the rectifying each of these errors; offering the ingenuous reason, and the sensual fear, towards their disabuse and *resipiscence*. *W. Mountagu.*

To RESI'ST, *v. a.* [*resisto*, Lat. *resister*, Fr.] To oppose; to act against.

To do ill our sole delight,
As being the contrary to his high will
Whom we *resist*. *Milton.*

To not admit impression or force.—Nor keen nor solid could *resist* that edge. *Milton.*

To RESI'ST, *v. n.* To make opposition.

All the regions
Do seemingly revolt; and, who *resist*,
Are mock'd for valiant ignorance,
And perish constant fools. *Shakspeare.*

RESI'STANCE, or RESI'STENCE, *s.* [*resistance*, Fr. This word, like many others, is differently written, as it is supposed to have come from the Latin or the French.] The act of resisting; opposition.—Demetrius, seeing that the land was quiet, and that no *resistance* was made against him, sent away all his forces. 1 *Mac.*—The quality of not yielding to force or external impression.—The idea of solidity we receive by our touch, and it arises from the *resistance* which we find in body to the entrance of any other body into the place it possesses. *Locke.*

For Resistance of solids, see MECHANICS, p. 653, where the laws of the resistance of the fibres or of the cohesive power are set forth; and the same article, p. 673, where the laws of friction or the resistance of surfaces are expounded.

RESI'STANT, *s.* Whoever or whatever opposes or resists.—According to the degrees of power in the agent and *resistant*, is an action performed or hindered. *Pearson.*

RESI'STER, *s.* One who makes opposition. *Huloet.*—To the *resisters*, and violent contemners, it burns and consumes like lightning.

RESISTIBI'LITY, *s.* Quality of resisting.—The name body, being the complex idea of extension and *resistibility*, together, in the same subject, these two ideas are not exactly one and the same. *Locke.*—Quality of being resistible.—It is from corruption, and liberty to do evil, meeting with the *resistibility* of this sufficient grace, that one resists it. *Hammond.*

RESI'STIBLE. *adj.* That may be resisted.—That is irresistible; this, though potent, yet is in its own nature *resistible* by the will of man; though it many times prevails by its efficacy. *Hale.*

RESI'STIVE, *adj.* Having power to resist.

I have an excellent new fucus made,
Resistive 'gainst the sun, the rain, or wind,
Which you shall lay on with a breath or oil. *B. Jonson.*

RESI'STLESS, *adj.* Irresistible; that cannot be opposed.

Since you can love, and yet your error see,
The same *resistless* power may plead for me. *Dryden.*

She chang'd her state;
Resistless in her love, as in her hate. *Dryden.*

That cannot resist; helpless.

Like a grim lion rushing with fierce might
Out of his den, he seized greedily
On the *resistless* prey. *Spenser.*

RESI'STLESSLY, *adv.* So as not to be opposed or denied.—'Tis *resistlessly* plain, that the divine writers do not always confine themselves to plain and common grammar, but often express their vigorous sentiments in the language of the figurative construction. *Blackwall.*

RESITZA, a small town of Russian Lithuania, in the government of Minsk; 76 miles north-west of Czernigov.

RESO'LVABLE, *adj.* That may be referred or reduced.—Pride is of such intimate connection with ingratitude, that the actions of ingratitude seem directly *resolvable* into pride, as the principal reason of them. *South.*—Dissoluble; admitting separation of parts.—As the serum of the blood is *resolvable* by a small heat, a greater heat coagulates, so as to turn it horny, like parchment. *Arbuthnot.*—Capable of solution or of being made less obscure.—The effect is wonderful in all, and the causes best *resolvable* from observations made in the countries themselves, the parts through which they pass. *Brown.*

RE'SOLUBLE, *adj.* [*re* and *solubilis*, Lat.] That may be melted or dissolved.—Three is not precisely the number of the distinct elements, whereinto mixt bodies are *resoluble* by fire. *Boyle.*

To RESO'LVE, *v. a.* [*resolvo*, Lat. *resoudre*, Fr.] To inform; to free from a doubt or difficulty.

Give me some breath,
Before I positively speak in this;
I will *resolve* your grace immediately. *Shakspeare.*

I cannot brook delay, *resolve* me now;
And what your pleasure is, shall satisfy me. *Shakspeare.*

To solve; to clear.—Happiness, it was *resolved* by all, must be some one uniform end, proportioned to the capacities of human nature, attainable by every man, independent on fortune. *Rogers.*—To settle in an opinion.

Long since we were *resolved* of your truth,
Your faithful service, and your toil in war. *Shakspeare.*

To fix in a determination. This sense is rather neutral, though in these examples the form be passive.

I run to meet th' alarms,
Resolv'd on death, *resolv'd* to die in arms. *Dryden.*

Resolv'd for sea, the slaves thy baggage pack;
Nothing retards thy voyage, unless
Thy other lord forbids voluptuousness. *Dryden.*

To fix in constancy; to confirm.

Quit presently the chapel, or *resolve* you
For more amazement:
I'll make the statue move. *Shakspeare.*

To melt; to dissolve; to disperse.—To relax; to lay at ease.

And how his limbs, *resolv'd* through idle leisure,
Unto sweet sleep he may securely lend. *Spenser.*

To analyse; to reduce.

Ye immortal souls, who once were men,
And now *resolv'd* to elements agen. *Dryden.*

To RESO'LVE, *v. n.* To determine; to decree within one's self.

Confirm'd, then, I *resolve*
Adam shall share with me. *Milton.*

To melt; to be dissolved.

Have I not hideous death within my view?
Retaining but a quantity of life,
Which bleeds away, ev'n as a form of wax
Resolveth from its figure 'gainst the fire. *Shakspeare.*

To be settled in opinion.—Let men *resolve* of that as they please: this every intelligent being must grant, that there is something that is himself, that he would have happy. *Locke.*

RESO'LVE, *s.* Resolution; fixed determination.

I'm glad, you thus continue your *resolve*,
To suck the sweets of sweet philosophy. *Shakspeare.*

RESO'LVEDLY, *adv.* With firmness and constancy.—A man may be *resolvedly* patient unto death; so that it is not the mediocrity of resolution, which makes the virtue; nor the extremity, which makes the vice. *Grew.*

RESO'LVEDNESS, *s.* Resolution; constancy; firmness.—This *resolvedness*, this high fortitude in sin, can with no reason be imagined a preparative to its remission. *Dec. of Chr. Picty.*

RESO'LVENT, *s.* [*resolvens*, Lat.] Medicine which was supposed to have the power of causing solution.—In the beginning of inflammation, they require repellents; and in the increase, somewhat of *resolvents* ought to be mixed. *Wiseman.*

Under

Under this description came unguents, plasters, &c.; but these things have no resolvent power. They stimulate or sooth, and no other action is possible.

RESO'LVER, *s.* One that forms a firm resolution.—Thy resolutions were not before sincere; consequently God, that saw that, cannot be thought to have justified that unsincere *resolver*, that dead faith. *Hammond.*—Whoever or whatever solves or clears.—A good *resolver* of all cases of conscience. *Burnet.*—What dissolves; what separates parts; what disperses.—It may be doubted, whether or no the fire be the genuine and universal *resolver* of mixed bodies. *Boyle.*

RE'SOLUTE, *adj.* [*resolu*, Fr.] Determined; fixed; constant; steady; firm.

Be bloody, bold, and *resolute;* laugh to scorn
The power of man; for none of woman born
Shall harm Macbeth. *Shakspeare.*

RE'SOLUTE, *s.* A determined person; one bent to a particular purpose.

Young Fortinbras
Hath, in the skirts of Norway, here and there,
Shark'd up a list of landless *resolutes,*
For food and diet, to some enterprize
That hath a stomach in't. *Shakspeare.*

RE'SOLUTELY, *adv.* Determinately; firmly; constantly; steadily.—Some of those facts he examines, some he *resolutely* denies; others he endeavours to extenuate, and the rest he distorts with unnatural turns. *Swift.*

RE'SOLUTENESS, *s.* Determinateness; state of being fixed in resolution.—All that my *resoluteness* to make use of my ears, not tongue, could do, was to make them acquiesce. *Boyle.*

RESOLU'TION, *s.* [*resolutio*, Lat. *resolution*, Fr.] Act of clearing difficulties.—The unravelling and *resolution* of the difficulties that are met with in the execution of the design, are the end of an action. *Dryden and Lee.*—Analysis; act of separating any thing into constituent parts.—To the present impulses of sense, memory, and instinct, all the sagacity of brutes may be reduced; though witty men, by analytical *resolution*, have chymically extracted an artificial logic out of their actions. *Hale.*—Dissolution.—In the hot springs of extreme cold countries, the first heats are unsufferable, which proceed out of the *resolution* of humidity congealed. *Digby.*—Fixed determination; settled thought.

I' th' progress of this business,
Ere a determinate *resolution,*
The bishop did require a respite. *Shakspeare.*

Constancy; firmness; steadiness in good or bad.

What reinforcement we may gain from hope,
If not what *resolution* from despair. *Milton.*

Determination of a cause in courts of justice.—Nor have we all the acts of parliament or of judicial *resolutions,* which might occasion such alterations. *Hale.*

Resolution of Equations in Algebra, see Algebra.

RESOLUTION BAY, a bay on the west coast of St. Christina, one of the Marquesas islands, in the South Pacific ocean. It has sometimes been called the Port of Mendana, as having been discovered by that Spanish circumnavigator in 1595, and, as well as the islands, received his name. It obtained the name of Resolution Bay, in consequence of that ship anchoring there the 7th of April 1774, in Captain Cook's second voyage round the world. The neighbouring country is well inhabited. All the north side of the land here is a black burnt hill, to the summit of which several vallies lead from the beach. Along the top, which seems steep, appear fortified villages, inclosed by palisadoes. The vallies in this bay are full of trees. Lat. 9. 55. S. long. 139. 8. W.

RESOLUTION ISLAND, one of the Society Islands, in the South Pacific ocean, about 4 miles long. It is low and woody, scarcely emerging above the sea. Lat. 17. 24. S. long. 141. 39. W.

RESOLUTION ISLAND, an island in the North Atlantic ocean, 60 miles in circumference, situated on the north side of the entrance into Hudson's straits. Lat. 61. 40. N. long. 65. W.

RESOLUTION PORT, a bay or harbour of the island of Tanna, in the South Pacific ocean. Lat. 19. 32. S. long. 169. 40. E.

RESOLU'TIONER, *s.* One who joins in the declaration of others.—A great division followed in the kirk; those who adhered to these resolutions were called the public *resolutioners. Burnet.*

RE'SOLUTIVE, *adj.* [*resolutus*, Lat. *resolutif*, Fr.] Having the power to dissolve or relax.

RE'SONANCE, *s.* [*resono*, Lat.] Sound; resound.—An ancient musician informed me, that there were some famous lutes that attained not their full seasoning and best *resonance*, till they were about fourscore years old. *Boyle.*

RE'SONANT, *adj.* [*resonans*, Lat.] Resounding.

His volant touch
Fled and pursu'd transverse the *resonant* fugue. *Milton.*

To RESO'RB, *v. a.* [*resorbeo*, Lat.] To swallow up.

A race
Most wretched, but from streams of mutual love;
And uncreated, but for love divine;
And, but for love divine, this moment, lost,
By fate *resorb'd*, and sunk in endless night. *Young.*

RESO'RBENT, *adj.* [*resorbens*, Lat.] Swallowing up.

Again *resorbent* ocean's wave
Receives the waters, which it gave,
From thousand rills with copious currents fraught. *Wodhull.*

To RESO'RT, *v. n.* [*ressortir*, Fr.] To have recourse.—The king thought it time to *resort* to other counsels, and to provide force to chastise them, who had so much despised all his gentler remedies. *Clarendon.*—To go publicly.

Thither shall all the valiant youth *resort,*
And from his memory inflame their breasts
To matchless valour. *Milton.*

To repair to.

The sons of light
Hasted, *resorting* to the summons high. *Milton.*

To fall back.—In law. The inheritance of the son never *resorted* to the mother or to any of her ancestors, but both were totally excluded from the succession. *Hale.*

RESO'RT, *s.* Frequency; assembly; meeting.—Unknown, unquestion'd in that thick *resort. Dryden.*—Concourse; confluence.—The like places of *resort* are frequented by men out of place. *Swift.*—Act of visiting.—Join with me to forbid him her *resort. Shakspeare.*—[*Resort*, Fr.] Movement; active power; spring: a gallicism.

In fortune's empire blindly thus we go,
We wander after pathless destiny,
Whose dark *resorts* since prudence cannot know,
In vain it would provide for what shall be. *Dryden.*

RESORT, Loch, an extensive arm of the sea, on the west coast of the island of Lewis, one of the Hebrides, forming the division between Lewis and Harris.

RESO'RTER, *s.* One that frequents, or visits.—'Tis the better for you that your *resorters* stand upon sound legs. *Shakspeare.*

RESOUL, the Messenger, a name of Mahomet.

RESOULABAD, a town of Hindostan, province of Agra, and district of Etaweh. Lat. 26. 38. N. long. 79. 47. E.

To RESOU'ND, *v. a.* [*resono*, Lat. *resonner*, Fr.] To echo; to sound back; to return as sound.

With other echo late I taught your shades,
To answer and *resound* far other song. *Milton.*

To celebrate by sound.

The sound of hymns, wherewith thy throne
Encompass'd shall *resound* the ever blest. *Milton.*

To sound; to tell so as to be heard far.

The man, for wisdom's various arts renown'd,
Long exercis'd in woes, oh muse! *resound.* *Pope.*

To RESOU'ND, *v. n.* To be echoed back.—What is common fame, which sounds from all quarters of the world, and *resounds* back to them again, but generally a loud, rattling, impudent lye? *South*—To be much and loudly mentioned.

What *resounds* in fable or romance
Of Uther's sons. *Milton.*

RESOU'ND, *s.* Echo; return of sound.

The only noise which rolled through that sky,
Were holy echoes that to her did bear
The sweet *resounds* of those rich anthems. *Beaumont.*

RESOU'RCE, *s.* [*ressource*, Fr. Skinner derives it from *resoudre*, Fr. to spring up.] Some new or unexpected means that offer; resort; expedient.

Pallas view'd
His foes pursuing, and his friends pursu'd;
Us'd threatnings, mix'd with pray'rs, his last *resource*;
With these to move their minds, with those to fire their force.
Dryden.

RESOU'RCELESS, *adj.* Wanting resource.—A poor, unfruitful, and *resourceless* subjection. *Burke.*

To RESO'W, *v. a.* To sow anew.—Over wet at sowing time breedeth much dearth, insomuch as they are forced to *resow* summer corn. *Bacon.*

To RESPEA'K, *v. n.* To answer in the same terms.

The great cannon to the clouds shall tell,
And the king's rouse the heav'n shall bruit again,
Respeaking earthly thunder. *Shakspeare.*

To RESPE'CT, *v. a.* [*respectus*, Lat.] To regard; to have regard to.

Claudio, I quake,
Lest thou should'st seven winters more *respect*
Than a perpetual honour. *Shakspeare.*

[*Respecter*, Fr.] To consider with a lower degree of reverence.—I always loved and *respected* Sir William. *Swift.*—To have relation to: as, the allusion *respects* an ancient custom.—To look toward.—The needle doth vary, as it approacheth the pole; whereas, were there such direction from the rocks, upon a nearer approachment, it would more directly *respect* them. *Brown.*

RESPE'CT, *s.* [*respectus*, Lat.] Regard; attention.

You have too much *respect* upon the world;
They lose it, that do buy it with much care. *Shakspeare.*

Reverence; honour.

You know me dutiful, therefore
Let me not shame *respect;* but give me leave
To take that course by your consent and voice. *Shakspeare.*

Reverent affection.—He, that will have his son have a *respect* for him, must have a great reverence for his son. *Locke.*—Goodwill.

Pembroke has got
A thousand pounds a year, for pure *respect;*
No other obligation?
That promises more thousands. *Shakspeare.*

Partial regard.—It is not good to have *respect* of persons in judgment. *Prov.*—Reverend character.

Many of the best *respect* in Rome,
Groaning under this age's yoke,
Have wish'd that noble Brutus had his eyes. *Shakspeare.*

Manner of treating others.—The duke's carriage was to the gentlemen of fair *respect*, and bountiful to the soldier, according to any special value which he spied in any. *Wotton.*—Consideration; motive.

The love of him, and this *respect* beside;
For that my grandsire was an Englishman,
Awakes my conscience to confess all this. *Shakspeare.*

Relation; regard.—They believed but one supreme deity, which, with *respect* to the various benefits men received from him, and several titles. *Tillotson.*

RESPECTABI'LITY, *s.* State or quality of being respectable.—The great *respectability* of his character. *Cumberland.*—Decorum, the great outguard of the sex and the proud sentiment of honour, makes virtue more *respectable. Burke.*

RESPE'CTABLY, *adv.* With respect; so as to merit respect.

RESPE'CTABLENESS, *s.* State or quality of being respectable.

RESPE'CTER. *s.* One that has partial regard.—Neither is any condition more honourable in the sight of God than another; otherwise he would be a *respecter* of persons: for he hath proposed the same salvation to all. *Swift.*

RESPE'CTFUL, *adj.* Ceremonious; full of outward civility.

Will you be only, and for ever mine?
From this dear bosom shall I ne'er be torn?
Or you grow cold, *respectful*, or forsworn? *Prior.*

RESPE'CTFULLY, *adv.* With some degree of reverence.

So your glad genius sacrifice this day,
Let common meats *respectfully* give way. *Dryden.*

RESPE'CTFULNESS, *s.* The quality of being respectful.

RESPE'CTIVE, *adj.* Particular; relating to particular persons or things.—Moses mentions the immediate causes, and St. Peter the more remote and fundamental causes, that constitution of the heavens, and that constitution of the earth, in reference to their *respective* waters, which made that world obnoxious to a deluge. *Burnet.*—[*Respectif*, Fr.] Relative; not absolute.—The medium intended is not an absolute, but a *respective* medium: the proportion recommended to all is the same; but the things to be desired in this proportion will vary. *Rogers.*—Worthy of reverence. *Not in use.*

What should it be, that he respect in her,
But I can make *respective* in myself. *Shakspeare*

Careful; cautious; attentive to consequences. *Obsolete.*—*Respective* and wary men had rather seek quietly their own, and that the world may go well, so it be not long of them, than with pain and hazard make themselves adviser for the common good. *Hooker.*

RESPE'CTIVELY, *adv.* Particularly; as each belongs to each.—The interruption of trade between the English and Flemish began to pinch the merchants of both nations, which moved them by all means to dispose their sovereigns *respectively* to open the intercourse again. *Bacon.*—Relatively; not absolutely.—If there had been no other choice, but that Adam had been left to the universal, Moses would not then have said, eastward in Eden, seeing the world had not east nor west, but *respectively. Raleigh.*—Partially; with respect to private views. *Obsolete.*—Among the ministers themselves, one being so far in estimation above the rest, the voices of the rest were likely to be given for the most part *respectively* with a kind of secret dependency. *Hooker.*—With great reverence. *Not in use.*—Honest Flaminius, you are very *respectively* welcome. *Shakspeare.*

RESPE'CTLESS, *adj.* Having no respect; without regard; without consideration; without reverence.—'Tis the common fortune of most scholars to be servile and poor, to complain pitifully, and lay open their wants to their *respectless* patrons. *Burton.*

RESPE'CTLESSNESS, *s.* State of being respectless; inattention; regardlessness.—That which he did, was to lay his elbow on the arm of his chair, and his hand on his cheek; desiring Camilla to bear with his *respectlessness* therein. *Shelton.*

To RESPE'RSE, *v. a.* To sprinkle; to disperse in small masses.—Love and consider the rare documents of Christianity, which certainly is the greatest treasure-house of those excellent, moral, and perfective discourses, which with much pains and greater pleasure we find *respersed* and thinly scattered in all the Greek and Roman poets, historians, and philosophers. *Bp. Taylor.*

RESPE'RSION, *s.* [*respersio*, Lat.] The act of sprinkling.

RESPIRA'TION, *s.* [*respiratio*, from *respiro*, Lat.] The act of breathing. See the article PHYSIOLOGY. p. 340.—Apollonius of Tyana affirmed, that the ebbing and flowing of the sea was the *respiration* of the world, drawing in water as breath, and putting it forth again. *Bacon.*—Relief from toil.

Till the day
Appear of *respiration* to the just,
And vengeance to the wicked. *Milton.*

Interval.—Some meet *respiration* of a more full trial and inquiry into each other's condition. *Bp. Hall.*

To RESPI'RE, *v. n.* [*respiro*, Lat.] To breathe.

The ladies gasp'd, and scarcely could *respire;*
The breath they drew, no longer air, but fire,
The fainty knights were scorch'd. *Dryden.*

To catch breath.

I, a prisoner chain'd, scarce freely draw
The air imprison'd also, close and damp,
Unwholesome draught; but here I feel amends,
The breath of heaven fresh blowing, pure, and sweet,
With day-spring born; here leave me to *respire.* *Milton.*

To rest; to take rest from toil.

Hark! he strikes the golden lyre;
And see! the tortur'd ghosts *respire,*
See shady forms advance! *Pope.*

To RESPI'RE, *v. a.* To breathe out; to send out in exhalations.

The air *respires* the pure Elysian sweets
In which she breathes, and from her looks descend
The glories of the summer. *B. Jonson.*

RESPI'RABLE, *adj.* That can respire.

RESPI'RATORY, *adj.* Having power to respire.—In the construction of the *respiratory* organs, a bird and a snake are not the same. *Hunter.*

RE'SPITE, *s.* [*respit*, Fr. Johnson; *respectus*, Lat. *Menage; respitare*, Lat.] (As giving time to breathe.) *Du Cange.*—Reprieve; suspension of a capital sentence.

I had hope to spend
Quiet, though sad, the *respite* of that day,
That must be mortal to us both. *Milton.*

Pause; interval.—This customary war, which troubleth all the world, giving little *respite* or breathing time of peace, doth usually borrow pretence from the necessary, to make itself appear more honest. *Ralegh.*

To RE'SPITE, *v. a.* To relieve by a pause.

In what bower or shade
Thou find'st him, from the heat of noon retir'd,
To *respite* his day-labour with repast,
Or with repose. *Milton.*

[*Respiter*, old Fr.] To suspend; to delay.—An act passed for the satisfaction of the officers of the king's army, by which they were promised payment, in November following; till which time they were to *respite* it, and be contented that the common soldiers and inferior officers should be satisfied upon their disbanding. *Clarendon.*

There are respites of execution, of debt, and, formerly, of homage. To be *respited* on the muster-roll is, in military language, to be suspended from pay.

RESPLE'NDENCE, or RESPLENDENCY, *s.* Lustre; brightness; splendour.

Son! thou in whom my glory I behold
In full *resplendence*, heir of all my might. *Milton.*

RESPLE'NDENT, *adj.* [*resplendens*, Lat.] Bright; shining; having a beautiful lustre.—Empress of this fair world, *resplendent* Eve! *Milton.*—Every body looks more splendid and luminous in the light of its own colour: cinnaber in the homogeneal light is most *resplendent*, in the green light it is manifestly less *resplendent*, in the blue light still less. *Newton.*—*Resplendent* brass, and more *resplendent* dames. *Pope.*

RESPLE'NDENTLY, *adv.* With lustre; brightly, splendidly.

To RESPO'ND, *v. n.* [*respondeo*, Lat. *respondre*, Fr.] To answer. *Little used.*—I remember him in the divinity-school *responding* and disputing with a perspicuous energy. *Oldisworth.*—To correspond; to suit.

To every theme *responds* thy various lay;
Here rolls a torrent, there meanders play. *Broome.*

RESPO'ND, *s.* [*respondeo*, Lat.] A *respond* is a short anthem, interrupting the middle of a chapter, which is not to proceed till the anthem is done. *Wheatly.*—Whether they have not omitted at even-song the *responds.* *Art. of Visit. of K. Edw. VI.*

RESPONDEAS OUSTER, in Law, is to answer over in an action to the merits of the case: or put in a more substantial plea.

RESPONDEAT SUPERIOR; the superior shall answer; a law phrase. Where the sheriffs are removable, as in London, for insufficiency; *respondeat superior*, that is, the mayor and commonalty are to answer for them.

RESPO'NDENT. *s.* [*respondens*, Lat.] An answerer in a suit, whether for himself or another.—In giving an answer, the *respondent* should be in court, and personally admonished by the judge to answer the judge's interrogation. *Ayliffe.*—One whose province, in a set disputation, is to refute objections.—The *respondent* may easily shew, that though wine may do all this, yet it may be finally hurtful to the soul and body of him. *Watts.*

RESPONDENTIA, a term applied to money which is borrowed, not upon the vessel, as in bottomry, but upon the goods and merchandize contained in it, which must necessarily be sold or exchanged, in the course of a voyage; in which case the borrower, personally, is bound to answer the contract; and he is said to take up money at *respondentia.*

It is enacted, by stat. 19 Geo. II. cap. 37, that all monies lent on bottomry, or *respondentia*, on vessels bound to or from the East Indies, shall be expressly lent only upon the ship, or upon the merchandize; that the lender shall have the benefit of salvage; and that, if the borrower has not on board effects to the value of the sum borrowed, he shall be responsible to the lender for so much of the principal as hath not been laid out, with legal interest and all other charges, though the ship and merchandize be totally lost.

Although *respondentia* and bottomry are, of themselves, a species of insurance, yet the lender may protect himself from the sea-risk by insuring them.

RESPONDY, a small island in the Eastern seas, off Madura, and divided by a channel from the island of Bondy. It is woody and populous, and subject to a prince of the east coast of Madura.

RESPO'NSAL, *adj.* Answerable; responsible.—For whom he was to be *responsal* both to God and the king. *Heylin.*

RESPO'NSAL, *s.* One responsible for another person.—Anatolius was put into the see of Constantinople by the influence of Dioscorus, whose *responsal* he had been. *Barrow.*—Response.—Alternate psalmody, for its division into two parts, was commonly called antiphony, and sometimes the singing by *responsals.* *Christian Antiq.*

RESPO'NSE, *s.* [*responsum*, Lat.] An answer; commonly an oraculous answer.—Mere natural piety has taught men to receive the *responses* of the gods with all possible veneration. *Gov. of the Tongue.*—[*Respons*, Fr.] Answer made by the congregation, speaking alternately with the priest in public worship.—To make his parishioners kneel and join in the *responses*, he gave every one of them a hassock and common prayer book. *Addison.*—Reply to an objection in a formal disputation.—Let the respondent not turn opponent; except in retorting the argument upon his adversary after a direct *response;* and even this is allowed only as a confirmation of his own *response.* *Watts.*

RESPONSIBI'LITY,

RESPONSIBI'LITY, *s.* [*responsibilité*, Fr.] State of being accountable or answerable.—Where I speak of *responsibility*, I do not mean to exclude that species of it, which the legal powers of the country have a right finally to exact from those who abuse a public trust; but high as this is, there is a *responsibility* which attaches on them, from which the whole legitimate power of this kingdom cannot absolve them; there is a *responsibility* to conscience and to glory; a *responsibility* to the existing world, and to that posterity, which men of their eminence cannot avoid for glory or for shame; a *responsibility* to a tribunal, at which not only ministers, but kings and parliaments, but even nations themselves, must one day answer. *Burke.*

RESPO'NSIBLE, *adj.* [*responsus*, Lat.] Answerable; accountable.—Heathens, who have certainly the talent of natural knowledge, are *responsible* for it. *Hammond.*—He as much satisfies the itch of telling news; he as much persuades his hearers; and all this while he has his retreat secure, and stands not *responsible* for the truth of his relations. *Gov. of the Tongue.*—Capable of discharging an obligation.—The necessity of a proportion of money to trade depends on money as a pledge, which writing cannot supply the place of; since the bill I receive from one man, will not be accepted as security by another, he not knowing that the bill is legal, or that the man bound is honest or *responsible*. *Locke.*

RESPO'NSIBLENESS, *s.* State of being obliged or qualified to answer.

RESPO'NSION, *s.* [*responsio*, Lat.] The act of answering.

RESPO'NSIVE, *adj.* [*responsif*, Fr. from *responsus*, Lat.] Answering; making answer.—A certificate is a *responsive* letter, or letter by way of answer. *Ayliffe.*—Correspondent; suited to something else.

Sing of love and gay desire,
Responsive to the warbling lyre. *Fenton.*

Be there Demodocus the bard of fame,
Taught by the gods to please, when high he sings
The vocal lay *responsive* to the strings. *Pope.*

RESPO'NSORY, *adj.* [*responsorius*, Lat.] Containing answer.

RESPO'NSORY, *s.* Response; responsal.—The versicle; the *responsory*. *Crashaw.*—These are the pretty *responsories*, these are the dear antiphonies.—*Milton.*

RESSAULT, *s.* [Fr.] A projection in a building.—The term *ressault* is French, and but little used in English; though the want of a word of equal import pleads for its naturalization. *Rees.*

RESSELA, [bad Latin.] Any thing which expels heat. *Paracelsus.*

RESSUND, a small town of Sweden, in the province of Jamtland; 22 miles south-east of Ostersund.

REST, *s.* [ȝeȝt. Saxon; *ruste*, Dutch.] Sleep; repose.

All things retir'd to *rest*,
Mind us of like repose. *Milton.*

The final sleep; the quietness of death.

Oft with holy hymns he charm'd their ears;
For David left him, when he went to *rest*,
His lyre. *Dryden.*

Stillness; cessation or absence of motion.

What cause
Mov'd the Creator, in his holy *rest*,
So late to build. *Milton.*

Quiet; peace; cessation from disturbance.—Learn of me, for I am meek and lowly in heart; and ye shall find *rest* unto your souls. *St. Matt.* xi. 29.

With what a load of vengeance am I prest,
Yet never, never can I hope for *rest*;
For when my heavy burden I remove,
The weight falls down, and crushes her I love. *Dryden.*

Cessation from bodily labour.—There the weary be at *rest*. *Job.* iii. 17.—Support; that on which any thing leans or rests.—Thus they had formerly *rests* to fire guns upon, and in tilts the lance was guided over a *rest* or support projecting from the armour.

Forth prick'd Clorinda from the throng,
And 'gainst Tancredie set her spear in *rest*. *Fairfax.*

Take the handle in your right hand, and clasping the blade of it in your left, lean it steady upon the *rest*, holding the edge a little aslant over the work, so as a corner of the thin side of the chissel may bear upon the *rest*, and the flat side of the chissel may make a small angle with the *rest*. *Moxon.*—Place of repose.

Sustain'd by him with comforts, till we end
In dust, our final *rest*, and native home. *Milton.*

Final hope.—This answer would render their counsels of less reverence to the people, if upon those reasons, they should recede from what they had, with that confidence and disdain of the house of peers, demanded of the king; they therefore resolved to set up their *rest* upon that stake, and to go through with it, or perish in the attempt. *Clarendon.*—[*quod restat*, Lat.] Remainder; what remains.

The power in glory shone,
By her bent bow and her keen arrows known,
The *rest* a huntress. *Dryden.*

[In music.] An interval, during which the sound or voice is intermitted.—If there are any *rests* succeeding the pause, the performer's attention to the leading instrument will direct him when these [all the parts] are to commence. *Avison.*

[In poetry.] A pause or rest of the voice; a cæsura.

REST, *adj.* [*restes*, Fr. *quod restot*, Lat.] Others; those not included in any proposition.

Arm'd like the *rest*, the Trojan prince appears,
And by his pious labour urges theirs. *Dryden.*

To REST, *v. n.* [from the noun; Sax. ȝeȝtan.] To sleep; to be asleep; to slumber.

Fancy then retires
Into her private cell, when nature *rests*. *Milton.*

To sleep the final sleep; to die.

Ἱερον υπνον
Κοιμαται θνησκειν μη λεγε τους αγαθους.

Glad I'd lay me down,
As in my mother's lap; there I should *rest*
And sleep secure. *Milton.*

To be at quiet; to be at peace; to be without disturbance.

Thither let us tend
From off the tossing of these fiery waves,
There *rest*, if any rest can harbour there. *Milton.*

To be without motion; to be still.—Over the tent a cloud shall *rest* by day. *Milton.*—To be fixed in any state or opinion.—He will not *rest* content, though thou givest many gifts. *Prov.* vi. 35.

There yet survives the lawful heir
Of Sancho's blood, whom, when I shall produce,
I *rest* assur'd to see you pale with fear. *Dryden.*

To cease from labour.

From work
Resting, he bless'd the seventh day. *Milton.*

To be satisfied; to acquiesce.

To urge the foe to battle
Prompted by blind revenge and wild despair,
Were to refuse the awards of providence,
And not to *rest* in heaven's determination. *Addison.*

To lean; to recline for support or quiet.

On him I *rested*,
And not without considering, fix'd my fate. *Dryden.*

[*Resto*, Lat. *rester*, Fr.] To be left; to remain.

Fall'n he is; and now
What *rests*, but that the mortal sentence pass
On his transgression. *Milton.*

To

To REST, *v. a.* To lay to rest.

Your piety has paid
All needful rites, to *rest* my wand'ring shade. *Dryden.*

To place as on a support.

Here *rests* his head upon the lap of earth,
A youth to fortune and to fame unknown. *Gray.*

REST'AGNANT, *adj.* [*restagnans*, Lat.] Remaining without flow or motion.—Upon the tops of high mountains, the air, which bears against the *restagnant* quicksilver, is less pressed by the less ponderous incumbent air. *Boyle.*

To RESTA'GNATE, *v. n.* To stand without flow.—The blood returns thick, and is apt to *restagnate*. *Wiseman.*

RESTAGNA'TION, *s.* The state of standing without flow, course, or motion.

RESTALRIG, an ancient barony and parish of Scotland, in Mid-Lothian, now united to South Leith. The ruinous church of Restalrig stands in a hollow plain, about a mile east of Edinburgh.

RESTAUR, RESTOR, in Ancient Customs, the remedy or recourse which assurers have against each other, according to the date of their assurances; or against the masters, if the loss arise through their default; as through ill loading, want of caulking, or want of having the vessel tight.

The word is also used for the remedy, or recourse, a person has against his guarantee, or other person, who is to indemnify him from any damage sustained. Hence *restaurant* and *restauration*. In the lower Latin they also use the words *restor* and *restaur*.

RESTAURA'TION, *s.* [*restauro*, Lat.] The act of recovering to the former state.

O my dear father! *restauration* hang
Thy medicine on my lips; and let this kiss
Repair those violent harms, that my two sisters
Have in thy reverence made. *Shakspeare.*

In England we say *restoration*, by way of eminence, for the return of king Charles II. in 1660, after the civil wars.

The 29th of May is an anniversary festival, appointed to be held in commemoration of the restoration of regal and episcopal government, by stat. 12 Car. II. c. 14.

We shall here observe, that the form of prayer for the 29th of May, as well as for the 30th of January, were of a different complexion in the reign of king Charles II. from the present, of which the reason is said to be this: the parliament and other leading men, who were active in his restoration, and who had been concerned in opposing his father's measures, would not be called traitors; and required that a distinction should be made between the commencement of the war and the conclusion of it; they would not suffer the first opposition made to the measures of that unhappy prince to be styled rebellion, though they disapproved of the abolition of regal government which ensued.

And accordingly the offices for these two solemnities were drawn up, without any reflection on the first authors or promoters of the opposition, and, in general, breathe more a spirit of piety than of party, of humiliation than of revenge; and, throughout, are modest, grave, decent, sensible, and devout. King James II. altered these forms, and king William did not venture to reduce them to their primitive state; and so they have continued, with very little variation, to this day.

To RESTE'M, *v. a.* To force back against the current.

How they *restem*
Their backward course, bearing with frank appearance
Toward Cyprus. *Shakspeare.*

RE'STFUL, *adj.* Quiet; being at rest.

Is not my arm of length,
That reacheth from the *restful* English court,
As far as Calais to my uncle's head? *Shakspeare.*

RE'STFULLY, *adv.* In a state of quiet.—They living *restfully*, and in health, unto extreme age. *Sir T. Elyot.*

RESTHA'RROW, *s.* A plant. See ONONIS.

RESTIACEÆ, in Botany, a natural order of plants, first separated from the *Junci* of Jussieu, by Mr. Brown, Prodr. Nov. Holl. v. 1. 234, and named from one of its chief genera. See RESTIO.

RESTIARIA, a name given by Rumphius, in his Herbarium Amboinense, v. 3. 187, to two or three different shrubs, on account of their fitness for ropes, or cordage; *restiarius* being a sort of base Latin word for a rope-maker. The first of these, R. alba, t. 119, is a very well-marked genus, for which the name might have been retained; but Linnæus, in his Supplementum, has called that genus *Commersonia*, after the example of Forster, in his Nova Genera, t. 22. See COMMERSONIA.

RE'STIFF, *adj.* [*restivus*, low Lat.] Standing still; unwilling to stir; resolute against going forward; obstinate; stubborn. It is originally used of a horse, that, though not wearied, will not be driven forward.—The archangel, when discord was *restive*, and would not be drawn from her beloved monastery with fair words, drags her out with many stripes. *Dryden.*—Being at rest; being less in motion. *Not used.*—Palsies oftenest happen upon the left side; the most vigorous part protecting itself, and protruding the matter upon the weaker and *restive* side. *Brown.*

RE'STIFNESS, *s.* Obstinate reluctance.—Overt virtues bring forth praise; but secret virtues bring forth fortune: certain deliveries of a man's self, which the Spanish name desemboltura partly expresseth; when there be no stands nor *restiveness* in a man's nature; but the wheels of his mind keep way with the wheels of his fortune. *Bacon.*

RESTI'NCTION, *s.* [*restinctus*, Lat.] The act of extinguishing.

RE'STINGPLACE, *s.* A place of rest.—I have brought you to a very commodious *resting-place* in this argument. *Coventry.*

To RESTI'NGUISH, *v. a.* [*restinguo*, Lat.] To extinguish.—Hence the thirst of languishing souls is *restinguished*, as from the most pure fountains of living water. *Dr. Field.*

RESTIO, [from *restio*, a rope, halter, or cable, for making which these plants are fit.] in botany a genus of the class dioecia, order triandria, natural order of calamariæ. Generic Character. Male.—Calyx: ament ovate or oblong, many flowered: scales coriaceous, keeled. Perianth six-leaved, compressed: leaflets nearly equal; three outer, of which two are boat-shaped, the third flat; three inner, lanceolate, thinner, one wider than the others. Corolla none, except the three inner glumes. Stamina: filaments three, flattish. Anthers oblong. Female.—Calyx and corolla as in the male. Pistil: germ three-sided. Style single, rarely double, very rarely triple. Stigma seldom simple, very frequently two, very rarely three, feathered. Thunb. *Essential Character.*—Calyx three-leaved, two of the leaflets boat-shaped. Corolla three-leaved, leaflets lanceolate, one wider. Female: germ three-sided. Style one, seldom two or three. Stigmas one, two, three, feathered.

1. Restio paniculatus.—Stem frondose, spikes panicled.

2. Restio verticillaris.—Branches in whorls jointed, panicle compound contracted. This resembles restio elegia, but differs in having the branches in whorls about the stem.

3. Restio dichotomus.—Culms dichotomous, spikes solitary. This is often barren, and as it were viviparous with very minute leaves which have a few between them. At the Cape of Good Hope, they make besoms of this species to sweep their floors with.

4. Restio vimineus.—Culms simple, spikes corymbed.—Spikes very many, collected on capillary loose pedicels.

5. Restio triflorus.—Culms simple leafy, spikes alternate sessile.

6. Restio simplex.—Culms simple, spike terminating. This has been found at New Zealand as well as the Cape.

7. Restio elegia.—Culms simple, spike glomerate, spathes partial, vague, simple. This has the appearance of a rush. Culms several, a foot high, round, even, not hollow, tough, quite simple, scarcely the thickness of a quill, having one knot. Leaves scarcely any. Leafy sheaths two or three, towards the root, imbricate, even, brown, slightly mucronate

mucronate at the tip with a leafy rudiment. The sheath in the middle of the culm has a similar leafy rudiment. Spathe terminating, unfolding into other inner spathes, and into compound racemes. The fructification is with difficulty extricated in the females. Anthers compressed, brown edged with white.

8. Restio cernuus.—Culm simple leafless, spikes turbinate pendulous, scales blunt with a point.

9. Restio tectorum.—Culm simple leafless, raceme compound erect. The houses are commonly thatched with this species at the Cape of Good Hope, both in town and country, and sometimes whole huts are built with it. A roof thatched with it will last twenty or thirty years, and would last much longer, if the south-east wind did not blow much dirt into it, which causes it to rot.—Thunberg enumerates 19 more.

These plants are all natives of the Cape of Good Hope, where some of them are used for making ropes, for brooms, or for thatching. Thunberg has a monograph, or dissertation expressly on this genus.

To RE'STITUTE, *v. a.* [*restitutus, restituo,* Lat.] To recover to a former state.

Restituted trade
To every virtue lent his helping stores. *Dyer.*

RESTITU'TION, *s.* [*restitutio,* Lat.] The act of restoring what is lost or taken away.

He would pawn his fortunes
To hopeless *restitution,* so he might
Be call'd your vanquisher. *Shakspeare.*

The act of recovering its former state or posture.—In the woody parts of plants, which are their bones, the principles are so compounded, as to make them flexible without joints, and also elastic; that so their roots may yield to stones, and their trunks to the wind, with a power of *restitution. Grew.*

RESTITUTION *of stolen goods,* is allowed to the prosecutor, on a conviction of larceny, by stat. 21 Hen. VIII. c. 11. For, by the common law, there was no restitution of goods upon an indictment, because it is at the suit of the king only; and therefore the party was forced to bring an appeal of robbery, in order to have his goods again. But it being considered that the party, prosecuting the offender by indictment, deserves as much encouragement as he who prosecutes by appeal, this statute was made, which enacts, that if any person be convicted of larceny by the evidence of the party robbed, he shall have full restitution of his money, goods, and chattels, or the value of them out of the offender's goods, if he has any, by a writ to be granted by the justices. And this writ of restitution shall reach the goods so stolen, notwithstanding the property of them is endeavoured to be altered by sale in market overt; or else, without such writ of restitution, the party may peaceably retake his goods, wherever he happens to find them, unless a new property be fairly acquired therein; or, lastly, if the felon be convicted and pardoned, or be allowed his clergy, the party robbed may bring his action of trover against him for his goods, and recover a satisfaction in damages; but such action lies not before prosecution, for so felonies would be made up and healed.

RE'STITUTOR, *s.* [*restitutor,* Lat.] A restorer.—Their rescuer, or *restitutor,* Quixote. *Gayton.*

RE'STIVE, or RE'STIVENESS. See RESTIFF, RESTIFNESS.

RE'STLESS, *adj.* [Sax. ræstlear.] Being without sleep.

Restless he pass'd the remnants of the night,
Till the fresh air proclaim'd the morning nigh:
And burning ships, the martyrs of the fight,
With paler fires beheld the eastern sky. *Dryden.*

Unquiet; without peace.

Ease to the body some, none to the mind
From *restless* thoughts, that like a deadly swarm
Of hornets arm'd, no sooner found alone,
But rush upon me thronging, and present
Times past, what once I was, and what am now. *Milton.*

Unconstant; unsettled.

He's proud, fantastick, apt to change,
Restless at home, and ever prone to range. *Dryden.*

Not still; in continual motion.

How could nature on their orbs impose
Such *restless* revolution, day by day
Repeated? *Milton.*

RE'STLESSLY, *adv.* Without rest; unquietly.—When the mind casts and turns itself *restlessly* from one thing to another, strains this power of the soul to apprehend, that to judge, another to divide, a fourth to remember: thus tracing out the nice and scarce observable difference of some things, and the real agreement of others; at length it brings all the ends of a long hyphothesis together. *South.*

RE'STLESSNESS, *s.* Want of sleep.—*Restlessness* and intermission from sleep, grieved persons are molested with, whereby the blood is dried. *Harvey.*—Want of rest; unquietness.

Let him keep the rest,
But keep them with repining *restlessness!*
Let him be rich and weary, that at least,
If goodness lead him not, yet weariness
May toss him to my breast. *Herbert.*

Motion; agitation.—The trembling *restlessness* of the needle, in any but the north point of the compass, manifests its inclination to the pole; which its wavering and its rest bear equal witness to. *Boyle.*

RESTOR, NORTH and SOUTH, two parishes of England, in Lincolnshire; the former 6 miles south-east of Louth, and the latter 5 miles north-west of Alford.

RESTO'RABLE, *adj.* What may be restored.—By cutting turf without any regularity, great quantities of *restoreable* land are made utterly desperate. *Swift.*

RESTO'RAL, *s.* Restitution. *Cotgrave.*—One part of the Christian faith concerns the promises of pardon to our sins, and *restoral* into God's favour upon the terms, propounded in the Gospel, of sincere faith and repentance. *Barrow.*

RESTORA'TION, *s.* [*restauration,* Fr.] The act of replacing in a former state.

Hail, royal Albion, hail to thee,
Thy longing people's expectation!
Sent from the gods to set us free
From bondage and from usurpation:
Behold the different climes agree,
Rejoicing in thy *restoration.* *Dryden.*

Recovery.—The change is great in this *restoration* of the man, from a state of spiritual darkness, to a capacity of perceiving divine truth. *Rogers.*

RESTORATION, in Theology, a term applied by those who maintain the doctrine of the final happiness of all mankind, through the recovery of transgressors from a state of guilt and miscry to pardon and felicity, in consequence of the penal discipline which they are doomed to endure in a future world.

RESTORATION, a small island in the South Pacific ocean, on the east coast of New Holland, discovered by captain Bligh in 1789. It is about a league in circuit, but is only a lump of rocks and stones covered with wood; hence the trees are small, from the scanty soil. Some fruits are nevertheless produced, of agreeable flavour, which contributed to support captain Bligh and his crew during their distressing voyage in an open boat, through the South Pacific. Oysters are plentiful, and it abounds in water.

RESTORATION COVE, a bay on the north-west coast of North America, in Burke's canal, not far from Fitzhugh's sound. It was so called by captain Vancouver, from its being discovered on the 29th May 1792, the anniversary of the restoration. The breadth of this cove at the entrance, in a north and south direction, is about a mile and a quarter, and its depth from the centre of the entrance in a north-east direction, is three quarters of a mile. The soundings, though

though deep, are regular, from 60 fathoms at the entrance, to 5 and 10 fathoms close to the shore. The land on the opposite side of the arm is about 2½ miles distant. Among the skins offered for sale was that of the animal from whence the wool is procured, with which the woollen garments made by the inhabitants of North-west America are made. These appeared evidently too long to belong to any animal of the canine race. They were, exclusively of the head, tail, or legs, 50 inches long, and 36 inches broad. The wool seemed to be afforded but in a small proportion tothe size of the skin. It is principally produced on the back, and towards the shoulders, where a kind of crest is formed by long bristly hairs, that protrude themselves through the wool; and the same sort of hair forms an outer covering to the whole animal, entirely hiding the wool, which is short, and of a very fine quality. All the skins of this description seen by Vancouver's company, were entirely white, or rather of a cream colour; the felt was thick, and appeared of a strong texture; but the skins were too much mutilated to discover the kind of animal to which they belonged.

Captain Vancouver was here visited by the inhabitants, in great numbers; and they appeared in general to be a friendly race of people, well disposed for traffic, and honest in all their dealings. They discovered great vivacity in their manners; and, from their repeated bursts of laughter, it would appear that they were well inclined to merriment. The women were observed to have a most singular mode of ornamenting, or rather of deforming their persons. A horizontal incision is made, about three-tenths of an inch below the upper part of the under lip, extending from one corner of the mouth to the other, entirely through the flesh. This orifice is then by degrees stretched sufficiently to admit an ornament made of wood, which is confined close to the gums of the lower jaws, and whose external surface projects horizontally. These wooden ornaments are oval, and resemble a small oval platter or dish, made concave on both sides. They are generally about three inches long, and an inch and a half broad. They are about four-tenths of an inch in thickness, and have a groove along the middle of the outside edge, for the purpose of receiving the divided lip. These hideous appendages are made of fir, and neatly polished, but present a most unnatural appearance, and are a species of deformity, and an instance of human absurdity, that would scarcely be credited without ocular proof.

RESTO'RATIVE, *adj.* That which has the power to recruit life.

Their taste no knowledge works at least of evil;
But life preserves, destroys life's enemy,
Hunger, with sweet *restorative* delight. *Milton.*

RESTO'RATIVE, *s.* A medicine that has the power of recruiting life.

I will kiss thy lips;
Haply some poison yet doth hang on them,
To make me die with a *restorative.* *Shakspeare.*

To RESTO'RE, *v. a.* [*restauro,* Lat.] To give back what has been lost or taken away.—*Restore* the man his wife. *Gen.* xx. 7.

She lands him on his native shores,
And to his father's longing arms *restores.* *Dryden.*

To bring back.

The father banish'd virtue shall *restore,*
And crimes shall threat the guilty world no more. *Dryden.*

To retrieve; to bring back from degeneration, declension, or ruin, to its former state.

Loss of Eden, till one greater man
Restore it, and regain the blissful seat. *Milton.*

To cure; to recover from disease.

Garth, faster than a plague destroys, *restores.* *Granville.*

—To recover passages in books from corruption.

RESTO'RE, *s.* Restoration. *Not in use.*

Till he had made amends and full *restore*
For all the damage. *Spenser.*

RESTO'RER, *s.* One that restores; one that recovers the lost; or repairs the decayed.

Next to the son,
Destin'd *restorer* of mankind, by whom
New heaven and earth shall to the ages rise. *Milton.*

To RESTRAI'N, *v. a.* [*restringo,* Latin.] To withhold; to keep in.

If she *restrain'd* the riots of your followers,
'Tis to such wholesome end as clears her. *Shakspeare.*

To repress; to keep in awe.—The law of nature would be in vain, if there were no body that, in the state of nature, had a power to execute that law, and thereby preserve the innocent and *restrain* offenders. *Locke.*—To suppress; to hinder; to repress.

Merciful pow'rs!
Restrain in me the cursed thoughts, that nature
Gives way to in repose. *Shakspeare.*

To abridge.

Me of my lawful pleasure she *restrain'd,*
And pray'd me oft forbearance. *Shakspeare.*

To hold in.—His horse, with a half checked bit, and a headstall of sheep's leather, which being *restrained* to keep him from stumbling, hath been often burst, and now repaired with knots. *Shakspeare.*—To limit; to confine. —We *restrain* it to those only duties, which all men, by force of natural wit, understand to be such duties as concern all men. *Hooker.*

RESTRAI'NABLE, *adj.* Capable to be restrained.—Therein we must not deny a liberty; nor is the hand of the painter more *restrainable,* than the pen of the poet. *Brown.*

RESTRAI'NEDLY, *adv.* With restraint; without latitude.—That Christ's dying for all is the express doctrine of the Scripture, is manifested by the world, which is a word of the widest extent, and although it be sometimes used more *restrainedly,* yet never doth signify a far smaller disproportionable part of the world. *Hammond.*

RESTRAI'NER, *s.* One that restrains; one that withholds.—If nothing can relieve us, we must with patience submit unto that restraint, and expect the will of the *restrainer.* *Brown.*

RESTRAI'NT, *s.* [*restreint,* Fr.] Abridgement of liberty.

She will well excuse,
Why at this time the doors are barr'd against you;
Depart in patience,
And about evening come yourself alone,
To know the reason of this strange *restraint.* *Shakspeare.*

Prohibition.

What mov'd our parents to transgress his will
For one *restraint,* lords of the world besides? *Milton.*

Limitation; restriction.—If all were granted, yet it must be maintained within any bold *restraints,* far otherwise than it is received. *Brown.*—Repression; hindrance of will; act of withholding; state of being withheld.—Is there any thing, which reflects a greater lustre upon a man's person, than a severe temperance and a *restraint* of himself from vicious pleasures? *South.*

To RESTRI'CT, *v. a.* [*restrictus,* Lat.] To limit; to confine.—In the enumeration of constitutions in this chapter, there is not one that can be limited and *restricted* by such a distinction, nor can perhaps the same person, in different circumstances, be properly confined to one or the other. *Arbuthnot.*

RESTRI'CTION, *s.* [*restriction,* Fr.] Confinement; limitation.—This is to have the same *restriction* with all other recreations, that it be made a divertisement not a trade. *Gov. of the Tongue.*

RESTRI'CTIVE, *adj.* Expressing limitation.—They who would make the *restrictive* particle belong to the latter clause, and not to the first, do not attend to the reason. *Stillingfleet.*—[*Restrictif,* Fr.] Styptic; astringent.—I applied

applied a plaister over it, made up with my common *restrictive* powder. *Wiseman.*

RESTRI'CTIVELY, *adv.* With limitation.—All speech, tending to the glory of God or the good of man, is aright directed; which is not to be understood so *restrictively*, as if nothing but divinity, or necessary concerns of life, may lawfully be brought into discourse. *Gov. of the Tongue.*

To RESTRI'NGE, *v. a.* [*restringo*, Lat.] To confine; to contract; to astringe.

RESTRI'NGENCY, *s.* [*restringens*, Lat.] The power of contracting.—The dyers use this water in reds, and in other colours wanting *restringency*, and in the dying of materials of the slacker contextures. *Sir W. Petty.*

RESTRI'NGENT, *s.* [*restringens*, Lat.] That which hath the power of contracting; styptic.—The two latter indicate phlebotomy for revulsion, *restringents* to stench, and incrassatives to thicken the blood. *Harvey.*

To RESTRI'VE, *v. n.* To strive anew.—*Restriving* again afresh, with a kick and a wrench together, I freed my long captivated weapon. *Sir E. Sackville.*

RE'STY, *adj.* [*restiff*, Fr.] Obstinate in standing still; restiff; as, "a *restie* oxe that will not go forward," *Barret;* "dull, heavy," *Cockram.*—The master is too *resty*, or too rich, to say his own prayers, or to bless his own table. *Milton.*

RE-SUBJE'CTION, *s.* A second subjection.—An overture of the likelihood of this liberal dispensation from his holy father of Rome, upon the conditions of our *re-subjection!* *Bp. Hall.*

To RE-SUBLI'ME, *v. a.* To sublime another time.—When mercury sublimate is *resublimed* with fresh mercury, it becomes mercurius dulcis, which is a white tasteless earth scarce dissolvable in water, and mercurius dulcis *resublimed* with spirit of salt returns into mercury sublimate. *Newton.*

RESUDA'TION, *s.* [*resudatus*, Lat.] Act of sweating out again. *Cotgrave.*

To RESU'LT, *v. n.* [*resulter*, Fr. *resulto*, Lat.] To fly back.

With many a weary step, and many a groan,
Up the high hill he heaves a huge round stone;
The huge round stone, *resulting* with a bound,
Thunders impetuous down, and smoaks along the ground.
Pope.

[*Resulter*, Fr.] To rise as a consequence; to be produced as the effect of causes jointly concurring.

Such huge extremes, when nature doth unite,
Wonder from thence *results*, from thence delight. *Denham.*

To arise as a conclusion from premises.

RESULT, *s.* [from the verb.] Resilience; act of flying back.—Sound is produced between the string and the air, by the return or the *result* of the string, which was strained by the touch to his former place. *Bacon.*—Consequence; effect produced by the concurrence of co-operating causes.

As in perfumes, compos'd with art and cost,
'Tis hard to say what scent is uppermost,
Nor this part musk or civet can we call,
Or amber, but a rich *result* of all:
So she was all a sweet, whose ev'ry part,
In due proportion mix'd, proclaim'd the maker's art.
Dryden.

Inference from premises.—These things are a *result* or judgement upon fact. *South.*—Resolve; decision. *Improper.*—Rude, passionate, and mistaken *results* have, at certain times, fallen from great assemblies. *Swift.*

RESU'LTANCE, *s.* [*resultance*, Fr.] The act of resulting.—Neither of which marriages yet taking effect, the *resultance* was only a peace and friendship established upon the first proposition of alliance betwixt them. *Ld. Herbert.*

RESU'MABLE, *adj.* What may be taken back.—This was but an indulgence, and therefore *resumable* by the victor, unless there intervened any capitulation to the contrary. *Hale.*

To RESU'ME, *v. a.* [*resumo*, Lat.] To take back what has been given.

The sun, like this, from which our sight we have,
Gaz'd on too long, *resumes* the light he gave. *Denham.*

To take back what has been taken away.

That opportunity,
Which then they had to take from's, to *resume*
We have again. *Shakspeare.*

To take again.

At this, with look serene, he rais'd his head;
Reason *resum'd* her place, and passion fled. *Dryden.*

Dryden uses it with *again*, but improperly, unless the resumption be repeated.

To him our common grandsire of the main
Had giv'n to change his form, and chang'd, *resume again.*
Dryden.

To begin again what was broken off: as, to *resume* a discourse.—The vote from the house of commons was read; and, in regard it was late, for it was past eight of the clock, the house was *resumed*; and it was moved, that the committee might sit again to-morrow in the afternoon. *Henry, Ld. Clarendon's Diary.*

RESU'MPTION, *s.* [*resumptus*, Lat.] The act of resuming.—If there be any fault, it is the *resumption* or the dwelling too long upon his arguments. *Denham.*

RESU'MPTIVE, *adj.* [*resumptus*, Lat.] Taking back.

RESUPINA'TION, *s.* [*resupino*, Lat.] The act of lying on the back.—A *resupination* of the figure. *Wotton.*

To RE-SURVE'Y, *v. a.* To review; to survey again.

I have, with cursory eye, o'erglanc'd the articles;
Appoint some of your counsel presently
To sit with us, once more with better heed
To *resurvey* them. *Shakspeare.*

RESURRE'CTION, *s.* [*resurrectum*, Lat.] Revival from the dead; return from the grave.

Nor after *resurrection* shall he stay
Longer on earth, than certain times to appear
To his disciples. *Milton.*

To RESU'SCITATE, *v. a.* [*resuscito*, Lat.] To stir up anew; to revive.—We have beasts and birds for dissections, though divers parts, which you account vital, be perished and taken forth, *resuscitating* of some that seem dead in appearance. *Bacon.*

To RESU'SCITATE, *v. n.* To awaken; to revive.

Those birds, that yearly sleep a winter's death,
Each spring to mighty love *resuscitate.* *Feltham.*

RESUSCITA'TION, *s.* The act of stirring up anew; the act of reviving, or state of being revived.—The *resuscitation* of the body from its dust is a supernatural work, yet such as whereof God hath been pleased to give us many images and prefigurations even in nature itself. *Bp. Hall.*—For the means of resuscitating the apparently dead, see POISON.

RESU'SCITATIVE, *adj.* [*resuscitatif*, Fr.] Reviving; raising from death to life. *Cotgrave.*

To RETAI'L, *v. a.* [from the old Fr. *retailler*, to cut into little pieces; to separate.] To sell in small quantities; in consequence of selling at second hand.—All encouragement should be given to artificers; and those, who make, should also vend and *retail* their commodities. *Locke.*—To sell at second hand.

The sage dame,
By names of toasts, *retails* each batter'd jade. *Pope.*

To tell in broken parts, or at second hand.

Bound with triumphant garlands will I come,
And lead thy daughter to a conqueror's bed;
To whom I will *retail* my conquest won,
And she shall be sole victress, Cæsar's Cæsar. *Shakspeare.*

RETAI'L *s.* [The accent on this substantive is now usually on the first syllable; but Dryden and Swift

Swift have placed it on the last.] Sale by small quantities, or at second hand.

Then mother church did mightily prevail,
She parcell'd out the bible by *retail*. *Dryden*.

RETAIL'ER, *s.* One who sells by small quantities.—From these particulars we may guess at the rest, as *retailers* do of the whole piece, by taking a view of its ends. *Hakewill.*—One who sells in broken parts, or at second hand.—The admirable Sir Isaac Newton, a much better philosopher, I do not say merely, than Epicurus, or Lucretius, or any of the more modern *retailers* of their blunders; but even than any of the most celebrated ones, whether of ancient or modern times. *Coventry.*

To RETAI'N, *v. a.* [*retineo*, Lat. *retenir*, Fr.] To keep; not to lose.

Where is the patience now,
That you so oft have boasted to *retain?* *Shakspeare.*

To keep; not lay aside.

Let me *retain*
The name and all the addition to a king;
The sway, beloved sons, be yours. *Shakspeare.*

To keep; not to dismiss.

Hollow rocks *retain*
The sound of blustering winds. *Milton.*

To keep in pay; to hire. See the last sense of RETAINER.—A Benedictine convent has now *retained* the most learned father of their order to write in its defence. *Addison.*—Larazus's case is to come on next, and this fee is to *retain* you on his side. *Sherlock.*—To withhold; to keep back. [Fr. *retenir.*] *Not in use.*—He laid him bleeding on the ground, and had killed him if his brother Robert had not *retained* him, and made him sensible how much more it concerned him to make his escape than pursue his revenge. *Temple.*

To RETAI'N, *v. n.* To belong to; to depend on.—In animals many actions depend upon their living form, as well as that of mixtion, and though they wholly seem to *retain* to the body, depart upon disunion. *Brown.*—To keep; to continue. *Not in use.* Perhaps it should be *remain.*

No more can impure man *retain* and move
In the pure region of that worthy love,
Than earthly substance can unforc'd aspire,
And leave his nature to converse with fire. *Donne.*

RETAIN'ER, *s.* An adherent; a dependant; a hanger-on.

You now are mounted,
Where pow'rs are your *retainers*. *Shakspeare.*

In common law, *retainer* signifieth a servant not menial nor familiar, that is not dwelling in his house; but only using or bearing his name or livery. *Cowel.*—The act of keeping dependants, or being in dependance.—By another law, the king's officers and farmers were to forfeit their places and holds, in case of unlawful *retainer*, or partaking in unlawful assemblies. *Bacon.*—One that retains, or loses not.—One that has forgot the common meaning of words, but an admirable *retainer* of the sound. *Swift.*—A retaining fee; a fee advanced to counsel to retain his services in a trial.—You are men of too much sense, I am sure, to be found on the side of Jannes and Jambres, or to take a *retainer* from Simon Magus. *Bp. Horne.*

The livery anciently given by great men to their retainers was frequently for the maintenance of quarrels; whence it was justly prohibited by several statutes; as under Richard II. on pain of imprisonment, and grievous forfeiture to the king.

It was further prohibited by other statutes of the succeeding kings, by which the delinquents were subject to make ransom at the king's pleasure; and knights and esquires hereof duly attainted were to lose their said liveries, and forfeit their fees for ever.

Edward IV. added a special penalty of five pounds per month on every man that gave such livery, and as much on every person so retained, either by writing, word, or oath. But most of these statutes are repealed by a statute, 3 Car. I.

To RETA'KE, *v. a.* To take again.—A day should be appointed, when the remonstrance should be *retaken* into consideration. *Clarendon.*

To RETA'LIATE, *v. a.* [*re* and *talio*, Lat. *retalionner*, Fr.] To return by giving like for like; to repay; to requite: it may be used of good or evil.

RETALIA'TION, *s.* Requital; return of like for like.—God, graciously becoming our debtor, takes what is done to others as done to himself, and by promise obliges himself to full *retaliation*. *Calamy.*

To RETA'RD, *v. a.* [*retardo*, Lat.] To hinder; to obstruct in swiftness of course.

Now Iphitus with me, and Pelias
Slowly retire; the one *retarded* was
By feeble age, the other by a wound. *Denham.*

To delay; to put off.—It is as natural to delay a letter at such a season, as to *retard* a melancholy visit to a person one cannot relieve. *Pope.*

To RETA'RD, *v. n.* To stay back.—Some years it hath also *retarded*, and come far later, than usually it was expected. *Brown.*

RETARDA'TION, *s.* [*retardation*, Fr.] Hindrance; the act of delaying.—Out of this a man may devise the means of altering the colour of birds, and the *retardation* of hoary hairs. *Bacon.*

RETA'RDER, *s.* Hinderer; obstructer.—This disputing way of enquiry, is so far from advancing science, that it is no inconsiderable *retarder*. *Glanville.*

RETAR'DMENT, *s.* Act of delaying or keeping back.—Very probable reasons were offered to justify every new *retardment*. *Burnet.*

To RETCH, *v. n.* [hræcan, Saxon; *hraekia*, Icel.]—To force up something from the stomach. It is commonly written *reach.*

RETCH, or RETCHES, a name given by our farmers to an iron, or a pair of irons, which in the common plough serve to fasten the sheet to the beam. The retches are fastened to the sheet with nails, and to the beam with pins.

RE'TCHLESS, *adj.* [sometimes written *wretchless*, properly *reckless*. See RECKLESS.] Careless.

He struggles into breath, and cries for aid;
Then helpless in his mother's lap is laid:
He creeps, he walks, and issuing into man,
Grudges their life, from whence his own began;
Retchless of laws, affects to rule alone. *Dryden*

RET'E, *s.* [Lat.] A web or network; a term much used in anatomy; thus we have RETE MALPIGHII, for the network composing the structure of the lungs.—RETE MIRABILE, for the plexus of vessels formed by the internal carotid arteries of animals, before they branch out to the brain.—RETE MUCOSUM, for the integument interposed between the cuticle and the true skin, in which the colour of the skin resides.—RETE TESTIS, for a part of the excretory apparatus of the testicle. See ANATOMY.

RETE'CTION, *s.* [*retectus*, Lat.] The act of discovering to the view.—This is rather a restoration of a body to its own colour, or a *retection* of its native colour, than a change. *Boyle.*

RETENEGI, a name used by Avicenna, and others, to express the common resin of the pine, or fir-tree, and sometimes common black pitch.

RETENTA, a word used by the old medical writers to express things retained in the body, and which should not be retained in a state of good health. For RETENTIO URINÆ, see PATHOLOGY.

RETE'NTION, *s.* [*retentio*, from *retentus*, Lat.]—The act of retaining; the power of retaining.

No woman's heart
So big to hold so much; they lack *retention*. *Shakspeare.*

Retention and retentive faculty is that state of contraction in their solid parts, which makes them hold fast their proper contents. *Quincy.*—Memory.—*Retention* is the keeping of those simple ideas, which from sensation or reflection the mind hath received. *Locke.*—The act of withholding any thing.

His life I gave him, and did thereto add
My love without *retention* or restraint;
All his. *Shakspeare.*

Custody; refinement; restraint.

I sent the old and miserable king
To some *retention* and appointed guard. *Shakspeare.*

RETE'NTIVE, *adj.* [*retentus*, Lat.] Having the power of retention.

Have I been ever free, and must my house
Be my *retentive* enemy, my gaol? *Shakspeare.*

Having memory.—To remember a song or tune, our souls must be an harmony continually running over in a silent whisper those musical accents, which our *retentive* faculty is preserver of. *Glanville.*

RETE'NTIVE, *s.* [*retentus*, Lat.] Restraint.—Secret checks readily conspire with outward *retentives*. *Bp. Hall.*

RETE'NTIVENESS, *s.* Having the quality of retention.

RETFORD, or Redford, East, a market town, borough, and parish of England, in the county of Nottingham. It is pleasantly situated on the river Idle, and its open square, surrounded by good regular buildings, gives it an air of importance that few country towns of its size possess. Strictly speaking, it consists of two towns and two parishes, East and West Retford, from their situations on each side of the river; and each of these are distinct in jurisdiction; but as they are united by a bridge, which is a substantial and not inelegant structure, they constitute, for all local purposes, but one town. The church of East Retford, dedicated to St. Swithin, and called the Corporation church, is a neat Gothic building, in high condition on the outside, but rather indifferent within. It has a handsome square tower. The town-hall of East Retford was built about 60 years ago, and is a plain, but handsome and commodious building, occupying, however, inconveniently, a large portion of the market place. Here are held the sessions, both for town and district; and beneath the large room are the shambles, which are very clean and convenient. The free-school, endowed by Edward VI. is a plain and spacious building, near the church. Sleswick hospital, for four men, was rebuilt by the corporation in 1806. Here is also an alms-house for 12 poor women. The market is always well supplied both with the usual articles, and also with hops, which abound in the neighbourhood. The church of West Retford is dedicated to St. Michael. It has a spire on a square tower, and some old monumental stones. Dorrel's hospital was founded in 1666. It consists of a low and ancient looking building in the centre, with two advanced wings in the same style, and also two advanced fronts of modern erection, which are done with taste, and form an interesting object from the neighbourhood. The trade of Retford, at the beginning of the last century, was much in barley for malting; but Worksop has now engrossed great part of this. The manufactures in the town consist of hats, a mill for candle-wick, and a paper mill. A sail-cloth manufactory has been long established. The Chesterfield canal, from the Trent, has been of great advantage to the trade of the town. Retford is a parliamentary borough; and the number of voters is about 112. As a corporation, the government of the town is vested in 2 bailiffs, a steward, and 12 aldermen, with 2 chamberlains, a town clerk, and 2 serjeants at mace. Market on Saturday. Population 2030; 30 miles north of Nottingham, and 144 north-by-west of London. Lat. 53. 18. N. long. 0. 56. W.

RETFORD, West, a parish, which communicates with the foregoing, by a stone bridge over the river Idle. Population 542.

RETHEL, or Retel Mazarin, (having belonged to the family of cardinal Mazarin,) a small town of France, in the department of the Ardennes, situated on the Aisne. It has several manufactures, viz. woollens, cottons, linen, hats, and leather, all on a small scale. The environs consist chiefly of forest land and pasturage; they contain also some iron mines. Population 4900; 24 miles north-east of Rheims. Lat. 49. 50. N. long. 4. 27. E.

RETHEM, a town of Germany, in Hanover, on the river Aller; 32 miles north-north-west of Hanover. Population 1000.

RETI, in Hindoo Mythology, a personification of affection, and the fabled consort of Kama, the god of love. She is represented in pictures as a beautiful woman, on horseback sometimes, and in the act of throwing a lance. Allusions to this goddess, proverbial for beauty, occur very frequently in Hindoo writings. Rhadha, that lovely goddess, describes the glances of her eye as "keener than the arrows darted by the husband of Reti." She sometimes is styled "mother of Kama." Kama is often called "he who loveth the goddess Reti." On the occasion of the combustion of the god of love, the lamentations of the afflicted Reti are very touchingly related by the celebrated Kalidaa, author of Sakuntala. A whole book of his poem, entitled "Kumara sambhava, or the Birth of Kumera," is occupied with her tender sorrows. This book Sir W. Jones's teacher, a learned Vaidya (see Vaidya), was restrained from reading; considering the ceremonies of a marriage, that of Kama and Reti, at which Brahma himself officiated as father of the bridegroom, as too holy to be known by any but Brahmans.

RETIARII, a kind of gladiators, thus denominated from a net which they made use of against their antagonists, who were called *secutores*, and sometimes *myrmillones*.

Under their buckler they carried a net, and, when opportunity served, cast it over the head of their antagonist, and, in this condition, killed him with a trident, or three-pointed spear, which they bore in the other hand. Lipsius and others observe, that they fought in tunics, and were furnished with sponges to wipe off the sweat, blood, &c. and to stop their wounds.

RE'TICENCE, *s.* [*reticeo*, Lat.] Concealment by silence. *Johnson.*

RE'TICLE, *s.* [*reticulum*, Lat.] A small net. Recently a small bag carried by ladies; vulgarly pronounced *redicule*.

RETI'CULAR, *adj.* [*reticulum*, Lat.] Having the texture or form of a net.

RETICULAR BODY, a body of vessels lying immediately under the cuticle or scarf-skin.—Reticular Plexus, sometimes denotes the choroides, which is thus called, because its fibres are interwoven like a net.

RETICULARIA, in Botany, a genus of Fungi, named by Bulliard, from the reticulated appearance of its structure when ripe. It is the Lycogala of Micheli, Persoon, and others.

RETICULARIS MEMBRANA, a name sometimes given to the cellular substance.

RETI'CULATED, *adj.* [*reticulatus*, Lat.] Made of net-work; formed with interstitial vacuities.—The intervals of the cavities, rising a little, make a pretty kind of *reticulated* work. *Woodward.*

RETICULE, in Astronomy, a contrivance for the exact measuring of the quantity of eclipses, introduced several years ago by the Royal Academy of Paris.

The reticule is a little frame, consisting of thirteen fine silken threads, equidistant from each other, and parallel; placed in the focus of object-glasses of telescopes; that is, in the place where the image of the luminary is painted in its full extent. Of consequence, therefore, the diameter of the sun and moon is by this seen divided into twelve equal parts or digits; so that, to find the quantity of the eclipse, there

there is nothing to do but to number the luminous and the dark parts.

RETICULUM, one of the divisions of the stomach in ruminating animals, so called from the reticulated arrangement of the folds of its internal membrane.

RETIERS, a town of France, department of the Ille and Vilaine, containing, with its parish, a population of 3000; 20 miles south-west of Vitre, and 21 south-east of Rennes.

RE'TIFORM, *adj.* [*retiformis*, Lat.] Having the form of a net.—The uveous coat and inside of the choroides are blackened, that the rays may not be reflected backwards to confound the sight; and if any be by the *retiform* coat reflected, they are soon choaked in the black inside of the uvea. *Ray.*

RETIMO (sometimes called RHETZMO), a sea port of European Turkey, in the island of Candia, situated on the north coast of the island, about 40 miles west of the town of Caudia. This town extends a considerable way along the shore, and has still some fortifications, but they are in decay. The citadel, situated on a sharp projecting rock, was built, as well as a fort at the other end of the town, for the protection of the harbour. The latter is now in ruins, and the port itself so neglected, that it is now almost blocked up with sand. The population of Retimo amounts to about 6000, employed for the most part in agriculture, gardening, and the culture of the vine; also in making soap from olive oil. Lat. 35. 20. N. long. 24. 21. E.

RE'TINA, *s.* [Latin.] A coat or tunicle of the eye, formed by the expansion of the optic nerve.

Whether the retina, or the choroides, be the principal organ of vision, and that on which the images of objects are represented, has been much controverted between several members of the Royal Academy; particularly Messrs. Mariotte, Pecquet, Perrault, Mery, and de la Hire. Mariotte first referred vision to the choroides, and was supported by Mery; the rest asserted the cause of the retina.

The retina was always judged to have all the characters of the principal organ. It is situated in the focus of the refraction of the humours of the eye; and of consequence receives the vertices of the cones of rays, proceeding from the several points of objects. It is very thin, and consequently, very sensible. It has its origin from the optic nerve, and is itself wholly nervous; and it is the common opinion, that the nerves are the vehicles of all sensations. Lastly, it communicates with the substance of the brain, where all sensations terminate.

As to the choroides, its use was supposed to be to stop the rays, which the extreme tenuity of the retina should let pass; and to do the same office with respect to the retina, which the quicksilver does to a looking-glass; especially in those animals in which it is black.

But from an experiment of a cat plunged into water, M. Mery conceived a different opinion. He observed the retina to disappear absolutely on that occasion, as well as all the other humours of the eye; while the choroides still appeared distinctly, and even with all the lively colours which it has in that animal. Hence, he concluded, that the retina was as transparent as the humours, but the choroides opaque; consequently the retina was not a proper instrument to terminate and stop the cones of rays, or to receive the images of objects; but that the light must pass through it, and could only be stopped on the choroides; which therefore would become the principal organ of vision. The black colour of the choroides in man is extremely favourable to this opinion; the principal organ should seem to require, that the action of the light should terminate on it as it arrives; which it is certain it here does in the black, that absorbs all the rays, and reflects none; and it should also seem necessary, that the action of the light should be stronger on the organ of sight than any where else: now it is certain that the light, being received and absorbed in a black body, must excite a greater vibration there than any where else; and hence it is that black bodies are kindled by a burning glass much sooner than white ones.

The situation of the choroides behind the retina is another circumstance on its side; M. Mery having observed the same position of the principal organ behind a mediate organ in the other senses, which makes an happy analogy. Thus the cuticle extended over the skin is the mean organ of feeling; but the cutis underneath is the principal organ. The like is observed in the ear, nose, &c.

The retina, therefore, should seem a kind of mediate or secondary organ, serving to break the too strong impression of the light on the choroides, or to preserve it; which is the use ascribed to the cuticle. Add to all this, that the retina is insensible, as having its origin from the medullary substance of the brain, which is so too; and the choroides, on the contrary, is very sensible, as arising from the pia mater, which is certainly sensible in a great degree.

This last argument being doubted of, M. Mery was engaged to prove it; which he did before the Royal Academy, where he shewed that the optic nerve is not composed, like the other nerves, of fibres; that it is only a train of the medulla inclosed in a caual, out of which it is easily separable.

We are inclined to think it probable that the choroides does effect an important agency in the production of our perception of colours. But that whatever its action may be, that action (or its effects) must be transmitted to the brain through the retina and optic nerve seems indisputable, since there is no other course that it can take.

RETINACULUM, the name of an old chirurgical instrument used in the operation for hernia, to prevent the intestines from falling into the scrotum.

RETINARIA. See GOUANIA.

RETINASPHALTUM, an inflammable kind of resinous substance, found in Bovey coal. It was analysed by Mr. Hatchett, and is composed of 55 resin, 41 asphaltum, 3 earths.

RE'TINUE, *s.* [*retenue*, Fr.] Formerly, and according to Johnson, pronounced *reti'nue*. A number attending upon a principal person; a train.

Not only this your all-licens'd fool,
But other of your insolent *retinue*,
Do hourly carp and quarrel. *Shakspeare.*

RETINUE, RETINENTIA, the attendants or followers of a prince, or person of quality, chiefly in a journey.

In Law, those persons are properly said to be of a nobleman's retinue, who belong to him in quality either of servants or retainers.

RETIRADE, in Fortification, a retrenchment made in the body of a bastion.

To RETI'RE, *v. n.* [*retirer*, Fr.] To retreat; to withdraw; to go to a place of privacy.

Thou open'st wisdom's way,
And giv'st access, though secret she *retire*. *Milton.*

To retreat from danger.

From each hand with speed *retir'd*,
Where erst was thickest plac'd, the angelic throng. *Milton.*

To withdraw from any station.

While you, my lord, the rural shades admire,
And from Britannia's public posts *retire*,
Me into foreign realms my fate conveys. *Addison.*

To go off from company.—*Retire;* the world shut out, thy thoughts call home. *Young.*—To withdraw for safety.—He, that had driven many out of their country, perished in a strange land, *retiring* to the Lacedemonians. 2 *Mac.* v.

To RETI'RE, *v. a.* To withdraw; to take away; to make to retire.—I will thence *retire* me to my Milan. *Shakspeare.*

RETI'RE, *s.* Retreat; recession. *Not in use.*

I heard his praises in pursuit,
But ne'er, till now, his scandal of *retire*. *Shakspeare.*

Retirement;

Retirement; place of privacy. *Not in use.*

Eve, who unseen
Yet all had heard, with audible lament
Discover'd soon the place of her *retire.* *Milton.*

RETI'RED, *part. adj.* Secret; private.—Language most shews a man; speak that I may see thee: it springs out of the most *retired* and inmost parts of us. *B. Jonson.*—Some, accustomed to *retired* speculations, run natural philosophy into metaphysical notions and the abstract generalities of logic. *Locke.*—Withdrawn.—You find the mind in sleep *retired* from the senses, and out of these motions made on the organs of sense. *Locke.*

RETIRED LIST, a list on the marine establishment, on which superanuated officers are placed.

RETI'REDLY, *adv.* In solitude; in privacy. *Sherwood.*

RETI'REDNESS, *s.* Solitude; privacy; secrecy.—If *retiredness* be not more delicious than affluence or popularity, how comes it that men of great employment do so often lock up themselves from the crowd and flux of affairs? As the happiest part of their lives, they steal themselves into a calm. *Feltham.*

RETI'REMENT, *s.* Private abode; secret habitation.—Caprea had been the *retirement* of Augustus for some time, and the residence of Tiberius for many years. *Addison.*—Private way of life.

An elegant sufficiency, content,
Retirement, rural quiet, friendship, books,
Progressive virtue, and approving heaven. *Thomson.*

Act of withdrawing.—Short *retirement* urges sweet return. *Milton.*—State of being withdrawn.—In this *retirement* of the mind from the senses, it retains a yet more incoherent manner of thinking, which we call dreaming. *Locke.*

RETO'LD, *part. pass.* of *retell.* Related or told again.

Whatever Harry Percy then hath said
At such a time, with all the rest *retold*,
May reasonably die. *Shakspeare.*

RETORBIO, a small town of the Continental Sardinian states, remarkable for its warm springs; 17 miles south-west of Pavia.

To RETO'RT, *v. a.* [*retortus*, Lat.] To throw back; to rebound.

The loadstone, which the wary mariner
Doth as directer of his travels bear
Now to the rising sun, now to the set,
Doth never lose that hidden virtue yet,
Which makes it to the north *retort* its look. *Fanshaw.*

To return any argument, censure, or incivility.

He pass'd through hostile scorn;
And with *retorted* scorn his back he turn'd. *Milton.*

To curve back.—It would be tried how the voice would be carried in a horn, which is a line arched; or in a trumpet, which is a line *retorted;* or in some pipe that were sinuous. *Bacon.*

RETO'RT, *s.* [*retortum*, Lat.] A censure or incivility returned.—I said his beard was not cut well, he was in the mind it was: this is called the *retort* courteous. *Shakspeare.*—A chemical glass vessel with a bent neck to which the receiver is fitted.—In a laboratory, where the quicksilver is separated by fire, I saw an heap of sixteen thousand *retorts* of iron, every one of which costs a crown at the best hand from the iron furnaces in Corinthia. *Brown.*—See CHEMISTRY, p. 191.

To what is there written we may add, that Dr. Browne Langrish has given us a new contrivance of applying receivers to retorts, by which accidents from the bursting of retorts may be prevented. To his first receiver he adapts a second, inserted into an opening at the top of the first, in order to give more room to the rarefied and new generated air. To an opening at the bottom of each of these receivers, he fixes a bottle, tied on close by means of a bladder, so that they may be removed at any time, and another instantly placed in their room; by which means very little of the steam will escape. He also ties on a bladder to an opening, or upper neck of the second recipient; and this bladder being much thinner and weaker than any of the glasses, will always give way first, and prevent their bursting. And even when there is the greatest danger of this accident, the smallest pin-hole made through the top of the bladder, as soon as the fumes begin to rise, will be sufficient to let out the air as fast as it is generated. See *Philos. Transact.* No. 475.

RETO'RTER, *s.* One that retorts.

RETO'RTING, *s.* Act of casting back, in the way of censure or incivility.—As for those little *retortings* of my own expressions, "of being dull by design, witty in October, shining, excelling," and so forth; they are the common cavils of every witling, who has no other methods of shewing his parts, but by little variations and repetitions of the man's word whom he attacks. *Tatler.*

RETO'RTION, *s.* The act of retorting.—Complaints and *retortions* are the common refuge of causes that want better arguments. *Lively Oracles.*

To RETO'SS, *v. a.* To toss back.—Tost and *retost* the ball incessant flies. *Pope.*

To RETOU'CH, *v. a.* [*retoucher*, Fr.] To improve by new touches.—He furnished me with all the passages in Aristotle and Horace, used to explain the art of poetry by painting; which, if ever I *retouch* this essay, shall be inserted. *Dryden.*

RETPOORAH, a town of Hindostan, province of Berar, belonging to the Nizam. Lat. 21. 19. N. long. 78. 21. E.

To RETRA'CE, *v. a.* [*retracer*, Fr.] To trace back; to trace again.

Then if the line of Turnus you *retrace*,
He springs from Inachus of Argive race. *Dryden.*

To RETRA'CT, *v. a.* [*retractus*, Lat.] To recall; to recant.

Were I alone to pass the difficulties,
Paris should ne'er *retract* what he hath done,
Nor faint in the pursuit. *Shakspeare.*

To take back; to resume.—A great part of that time, which the inhabitants of the former earth had to spare, and whereof they made so ill use, was employed in making provision for bread; and the excess of fertility which contributed so much to their miscarriages, was *retracted* and cut off. *Woodward.*

To RETRA'CT, *v. n.* To unsay; to withdraw concession.

She will, and she will not, she grants, denies,
Consents, *retracts*, advances, and then flies. *Glanville.*

RETRACT, an old technic among horsemen, for pricks in a horse's feet, arising from the fault of the farrier in driving the nails amiss.

To RETRA'CTATE, *v. a.* [*retractatus*, Lat.] To recant; to unsay.—St. Augustine was not ashamed to *retractate*, we might say revoke, many things that had passed him; and doth even glory that he seeth his infirmities. *Translators of the Bible to the Reader.*

RETRACTA'TION, *s.* [*retractatio*, Lat.] Recantation; change of opinion declared.—Culpable beginnings have found commendable conclusions, and infamous courses pious *retractations.* *Brown.*

RETRA'CTION, *s.* Act of withdrawing something advanced, or changing something done.—They make bold with the Deity when they make him do and undo, go forward and backwards by such countermarches and *retractions*, as we do not impute to the Almighty. *Woodward.*—Recantation; declaration of change of opinion.—There came into her head certain verses, which if she had had present commodity, she would have joined as a *retraction* to the other. *Sidney.*—Act of withdrawing a claim.—Other men's insatiable desire of revenge hath wholly beguiled both church and state, of the benefit of all my either *retractions* or concessions. *King Charles.*

RETRA'CTIVE,

RETRA'CTIVE, *s.* That which withdraws or takes from.—We could make this use of it, to be a strong *retractive* from any, even our dearest and gainfullest, sins. *Bp. Hall.*

RETRAHENS AURIS, the retracting muscle of the ear.

RETRA'ICT, *s.* [*retraicte*, Fr.] Retreat. *Obsolete.*—The earl of Lincoln deceived of the country's concourse unto him, and seeing the business past *retraict*, resolved to make on him where the king was, and give him battle. *Bacon.*

RETRA'IT, *s.* [*ritratto*, Ital.] A cast of the countenance; a picture. *Obsolete.*

She is the mighty Queen of Faery,
Whose faire *retraite* I in my shield doe beare. *Spenser.*

RETRAXIT, in Law, is where the plaintiff comes into court, and declares he will proceed no farther in his action. A perpetual bar to future actions.

RETRE'AT, *s.* [*retraite*, Fr.] Act of retiring.

But beauty's triumph is well-tim'd *retreat*,
As hard a science to the fair as great. *Pope.*

State of privacy; retirement.

Here in the calm still mirror of *retreat*,
I studied Shrewsbury the wise and great. *Pope.*

Place of privacy; retirement.

Holy *retreat*, sithence no female thither
Must dare approach, from the inferiour reptile
To woman, form divine. *Prior.*

Place of security.

This place our dungeon, not our safe *retreat*,
Beyond his potent arm. *Milton.*

There is no such way to give defence to absurd doctrines, as to guard them round with legions of obscure and undefined words; which yet make these *retreats* more like the dens of robbers, than the fortresses of fair warriors. *Locke.*—Act of retiring before a superior force.—Honourable *retreats* are no ways inferior to brave charges, as having less of fortune, more of discipline, and as much of valour. *Bacon.*—See WAR.

To RETRE'AT, *v. n.* To go to a private abode; to take shelter; to go to a place of security.

But yet so fast they could not home *retreat*,
But that swift Talus did the foremost win. *Spenser.*

To retire from a superior enemy; to go back out of the former place.

The rapid currents drive
Towards the *retreating* sea their furious tide. *Milton.*

RETREAT is also a beat of the drum in the evening, to warn the soldiers to forbear firing, and the sentinels to challenge till break of day.

In fortified places, this is a signal for the inhabitants to come in before the gates are shut.

RETREAT, or Relay, in Masonry, denotes a little diminution of the thickness of a wall, in proportion as it is raised.

RETREAT, POINT, a point of land in Lynn's canal, on the west coast of North America. Lat. 58. 24. N. long. 225 12. E.

RETRE'ATED, *part. adj.* Retired; gone to privacy.

Others more mild,
Retreated in a private valley, sing. *Milton.*

To RETRE'NCH, *v. a.* [*retrencher*, Fr. To cut off; to curtail; to diminish.] To cut off; to pare away; to confine. *Unused.*—In some reigns, they are for a power and obedience that is unlimited; and in others, are for *retrenching*, within the narrowest bounds, the authority of the princes and the allegiance of the subject. *Addison.*

To RETRE'NCH, *v. n.* To live with less magnificence or expence.

Can I *retrench?* yes mighty well
Shrink back to my paternal cell,
A little house, with trees a-row,
And, like its master, very low. *Pope.*

RETRE'NCHING, *s.* A curtailing; a cutting out.—All ancient books, having been preserved by transcription, were liable through ignorance, negligence, or fraud, to be corrupted in three different ways, that is to say, by *retrenchings*, additions, and alterations. *Harris.*

RETRE'NCHMENT, *s.* [*retranchement*, Fr.] Matter curtailed.—I had studied Virgil's design, his judicious management of the figures, the sober *retrenchments* of his sense, which always leaves something to gratify our imagination, on which it may enlarge at pleasure. *Dryden.*—The want of vowels in our language has been the general complaint of our politest authors, who nevertheless have made these *retrenchments*, and consequently encreased our former scarcity. *Addison.*

RETRENCHMENT, in War, denotes any kind of work cast up to strengthen or defend a post against the enemy.—Such as ditches with parapets, gabions, &c.

To RE'TRIBUTE, *v. a.* [*retribuo*, Lat.] To pay back; to make repayment of.—In the state of nature, a man comes by no arbitrary power to abuse a criminal, but only to *retribute* to him, so far as calm reason and conscience dictate, what is proportionate to his transgression. *Locke.*

RE'TRIBUTER, *s.* One that makes retribution.

RETRIBU'TION, *s.* Repayment; return accommodated to the action.

All who have their reward on earth, the fruits
Of painful superstition, and blind zeal,
Nought seeking but the praise of men, here find
Fit *retribution*, empty as their deeds. *Milton.*

RETRI'BUTIVE, or RETRI'BUTORY, *adj.* Repaying; making repayment.—Neither is it the pleasure of the Almighty to defer the *retributory* comforts of his mourners till another world: even here He is ready to supply them with abundant consolations. *Bp. Hall.*

RETRIE'VABLE, *adj.* That may be retrieved.—I interest myself a little in the history of it, [office of poet laureate,] and rather wish somebody may accept it that will retrieve the credit of the thing, if it be *retrievable*, or ever had any credit. *Gray.*

To RETRIE'VE, *v. a.* [*retrouver*, Fr. *ritrovare*, Ital. "iterum invenire; quod, ni fallor, à Teut. *treffen*, tangere, attingere, ortum ducit; quod eò verisimilius fit, quòd antiqui semper *treuver* scripserunt." *Skinner.*]—To recover; to restore.—By this conduct we may *retrieve* the public credit of religion, reform the example of the age, and lessen the danger we complain of. *Rogers.*—To repair.

O reason! once again to thee I call;
Accept my sorrow, and *retrieve* my fall. *Prior.*

To regain.

With late repentance now they would *retrieve*
The bodies they forsook, and wish to live. *Dryden.*

To recall; to bring back.—If one, like the old Latin poets, came among them, it would be a means to *retrieve* them from their cold trivial conceits, to an imitation of their predecessors. *Bp. Berkeley.*

RETRIE'VE, *s.* A seeking again; a discovery. *Bullokar.*—We'll bring Wax to the *retrieve*. *B. Jonson.*

With this they all were satisfied,
As men are wont o' th' bias'd side,
Applauded the profound dispute;
And grew more gay and resolute
By having overcome all doubt,
Than if it never had fall'n out;
And to complete their narrative
Agreed t' insert this strange *retrieve*. *Butler.*

RETRO, *s.* A Latin word signifying backwards; is used as a particle of composition with us. Johnson inserts the words *retro-copulation* and *retro-mingent*. It is time these indelicate words were expunged from our language; their meaning is easily expressed by a little circumlocution.

RETROA'CTION, *s.* [*retrò*, Lat. backwards, and *action*.] Action backward.

RETROA'CTIVE, *adj.* [*retrò*, Lat. and *active.*] Acting in regard to things past.—A bill of pains and penalties was introduced, a *retroactive* statute, to punish the offences, which did not exist at the time they were committed. *Gibbon.*

RETROCE'SSION, *s.* [*retrocessum*, Lat.] The act of going back.—This argument is drawn from the sun's *retrocession. More.*—The *retrocession* of the shadow must be as natural as before. *Gregory.*

RETROGRADA'TION, *s.* [*retrogradation*, Fr.] The act of going backward.—For *retrogradation*, the shadow went back ten degrees in the dial of Ahaz. *Bp. Hall.*—Planets have their stations and *retrogradations*, as well as their direct motion. *Cudworth.*—As for the revolutions, stations, and *retrogradations* of the planets, observed constantly in most certain periods of time, it sufficiently demonstrates, that their motions are governed by counsel. *Ray.*

For Retrogradation of the planets and of the sun, see ASTRONOMY. For Retrogradation in fluxions, see FLUXIONS.

RETROGRADE, *adj.* [*retrograde*, Fr. *retro* and *gradior*, Lat.] Going backward.—Princes, if they use ambitious men, should handle it so, as they be still progressive, and not *retrograde. Bacon.*—Contrary; opposite.

Your intent
In going back to school to Wittenberg,
It is most *retrograde* to our desire. *Shakspeare.*

In astronomy, planets are *retrograde*, when by their proper motion in the zodiac, they move backward, and contrary to the succession of the signs; as from the second degree of Aries to the first: but this retrogradation is only apparent and occasioned by the observer's eye being placed on the earth; for to an eye at the sun, the planet will appear always direct, and never either stationary or *retrograde. Harris.*

Their wand'ring course, now high, now low, then hid,
Progressive, *retrograde*, or standing still,
In six thou see'st. *Milton.*

Two geomantick figures were display'd;
One when direct, and one when *retrograde.* *Dryden.*

To RE'TROGRADE, *v. n.* [*retrograder*, Fr. *retro* and *gradior*, Lat.] To go backward.—The race and period of all things here, is to turn things more pneumatical and rare, and not to *retrograde* from pneumatical to that which is dense. *Bacon.*

RETROGRADO, [Ital.] in Music, a retrograde motion of a melody, or subject of canon. This motion is sometimes termed by the Italians, *imitatione cancherizante;* imitation of the movement of a crab-fish.

RETROGRE'SSION, *s.* [*retro* and *gressus*, Lat.] The act of going backwards.—The account, established upon the rise and descent of the stars, can be no reasonable rule unto distant nations, and by reason of their *retrogression*, but temporary unto any one: *Brown.*

RE'TROSPECT, *s.* [*retro* and *specio*, Lat.] Look thrown upon things behind or things past.—As you arraign his majesty by *retrospect*, so you condemn his government by second sight. *Addison.*

RETROSPE'CTION, *s.* Act or faculty of looking backwards.

Can'st thou take delight in viewing
This poor isle's approaching ruin,
When thy *retrospection* vast
Sees the glorious ages past?
Happy nation were we blind
Or had only eyes behind. *Swift.*

RETROSPE'CTIVE, *adj.* Looking backwards.

In vain the grave, with *retrospective* eye,
Would from the apparent what conclude the why. *Pope.*

RETROVERSIO UTERI, a displacement of the uterus. see PATHOLOGY.

To RETRU'DE, *v. a.* [*retrudo*, Lat.] To thrust back.

The term of latitude is breathless line;
A point the line doth manfully *retrude*
From infinite process. *More.*

RETTEG, a market town of Transylvania, in the county of Inner Szolnok, near the Szamosch; 35 miles north-by-east of Clausenburg.

RETTENBACH, a village of Germany, in Bavaria; 4 miles east of Ottobeuren. Population 1000.

RETTENDON, a village of England, in Essex; 4½ miles north-west of Hadleigh.

RETTINGHERY, a town of the south of India, province of Mysore, belonging to the rajah. Lat. 14. 5. N. long. 77. 4. E.

RETTO, [Ital.] in Music, t raight forward, direct, one of three movements of musical notes or sounds in melody; which are, *moto retto, moto contrario*, and *moto obliquo. Moto retto* is, therefore, a regular ascent of the scale, or a part of it: as moving from the key-note to the fifth, through all the intermediate sounds, in regular order.

To RETU'ND, *v. a.* [*retundo*, Lat.] To blunt; to turn.—Covered with skin and hair keeps it warm, being naturally a very cold part, and also to quench and dissipate the force of any stroke that shall be dealt it, and *retund* the edge of any weapon. *Ray.*

To RETU'RN, *v. n.* [*retourner*, Fr.] To come again to the same place.—On their embattled ranks the waves *return. Milton.*—To come back to the same state.—If they *returned* out of bondage, it must be into a state of freedom. *Locke.*—To go back.

I am in blood
Stept in so far, that should I wade no more,
Returning were as tedious as go o'er. *Shakspeare.*

To make answer.

The thing of courage,
As rous'd with rage, with rage doth sympathize;
And with an accent tun'd in self-same key,
Returns to chiding fortune. *Shakspeare.*

To come back; to come again; to revisit.

Thou to mankind
Be good, and friendly still, and oft *return.* *Milton.*

After a periodical revolution, to begin the same again.

With the year
Seasons *return*, but not to me *returns*
Day, or the sweet approach of even or morn. *Milton.*

To retort; to recriminate.—If you are a malicious reader, you *return* upon me, that I affect to be thought more impartial than I am. *Dryden.*

To RETU'RN, *v. a.* To repay; to give in requital.

What peace can we *return*,
But to our power, hostility, and hate? *Milton.*

To give back.—What counsel give ye to *return* answer to this people. 2 *Chron.*—To send back.

Reject not then what offer'd means, who knows
But God hath set before us to *return* thee
Home to thy country and his sacred house. *Milton.*

To give account of.—Probably one-fourth part more died of the plague than are *return'd. Graunt.*—To transmit.—Instead of a ship, he should levy money, and *return* the same to the treasurer for his majesty's use. *Clarendon.*

RETU'RN, *s.* Coming back to the same place or period.

The king of France so suddenly gone back!
Something since his coming forth is thought of,
That his *return* was now most necessary. *Shakspeare.*

Retrogression.—At the *return* of the year, the king of Syria will come up. 1 *Kings.*—Revolution; vicissitude.—Weapons hardly fall under rule; yet even they have *returns* and vicissitudes; for ordnance was known in the city of the Oxidraces in India, and is what the Macedonians called thunder and lightning. *Bacon.*—Repayment of money laid out in commodities for sale.—As for any merchandize you have

have bought, ye shall have your *return* in merchandize or gold. *Bacon.*—Profit; advantage.—The fruit, from many days of recreation, is very little; but from these few hours we spend in prayer, the *return* is great. *Bp. Taylor.*—Remittance; payment from a distant place.

Within these two months, I do expect *return*
Of thrice three times the value of this bond. *Shakspeare.*

Repayment; retribution; requital.

You made my liberty your late request,
Is no *return* due from a grateful breast?
I grow impatient, till I find some way,
Great offices, with greater to repay. *Dryden.*

Act of restoring or giving back; restitution.—The other ground of God's sole property in any thing, is the gift, or rather the *return* of it made by man to God. *South.*—Relapse.—This is breaking into a constitution to serve a present expedient; the remedy of an empiric, to stifle the present pain, but with certain prospect of sudden *returns*. *Swift.*—[*Retour*, Fr.] Either of the adjoining sides of the front of an house, or ground-plot, is called a *return* side. *Moxon.*—Report; account: as, the sheriff's *return*. To this sense also perhaps may be referred the *return* of Members of Parliament. *Mason.*—The members returned are the sitting members, until the House of Commons, upon petition, shall adjudge the *return* to be false and illegal. *Blackstone.*—[In law.] Certain days in every term are called *return*-days, or days in bank; and so Hilary term hath four returns. *Cowel.*—On some one of these days in bank all original writs are returnable, and therefore they are generally called the *returns* of that term. *Blackstone.*

RETU'RNABLE, *adj.* Allowed to be reported back. A law term.—It may be decided in that court, where the verdict is *returnable*. *Hale.*

RETU'RNER, *s.* One who pays or remits money.—The chapmen, that gave highest for this, can make most profit by it, and those are the *returners* of our money. *Locke.*

RETU'RNLESS, *adj.* Admitting no return; irremeable.

But well knew the troth
Of this thine owne returne, though all my friends,
I knew as well should make *returnlesse* ends. *Chapman.*

RETURNO HABENDO, or *Returnum averiorum*, in Law, a writ which lies for him who has avowed a distress made of cattle, and proved his distress to be lawfully taken; for the return of the cattle distrained unto him, which before were replevied by the party distrained, upon surety given to pursue the action.

RETUSARI, an island of the gulf of Finland, on the south-east extremity of which the town of Cronstadt was built by Peter the Great. See CRONSTADT.

RETUSUM FOLIUM, in Botany, a retuse or abrupt leaf which terminates bluntly, with a broad shallow notch, as in *rumex digynus*, or mountain sorrel.

RETY, a town in the north-east of France, department of the Pas de Calais, with 1000 inhabitants. In the neighbourhood there are coal pits and stone quarries.

RETZ (John-Francis Paul de Gondi), Cardinal de, a celebrated political character, born at Montmirel in 1614, was the son of Phillip-Emanuel de Gondi, general of the gallies, descended from a Florentine family. His father obliged him against his inclination to embrace the ecclesiastical profession, and he was placed under the tuition of the famous Vincent de Paule. Several abbacies were conferred upon him at an early age; and in 1627 his uncle, the Archbishop of Paris, presented him to a canonry of Notre Dame. He passed through his course of study with distinction, and was made a doctor of the Sorbonne, in 1643, in which year he was nominated coadjutor to the Archbishop of Paris. Nothing, however, could be less ecclesiastical than his character and conduct. He fought duels, and entered into every species of debauchery, and his most serious occupation was political intrigue. At the age of 23 he was the soul (says Voltaire) of a conspiracy against the life of Cardinal Richelieu. The ministry of Mazarin, however, was the period of his great party consequence, and he engaged deeply in all the factious cabals which produced the petty civil war of the Fronde. He imposed upon the people by a feigned devotional seriousness in performing his prelatical functions, and affected the utmost zeal for the privileges of the clergy and the good of the public. That vanity, ambition, and a restless turbulence of spirit, solely actuated him on this occasion, is evident from the general tenor of his life. He was among the most violent of the opposers of the court, and once took his seat in the parliament with a poniard in his pocket, the handle of which appearing, a man of pleasantry, said, "There is our Archbishop's breviary." It was he, according to his own boast, who induced the Parisians to arm on the day of the barricades; and for a considerable time he was the Catiline of his sedition. At length he found that the interests of his ambition would be better served by making a secret accommodation with the court; and so much importance was ascribed to his influence, that he was purchased by a cardinalate, to which he was nominated by the King in 1651. Like other deserters, however, he lost his popularity, and thenceforth acted only a secondary part on the political stage. He governed the Duke of Orleans, who was opposed to the Prince of Condé; and continuing his cabals, Mazarin, who both hated and feared him, procured his arrest at the Louvre. He was imprisoned in the castle of Vincennes, whence he was transferred to Nantes. From the latter prison he made his escape to Spain, and thence went to Rome, where he was received with distinction as the enemy of Mazarin. He was present at the election of Alexander VII.; but finding the pope cool to his interests, he left Italy, and passed some years in wandering through Holland, Flanders, and England. Wearied with a life of exile, he returned to France in 1661, after Mazarin's death, and made his peace with the court by the renunciation of his archbishopric (to which he had succeeded on the death of his uncle), obtaining the abbacy of St. Denis by way of recompence. He had hitherto lived with great magnificence, which had plunged him into debt, but he now honourably resolved to live upon 20,000 livres a year till he had satisfied his creditors. This he at length effected by payments amounting to 1,110,000 crowns, and lived to be in circumstances to give pensions to his indigent friends. In 1675 he sent back his cardinal's hat to Clement X. with the intention of absolutely retiring from the world, but the Pope refused to accept it. It has been asserted, indeed, that he did not quit the world till it had quitted him, and that disappointed ambition rather than devotion was the motive of his retreat. His conduct, however, in the latter part of life, obtained him the esteem of men of worth; and he died regretted at Paris in 1679, at the age of 66.

The character of the Cardinal de Retz has been drawn by several eminent writers, who agree in the principal features of the portrait. Daring, turbulent, false, intriguing, with designs rather romantic than great, and conducted rather with dexterity than ability, he seems to have been exactly fitted for the part he sustained of a political meteor in troublesome times among a frivolous and licentious people. Marmontel enquires whether de Retz would have been a greater man on a grander theatre? and inclines to the negative: "the tragi-comedy of the Fronde (says he) seems to have been made on purpose for this tragi-comic actor." He has been thought, however, a great master in party politics; and his own "Memoirs," which have been frequently printed have been considered as highly instructive in the knowledge of mankind. "These Memoirs (says Voltaire) are written with an air of greatness, an impetuosity of genius, and an inequality, which are the image of his conduct. He composed them in his retreat with the impartiality of a philosopher, but of one who has not always been a philosopher. He neither spares himself nor others. He gives portraits of all those who acted a considerable part in the intrigues of the Fronde, which are often very natural, but sometimes spoilt by a remnant of vanity, acrimony, and enthusiasm, and are too much loaded with antitheses. The style is incorrect, and sometimes awkward and embarrassed." Several other writings

writings of the Cardinal de Retz have been published relative to the affairs of the time and party. A piece which he composed at 17 was characteristic of his disposition: it was "The Conspiracy of the count of Fiesco," partly translated from the Italian of Mascardi. *Moreri.*

RETZ, a town of the west of Germany, in Bavaria, on the Schwarza, with 900 inhabitants; 26 miles north-north-east of Ratisbon.

RETZ, Reetz, or Reckau, a town of Prussia, in the province of Brandenburgh, on the river Ihna. Population 1400: 59 miles north-north-east of Custrin.

RETZ, or Roetz, a well built town of Lower Austria, on the Theya. It contains, with the surrounding parish, 2200 inhabitants; 44 miles north-north-west of Vienna, and 6 west-south-west of Znaym.

RETZAT, the name of two rivers in the Bavarian dominions to the north of the Danube, which, after uniting, take the name of Rednitz. They give name to the following circle.

RETZAT, one of the circles into which the kingdom of Bavaria was divided in 1808. It lies to the north of the Danube, has an area of about 3400 square miles, and a population of 520,000, partly Catholics, but more Lutherans. The capital is Anspach, but the largest town is Nuremberg. Less mountainous than the provinces to the east and west, its products are abundant and various, consisting of wheat, barley, oats, flax, hemp, and in a small degree madder, tobacco, and wine. It has also considerable mines and quarries. The manufacturing towns, after Nuremberg, are Furth and Schwabach.

RETZIA (so named by Thunberg, in honour of Retzius, professor of natural history in Sweden), in botany a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of campanaceæ, convolvuli, *(Juss.)* Generic Character.—Calyx: perianth one-leafed, unguicular, five-parted: segments unequal, lanceolate, acute. Corolla, one-petalled, tubular, cylindrical, villose within and without, five-toothed: segments ovate, blunt, concave, erect, very hirsute at the tip. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, shorter than the corolla. Anthers compressed, sagittate. Pistil: germ superior. Style filiform, longer than the corolla. Stigma bifid. Pericarp: capsule oblong, two-celled, two-valved, acute, two-grooved. Seeds several, minute. *Essential Character.*—Corolla cylindrical, villose on the outside. Stigma bifid. Capsule two-celled, many-seeded.

1. Retzia spicata.—Frutescent, erect, four feet high, somewhat branched. Branches few, thickish, rigid, unequal, short, hairy. Leaves by fours in whorls, crouded, lanceolate-linear, approximating, sessile, blunt, upright, one-grooved above with impressed dots, two-grooved underneath. Flowers lateral, towards the extremities sessile, crouded, upright, almost concealed among the leaves. Bractes lanceolate, wider below, acute, keeled, hirsute, longer than the calyx. Corollas rufescent, on the outside towards the tip hirsute. Stamens inserted below the throat of the tube. Native of the Cape of Good Hope, on the highest mountains.

RETZSTATT, a well built town of Bavaria, in the principality of Wurzburg, with 900 inhabitants; 5 miles south-south-east of Carlstadt.

REU, or Nagy-Aranyos, a small town of Transylvania, in the county of Lower Weissenburg, containing no less than eight churches. In the neighbourhood is a waterfall.

RE-VALUATION, *s.* A fresh valuation. *Sherwood.*

REUCHLIN (John), a celebrated German philosopher, Hebraist, and assiduous contributor to the revival of learning in the 15th and early part of the 16th century, was descended from a respectable family, and born at Pforzheim, a town in Suabia, in the year 1454. That he might receive the advantages of a liberal education, he was removed from a good elementary school at his native place, to a seminary of a higher order at Baden, where he outstripped the rest of the scholars by his proficiency in grammar-learning, and was made class-fellow to the young Marquis of Baden. Some time afterwards he accompanied the Marquis to Paris, at that time one of the most famous seats of learning in Europe, where he studied grammar under John a Lapide, rhetoric under Robert Gaguin, Greek under Harmonymus of Sparta, and Hebrew under Wesselus of Gronigen. He also became thoroughly acquainted with the logic and philosophy of Aristotle, of which he continued for some time a warm admirer. He was thus occupied till he was about 20 years old, when he returned to his native country: and not long afterwards he went to Basil, where he was admitted master of philosophy, and taught the Greek language to numerous pupils, both old and young, with great reputation. Here he had the opportunity of prosecuting still further his Hebrew studies under Wesselus, who had been expelled from Paris for taxing some divines with holding erroneous notions. At the same time he drew up and published a grammar, a lexicon, vocabularies, and other books, which, till they were superseded by more complete works, were found of great use in instructing youth. Having spent four years at Basil, he went to Orleans, for the purpose of studying jurisprudence; and he also taught the Greek language in that city, with the same applause as at Basil, receiving such generous presents from the nobility who attended his lectures, as fully defrayed all his expenses. From Orleans he went to Poitiers, where he likewise taught Greek, and was admitted to the degree of doctor. Afterwards he returned to Germany, and went to the University of Tubingen; whence he was soon called to the court of Eberhard, Count of Wirtemberg. That prince having determined to take a tour through Italy, among other attendants was advised to select Reuchlin, chiefly because, during his residence in France, he had corrected his German pronunciation of the Latin tongue, which appeared barbarous to the Italians. During the course of this tour, our author was very favourably received at the court of Lorenzo de Medici at Florence, where he became acquainted with Ficinus, Politian, Picus, and other platonists, and was induced to embrace their opinions. In these opinions he was further confirmed at Rome, by the learned Greeks resident there; one of whom, Hermolaus Barbarus, disliking the harshness of his German name, prevailed upon him to exchange it, after the common practice of the age, for that of Capnio, a Greek name, signifying, like his vernacular one, *smoke;* by which he was afterwards chiefly known among foreigners.

Our author conducted himself with so much ability and address during this tour, that he secured the confidence and esteem of Count Eberhard; who, after his return to Germany, sent him in the character of his ambassador to the Emperor Frederic III. at Vienna. This employment he discharged to the entire satisfaction of his prince; and his merits procured for him high consideration at the Imperial court. During his residence at Vienna, he made a further progress in his acquaintance with the Hebrew language, under the instructions of one of the emperor's physicians, who was a Jew. Through the address of this physician it was contrived, that, among the other presents which, according to custom, he was to receive as ambassador, should be included a beautiful and very valuable ancient manuscript Hebrew Bible, as a special compliment paid to him by the Emperor on account of his eminent literary attainments. Frederic dying in 1493, Reuchlin returned to the court of Wirtemberg, and was two years afterwards appointed Count Eberhard's deputy to the diet at Worms, in which that prince was elevated to the ducal dignity. Scarcely had he enjoyed this honour three months, when he died, leaving his dominions to his nephew Ulric. That prince's possession of them, however, was contested by another of Frederic's nephews, called Eberhard II. who made himself master of the duchy, and banished Reuchlin for his attachment to the interests of Prince Ulric. Our author now took refuge at Worms, where he wrote "An Epitome of the History of the four Empires," for the use of the Prince Palatine. He also wrote two Latin "Comedies," abounding in wit and pointed satire; one of which exposed

exposed a monk who had been the cause of his banishment, and the other ridiculed the sophistical mode of argumentation which was then followed in the schools and courts of law. The former of these he was advised at that time to suppress; but it was published afterwards, in the year 1507. In 1498, the Elector Palatine having been involved in a dispute with Pope Alexander VI. fixed upon our author as the person best qualified to defend his cause, and sent him for that purpose to Rome, in the capacity of his ambassador. On this occasion he pronounced an able and eloquent oration before the Pope and cardinals, concerning the rights of the princes and the privileges of the churches in Germany, which was printed by Aldus. As the business of this embassy detained him more than a year at Rome, he embraced this opportunity to perfect himself in an acquaintance with the Hebrew language, with the aid of a learned Jew, chiefly that he might have access to the Jewish Cabbalistic writings, from which he hoped to cast new light upon the Pythagorean and Platonic doctrines. He also attended lectures on the Greek language, by the famous Argyropylus. Before he returned to Germany, a revolution had taken place at Wirtemberg; the usurper having been expelled, and Ulric reinstated in his rights. Upon this change, Reuchlin was recalled to the ducal court by the guardians whom the emperor had appointed for Ulric; and soon afterwards he was nominated to the dignity of one of the triumvirs of the league of Suabia for the emperor and the electors.

The honourable employment to which our author was appointed, did not prevent him from continuing his learned labours. He wrote with great perspicuity in Latin, a "Hebrew Grammar," a "Dictionary," and a grammatical "Commentary upon the Seven Penitential Psalms." For these works the interests of sacred literature were under great obligations to him, as they invited many scholars to study the Hebrew tongue, and exhibited a specimen of rational scriptural illustration which was soon imitated by more general commentators. Afterwards he was sent ambassador to the Emperor Maximilian; and upon his return, finding the plague raging in Suabia, he retired with his family into a monastery of the Dominicans near Stutgard. Here he met with a kind reception, and complied with a request made to him by the visitor-general of the order, in drawing up a book "On the Art of Preaching," which was printed at Pforzheim. In his old age, Reuchlin encountered much trouble and danger from the resentment of the monks and Theologians of Cologn, occasioned by his opposition to their enthusiastic rage for the destruction of all Jewish books, the Bible excepted. This spirit had been excited in them by John Pfefferkorn, a Jewish convert, or pretended convert, who, to shew his zeal for Christianity, advised the inquisitor and professors of divinity to burn all such books, accusing them of being full of blasphemies against Christ, magic, and other dangerous matter. Melchior Adam asserts, that he was not serious in bringing this accusation against them, but he contrived it for the purpose of extorting money from his brethren, who, he well knew, would submit to pay large ransoms sooner than give their books to destruction. Be that as it may, the emperor Maximilian, on the application of the clergy of Cologn, was prevailed upon to issue an edict in conformity with their wishes, and Pfefferkorn himself was employed to collect the obnoxious books; many of which he is said to have sold back to the owners for considerable sums of money, and the rest he carried to Frankfort, to be publickly committed to the flames. In the mean time, Reuchlin protested strongly against the edict, and prevented Pfefferkorn from carrying it into execution at Stutgard. The Jews, likewise, who justly considered this proceeding as a grievous persecution, earnestly entreated the emperor to suspend the execution of his order, till their books had passed under the examination of the learned. To this application the emperor consented; and, as our author was universally acknowledged to excel in this kind of learning, he was appointed by the Elector of Mentz, under the imperial authority, to pass judgment on these writings. Entrusted with a commission, the honest discharge of which must inevitably expose him to the obloquy of the bigotted and prejudiced, Reuchlin, perhaps, had not the courage to oppose the whole of Pfefferkorn's project, as an act of shameful injustice towards the Jews, and a disgrace to Christianity; but he determined to give such an opinion, as should in a great degree tend to defeat his design. He therefore declared it to be his judgment, that no other Jewish books should be destroyed, excepting those which might be found to be written expressly against Jesus Christ, lest, with treatises on liberal arts and sciences, and valuable comments on the Old Testament, the Hebrew language itself, so important to the church, should perish. Of this judgment the emperor expressed his approbation, and commanded that the books which had been brought to Frankfort should be restored to their proper owners.

Greatly enraged against Reuchlin on account of the opinion which he had thus delivered, Pfefferkorn and his supporters attempted to refute and expose it, in a piece written in German, under the title of "A Manual Mirror;" to which our author published an answer, called "An Ocular Mirror." Out of this answer the monks and divines of Cologn extracted 44 propositions, which they asserted to be heretical, and cited him to appear before the Elector of Mentz, and the Inquisitor of that part of Germany, who was his declared enemy. Declining to plead before such a judge, he sent an able and well written "Apology" for himself, in Latin, to the Emperor, and also appealed to the court of Rome. By the Pope the cognizance of this affair was referred to the Bishop of Spires and the Elector Palatine, who nominated judges before whom both parties were summoned. The Cologn divines, however, would not acknowledge their jurisdiction; and even proceeded so far, while they were sitting, as formally to condemn and commit to the flames Reuchlin's "Ocular Mirror." In these circumstances, he found himself compelled to carry his cause to Rome, for the definitive sentence of the papal see. Here he had many zealous friends, and his agent carried with him strong recommendations from princes, prelates, and men of the greatest eminence in the learned world. These recommendations had no little weight in the court of a pontiff like Leo X., and our author was honourably acquitted of the heresy with which he was charged, to the great mortification of his bigotted and malignant enemies. Amidst the troubles which he met with, he still prosecuted his various studies with unabated assiduity. He translated out of Greek into Latin, "The Life of Constantine the Great," written by Eusebius; and also the several "Questions" attributed to St. Athanasius. He wrote several profound treatises on philosophy, of which the principal are, a treatise "De Verbo Mirifico," or, the Wonderful Word, in the form of a dialogue between a philosopher, a Jew, and a Christian; and another treatise, "De Arte Cabbalistica," or, the Cabbalistic Art, by way of dialogue between a Pythagorean philosopher, a Mahometan, and a Jew. The system taught in these treatises is of the mystical kind, being compounded of Platonic, Pythagoric, and Cabbalistic doctrines. We have seen that the author triumphed over his enemies at Rome: but, though mortified, they continued to persecute him with calumnies and invectives, and were so successful in creating prejudices against him, that, in the latter part of his life, notwithstanding all his learning and celebrity, he was scarcely able, by teaching the Greek and Hebrew languages, to preserve himself from absolute want. He therefore found it necessary, on this account, as well as from a regard to his personal safety, to remove from Stutgard to Ingolstadt, where he was engaged to teach Greek and Hebrew by the Duke of Bavaria, with an annual salary of 200 crowns of gold. From this place he was afterwards driven by the plague; upon which he withdrew to Tubingen, and accepted an invitation from the magistrates to teach the Greek and Hebrew languages in that University. Scarcely, however, had he entered on the duties of his new post, when he was seized with the jaundice, which reduced him to so feeble a state, that he requested to be conveyed to his house at Stutgard, where he died in 1521, in the 68th year of his age.

The faculties of Reuchlin, which were naturally vigorous, were cultivated by him through life with the greatest industry, and his mind became richly stored with various erudition. With what reputation he acquitted himself in the different public stations which he occupied, has been sufficiently shewn in the preceding narrative. His private character was eminently distinguished by probity, modesty, benevolence, candour, and urbanity. For his assiduous and sucessful attempts towards the revival of learning, his name is deserving of being remembered with gratitude by posterity; and also for the zeal in that cause which he discovered in his last will, by bequeathing to the college of Pforzheim his collection of books and manuscripts, which in that age must have been an invaluable treasure. His collection of "Letters from Illustrious Men," of which an edition was published at Zurich in 1558, is full of valuable information concerning the literary history of his time. With respect to the "Epistolæ Obscurorum Virorum," which have been very commonly attributed to him, they belong to Ulric of Hutten, as we have already observed in the life of Pfefferkorn. Dupin, after observing that he was one of the most learned men of that age, asserts that he was the first Christian who applied closely to the study of Jewish learning, and the Cabbalistical mysteries. In the former part of this statement he is not accurate, since the study of the books of the Jews was cultivated by Raymond Martin, a Spanish Dominican monk in the 13th century. (See his article.) Perhaps he justly asserts concerning Reuchlin, that there are few who have become more thoroughly acquainted with the Cabbalistical art than he was. He adds, that, notwithstanding his attachment to such crabbed studies, he had a wonderful genius for the belles-lettres; was intimately conversant with the Grecian philosophers and orators; was a perfect master of the Greek language, and spoke Latin with an inimitable purity and elegance; and that he was, in short, the only person of whom Germany at that time could boast, who deserved to be regarded as a competitor for fame with all the learned men in Italy; who was their equal in the delicacy of his style, while he greatly excelled them in erudition. From Cave and Dupin the reader may collect the titles at length of the greater number of his publications, as well as the places and dates of their different editions. *Melchior. Adam Vit. Germ. Phil. &c. Appendix ad Cave's Hist. Lit. Vol. II. sub sæc. Synod. Dupin. Moreri. Enfield's Hist. Phil. Vol. II. b. viii. ch. iii. sect. 3.*

REVE, *s.* The bailiff of a franchise or manor. See REEVE.

The *reve* was a slendre colerike man:—
Wel coude he kepe a garner and a binne;
There was none auditor coude on him winne:
Wel wiste he by the drought, and by the raine,
The yelding of his seed, and of his grain. *Chaucer.*

REVE-LAND. The land which in Domesday is said to have been thane-land, and afterwards converted into reveland, seems to be such land as, being reverted to the king after the death of the thane, who had it for life, was not since granted out to any by the king, but rested in charge upon the account of the reve, or bailiff of the manor. Spelm. Feuds, cap. 24.

To REVEA'L, *v. a.* [*revelo*, Lat.] To show; to discover; to lay open; to disclose a secret.—The answer to one who asked what time was, *si non rogas intelligo;* that is, the more I think of time, the less I understand it; might persuade one, that time, which *reveals* all other things, is itself not to be discovered. *Locke.*—To impart from heaven.—The sufferings of this life are not to be compared with the glory which shall be *revealed* in us. *Rom.* viii. 18.

REVEA'LER, *s.* Discoverer; one that shows or makes known.—The lives of the *revealers* may be justly set over against the revelation, to find whether they agree. *Atterbury.*—One that discovers to view.

He brought a taper; the *revealer* light
Expos'd both crime and criminal to sight. *Dryden.*

REVEA'LMENT, *s.* The act of revealing.—This is one reason why God permits so many heinous impieties to be concealed here on earth, because he intends to dignify that day with the *revealment* of them. *South.*

REVEI'LLE, or REVEI'LLE, *s.* [French: from *reveiller*, to awake.] The military notice by beat of drum, about day-break, that it is time to rise.

Sound the trumpet, beat the drum;
Through all the world around;
Sound a *reveille*, sound, sound,
The warrior god is come. *Dryden.*

To RE'VEL, *v. n.* [Skinner derives it from *reveiller*, Fr. to awake; Lye from *ravelen, raveelen*, Dutch, to rove loosely about, which is much countenanced by the old phrase, *revel-rout. Dr. Johnson.*—Tyrrwhitt illustrates the word, in the Canterbury Tales of Chaucer, as, "entertainment, properly during the night;" thus evidently alluding to the Fr. *reveiller*, to awake, or to keep awake. "And made *revel* all the longe night." *Chaucer. Todd.*]—To feast with loose and clamorous merriment.

My honey love,
Will we return into thy father's house,
And *revel* it as bravely as the best. *Shakspeare.*

RE'VEL, *s.* A feast with loose and noisy jollity.—What makes the studious man prefer a book before a *revel*, the rigors of contemplation and retirement before merry-meetings and jolly company?—Because a nobler pleasure has rendered those inferior ones tasteless and contemptible. *South.*

RE'VEL-ROUT, *s.* A mob; an unlawful assembly of a rabble. *Ainsworth.*—Tumultuous festivity.—For this his minion, the *revel-rout* is done. *Rowe.*

To RE'VEL, *v. a.* [*revello*, Lat.] To retract; to draw or drive back.—Those, who miscarry, escape by their flood, *revelling* the humours from their lungs. *Harvey.*

RE'VEL, *s.* Revulsion. *Unused.*—Venesection in the left arm does more immediate *revel*, yet the difference is minute. *Friend's Hist. of Physick.*

REVEL, or KOLYVAN, the capital of Esthonia, a province in the north-west of European Russia, is situated on a small bay of the gulf of Finland. It has an excellent harbour, well secured against all winds, and so well defended by the works of the town, and by batteries on some islands at its mouth, that it has little to apprehend from a hostile fleet, as was experienced in 1790, when the Swedes failed before it, in a bold and well supported attack. The town is fortified by a mound and ditch, as well as by a citadel on a rock. It is divided into three parts, called the town, the suburb, and the Domberg. The houses are of brick, and tolerably well built; but the streets are, with few exceptions, narrow and irregular. The churches are thirteen in number, of which six are for the Greek faith, and the others for the Lutheran. The town having been built by the Danes, these churches, and several of the other ancient edifices, bear Danish inscriptions and coats of arms. Here is a public library, a military academy, and several schools, infirmaries, and poor houses. A small palace adjacent to the shore, with gardens open to the public, is a pleasant resort.

The population of Revel, amounting to about 13,000, are descended from German and Russian settlers, and in a smaller degree from Swedes, Finns, and Esthonians. The exports consist of corn, timber, hemp, and spirituous liquors, from the interior. The imports are bay salt, sugar, coffee, and British manufactures. Some glass and leather are made on the spot. The average number of merchantmen that arrive in a year is about 200. Revel was founded by the Danes in 1218, conquered at a subsequent date by the Swedes, and taken from the latter in 1710, by the Russians; 200 miles west of St. Petersburgh, and 180 west-by-north of Riga. Lat. 59. 26. 33. N. long. 24 39. 9. E.

REVEL, a town of France, department of the Upper Garonne, situated on a height not far from the great canal of Languedoc. It has a population of 3800, who manufacture linen, woollens, stockings, and caps. During the civil war of the 16th century, it was taken and fortified by the Calvinists,

vinists, but afterwards dismantled; 30 miles south-east of Toulouse.

REVEL'S ISLAND, a small island in the Atlantic ocean, close to the east coast of Northampton county, Virginia.

REVELA'TION, *s.* Discovery; communication; communication of sacred and mysterious truths by a teacher from heaven.—When the divine *revelations* were committed to writing, the Jews were such scrupulous reverers of them, that they numbered even the letters of the Old Testament. *Dec. of Chr. Piety.*—The Apocalypse; the prophecy of St. John, revealing future things. See THEOLOGY.

RE'VELLER, *s.* One who feasts with noisy jollity.

Fairies black, grey, green and white,
You moonshine *revellers* attend your office. *Shakspeare.*

RE'VELLING, *s.* Loose jollity; revelry.—They—used secret ceremonies, or made *revellings* of strange rites. *Wisd.* xiv. 23.

REVELLO, a town of Italy, in Piedmont, situated on the declivity of a mountain, and fortified both by nature and art. It contains 5000 inhabitants, and has several well built churches, but no objects of interest, except a public edifice called the palace, and an old ruined castle. It was the birthplace of Carlo Denina, a historical writer; 9 miles north-west of Saluzzo.

REVELSTOCK, a village of England, in Devonshire; 6½ miles south-by-east from Earl's Plympton.

RE'VELRY, *s.* Loose jollity; festive mirth.

Forget this new fall'n dignity,
And fall into our rustic *revelry.* *Shakspeare.*

To REVE'NGE, *v. a.* [*revenehe, revancher,* Fr.] To return an injury.

Not unappeased, he passed the Stygian gate,
Who leaves a brother to *revenge* his fate. *Pope.*

To vindicate by punishment of an enemy.

If our hard fortune no compassion draws,
The gods are just, and will *revenge* our cause. *Dryden.*

To wreak one's wrongs on him that inflicted them. With the reciprocal pronoun, or in a passive sense.

Come, Anthony and young Octavius, come
Revenge yourselves alone on Cassius. *Shakspeare.*

REVE'NGE, *s.* [*revenehe, revanehe,* Fr.] Return of an injury.—May we, with the witness of a good conscience, pursue him with further *revenge.* *Shakspeare.*—The passion of vengeance; desire of hurting one from whom hurt has been received.

Revenges burn in them: for their dear causes
Would, to the bleeding and the grim alarm,
Excite the mortified man. *Shakspeare.*

Revenge is an act of passion; *vengeance,* of justice. Injuries are *revenged;* crimes are *avenged.* This distinction is perhaps not always preserved. *Johnson.*

RE'VENGEFUL, *adj.* Vindictive; full of revenge; full of vengeance.

If thy *revengeful* heart cannot forgive,
Lo! here I lend thee this sharp pointed sword,
Which hide in this true breast. *Shakspeare.*

REVE'NGEFULLY, *adv.* Vindictively.

He smiled *revengefully,* and leap'd
Upon the floor; thence gazing at the skies,
His eye-balls fiery red, and glowing vengeance;
Gods I accuse you not. *Dryden and Lee.*

REVE'NGEFULNESS, *s.* Vindictiveness; state or quality of being revengeful.—Boisterous wrath and stormy *revengefulness;* fool-hardy confidence, and indefatigable contention about vain objects.

REVE'NGELESS, *adj.* Unrevenged.

We, full of hearty tears
For our good father's loss,
Cannot so lightly over-jump his death
As leave his woes *revengeless.* *Marston.*

REVENGER, *s.* One who revenges; one who wreaks his own or another's injuries.

I do not know,
Whether my father should *revengers* want,
Having a son and friends. *Shakspeare.*

One who punishes crimes.—What government can be imagined, without judicial proceedings? and what methods of judicature, without a religious oath, which supposes an omniscient Being, as conscious to its falsehood or truth, and a *revenger* of perjury. *Bentley.*

REVE'NGEMENT, *s.* Vengeance; return of an injury.

It may dwell
In her son's flesh to mind *revengement,*
And be for all chaste dames an endless monument. *Spenser.*

REVE'NGINGLY, *adv.* With vengeance; vindictively.

I've bely'd a lady,
The princess of this country; and the air on't
Revengingly enfeebles me. *Shakspeare.*

REVE'NUE, or RE'VENUE, *s.* Income; annual profit received from lands or other funds.

She bears a duke's *revenues* on her back,
And in her heart scorns our poverty. *Shakspeare.*

The REVENUE of Great Britain will be brought up to the date of our publication, under the article TAXATION.

REVENUE was formerly used for a fungoid tumour, growing between the horns of deer; vulgarly reported to be beneficial, when distilled, for women in labour.

To REVE'RB, *v. a.* [*reverbero,* Lat.] To resound; to reverberate. *Not in use.*

Thy youngest daughter does not love thee least;
Nor are those empty hearted, whose loud sound
Reverbs no hollowness. *Shakspeare.*

REVE'RBERANT, *adj.* [*reverberans,* Lat.] Resounding; beating back. The reading in the following passage of Shakspeare should be, I think, *reverberant. Dr. Johnson.*

Hollow your name to the *reverberate* hills,
And make the babbling gossip of the air
Cry out, Olivia. *Shakspeare.*

To REVE'RBERATE, *v. a.* [*reverbero,* Lat.] To beat back.

Nor doth he know them for aught,
Till he behold them formed in the applause
Where they're extended; which, like an arch, *reverberates*
The sound again. *Shakspeare.*

To heat in an intense furnace, where the flame is reverberated upon the matter to be melted or cleaned.—Crocus martis, that is, steel corroded with vinegar or sulphur, and after *reverberated* with fire, the loadstone will not attract. *Brown.*

To REVE'RBERATE, *v. n.* To be driven back; to bound back.—The rays of royal majesty *reverberated* so strongly upon Villerio, that they dispelled all clouds. *Howell.*—To resound.

Start
An echo with the clamour of thy drum,
And ev'n at hand a drum is ready brac'd,
That shall *reverberate* as loud as thine. *Shakspeare.*

REVERBERA'TION, *s.* The act of beating or driving back.—The first repetitions follow very thick; for two parallel walls beat the sound back on each other, like the several *reverberations* of the same image from two opposite looking-glasses. *Addison.*

REVE'RBERATORY, *adj.* Returning; beating back.—Good lime may be made of all kinds of flints, but they are hard to burn except in a *reverberatory* kiln. *Moxon.*

REVE'RBERATORY, *s.* A reverberating furnace. *Cotgrave.*

To REVE'RE, *v. a.* [*revereor,* Lat.] To reverence; to honour; to venerate; to regard with awe.

Taught

Taught 'em how clemency made pow'r *rever'd*,
And that the prince belov'd was truly fear'd *Prior.*

REVERE, a town of Austrian Italy, in the Milanese, on the Po. Population 3200; 15 miles east-south-east of Mantua.

RE'VERENCE, *s.* [*reverentia*, Lat.] Veneration; repect; awful regard.—The fear, acceptable to God, is a filial fear; an awful *reverence* of the divine nature, proceeding from a just esteem of his perfections, which produces in us an inclination to his service, and an unwillingness to offend him. *Rogers.*—Act of obedience; bow; courtesy.

Now lies he there,
And none so poor to do him *reverence.* *Shakspeare.*

Title of the clergy.

Many now in health
Shall drop their blood, in approbation
Of what your *reverence* shall incite us to. *Shakspeare.*

Poetical title of a father.

O my dear father! let this kiss
Repair those violent harms, that my two sisters
Have in thy *reverence* made. *Shakspeare.*

To RE'VERENCE, *v. a.* To regard with reverence; to regard with awful respect.

Those that I *reverence*, those I fear, the wise;
At fools I laugh, not fear them. *Shakspeare.*

RE'VERENCER, *s.* One who regards with reverence.—The Athenians, quite sunk in their affairs, had little commerce with the rest of Greece, and were become great *revereneers* of crowned heads. *Swift.*

RE'VEREND, *adj.* [*reverendus*, Lat.] Venerable; deserving reverence; exacting respect by his appearance.—Let his lack of years be no impediment, to let him lack a *reverend* estimation. *Shakspeare.*—*Reverend* and gracious senators. *Shakspeare.*—The honorary epithet of the clergy. We style a clergyman, *reverend;* a bishop, right *reverend;* an archbishop, most *reverend.*

RE'VERENT, *adj.* [*reverens*, Lat.] Humble; expressing submission; testifying veneration.

They forthwith to the place
Repairing where he judg'd them, prostrate fell
Before him *reverent.* *Milton.*

REVERE'NTIAL, *adj.* Expressing reverence; proceeding from awe and veneration.—The least degree of contempt weakens religion; it properly consisting in a *reverential* esteem of things sacred. *South.*

REVERE'NTIALLY, *adv.* With show of reverence.—The Jews, *reverentially* declining the situation of their temple, place their beds from north to south. *Brown.*

RE'VERENTLY, *adv.* Respectfully; with awe; with reverence.—Chide him for faults, and do it *reverently.* *Shakspeare.*

REVE'RER, *s.* One who venerates; one who reveres.—When the divine revelations were committed to writing, the Jews were such scrupulous *reverers* of them, that it was the business of the Masorites, to number not only the sections and lines, but even the words and letters of the Old Testament. *Gov. of the Tongue.*

REVERI'E, or REVERY, *s.* [*resverie*, Fr. from *resver*, "to dote, to speak idly, to talk like an ass!" *Cotgrave.* And so *resverie* at first signified raving, or idle talking; then vain fancy, or fond imagination.] Loose musing; irregular thought.—*Revery* is when ideas float in our mind, without any reflection or regard of the understanding. *Locke.*

REVE'RSAL, *s.* Change of sentence.—The king, in the *reversal* of the attainders of his partakers, had his will. *Bacon.*

REVE'RSAL, *adj.* Implying reverse; intended to reverse.—After his death there were *reversal* letters found among his papers. *Burnet.*

To REVE'RSE, *v. a.* [*reversus*, Lat.] To turn upside down.—A pyramid *reversed* may stand upon his point, if balanced by admirable skill. *Temple.*—To overturn; to subvert.

These now controul a wretched people's fate,
These can divide, and these *reverse* the state. *Pope.*

To turn back.

Michael's sword stay'd not;
But with swift wheel *reverse*, deep entering shar'd
Satan's right side. *Milton.*

To contradict; to repeal.

Death, his doom which I
To mitigate thus plead, not to *reverse*,
To better life shall yield him. *Milton.*

To turn to the contrary.

These plain characters we rarely find,
Though strong the bent, yet quick the turns of mind;
Or puzzling contraries confound the whole,
Or affectations quite *reverse* the soul. *Pope.*

To put each in the place of the other.—With what tyranny custom governs men; it makes that reputable in one age, which was a vice in another, and *reverses* even the distinctions of good and evil. *Rogers.*—To recall; to renew. *Obsolete.*

Well knowing true all he did rehearse,
And to his fresh remembrance did *reverse*
The ugly view of his deformed crimes. *Spenser.*

To REVE'RSE, *v. n.* [*revertere*, *reversus*, Lat.] To return.

Beene they all dead, and laid in doleful hearse?
Or doen they onely sleepe, and shall again *reverse?* *Spenser.*

REVE'RSE, *s.* Change; vicissitude.

The strange *reverse* of fate you see;
I pity'd you, now you may pity me. *Dryden.*

A contrary; an opposite. This is a sense rather colloquial than analogous.—Count Tariff appeared the *reverse* of Goodman Fact. *Addison.*—The performances, to which God has annexed the promises of eternity, are just the *reverse* of all the pursuits of sense. *Rogers.*—[*revers*, Fr.] The side of the coin on which the head is not impressed.—As the Romans set down the image and inscription of the consul, afterwards of the emperor on the one side, so they changed the *reverse*, always upon new events. *Camden.*

Any thing turned backwards, or contrary to its usual state.—It has this meaning in Heraldry, in Tactics, in Music, &c.

REVERSE, in Law, signifies to undo, repeal, or make void.

A judgment may be reversed or voided for matters foreign to or *dehôrs* the record, that is, not apparent upon the face of it, by writ of error, and by act of parliament. The effect of falsifying or reversing an outlawry is, that the party shall be in the same plight as if he had appeared upon the capias; and if it be before plea pleaded, he shall be put to plead to the indictment; if after conviction, he shall receive the sentence of the law; for all the other proceedings, except only the process of outlawry for his non-appearance, remain good and effectual as before. But when judgment, pronounced upon conviction, is falsified or reversed, all former proceedings are absolutely set aside, and the party stands as if he had never been at all accused; restored in his credit, his capacity, his blood, and his estates. But he still remains liable to another prosecution for the same offence.

REVE'RSEDLY, *adv.* In a reversed manner.—He took out of his pocket this letter, for want of a better supply of paper at hand; and on the cover of it, over the direction, which now stands among the notes, intermixed *reversedly* with them, noted from Dr. London's mouth the account which we had to communicate. *Lowth.*

REVE'RSELESS, *adj.* Not to be reversed; irreversible.

Even now thy lot shakes in the urn, whence fate
Throws her pale edicts in *reverseless* doom. *Seward.*

REVE'RSIBLE,

REVE'RSIBLE, *adj.* [*reversible*, Fr.] Capable of being reversed.—If the judgment be given by him that hath authority, and it be erroneous, it was at common law *reversible* by writ of error. *Hale.*

REVE'RSELY, *adj.* On the other hand; on the opposite.—That is properly credible, which is not apparent of itself, nor certainly to be collected, either antecedently by its cause, or *reversely* by its effect, and yet, though by none of these ways, hath the attestation of a truth. *Pearson.*

REVE'RSION, *s.* The state of being to be possessed after the death of the present possessor.

As were our England in *reversion* his,
And he our subjects next degree in hope. *Shakspeare.*

Succession; right of succession.—He was very old, and had out-lived most of his friends; many persons of quality being dead, who had, for recompence of services, procured the *reversion* of his office. *Clarendon.*

Reversion is defined by Coke, a returning of lands, &c. into the possession of the donor or his heirs, after the expiration of the term for which they were given or granted to another. Or, an estate in reversion, is the residue of an estate left in the grantor, to commence in possession after the determination of some particular estate granted out by him.

The difference between a reversion and a remainder consists in this, that a remainder is general, and may remain or belong to any man but him that granteth or conveyeth the land, &c.

REVE'RSIONARY, *adj.* To be enjoyed in succession.—There are multitudes of *reversionary* patents and *reversionary* promises of preferments. *Arbuthnot.*

REVE'RSIONER, *s.* One who has a reversion.—A scire facias brought against Mr. Ware would presently vacate his patent; but then there will be a clamour, in regard the office will not fall to the king, but to the *reversioner.* *Henry.*

To REVE'RT, *v. a.* [*reverto*, Lat.] To change; to turn to the contrary.

Wretched her subjects, gloomy sits the queen,
Till happy chance *revert* the cruel scene;
And apish folly, with her wild resort
Of wit and jest, disturbs the solemn court. *Prior.*

To reverberate.

The stream boils
Around the stone, or from the hollow'd bank
Reverted plays in undulating flow. *Thomson.*

To REVE'RT, *v. n.* [*revertir*, old Fr.] To return; to fall back.

My arrows,
Too slightly timbred for so loud a wind,
Would have *reverted* to my bow again. *Shakspeare.*

REVE'RT, *s.* Return; recurrence. A musical term.—Hath not musick her figures the same with rhetorick? what is a *revert* but her antistrophe? *Peacham.*

REVE'RTIBLE, *adj.* Returnable.

REVE'RTIVE, *adj.* Changing; turning to the contrary.

He taught
Why now the mighty mass of water swells
Resistless, heaving on the broken rocks,
And the full river turning, till again
The tide *revertive*, unattracted, leaves
A yellow waste of idle sands behind. *Thomson.*

REVERY', see REVERIE.

REVES (James de), a learned Dutch Protestant divine and professor, the son of a Dutch burgomaster of Deventer, was born in 1586. While he was very young he was taken to Amsterdam, where he was instructed in the Latin, Greek, and French languages, and then sent to pursue his studies at the university of Leyden. From this place he removed to the university of Franeker, where he learned the Hebrew under the two Drusiuses. In 1610 he travelled into France for farther improvement, where he resided two years, chiefly at Saumur, Rochelle, and Orleans. He next entered upon the duties of the Christian ministry, and was, in 1641, chosen principal and first professor of the theological college of the states of Holland and West Friesland at Leyden. He died at Leyden in 1658, at the age of 72. His works are very numerous, of which the titles are given in the General Biography: among these may be mentioned, "Belgicarum Ecclesiasticarum Doctrina et Ordo," &c.; "Historia Pontificum Romanorum contracta, et ad Annum 1632 contracta;" "Daventriæ illustratæ, sive Historiæ Urbis Daventriensis, Lib. vi." 1651, 4to. De Reves published an improved edition of "The Book of Psalms," in Dutch verse, by Peter Dathænus, and he was concerned in revising the Dutch version of the Old Testament, which was printed at Leyden in 1637.

REVESBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 6½ miles south-south-east of Horncastle. Population 565.

To REVE'ST, *v. a.* [*revestio*, Lat.] To clothe again.

Her, nathless,
The enchanter finding fit for his intents,
Did thus *revest*, and deckt with due habiliments. *Spenser.*

REVE'STIARY, *s.* [*revestio*, Lat.] Place where dresses are reposited.—The effectual power of words the Pythagoreans extolled; the impious Jews ascribed all miracles to a name, which was ingraved in the *revestiary* of the temple. *Camden.*

REVETEMENT, in Fortification, is a strong wall built on the outside of the rampart and parapet, to support the earth, and prevent its rolling into the ditch.

REVI'CTION, *s.* [*revictum*, Lat.] Return to life.—Do we live to see a *reviction* of the old Sadducism, so long since dead and forgotten. *Bp. Hall.*

To REVIC'TUAL, *v. a.* To stock with victuals again.—It hath been objected, that I put into Ireland, and spent much time there, taking care to *revictual* myself and none of the rest. *Ralegh.*

To REVI'E, *v. a.* [See *To* VIE.] To accede to the proposal of a stake, and to overtop it: an old phrase at cards. "*A.* Mingle the cards. *S.* Sir, I bid, do you hold it? *A.* Yes, sir, I accept it, and bid yet." *Wodroephe's Fr. Gramm.*—*A.* What shall we play for? *S.* One shilling stake, and three rest. I vye it; will you hould it? *A.* Yea, sir, I hould it, and *revye* it. *Florio.*

To REVI'E, *v. n.* To return the challenge of a wager at cards; to make any retort.—We must not permit vying and *revying* upon one another. *Chief Justice, in the Trial of seven Bishops.*

To REVIE'W, *v. a.* To look back.

So swift he flies, that his *reviewing* eye
Has lost the chasers, and his ear the cry. *Denham.*

To see again.

I shall *review* Sicilia, for whose sight
I have a woman's longing. *Shakspeare.*

To consider over again; to re-examine.—Segrasis says, that the Æneid is an imperfect work, and that death prevented the divine poet from *reviewing* it; and, for that reason, he had condemned it to the fire. *Dryden.*—To retrace.

Shall I the long laborious scene *review*,
And open all the wounds of Greece anew? *Pope.*

To survey; to overlook; to examine.

REVIE'W, *s.* Survey; re-examination.—The works of nature will bear a thousand views and *reviews;* the more narrowly we look into them, the more occasion we shall have to admire. *Atterbury.*—A periodical publication, giving an analysis of books, a character of them, and remarks upon them.—The Monthly *Review* is the earliest of the *name.* The king asked him [Dr. Johnson] if there were any other literary journals published in this kingdom, except the monthly and critical *reviews;* and on being answered there were no other (viz. in 1767) his majesty asked him which of them was the best. *Conv. in Boswell's Life of Johnson.*

—Inspection of soldiers assembled for examination as to their appearance and skill.

REVIEW, in Chancery. A *bill of review* is where the cause has been heard, and a decree therein signed and enrolled; but some error in law appears in the body of the decree, or some new matter is discovered in time, after the decree made. A bill of review is not exhibited but by leave of the court.

A *commission of review*, is a commission sometimes granted, in extraordinary cases, to revise the sentence of the court of delegates; when it is apprehended they have been led into a material error. This commission the king may grant, although the statutes 24 & 25 Hen. VIII. declare the sentence of the delegates definitive; because the pope, as supreme head by the canon law, used to grant such commissions of review; and such authority, as the pope heretofore exerted, is now annexed to the crown by the stats. 26 Hen. VIII. cap. 1. and 1 Eliz. cap. 1. But this is not matter of right, which the subject may demand, but merely a matter of favour, and which is often denied.

Review, in Military Language, is the appearance of an army, or part of any army, arranged in form of battle, and exercised, in presence of the king or of a general. The firings in reviews are generally thirty-six rounds, viz. by companies; by grand divisions; by sub-divisions; obliquely, advancing, retreating; by files; in the square; street-firings, advancing and retreating; and, lastly, a volley.

REVIE'WER, *s.* One who re-examines This rubrick, being the same that we have in king Edward's second Common Prayer Book, may perhaps have slipt into the present Book through the inadvertency of the *reviewers*, who might not probably just then consider, that custom had shifted the place for the performance of the daily service into another part of the church. *Wheatly.*—One who writes in a periodical publication called a review.—The Critical *reviewers*, I believe, often review without reading the books through; but lay hold of a topick, and write chiefly from their own minds. The Monthly *reviewers* are duller men, and are glad to read the books through. *Johnson.*

REVIGNY AUX VACHES, a town in the north-east of France, department of the Meuse, on the Ornain. Population 1700; 9 miles north-west of Bar sur Ornain.

To REV'IGORATE, *v. a.* To reinforce; to add new vigour; to give new strength. *Cotgrave.*

To REVI'LE, *v. a.* To reproach; to vilify; to treat with cotumely.

I read in's looks
Matter against me; and his eye *revil'd*
Me as his abject object. *Shakspeare.*

REVI'LE, *s.* Reproach; contumely; exprobation. *Not used, but elegant.*

I heard thee in the garden, and of thy voice
Afraid, being naked, hid myself:—To whom
The gracious judge, without *revile*, reply'd. *Milton.*

REVI'LE, *s.* Opprobious language. *Not in use.*—I have gained a name bestuck, or, as I may say, bedecked with the reproaches and *reviles* of this modest confuter. *Milton.*

REVI'LEMENT, *s.* Reproach; contumelious language.—Scorns, and *revilements*, that bold and profane wretches have cast upon him. *More.*

REVI'LER, *s.* One who reviles; one who treats another with contumelious terms.—The bitterest *revilers* are often half-witted people. *Gov. of the Tongue.*

REVI'LING, *s.* Act of reproaching; act of using contumelious language.—He will have thee ready to endure persecutions, *revilings*, and all manner of slanders, not only patiently, but also cheerfully, for the truth's sake. *South.*

REVI'LINGLY, *adv.* In an opprobious manner; with contumely.—The love I bear to the civility of expression will not suffer me to be *revilingly* broad. *Maine.*

REVILLA GIGEDO, Island of, a large island on the broken coast of North-west America, first circumnavigated by Vancouver, and so called, in honour of Conde de Revilla Gigedo, viceroy of New Spain, who had done him several important services. It is about 50 miles in length, and 25 in breadth. It was at this island that captain Vancouver, who was pursuing his course round its shores in his boats, was, before he was aware, surrounded by the natives in their canoes, and was in imminent danger of being murdered, with such of his crew as he had along with him. After various fruitless efforts to conciliate the inhabitants, he at length gave the order to fire, when they all immediately fled to the woods. In this affair two British sailors were badly wounded with spears. Lat. 55. 6. to 55. 55. N. long. 228. 27. to 229. 15. E.

REVILLA GIGEDO, Canal de, a channel on the north-west coast of North America, so called by Vancouver, in honour of the Conde de Revilla Gigedo, viceroy of New Spain, from whom he had experienced the most polite treatment. It is formed by the island of Revilla Gigedo on the west, and by the continental shore of North America and the island of Gravina, on the east.

REUILLY, a town in the central part of France, department of the Indre. Population 1700; 12 miles north-east of Issoudun, and 20 west of Bourges.

REVIN, a town in the north of France, department of the Ardennes, on the Meuse. Population 1800; 6 miles north-by-east of Rocroy.

REVI'SAL, *s.* Review; re-examination.—The *revisal* of these letters has been a kind of examination of conscience to me; so fairly and faithfully have I set down in them the undisguised state of the mind. *Pope.*

To REVI'SE, *v. a.* [*revisus*, Lat.] To review; to overlook.

Lintot will think your price too much;
Not, Sir, if you *revise* it, and retouch. *Pope.*

REVISE, *s.* Review; re-examination.—The author is to be excused, who never, in regard to his eyes and other impediments, gives himself the trouble of corrections and *revises*. *Boyle.*—Among printers, a second proof of a sheet corrected.—His sending them sheet by sheet when printed, and surveying the *revises*. *Fell.*

REVI'SER, *s.* Examiner; superintendant.—The author, publisher, or *reviser* of that volume. *Bp. Kennet.*

REVI'SION, *s.* Review.

To REVI'SIT, *v. a.* [*reviso, revisito*, Lat.] To visit again.

Thee I *revisit* safe,
And feel thy sovran vital lamp; but thou
Revisit'st not these eyes, that roll in vain,
To find thy piercing ray, and find no dawn. *Milton.*

REVISITA'TION, *s.* Act of revisiting. *Cotgrave.*

REVI'VAL, *s.* Recall from a state of languor, oblivion or obscurity; recall to life.—The *revival* of learning in most countries appears to have owed its first rise to translations. *Warton.*

To REVI'VE, *v. n.* [*revivo*, Lat.] To return to life.

So he dies;
But soon *revives:* death over him no power
Shall long usurp. *Milton.*

To return to vigour or fame; to rise from languor, oblivion, or obscurity.

I *revive*
At this last sight, assur'd that man shall live. *Milton.*

To REVI'VE, *v. a.* To bring to life again.

Spot more delicious than those gardens feign'd
Or of *reviv'd* Adonis. *Milton.*

To raise from languor, insensibility, or oblivion.

Noise of arms, or view of martial guise,
Might not *revive* desire of knightly exercise. *Spenser.*

To renew; to recollect; to bring back to the memory.—The memory is the power to *revive* again in our minds those ideas, which after imprinting have been laid aside out of sight. *Locke.*—To quicken; to rouse.

I should

I should *revive* the soldier's hearts;
Because I ever found them as myself. *Shakspeare.*

To bring again into notice.

He'll use me as he does my betters,
Publish my life, my will, my letters,
Revive the libels born to die,
Which Pope must bear as well as I. *Swift.*

[In chymistry.] To recover from a mixed state.

REVI'VER, *s.* That which invigorates or revives. *Sherwood.*—One who brings again into notice, or redeems from neglect.—The authors or late *revivers* of all these sects or opinions were learned. *Milton.*

REVI'VING, *s.* Act of recomforting or restoring to hope. —They who are too scrupulous, and dejected of spirit, might be often strengthened with wise consolations, and *revivings. Milton.*

To REVIVI'FICATE. *v. a.* [*re* and *vivifico,* Lat.] To recall to life.

REVIVIFICA'TION, *s.* The act of recalling to life.—The resurrection or *revivification* (for the word signifies no more than so) is common to both. *More.*

To REVIVI'FY, *v. a.* To recall to life.—That the gross matter which they saw laid in the grave and turn to corruption, or burnt into ashes and blown away by the air, should ever be raised, or collected again, and *revivified,* of this the most speculative among them had no conception. *Stackhouse.*

REVIVOR, or REVIVER, *Bill of,* is where a bill has been exhibited in chancery against one who answers: but, before the cause is heard, or at least before the decree is enrolled, one of the party dies.

In this case, a bill of revivor must be brought, praying the former proceedings may stand revived, and be put in the same condition as at the time of the abatement.

REVIVI'SCENCE, or REVIVI'SCENCY, *s.* [*revivisco, reviviscentia,* Lat. Of this useful expression *Dr. Johnson* has brought only a solitary instance from Burnet. *Reviviscence* was as common as *reviviscency. Todd.*] Renewal of life; renewal of existence.—Neither will the life of the soul alone continuing amount to the *reviviscence* of the whole man. *Pearson.* —Scripture makes mention of a restitution and *reviviscency* of all things at the end of the world. *Burnet.*—The Stoicks asserted a conflagration and *reviviscence* of the world. *Whitby.*

REU'NION, *s.* Return to a state of juncture, cohesion, or concord.

To REUNI'TE, *v. a.* To join again; to make one whole a second time; to join what is divided.

By this match the line of Charles the great
Was *reunited* to the crown of France. *Shakspeare.*

To reconcile; to make those at variance one.

To REUNITE, *v. n.* To cohere again.

REUNI'TION, *s.* Second conjunction.—I believe the immortality of the soul; I believe the resurrection of the body, and its *reunition* with the soul. *Knatchbull.*

RE'VOCABLE, *adj.* [*revoco, revocabilis,* Lat.] That may be recalled.—Howsoever you shew bitterness, do not act any thing that is not *revocable. Bacon.*—That may be repealed.—If that were not performed, the covenant became broke and *revocable. Milton.*

RE'VOCABLENESS, *s.* The quality of being revocable.

To RE'VOCATE, *v. a.* [*revoco,* Lat.] To recall; to call back.

His successor, by order, nullifies
Many his patents, and did *revocate*
And reassume his liberalities. *Daniel.*

REVOCA'TION, [*revatio,* Lat.] Act of recalling.—One that saw the people bent for the *revocation* of Calvin, gave him notice of their affection. *Hooker.*—State of being recalled.—Elaiana's king commanded Chenandra to tell him that he had received advice of his *revocation. Howell.*—Repeal; reversal.—A law may cease to be in force, without an express *revocation* of the lawgiver. *White.*

To REV'OKE, *v. a.* [*revoquer,* Fr. *revoco,* Lat.] To repeal; to reverse.

Without my Aurengzebe I cannot live;
Revoke his doom, or else my sentence give. *Dryden.*

To check; to repress.

She strove their sudden rages to *revoke,*
That at the last suppressing fury mad,
They gan abstain. *Spenser.*

To draw back.

Shame were to *revoke*
The forward footing for an hidden shade. *Spenser.*

To REVO'KE, *v. n.* To renounce at cards

REVO'KE, *s.* Act of renouncing at cards: used in no other sense.

REVO'KEMENT. *s.* Revocation; repeal; recal. *Little in use.*

Let it be noised,
That through our intercession, this *revokement*
And pardon comes. *Shakspeare.*

To REVO'LT, *v. n.* [*revoltare,* Ital.] To fall off from one to another. It denotes something of pravity or rebellion.—All will *revolt* from me, and turn to him. *Shakspeare.*—To change. *Not in use.*

You are already love's firm votary,
And cannot soon *revolt* and change your mind. *Shakspeare.*

To REVO'LT, *v. a.* [*revoltare,* Ital. *revolvo,* Lat.] To turn; "to *revolt;* to put to flight; to overturn; to overwhelm."

As a thunderbolt
Perceth the yielding ayre, and doth displace
The soring clouds into sad showres ymolt;
So to her yold the flames, and did their force *revolt.*
Spenser.

So bold an assertion hath *revolted* the more experienced criticks. *Warburton.*

REVO'LT *s.* [*revolte,* Fr. from the verb.] Desertion; change of sides.—He was greatly strengthened, and the enemy as much enfeebled by daily *revolts. Ralegh.*—A revolter; one who changes sides. *Not in use.*

You ingrate *revolts,*
You bloody Neros, ripping up the womb
Of your dear mother England. *Shakspeare.*

Gross departure from duty.

Your daughter hath made a gross *revolt;*
Tying her duty, beauty, wit, and fortunes
To an extravagant and wheeling stranger. *Shakspeare.*

REVO'LTED, *part.* Having swerved from duty.

Thou single hast maintain'd
Against *revolted* multitudes the cause
Of truth. *Milton.*

REVO'LTER, *s.* One who changes sides; a deserter; a renegade.

Fair honour that thou dost thy God, in trusting
He will accept thee to defend his cause,
A murderer, a *revolter,* and a robber. *Milton.*

RE'VOLUBLE, *adj.* [*revoluble,* Fr.] That may revolve. *Cotgrave and Sherwood.*

To REVO'LVE, *v. n.* [*revolvo,* Lat.] To roll in a circle; to perform a revolution.

Each *revolving* year,
The teeming ewes a triple offspring bear. *Pope.*

To fall back; to return.—On the desertion of an appeal, the jurisdiction does, ipso jure, *revolve* to the judge a quo. *Ayliffe.*

To REVO'LVE, *v. a.* [*revolvo,* Lat.] To roll any thing round.

Then in the East her turn she shines,
Revolv'd on heaven's great axis. *Milton.*

To

To consider; to meditate on.

You may *revolve* what tales I told you
Of courts, of princes, of the tricks of war. *Shakspeare.*

REVOL'VENCY, *s.* Constant revolution.—Its own *revolvency* upholds the world. *Cowper.*

REVOLU'TION, *s.* [*revolutus*, Lat.] Course of any thing which returns to the point at which it began to move.

On their orbs impose
Such restless *revolution*, day by day
Repeated. *Milton.*

Space measured by some revolution.—The Persian wept over his army, that within the *revolution* of a single age, not a man would be left alive. *Wake.*—Change in the state of a government or country. It is used among us καθ' εξοχην, for the change produced by the admission of king William and queen Mary.—The late *revolution*, justified by its necessity and the good it had produced, will be a lasting answer. *Davenant.*—Rotation; circular motion. Motion backward.

Fear
Comes thundering back with dreadful *revolution*
On my defenceless head. *Milton.*

The most important revolutions which history has to record are, the English one of 1688, and the American revolution.

By the former, the true principles of liberty, hitherto but feebly asserted and partially assented to, were established by the consent of all orders in the most enlightened country in the world; were recorded in her laws and assented to by her king. By the latter, the dominion of these principles was secured over nearly half the globe, and an impregnable asylum secured to all mankind impatient of despotism. Both these great changes owed their stability to the moderation of their agents. In both the important caution was observed not to overturn the good of old systems as well as their evil. In neither was the authority of established laws and customs superseded by the dictates of untried and visionary speculation; the lessons of experience were not thrown away, nor coercion of the formed habits of mankind suddenly attempted.

A third and more striking revolution than either of the above, is that of France. But the picture displayed by this event is far from containing their admirable traits. It has its prototype rather in the dethronement of Charles I. than in any other page of history. The parallel holds good in the following points.—1. The grievances that led to both these revolutions were many and weighty. 2. The first opposers of the government acted moderately and sensibly, but the folly and obstinacy of the ruling powers left no middle road to the people, and roused the violent and interested to the struggle. 3. The victory of the revolutionary arms brought in anarchy and bloodshed, until one predominant genius assumed the reins, and guided the state to glory and prosperity. 4. The disappointed hopes of the nation called back their dethroned dynasty, still deformed by prejudice and error. That the English in great part escaped the barbarous scenes that give so fearful a character to the French revolution, is partly owing to the early directorship of Cromwell, and still more to the better information and feeling of the people. Yet, in each of these revolutions much blood was shed, many fortunes ruined, lasting prejudices against liberty and toleration engendered, and all for nothing.—The old systems have returned invigorated by their downfall, and the cause of freedom has received blows from which it requires a long period of time to recover.

Yet, allowing much to the natural feelings of mankind, abhorrent of bloodshed, the impartial observer must allow that the excesses of the French revolution are as much attributable to the folly of the ancien regime as to the turbulent spirit of the republicans, and that a lamentable want of education was, on both sides, the main-spring of their errors. It is unfortunately but too general a prejudice in this country to consider the French revolution as another name for anarchy and massacre, and to confound all who had any concern in it as madmen or assassins. But it is important that we should duly distinguish between the promoters of reform and those of revolution, and even with regard to the latter, between those who were actuated by patriotic, (though mistaken) motives, and those who were urged on by the base inducements of self-interest and personal elevation. It is proper to observe, that Mirabeau and the national assembly, who obtained from Louis XVI. the acknowledgement of the constitution, were men of a temperate, rational, and even forbearing character. Nor can there be any doubt that if they had retained the administration of affairs, France might have been saved from all she has suffered. The grand mistake of that body was their too early abdication, and their carrying disinterestedness so far as to forbid the re-election of any of their body. A very little foresight might have anticipated, that, in a country where men had been so little habituated to public business, few could be found adapted to legislate for troublous times, and that the people at large, who were ignorant and debased, would be more likely to be influenced by violence and declamation than by worth and moderation. It must be granted that some excesses were committed by the people during the government of the national conventions, but it is notorious that these were opposed and always repressed by the constitutionalists. The foolish encouragement given by the royal family of France to the old nobility, was a constant power placed in the hands of demagogues, to stir up the common people to insurrection; yet La Fayette and the national guard were efficient protectors, in these instances, of the royal person. A cordial union on the part of the sovereign with this party would have established his throne immoveably. Unhappily, it is but too clear, that the excesses of the people were always represented to him as the inevitable result of any change from absolute monarchy.

The dissolution of the first national assembly introduced men of extravagant opinions into the government: supported by the people, their number of course exceeded the more moderate party, and measures of a violent nature consequently were resorted to. No sooner, however, had these gained the victory, than others, prepared to go still greater lengths, arose, and carried all before them. This sort of struggle between those who would sacrifice much and those who would sacrifice more to the madness of the populace, continued, without intermission, until the happy usurpation of Napoleon. The events that occupied this period, the most dreadful in history, are by no means inexplicable or even surprising. The excesses of the people were such as in all countries have been committed by beings destitute of food, taught to attribute all their misery to the happier classes, and intoxicated with a freedom they had never before known. Unfair conclusions have been drawn from the events of the revolution against the character of the French nation. They have been accused of ferocity and cruelty, and these crimes strike us with the more indignation on account of their dreadful contrast with the light and frivolous character of this people. We shall acquit them, however, of any natural tendency to these vices, if we reflect that one principle, true in itself, had been effectually engrafted on their minds,—that it is lawful to sacrifice the few for the many. Animated with this notion, the slaughter of any one who opposed the emancipation of France seemed a virtue. Hence, massacres were but too frequent, while plunder was, to a great extent, abstained from, or at least its produce thrown into the common stock. Moreover, we must separate the occasional violence of the mob from the systematic murders of Robespierre and his cotemporaries. These were not the acts of the populace; they were effected by a small number of assassins, well paid by a still smaller number of demagogues. Even for the last some palliation may be found. They also viewed their opponents as the enemies of liberty; and they also held the principle, that to maintain a good cause all measures are justifiable. They had gradually advanced from one violence to another, until they lost every restraint of justice or morality. The life of their fellow creatures became valueless in comparison with their own elevation, and the consequent elevation

elevation of their country. Each party, animated by the same principles of action, feared from the other the stroke of death, and therefore hastened to anticipate it. Near the time of Robespierre's death every man in power was compelled to kill lest he should himself be killed; and to this personal fear even the atrocities of Robespierre himself must be partly attributed.

The above reflexions have been suggested to us by a recent perusal of Mignet's History of the French Revolution. As to the facts of that event, we find nothing material to add to what we have said under the article FRANCE, to which we refer our readers.

REVOLU'TIONARY, *adj.* Originating in a revolution. —The form of that monster in politics, of which, as the very notion involves a contradiction of ideas, the name cannot be expressed without a contradiction in terms, "a *revolutionary* government!" *Lord Mornington.*

REVOLU'TIONIST, *s.* A favourer of revolutions: of the same origin and character as *revolutionary.*—If all *revolutionists* were not proof against all caution, I should recommend it to their consideration, that no persons were ever known in history, either sacred or profane, to vex the sepulchre. *Burke.*

To REVO'MIT, *v. a.* [*revomir*, Fr.] To vomit; to vomit again.—They might cast it up, and take more, vomitting and *revomitting* what they drink. *Hakewill.*

REVU'LSION, *s.* [*revulsus*, Lat.] The act of revelling or drawing humours from a remote part of the body.—I had heard of some strange cures of frenzies, by casual applications of fire to the lower parts, which seems reasonable enough, by the violent *revulsion* it may make of humours from the head. *Temple.*—The act of withholding or drawing back.—There is no excuse to forget what every thing prompts unto us.—To run on in despite of the *revulsions* and pullbacks of such remoras, aggravates our transgressions. *Brown.*

REVUL'SIVE, *s.* Revulsion, in its medical sense.—His flux of blood breaking forth again with greater violence than it had done before, was not to be stopped by outward applications, nor the *revulsives* of any kind, not of its own, the opening of a vein, first in the arm, and after in the foot. *Fell.* —That which has the power of subducting or withdrawing. —In his sicknesses, he never intermitted study, but rather reinforced it then as the most appropriate *revulsive* and diversion of pain. *Fell.*

REVU'LSIVE, *adj.* Having the power of revulsion.

REUS, a considerable town of Spain, in Catalonia, situated in a fertile plain, about six miles from the sea. Its harbour is at a village called Salon, and is joined to the town by a canal, and business is carried on here with an activity very seldom exemplified in Spain. In the middle of the 18th century, Reus was little more than a village, where the merchants of the chief towns of Catalonia had agents to purchase the wine, brandy, and fruit of the adjacent country; but manufactures of silk, cottons, leather, hats, as well as of brandy and liquors, have been progressively established; and the population, having continued in a course of augmentation, now exceeds 20,000, who are in general marked by the characteristic perseverance of the Catalans, and very different from the Spaniards of the south; 8 miles west from Tarragona.

REUSE, a small river in the west of Switzerland, which flows into the lake of Neufchatel.

REUSS, a principality of the interior of Germany, in Upper Saxony, divided into two parts, of which the one adjoins the Prussian, the other the Bavarian territories. The area of the whole is about 600 square miles; the population 85,000. The surface is in general hilly, and better adapted for pasture than tillage. The hills contain extensive plantations, with productive mines of copper and lead; also a few of iron, silver, alum, and vitriol. The more extensive manufactures are of woollen and linen; the smaller of leather, cottons, and hardware. The chief town is Gera. The north-east corner of the principality is watered by the Elster, the south-west by the Saale.

The princes of Reuss are of a very old family, repeatedly divided and subdivided into lesser branches. At present it consists of two principal lines, the elder and the younger. The younger has an income of £40,000 sterling, the elder of only £13,000. They participate in the votes of the diet of the Germanic confederation; and even in this petty principality there exists a deliberative body, under the name, and on the old plan of states. The prevailing religion is the Lutheran.

REUSS, one of the largest rivers of Switzerland, which issues from the small lake Luzendro, in Mount St. Gothard, flows through the lake called the Waldstadtersee, passes by Lucerne, and falls into the Aar, near Bruck. Flowing through a very mountainous country, it has a great number of waterfalls, and receives mountain streams in rapid succession. On this river, below the valley of Urseren, is the Devil's bridge, consisting of a single arch, of 80 feet span, at a spot where the river has a fall of 100 feet. It abounds in salmon, some of which are of great size. It becomes navigable at Lucerne.

REUTLINGEN, a town of Germany, in Wirtemberg, on the small river Echetz; 19 miles south-by-east of Stutgard. It is a place of antiquity, and, after being long a free town, was incorporated with the dominions of Wirtemberg. Its population, amounting to 8300, are Lutherans, and carry on manufactures on a small scale, but of great variety, viz. woollen, linen, cotton, and leather; also hardware, soap, hats, and paper. The chief public buildings are a church in the Gothic style, and the town-house, which is also of old date. Here is likewise a lyceum or high school, and a well endowed hospital. Though no longer a place of strength, it is surrounded with a mound and ditch.

REVUCRA, a town of the north of Hungary; 13 miles north of Neusohl. Population 1300.

REW, *s.* [ræpa, Sax. *reihe*, German, rank, order, series.] The old word for *row.* A *rew* of trees. *Barret.*—"A *rew* or rank." *Sherwood.*—*Rew* is also the Cornish word. Wicliffe, Gower, and Chaucer, use it.

The goddesse with her crew,—
Sitting beside a fountaine in a *rew.* *Spenser.*

REWAH, a town of Hindostan, province of Allahabad, district of Bogilcund. It is situated on the banks of the Bija river, is of considerable extent, and is the residence of a Hindoo chief, now tributary to the British. It contains a good citadel, built of stone, and the country in the vicinity is well cultivated. Lat. 24. 27. N. Long. 81. 25. E.

To REWA'RD, *v. a.* [From the ancient French *rewerdon*, i. e. *reguerdon; rewerdonement*, recompense." *Roquefort.*] To give in return.—Thou hast *rewarded* me good, whereas I have *rewarded* thee evil. 1 *Sam.* xxiv. 17 — To repay; to recompense for something good.

To judge the unfaithful dead, but to *reward*
His faithful, and receive them into bliss. *Milton.*

REWA'RD, *s.* Recompense given for good performed.

To myself I owe this due regard,
Not to make love my gift, but my *reward.* *Dryden.*

It is sometimes used with a mixture of irony, for punishment or recompense of evil.—What *reward* shall be given or done unto thee, thou false tongue? even mighty and sharp arrows, with hot burning coals. *Ps.* cxx. 3.

REWA'RDABLE, *adj.* Worthy of reward.—The action that is but indifferent, and without reward, if done only upon our own choice, is an act of religon, and *rewardable* by God, if done in obedience to our superiors. *Bp. Taylor.*

REWA'RDABLENESS, *s.* Worthiness of reward.—What can be the praise or *rewardableness* of doing that which a man cannot chuse but do? *Goodman.*

REWA'RDER, *s.* One that rewards; one that recompenses.—A liberal *rewarder* of his friends. *Shakspeare.*

REWARY, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi, and district of Narnoul. It is possessed by a native chief, one of the numerous British tributaries. Lat. 28. 13. N. long. 76. 42. E.

REWE, a village of England, in Devonshire; 5 miles north-east of Exeter.

To REWORD, *v. a.* To repeat in the same words.

Bring me to the test,
And I the matter will *reword;* which madness
Would gambol from. *Shakspeare.*

REY, a river of England, in the county of Wilts, which joins the Thames at Cricklade.

REY. See REA.

REY, one of the Pearl islands, in the bay of Panama; 20 miles long from north to south, and 10 or 11 wide, and about 20 miles distant from the continent of Panama. It has a good port, and is surrounded with other isles. Lat. 8. N. Long. 79. 46. W.

REY, a river of Paraguay, which enters the Plata.

REY, a small island of Chili, at the mouth of the river Valdivia.

REYDE, a fortress of the Netherlands, in the province of Groningen, at the entrance of the arm of the sea called the Dollart. It is situated near the extremity of a projecting point of land, opposite to Embden; 7 miles east-south-east of Delfzyl.

REYDON, a village of England, in Suffolk; 2 miles north-west of Southwold.

REYES, a city of New Granada, in the province of Santa Martha. It is now reduced and poor. The climate is hot and unhealthy; 72 miles south of Santa Martha. Lat. 10. 6. N. Long. 73. 50. W.

REYES, a city of the Caraccas, in the province of Venezuela. The inhabitants carry on a lucrative trade in cocoa, tobacco, and in neat cattle; 40 miles south-south-west from Caraccas. Lat. 9. 57. N. Long. 67. 19. W.—It is also the name of several other inconsiderable settlements in different parts of South America.

REYES, a small island near the coast of Patagonia, at the entrance of Port Desire. Lat. 47. 50. S.

REYES, a river of the province of South America, in Tucuman, which runs east for many leagues.

REYHER (Samuel), an eminent German mathematician, was born at Schleusingen, in Saxony, in the year 1635. He received the early part of his education under his father, and then pursued his mathematical studies at the university of Leipsic. He next went to Leyden, and studied the algebra of Vieta under the celebrated James Golius, with whom he contracted an intimate friendship. On his return to Leipsic, he obtained so high a reputation in teaching the mathematics, that he was nominated preceptor to the young prince of Gotha, the eldest son of the Duke of Saxe-Gotha. In 1665 he accepted an invitation to fill the mathematical chair at the university of Kiel, and having first paid a visit to Leyden, he was there admitted to the degree of doctor in civil law. In a few years afterwards he was appointed professor extraordinary of civil law, in 1683 professor in ordinary of the Institutes, and in 1692 professor of the code of Justinian. He died in 1714, in the 80th year of his age. He translated the works of Euclid into the German language, illustrating the geometrical with algebraical demonstrations wherever they would admit of it; and he published, among many other works, a learned work, entitled "Mathesis Biblica;" and a very curious "Dissertation concerning the Inscription on the Cross of Jesus Christ, and the Hour of his Crucifixion." *Moreri.*

REYMERSTONE, a village of England, in Norfolk; 6 miles south-east of Dereham.

REYN, JAN DE, or RHENI, called also *Lang Jan*, was an artist of very considerable merit, a disciple, and skilful imitator of Vandyke, to whom he was so much attached that he followed him to London, and remained some time with him. He was born at Dunkirk in 1610; and he so effectually benefited by the instructions of Vandyke, that his pictures are frequently sold for those of that master. But as he, in general, painted history more than portrait, he has a freer line in composition, though not so correct a one as his master. His works are scarce, though he lived to the age of 68, but their apparent scarcity is possibly owing to so many of them being imputed to Vandyke. Among the works which are indisputably his, are mentioned the Baptism of Totila, which is in a church at Dunkirk; and a grand altar-piece in the parish church of St. Martin, at Bergues, representing Herodias bringing the head of St. John to Herod. He died in 1678.

REYNA (Cassiodorus de), celebrated for being the first translator of the whole bible into the Spanish language, and on this account he is noticed, though we have no particulars concerning his life. To his translation he introduced notes explanatory and critical. The place where this version was printed is not mentioned in the title-page, though from some typographical marks, it may be ascertained pretty correctly that it was at Basil; and as the author was probably a Protestant, he thought proper to conceal his name, that it might not prevent his work from being received among the Spanish Catholics, and it has only his initials R. C. to a Latin preface, recommending it to the kings, princes, and nobles of Europe, and particularly of the Roman empire. The date is 1569, and it is entitled "La Biblia, que es, Los Sacros Libros del Vieio y Nuevo Testamento. Transladada en Espagnol." The first edition of this version is now very scarce. *Moreri.*

REYNARDS, a tribe of Indians in North America, who reside in three villages, the first situated on the western side of the Mississippi, six miles above the rapids of Rock river; the second about twelve miles behind the lead mines; and the third on Turkey river, half a league from its entrance. They hunt on both sides of the Mississippi, from the river Jowa, and occasionally employ themselves in agriculture, raising a great quantity of corn, beans, and melons, the former of these articles in such abundance, as to sell many hundred bushels per annum. This tribe is supposed to consist of 1750 souls, among whom are 400 warriors.

REYNEAU (Charles René), an eminent French mathematician, was born at Brissac, in the province of Anjou, in in the year 1656. At the age of twenty, he took up his residence in the house belonging to the congregation of the Oratory at Paris, without any intention of entering into the community. His object was to enjoy the advantages in study which that celebrated order afforded for improvement in literature. In a short time, however, a change took place in his mind, and he became a member of the house. He became strongly attached to the science of geometry, and in 1683 he was appointed to a mathematical professorship at Angiers; this post he retained 22 years with extraordinary reputation. In this situation he undertook to reduce into one body, for the use of his scholars, the principal theories scattered through the writings of Descartes, Leibnitz, Bernouilli, the Leipsic Acts, the Memoirs of the Paris Academy of Sciences, and other works. The fruit of this undertaking, entitled "The Analysis demonstrated, &c." he pubished at Paris in the year 1708, in two vols. 4to. He assumed this title for his work because it contained demonstrations of several methods of analysis which had not been demonstrated by the authors of them, or, at least, not with sufficient perspicuity and exactness. By supplying what was left undone by other persons, he rendered so signal a service to mathematical students, that it became a maxim, at least in France, that to follow father Reyneau was the best way to make much progress in mathematics. Hence he was esteemed the Euclid of the sublime geometry. His great work was reprinted in 1738. In the year 1714 he drew up an elementary work on the subject, under the title of "The Science of Calculation, &c." which was most favourably received. This came out in one volume, and he had prepared materials for a second, which did not make its appearance till after the author's death. In 1716 the Royal Academy

J. Pass sc.

REYNOLDS.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1826.

demy of Sciences at Paris admitted some new members, under the designation of "free associates;" father Reyneau was of that number, and he frequently assisted at their meetings. He died in 1723, at the age of 72, regretted as well for his many virtues, as for profound and extensive learning. The first men in France for talents deemed it an honour to count Reyneau among their friends. In this number was father Malebranche, of whom Reyneau was a zealous disciple. He left behind him a treatise on "Logic, or the Art of Reasoning," which was published in 1745. *Moreri.*

REYNOLDS (Sir Joshua, Knt.), was the son of the Rev. Samuel Reynolds, rector of Plympton, near Plymouth, in Devonshire, and was born there, on July 16, 1723; the tenth of eleven children, five of whom died in their infancy. He was, for some time, instructed in the classics by his father, and was intended for the practice of physic; but he began, at a very early age, to display an inclination for the art in which he subsequently made so distinguished a figure. At eight years of age he made himself so far master of perspective, as to draw his father's bookcase according to rule, and, encouraged by his affectionate parent, amused himself by copying prints that he found in books, and particularly those in Jacob Kat's emblems. From these early labours the transition was easy to the attempt at drawing likenesses of his friends, and in these he obtained tolerable success. Richardson's Treatise on Painting was then put into his hands, and, according to his own report, he was, by that work, stimulated to the greatest degree of enthusiasm for the art of painting, and led to regard its professors, particularly Raphael, as among the greatest and most illustrious of men, either in ancient or modern time. After he had spent some time practising in the neighbouring country, his parents were induced, by the advice of a Mr. Cranch, to send him to London, as the place best calculated to improve talents such as he had so decidedly exhibited; and accordingly, in October 1741, he first visited the capital, and was immediately placed with Mr. Hudson, the most renowned portrait painter of that time, in order to acquire the first rudiments of this art.

Whatever was the cause, whether, as it is said, Hudson became jealous of the ability of his pupil, or, as is equally probable, the pupil became disgusted with the want of taste exhibited by his master, in little more than two years they disagreed, and young Reynolds returned to his father, and again employed himself in painting his friends. Many of these early productions of his pencil are still to be seen in the town and neighbourhood of Plymouth, and some of them possess very considerable merit, and indicate his future greatness. One of them, particularly, of a boy reading in reflected light, 30 years afterwards, excited surprize in his own mind, and an expression of regret that, in so many years, he should have made so little progress in his profession. He is said to have lamented having passed this period of his life in the way he had done; most probably, however, that regret alludes to his absence from London, where he would most undoubtedly have seen more of the art, and learnt more of its practice, than elsewhere. But perhaps it was a fortunate occurrence that he was removed to a station where he had to rely upon his own exertions, unbiassed by the gross and barbarous taste which then prevailed; since, guided by his own feelings, he followed the dictates of nature, untrammelled by the pedantry of amateurs, and the low ignorance of the greater part of the professors of the day.

Finding his practice increasing, he took a house, at Plymouth Dock, and there became known to the family of Mount Edgecumbe, by whom he was warmly patronized, and recommended to captain (afterwards lord) Keppel, who carried him to Italy in 1749; and it would appear, from a letter of his to lord Mount Edgecumbe, written when he was in Rome, that that noble lord defrayed the expence of his residence there. The course of his studies during the three years that he spent there, is not precisely known. He made some few copies of figures and heads from the works of Raphael, but that does not appear to have been a favourite mode of study with him, for in one of his lectures he has said, "the man of true genius, instead or spending all his hours, as many artists do while they are at Rome, in measuring statues, and copying pictures, soon begins to think for himself, and endeavours to do something like what he sees. I consider general copying as a delusive kind of industry; the student satisfies himself with the appearance of doing something; he falls into the danger of imitating without selecting, and of labouring without any determinate object: as it requires no effort of the mind, he sleeps over his work; and those powers of invention and disposition, which ought particularly to be called out and put in action, lie torpid, and lose their energy for want of exercise. How incapable of producing any thing of their own, those are, who have spent most of their time in copying, is an observation well known to all who are conversant in our art." That he reflected deeply on the great works of the ancient and modern masters is evident, both from his pictures and writings; though the taste with which he subsequently applied the knowledge he had acquired, proves the originality of his mind, and the extent of his genius.

Mr. Reynolds returned through Paris to England in October 1752, and after a short time spent at his native place, to recruit his health, which had somewhat suffered by the journey, he fixed his settled residence in the metropolis; taking a house in St. Martin's-lane. He there painted, as his first essay, a head, from an Italian youth he had brought over with him, (Giuseppe Marchi). He dressed it in a rich turban, and its execution excited so much attention, that his old master, Hudson, was induced to go to see it, and carefully watched its progress; when, upon seeing at length no trace of his own manner left, and unable, or unwilling, to find any other merit in it, he exclaimed, "Why Reynolds, you don't paint so well as you did when you left England!" Notwithstanding this envious declaration, the pupil became the superior favourite with the public; and Hudson retiring, left him without a competitor.

In 1753, or 4, he took a large house in Newport-street, where he resided for eight or nine years, and there he painted a whole length portrait of his friend Commodore Keppel walking on the sea-shore, which drew upon him universal admiration, and fixed him completely in the public esteem. At this time his price was ten guineas for a head; in 1755 he raised it to twelve; and in 1758 to twenty guineas; and he afterwards, by degrees, advanced it to fifty; at which it remained till he declined practice; the price of a half length, during the latter period, being 100, and for a whole length 200 guineas.

To say that he was universally regarded as being at the head of the profession of portrait painting at the time adverted to, cannot indeed be considered as any great praise, such was its degraded condition; though Hudson had certainly advanced above his immediate predecessors. Reynolds, however, deserved much more, for he united to a dignified characteristic resemblance of the head, an endless variety of spirited and graceful attitudes, picturesque backgrounds, novel and striking effects of light and shade, with a voluptuous richness and harmony of colour, which certainly had never before been seen united to so many other qualities in that branch of the art. It must not, however, be understood, that his performances at that time possessed those excellencies to the degree in which we find them in his latter works; for he was one of the few, whose efforts ended but with his life; who has been heard to say, that he never began a picture without a determination to make it his best; and whose unceasing progress almost justified the maxim he was so fond of repeating continually, "that nothing is denied to well directed industry." Besides his uncommon assiduity, which was apparent to all, little information remains to us of the precise method of study by which such extraordinary excellence was attained, except what may be collected from the following extract, made from some papers left by him, and intended perhaps for insertion in another discourse; in which, as his biographer observes, he speaks of

of his merits and defects with singular modesty and candour. "Not having the advantage of an early academical education, I never had that facility of drawing the naked figure which an artist ought to have. It appeared to me too late when I went to Italy, and began to feel my deficiencies, to endeavour to acquire that readiness of invention which I observed others to possess. I consoled myself, however, by remarking, that those ready inventors are extremely apt to acquiesce in imperfection, and that if I had not their facility I should, for this very reason, be more likely to avoid the defect which too often accompanied it,—a trite and common-place invention. How difficult it is for the artist who possesses this facility to guard against carelessness and common-place, is well known; and in a kindred art, Metastasio is an eminent instance, who always complained of the great difficulty he found in obtaining correctness, in consequence of his having been in his youth an improvisatore. Having this defect constantly in my mind, I never was contented with common-place attitudes or inventions of any kind. I considered myself as playing a great game; and instead of saving money, I laid it out faster than I got it, in purchasing the best examples of the art that could be procured; for I even borrowed money for this purpose. The possessing portraits by Titian, Vandyke, Rembrandt, &c. I considered as the best kind of wealth. By studying carefully the works of great masters, this advantage is obtained: we find that certain niceties of expression are capable of being executed, which otherwise we might suppose beyond the reach of art. This gives us a confidence in ourselves, and we are thus incited to endeavour at not only the same happiness of execution, but also at other congenial excellencies. Study, indeed, consists in learning to see nature, and may be called the art of using other men's minds. By this kind of contemplation and exercise, we are taught to think in their way, and, sometimes to attain their excellence. Thus, for instance, if I had never seen any of the works of Correggio, I should never, perhaps, have remarked in nature the expression which I find in one of his pieces: or if I had remarked it, I might have thought it too difficult, or perhaps impossible, to be executed.

"My success and continual improvement in my art (if I may be allowed that expression), may be ascribed, in good measure, to a principle which I will boldly recommend to imitation; I mean a principle of honesty, which in this, as in all other instances, is, according to the vulgar proverb, certainly the best policy. I always endeavoured to do my best. Great or vulgar, good subjects or bad, all had nature; by the exact representation of which, or even by the endeavour to give such a representation, the painter cannot but improve in his art.

"My principal labour was employed on the whole together, and I was never weary of changing and trying different modes and effects. I had always some scheme in my mind, and a perpetual desire to advance. By constantly endeavouring to do my best, I acquired a power of doing that with spontaneous felicity, which at first was the effort of my whole mind, and my reward was three-fold; the satisfaction resulting from acting upon this just principle, improvement in my art, and the pleasure derived from a constant pursuit after excellence.

"I was always willing to believe that my uncertainty of proceeding in my works, that is, my never being sure of my hand, and my frequent alterations, arose from a refined taste, which could not acquiesce in any thing short of a high degree of excellence. I had not an opportunity of being early initiated in the principles of colouring; no man indeed, could teach me. If I had never been settled with respect to colouring, let it at the same time be remembered, that my unsteadiness in this respect proceeded from an inordinate desire to possess every kind of excellence that I saw in the works of others; without considering that there are in colouring, as in style, excellencies which are incompatible with each other: however, this pursuit, or any similar one, prevents the artist from being tired of his art. We all know how often those masters who sought after colouring changed their manner, while others, merely from not seeing various modes, acquiesced all their lives in that in which they set out. On the contrary, I tried every effect of colour; and by leaving out every colour in its turn, shewed every colour that I could do without it. As I alternately left out every colour, I tried every new one; and often, as is well known, failed. The former practice, I am aware, may be compared by those whose first object is ridicule, to that of the poet mentioned in the Spectator, who in a poem of 24 books, contrived in each book to leave out a letter. But I was influenced by no such idle or foolish affectation; my fickleness in the mode of colouring, arose from an eager desire to attain the highest excellence. This is the only merit I can assume to myself from my conduct in this respect."

His assiduity and love of his profession left him little leisure for country excursions. Occasionally, however, he spent a few days at his villa on Richmond-hill, and visited, at different times, the seats of some of the noblemen and gentlemen of his acquaintance, from whence he was always glad to return to the practice of his profession, and the enjoyment of that intellectual society, of which, like his friend Johnson, he justly considered London as the head-quarters. He, very soon after he became settled, perceived the advantage which one confined to the laborious duties of an arduous profession might derive from the society of literary men. Finding how little time he could spare from his profession, for the purpose of acquiring general knowledge from books, he resolved to partake as much as possible of the benefits which might be drawn from the conversation of the learned and ingenious men of his time. In consequence of this, and of his cheerful and convivial habits, his table, for above thirty years, exhibited an assemblage of all the talents of Great Britain and Ireland; there being, during that period, scarcely a person in the three kingdoms distinguished for his attainments in literature or the arts, or for his exertions at the bar, in the senate, or the field, who was not occasionally found there.

Soon after the return of Sir Joshua from Italy, he became acquainted with Dr. Johnson, to whose superior talents he was always proud to acknowledge his obligations; and in the paper we have before-mentioned, has expressed his sense of the benefit he had derived from his society. When speaking of the value of associating either personally or by study with the truly great, he adds, "May I presume to introduce myself as an instance of the truth of what I have remarked. Whatever merit the discourses which I have had the honour of delivering from this place may have, it may in great measure be imputed to the education which I may be said to have had under Dr. Johnson. I do not mean to say, though it certainly would be to the credit of these discourses, if I could say it with truth, that he contributed even a single sentiment to them; but he qualified my mind to think justly. No man had, like him, the faculty of teaching inferior minds the art of thinking."—"The observations which he made on poetry, on life, and on every thing about us, I applied to one art; with what success others must judge." The great leviathan of literature found in the mind of Reynolds a congenial purity and strength, and became zealously attached to him; who, with such a coadjutor, found but little difficulty in collecting around him a circle of the most able and useful members of society. Many illustrious foreigners were personally intimate with him, and his friendship was sought by individuals of the highest quality; who revered his genius as much as they respected the worth of his private character. From such connections, his mind rich in its own stores, received an accession of most extensive information, and an inexhaustible treasure for conversation. He had a mind ever open to acquire useful knowledge; a sound and penetrating judgment to select what he acquired, and great industry and application in rendering his acquirements useful.

The variety of talent he exhibited, and the consequent eminence which he gained, qualified him to share the honours of the first scientific institutions. He was accordingly admitted to the Royal, the Antiquarian, and the Dilletanti Societies;

Societies; and when the late lord North was installed chancellor of the University of Oxford, in July 1773, Sir Joshua was admitted to the honorary degree of doctor in civil law. He had previously, in 1769, been elected to the presidency of the Royal Academy, in the formation of which he had a principal share, and had, upon the occasion, been honoured by his majesty with the rank of knighthood. To this institution he was a most invaluable member, and repaid the honour and fame he acquired from his situation in it, by a zealous attention to its interests. Nor did the Academy derive less credit from the admirable works which he continued yearly to exhibit in it, consisting indeed chiefly of portraits, though he rarely suffered a season to pass in which he did not bring forwards one or more specimens of his powers in history. From the year 1769, when, as we have said, the academy was founded, till 1790, inclusive, it appears that he sent no less than 244 pictures to the exhibition.

The task of reading lectures was no part of the prescribed duty of his office; but imposed voluntarily upon himself for the following reasons, assigned by him in his fifteenth discourse. "If prizes were to be given, it appeared not only proper, but almost indispensably necessary, that something should be said by the president on the delivery of those prizes, and the president, for his own credit, would wish to say something more than mere words of compliment; which, by being frequently repeated, would soon become flat and uninteresting; and by being uttered to many, would at last become a distinction to none. I thought, therefore, if I were to preface this compliment with some instructive observation on the art, when we crowned merit in the artists whom we rewarded, I might do so to animate and guide them in their future attempts." To the exertions which this most judicious sense of propriety stimulated him to make, he is indebted principally, for his renown as an author. In the course of twenty-one years, viz. from 1769 to 1790, inclusive, he composed fifteen discourses; replete with the soundest principles, and the most useful information concerning the art he practised, that have ever been given to the world; in which though it must be acknowledged that there are some few points not sufficiently explained, yet they are free from the affected rant of connoisseurship, and practically efficient to guide the young, whilst it confirms the more advanced, in pursuit of just objects of the art of painting, and the surest means of obtaining success. Besides these, he wrote three papers for the Idler, in 1759; viz. Nos. 76, 79, and 82; in which is exhibited his original turn of thinking on the nature and properties of beauty and of art: and in 1783, his notes to Mason's translation of Du Fresnoy's poem on Painting, gave to the world many practical observations and explanations of the rules laid down in the text, which convey instruction of the most useful kind, and tend to show how carefully, and how systematically, his mind was made up on the subject.

It has been conjectured, and widely diffused in opinion, that Sir Joshua did not compose his lectures himself. In support of what is due to him on that head, Mr. Northcote, who lived some years in his house, has said in his memoirs, "At the period when it was expected he should have composed them, I have heard him walking at intervals in his room till one or two o'clock in the morning, and I have on the following day, at an early hour, seen the papers on the subject of his art which had been written the preceding night. I have had the rude manuscript from himself, in his own handwriting, in order to make a fair copy from it for him to read in public: I have seen the manuscript also after it had been revised by Dr. Johnson, who has sometimes altered it to a wrong meaning, from his total ignorance of the subject and of art; but never to my knowledge saw the marks of Burke's pen in any of the manuscripts.

"The bishop of Rochester, also, who examined the writings of Mr. Burke since his death, and lately edited a part of them, informed a friend that he could discover no reason to think that Mr. Burke had the least hand in the discourses of Reynolds." And Burke himself, in a letter to Mr. Malone, after the publication of Sir Joshua's life and work, says, "I have read over some part of the discourses with an unusual sort of pleasure, partly because being faded a little in my memory, they have a sort of appearance of novelty; partly by reviving recollections mixed with melancholy and satisfaction. The Flemish journal I had never seen before. You trace in that, every where, the spirit of the discourses, supported by new examples. He is always the same man; the same philosophical, the same artist-like critic, the same sagacious observer, with the same minuteness, without the smallest degree of trifling." We may safely say, this is not the language of one who had himself contributed much to those discourses. And if neither Johnson nor Burke wrote for Reynolds, to whom else among his contemporaries shall the praise due to those invaluable compositions be given, if Reynolds is to be deprived of it?

It is much to be lamented, that the world was deprived of this great artist before he had put into execution a plan which his biographer, Mr. Malone, says, appears, from some loose papers, to have been revolved in his mind. "I have found," says that author, "among Sir Joshua's papers, some detached and unconnected thoughts, written occasionally, as hints for a discourse, on a new and singular plan, which he seems to have intended as a history of his mind, so far as concerned his art; and of his progress, studies, and practice; together with a view of the advantages he had enjoyed, and the disadvantages he had laboured under, in the course that he had run; a scheme from which, however liable it might be to the ridicule of wits and scoffers, (of which, he says, he was perfectly aware,) he conceived the students might derive some useful documents for the regulation of their own conduct and practice." Such a composition, from such a man, written after he had spent a long life in successful practice, with none to guide him; who had chosen a line of art for himself, stamped with originality; and in which he had to develope principles, and elucidate them by practice; and competent as he was to explain the operations of his own mind; could not fail of being interesting and useful in the highest degree.

In 1781, during the summer, he made a tour through Holland and the Netherlands, with a view of examining critically the works of the celebrated masters of the Dutch and Flemish schools. An account of this journey, written by himself, containing much excellent criticism on the works of Rubens, Vandyke, Rembrandt, &c. in the churches and different collections at Antwerp, Brussels, Ghent, the Dusseldorf gallery, and at Amsterdam, was published after his death; it concludes with a masterly drawn character of Rubens.

In 1783, in consequence of the emperor's suppression of some religious houses, he again visited Flanders, purchased some pictures by Rubens, and devoted several more days to the contemplation and further investigation of the performances of that great man. On his return, he remarked that his own pictures wanted force and brilliancy, and appeared, by his subsequent practice, to have benefited by the observations he had made. This year, on the death of Ramsay, he was made principal painter in ordinary to his majesty, and continued so till his death.

For a very long period he had enjoyed an almost uninterrupted state of good health, except that in the year 1782 he was for a short time afflicted with a paralytic stroke. A few weeks, however, perfectly restored him, and he suffered no inconvenience from it afterwards. But in July 1789, whilst he was painting the portrait of lady Beauchamp, he found his sight so much affected, that it was with difficulty he could proceed with his work; and notwithstanding every assistance that could be procured, he was in a few months totally deprived of the use of his left eye. After some struggles, he determined, lest his remaining eye should also suffer, to paint no more: and though he was thus deprived of a constant employment and amusement, he retained his usual spirits, and partook of the society of his friends with apparently the same pleasure to which he had been accustomed; and was amused by reading, or hearing others read to him.

In October 1791, however, his spirits began to fail him, and he became dejected, from an apprehension that an inflamed tumour, which took place over the eye that had perished, might occasion the destruction of the other also. Meanwhile he laboured under a more dangerous disease, which deprived him both of his spirits and his appetite. During this period of great affliction to all his friends, his malady was by many supposed to be imaginary, and it was erroneously conceived, that by exertion he might shake it off; for he was wholly unable to explain to the physicians the nature or seat of his disorder. It was only about a fortnight before his death that it was found to be in the liver; the inordinate growth of which, as it afterwards appeared, had incommoded all the functions of life. Of this disease, which he bore with great fortitude and patience, he died, after a confinement of three months, at his house in Leicester-square, on Thursday evening, February 23, 1792, at the age of 69.

In stature, Sir Joshua Reynolds was rather under the middle size, of a florid complexion, roundish, blunt features, and a lively pleasing aspect; not corpulent, though somewhat inclined to it; and extremely active. With manners uncommonly polished and agreeable, he possessed a constant flow of spirits, which rendered him at all times a most desirable companion: always ready to be amused, and to contribute to the amusement of others, and anxious to receive information on every subject that presented itself: and though he had been deaf almost from the time of his return from Italy; yet, by the aid of an ear-trumpet, he was enabled to partake of the conversation of his friends with great facility and convenience. On the 3d of March his remains were interred in the crypt of St. Paul's, near the tomb of Sir Christopher Wren, with every honour that could be shewn to worth and genius by an enlightened nation; a great number of the most distinguished persons attending the funeral ceremony, and his pall being supported by three dukes, two marquisses, and five other noblemen.

In many respects, both as a man and a painter, Sir Joshua Reynolds cannot be too much studied, praised, and imitated by every one who wishes to attain the like eminence. His incessant industry was never wearied into despondency by miscarriage, nor elated into neglect by success. Either in his painting-room, or wherever else he passed his time, his mind was devoted to the charms of his profession. All nature, and all art, was his academy, and his reflection was ever on the wing, comprehensive, vigorous, discriminating, and retentive. With taste to perceive all the varieties of the picturesque, judgment to select, and skill to combine what would serve his purpose, few have ever been empowered by nature to do more from the fund of his own genius: and none ever endeavoured more to take advantage of the labours of others. He made a splendid and useful collection, in which no expence was spared. His house was filled, to the remotest corners, with casts from the antique statues, pictures, drawings, and prints, by various masters of all the different schools. Those he looked upon as his library, at once objects of amusement, of study, and competition. After his death they were sold by auction, with his unclaimed and unfinished works, and, together, produced the sum of 16,947*l.* 7*s.* 6*d.* The substance of his whole property, accumulated entirely by his pencil, and left behind after a life in which he freely parted with his wealth, amounted to about 80,000*l.*

It remains to speak of his style as an artist, which is precisely that, denominated in his lectures the ornamental style; but which, beautiful and seducing as it undoubtedly is, cannot be recommended in so unreserved a degree as his industry both in study and practice: that which he characteristically terms his own uncertainty, both in design and in execution, operates too frequently and too powerfully against its entire adoption. In the higher attainments of the art, colouring and chiaro-scuro were undoubtedly elements which he favoured, and in which he moved uncontrolled. Drawing, as he himself candidly confessed, was the part of the art in which he was most defective; and from a desire perhaps to hide this defect, with an over-solicitude to produce a superabundant richness of effect, he was sometimes tempted to fritter his lights, and break up his composition, particularly if it happened to be large, into too many parts: yet, in general, his taste in lines and forms was at the same time grand and graceful; and the taste and skill with which he drew and set together the features of the human face, has never been surpassed by any artist. We would be understood to speak of his finest productions; of the ordinary class among them, we must allow, that the marking savours of manner, and the substance is not always characteristic of flesh.

In execution, though he wanted the firmness and breadth which appertain to the highest style of art, yet the spirit and sweetness of his touch were admirable, and would have been more remarkable, had he been more a master of drawing: but not being able readily to determine his forms, he was obliged to go over and over the same part, till some of the vivacity of his handling was frequently lost; his labour, however, was never wholly so, for he added to the force and harmony of his pictures by these repetitions; and frequently attained graces by them which would otherwise perhaps have remained unknown.

The numberless instances in which he is known to have borrowed thoughts, both in actions of figures, and effect of colour, seem to impeach his power of invention. But surely it could not proceed from want of a sufficient portion of that high and necessary quality, that he, who produced so many novel combinations, adopted that short-hand path to composition. We see it exemplified in a superior degree in most of his principal productions; and particularly in his whole-length and half-length portraits; the arrangements of which are no less beautiful and interesting than new and entirely his own. These are composed in a taste far surpassing all that had ever been done by his predecessors; uniting the grandeur, simplicity and fulness of Titian, and the grace and nature of Vandyke, with the artful and attractive effects of Rembrandt.

Most probably he adopted this line of conduct from necessity; driven to it by the immense source of employment which his talents for portraiture showered upon him. He had scarcely time to invent new actions or effects in all cases, or to bestow that study upon them which would have been requisite, and therefore he satisfied himself by endeavouring to infuse into those he borrowed more elegance, more feeling, or more sentiment. How effectually he did this, needs not here be mentioned. "One quality he had, which no other painter that ever breathed shares with him in an equal degree, fascination. The effect of his best pictures acts like a charm, and arrests the tasteful beholder with irresistible power. On the works of others we look with approbation, and sometimes with feelings of admiration and delight, or even with a sensation of awe; but in those of Reynolds there is generally an indescribable unity and amenity, which act upon us with a most fascinating power, and rivet the attention with superior gratification. No real connoisseur can deny the existence of this quality in his pictures, but wherein it specifically dwells, it is not easy to discover or define. They are not laboured to perfect imitation, indeed they stop very far short of that; yet they present a full image, with a degree of life and animation, that has rarely been displayed upon canvass. It is a dangerous doctrine to advance, and may be abused; but, perhaps, this power may be in great measure owing to his having painted less upon system, than from feeling; and the latter governing the exercise of his pencil, not to the neglect of, but in a superior degree to the influence of the former, necessarily imbued his works with a glow of nature; which, it will be allowed, attracts beyond the power of art. Whencesoever this fascination, of which we speak, proceeds, it must be acknowledged, that no painter ever possessed it like Reynolds."

His historical works are but few. Those, however, exhibit a power, of which it is fair to say, that if it had been early cultivated, and kept in employment, he would most probably

probably have rivalled the great names of antiquity. His poetic and fancy subjects are treated with originality, variety, taste, and sentiment.

We shall conclude our account of this great and valuable man, by quoting part of an eulogium written by his friend Mr. E. Burke a few hours after the melancholy event which it commemorates had taken place.

"In full affluence of foreign and domestic fame, admired by the expert in art, and by the learned in science, courted by the great, caressed by sovereign powers, and celebrated by distinguished poets, his native humility, modesty, and candour, never forsook him, even on surprise or provocation; nor was the least degree of arrogance or assumption visible to the most scrutinizing eye, in any part of his conduct or discourse."

REYNOLDSBURG, a post village of the United States, in Humphrey county, Tennessee.

REYNOSA, a small town of Spain, situated among the lofty ridge of mountains called La Montana, on the road to Santander; 35 miles north-west of Frias. Population 1500. Near this were defeated by the French, on 11th November 1808, the remains of the Galician army, under general Blake.

REYS, Point or Cape de los, a very conspicuous promontory on the west coast of North America, which when seen from the north or south, at the distance of five or six leagues, appears insulated, owing to its projecting into the sea, and the land behind it being less high than usual near the coast. Its highest part terminates in steep cliffs, moderately elevated, and nearly perpendicular to the sea, which beats against them with great violence. Lat. 38. 36. N. Long. 237. 24. E.

REZAT. See Retzat.

REZBACH, a town of Bavarian Franconia, on the Maine; 8 miles north of Wurzburg. Population 1000.

REZUNS, a district of the east of Switzerland, in the canton of the Grisons, to the south-west of Coire. This district was the only part of Switzerland that remained to Austria, and was ceded by her only in 1809.

RHA. See Rheum.

RHABA'RBARATE, *adj.* [from *rahabarbara*, Lat.] Impregnated or tinctured with rhubarb.—The salt humours must be evacuated by the senate, *rhabarbarate*, and sweet manna purgers, with acids added, or the purging waters. *Floyer.*

RHA'BDOMANCY, *s.* [ῥαβδος, and μαντεια.] Divination by a wand.—Of peculiar *rhabdomancy* is that which is used in mineral discoveries, with a forked hazel, commonly called Moses's rod, which, freely held forth, will stir and play if any mine be under it. *Brown.*

RHABDONALEPSIS, [Ραβδον Αναληψις.] Among the Greeks, the Reception or Elevation of the Rod, a festival kept every year in the island of Cos, at which the priest carried a cypress-tree.

RHABDOPHORI, [Ραβδοφοροι.] Among the Greeks, officers appointed to preserve peace and good order, and to correct the unruly at their public games

RHABDUS, [Ραβδος.] Among the Ancients, the iron rod with which the boys rolled the trochus.

RACHITIS. See Pathology.

RHACOMA, in Botany, a name adopted by Linnæus from Pliny, and applied to the genus called by Browne *Crossopetalum*, but which proves not distinct from Myginda; see that article. The real *Rhacoma* of Pliny appears, by his copious account of its character and qualities, to be some kind of rhubarb.

RHACOSIS, and old surgical term for an excoriated state of the scrotum.

RHADAMANTHUS, in mythology, one of the three judges or sovereigns of Hades, or the invisible world, to whom was assigned Tartarus, as Erebus was to Minos, and Elysium to Æacus. He was the brother of Minos, and the son of Jupiter and Europa; and is said to have been preferred to the honour of presiding over Tartarus, on account of the distinguished wisdom and justice of his administration. According to Plato, Æacus judged the Europeans; and Rhadamanthus, who had left Crete, and fixed his residence in Asia, had the Asiatics for his lot, among whom were also comprehended the Africans. The stern Rhadamanthus superintends in Tartarus the execution of the sentences which his brother Minos pronounces; after shaking the fatal urn in which are contained the destinies of all mortals. The office of Rhadamanthus is describd by Virgil, Æneid, lib. iv.

"Gnossius hæc Rhadamanthus habet durissima regna
Castigatque auditque dolos, subigitque fateri,
Quæ quisque apud superos, furto lætatus inani
Distulit in seram commissa piacula mortem."

RHADAMISTUS, a species of *Scarabæus;* which see.

RHÆTEUM, or Rheteum, a promontory in the vicinity of Troy, on which was erected a tomb to Ajax, mentioned by Strabo (l. 13.) and other ancient writers. Horace indeed says (Sat. l. 2.) that this hero remained without burial; but he deviates from the truth, in allusion to that incident in the tragedy of Ajax, where Sophocles feigns that Agamemnon was unwilling to allow the honours of burial to be conferred upon him, but that he yielded at length to the importunate entreaties of Teucer.

RHÆTIA, a country of Europe, which occupied part of the Alps, and was situated to the north of Italy, and to the east of Helvetia. It is not easy to ascertain its limits to the north, but we may say that it was bounded in that quarter by Vindelicia; and, in general, it corresponded to the country of the Grisons, and to the cantons of Uri, Glaris, &c. as far as the "Brigatinus lacus," or lake of Constance: it extended also over the Tyrol. This country was called Western Illyricum, and was divided into Rhætia Prima or Propria, and Secunda, extending towards Swabia, Bavaria, and Austria. This district was subjected to the Romans by Drusus, under the reign of Augustus. Soon afterwards Vindelicia took up arms in their favour, and Tiberius was sent against them, and reduced their country, so that the possessions of the Romans extended as far as the Danube. The whole of this extensive territory had borne the name of Rhætia; but under Dioclesian it was divided, as we have said, into Rhætia Prima and Secunda, the latter of which divisions was Vindelicia. Rhætia, Noricum, and some other territories, became a Roman province, and belonged to the kingdom of the Ostrogoths in Italy; but upon the declension of it, they fell under the dominion of the Franks, about which time the name of Bavarians first became celebrated in history. The principal rivers of Rhætia were the Rhenus or Rhine, the Athesis or Adige, the Oenus or Inn, the Ticinus or Tosin, and Addua. The most considerable places were Curia or Coira, at a small distance east of the Rhenus, and Tridentum or Trent, on the Athesis. Ptolemy, in his geography of Rhætia, reckons upon the Danube the following towns, viz. Bragodurum, Dracuina, Viana, and Phæniana; and towards the source of the Rhine, Tagahum, Brigantium, Ebodunum, Drusomagus, and Ectodurum.

RHAGADES, [Gr.] Fissures. An old medical term.

RHAGADIOLUS. See Lapsana, species 5.

RHAGE, a word used by medical writers for a fissure or chap in any part. The stones of grapes are also by some called *rhages;* and by others the same word is made to express the extremities of the fingers or toes.

RHAGODIA, [from ῥαξ, a berry, because its little pulpy fruit affords a principal mark of distinction between this genus and several others, to which it is nearly related.] in botany, a genus of the class polygamia, order monoecia, natural order, holeraceæ, atriplices. *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth inferior, of one leaf, concave, permanent, in five deep ovate segments. Corolla none. Stamen: filaments five, awl-shaped, opposite to the segments of the calyx, and about as long; anthers roundish, two-lobed. Pistil: germen orbicular, depressed; styles two, divaricated, short; stigmas simple. Pericarp: berry orbicular, depressed, encompassed

encompassed underneath by the calyx. Seed solitary, the shape of the berry, "furnished with albumen, and a double coat." *Brown.*

Labillardiere and Brown describe some flowers as wanting the stamens, others the pistil, though the rest have both. In this polygamous character, but especially in the nature of the fruit, which is a true *bacca*, this genus differs from CHENOPODIUM, as well as from KOCHIA, and other neighbouring genera of Mr. Brown; see those articles. The stamens are sometimes fewer than five. *Brown.*

Essential Character.—Calyx inferior, in five deep segments. Corolla none. Berry depressed, encompassed with the permanent calyx. Seed solitary, orbicular, depressed. Some male or female flowers are interspersed.

The species, all natives of New Holland, are generally shrubby, rarely herbaceous. Leaves almost always alternate, simple, often clothed with mealy powder. Flowers either spiked or conglomerated, destitute of bracteas.

1. Rhagodia billardieri.—Stem shrubby, branched, five feet or more in height, with round, leafy branches, striated when dry. Leaves stalked, spreading, an inch and a half, or two inches, long, and one-third of an inch broad, sharpish; tapering at the base. Flowers small, greenish, in terminal, much compounded, or panicled, spikes. Berries red, about the size of mustard-seed.

2. Rhagodia crassifolia.—Shrubby, erect, without thorns. Leaves entire, oval, or linear-oblong, fleshy, convex and powdery beneath. Spikes branched.

3. Rhagodia linifolia.—Somewhat shrubby, decumbent. Leaves entire, linear-lanceolate, flat, stamens one or two.

4. Rhagodia hastata. — Somewhat shrubby, erect. Branches diffuse. Leaves nearly opposite, hastate, somewhat rhomboid, entire, very smooth. Spikes terminal, leafless.

5. Rhagodia parabolica. — Shrubby, erect, without spines. Leaves triangular, obtuse, powdery. Spike branched.

6. Rhagodia spenescens.—Shrubby, erect; the young branches becoming spines. Leaves partly opposite, hastate, somewhat rhomboid, entire; powdery and hoary on both sides. Spikes simple.

7. Rhagodia nutans.—Herbaceous, prostrate. Branches ascending when in fruit, drooping at the extremity. Leaves opposite, lanceolate-hastate, acute.

The 4th is the only species cultivated in England.

RHAGOIDES, [Ῥαγοειδής, Gr.] In Anatomy, the second coat or tunic of the eye; more usually called uvea.

It has its name rhagoides, as resembling a grape-stone.

RHAHAANS, a name given to the priests of the Birman empire, to whom are assigned *kioums*, or convents, which are different in their structure from common houses, and much resemble the architecture of the Chinese. The buildings are constructed of wood; the roof is composed of different stages, supported by strong pillars; the inside comprehends one large hall; the whole house is open at the sides; some are curiously carved with various symbolic representations of the divinity. There are no apartments for the private recreation of the Rhahaans; publicity being the prevailing system of conduct among the Birmans, who admit of no secrets either in church or state. From the number of convents in the neighbourhood of Rangoon, the Rhahaans and Phonghis, who are an inferior order of priests called Tallapoins, are presumed by colonel Symes to exceed 1500; including in this estimate those in their novitiate. The age of induction into these convents, is generally from eight to twelve years, and young persons are introduced into them with great formality and ceremony. Parents vie with each other in obtaining this honour for their children, and spare no cost on the occasion of their admission; the principal charge consisting in entertainments, and the customary presents to the Rhahaans. When a boy is to be introduced into a convent, either as a temporary resident, or with a view to future consecration, his friends prepare their offerings of cloth, rice, preserves, fruit, fans, cushions, mats, and household utensils. On an appointed day he parades the streets, dressed in yellow, and mounted on a horse richly caparisoned, led by two servants: a band of music goes before, and a party of Rhahaans encircle him: his male friends follow in a troop, and the females of their families bring up the rear, the latter carrying on their heads the offerings meant for the Rhahaans. Thus they proceed to the convent of which the novice is to become a member, where he is presented in form to the senior of the brotherhood. This ceremony is repeated three times, and at each perambulation, fresh presents are to be provided.

The Rhahaans, like the Carmelites, go barefooted, and have their heads close shaven, on which they never wear any covering. Yellow is the only colour worn by the priesthood: they have a long loose cloak, which they wrap round them, so as to cover most part of the body; they profess celibacy, and to abstain from every sensual indulgence. The prescribed punishment for a Rhahaan detected in an act of incontinence is, expulsion and public disgrace; the delinquent is seated on an ass, and his face daubed with black paint interspersed with spots of white; he is thus led through the streets, with a drum beating before him, and afterwards turned out of the city: but such instances of degradation are very rare. The juniors are restricted from wandering about licentiously, either by day or night. There is a prior in every convent, who has a discretionary power to grant permission to go abroad.

The Rhahaans never dress their own victuals, holding it an abuse of time to perform any of the common functions of life, which, so long as they occupy, must divert them from the abstract contemplation of the divine essence. They receive the contributions of the laity ready cooked, and prefer cold food to hot. At the dawn of the morning they begin to perambulate the town, to collect supplies for the day: each convent sends forth a certain number of its members, who walk at a quick pace through the streets, supporting with the right arm a blue lackered box, in which the donations are deposited; these usually consist of boiled rice mixed with oil, dried and pickled fish, sweetmeats, fruit, &c. During their walk, they never cast their eyes to the right nor to the left, but keep them fixed on the ground; they do not stop to solicit, and seldom even look at the donors, who appear more desirous to bestow, than the others to receive. The Rhahaans eat but once a day, at the hour of noon. A much larger quantity of provision being commonly procured than suffices for the members of the convent, the surplus is disposed of, as charitably as it was given, to the needy stranger, or the poor scholars who daily attend them to be instructed in letters, and taught their moral and religious duties.

In the various commotions of the empire, Colonel Symes says, that the Rhahaans take no active share, nor do they publicly interfere in politics, or engage in war: by this prudent conduct they excite no resentment: the Birmans and Peguers professing the same religion, the conquerors, to whichsoever party they belonged, equally respected the ministers of their faith. The head of the Rhahaans at Rangoon, called Seredaw, is treated with great veneration. He lives in a very handsome monastery half a mile from the town, on the road leading to Shoedagon, or temple. He is in no respect distinguished, as to his outward appearance, from the common Rhahaans. He goes every day, at the same hour to the temple, to offer his devotions, and performs the journey, which is about four miles, on foot. In his conversation with Symes he betrayed a worldly pride inconsistent with his years (being about seventy-five) and sacred function: he announced, with much pomp, that he was the head of the church at Rangoon, and ostentatiously displayed, engraven on iron plates, his sacerdotal titles, which had been conferred on him by the present and the late king. Formerly there were nunneries of virgin priestesses, who, like the Rhahaans, wore yellow garments, cut off their hair, and devoted themselves to chastity and religion; but these were not long ago abolished, as being injurious to the

the population of the state. At present there are a few old women, who shave their heads, wear a white dress, follow funerals, and carry water to the convents; and these venerable dames are treated with some portion of respect. *Symes's Ava.*

RHAIADAR. See RHAYADER.

RHAIR, a considerable river of Hindoostan, which runs by the south side of Shawpour. The stream, which is about 100 yards wide and four feet in depth, dashes with great rapidity over a bed of rock; which prevents its being navigable for large boats. This river rises in the hills.

RHAMNÆ, or RHANNÆ, in ancient geography, a people of India, in the mountains near the river Namadus. *Ptolemy.*

RHAMNI, in botany, a natural order of plants in Jussieu, being the 95th in his series, or the 13th of his 14th class, and owing its name to the principal genus.

The order is thus defined.—Calyx inferior, of one leaf, with a definite number of segments in the limb. Petals five, rarely four or six, and very rarely wanting, inserted into the upper part of the calyx, or into its disk, either opposite to, or alternate with, its segments, and equal to them in number; sometimes resembling little scales, and furnished with claws; sometimes united by their broad bases. Stamens of the same number as the petals, and inserted into the same part, either alternate with them, or opposite to them. Germen superior, encompassed below with the disk of the calyx. Styles either solitary or of some definite number. Stigmas one or more. Fruit superior; in some instances pulpy, either with many cells, or many nuts, the cells, or nuts, single-seeded; in other cases capsular, of many cells and many valves, the partitions from the middle of each valve, and the cells containing either one or two seeds. Corculum flat and straight, surrounded with a fleshy albumen. Stem arboreous or shrubby. Leaves either alternate or opposite, accompanied by stipulas, that are often very minute.

Section 1. Stamens alternate with the petals. Fruit capsular. Staphylea; euonymus; and celastrus of Linnæus; with polycardia of Lamarck.

Sect. 2. Stamens alternate with the petals. Fruit a drupa or berry. Some genera of this section have the petals connected by their broad base.—Myginda; goupia of Aublet, which is glossopetalum of Schreber; rubentia of Commerson, certainly the same genus with Jacquin's clæodendrum, as Jussieu indeed suspected; cassine; schrebera of Linnæus, a genus founded altogether in error, as we shall explain in its proper place; Ilex and prinos.

Sect. 3. Stamens opposite to the petals. Fruit drupaceous.—Mayepea of Aublet, erroneously placed here, as belonging really to the jasmineæ samara; rhamnus; ziziphus; paliurus; the two last separated from the Linnæan rhamnus, by Jussieu.

Sect. 4. Stamens opposite to the petals. Fruit three-lobed.—Colletia of Commerson, Lamarck Illustr. t. 129; ceanothus; hovenia; and phylica; to which is to be added LASIOPETALUM.

Sect. 5. Genera akin to rhamni, their germen mostly superior.—Brunia of Linnæus, some of whose reputed species have the germen superior, others inferior; and bumalda of Thunberg.

Sect. 6. Genera akin to rhamni, but differing in having an inferior germen.—Gouania; plectronia, dubiously admissible here, as we have observed in its proper place; carpodetus of Forster; aucuba of Thunberg; and glossoma of Schreber, which is Aublet's votomita.

RHAMNUS, [from the Gr. ῥαμνος, which is derived by de Theis from the Celtic *Ram*, a branch.] in botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of dumosæ, rhamni. *(Juss.)* Generic Character.—Calyx none: unless the corolla be taken for it. Corolla: petal imperforate, externally rude, internally coloured, funnel-form: tube turbinate-cylindrical: border spreading, divided, acute. Scalets five, very small, each at the base of each division of the border, converging. Stamina: filaments as many as there are segments of the corolla, awl-shaped, inserted into the petal under the scalelet. Anthers small. Pistil: germ roundish. Style filiform, the length of the stamens. Stigma blunt, divided into fewer segments than the corolla. Pericarp: berry roundish, naked, divided into fewer parts internally than the corolla. Seeds solitary, roundish, gibbous on one side, flatted on the other. That part of the flower, which is here called the corolla, is more properly the perianth; and the scalelets placed close to the stamens should be named the petals.—*Essential Character.*—Calyx tubular. Corolla: scales defending the stamens inserted into the calyx. Berry.

I.—Thorny.

1. Rhamnus catharticus, or purging buckthorn.—The purging or common buckthorn rises with a strong woody stem to the height of twelve or fourteen feet, sending out many irregular branches: the young shoots have a smooth greyish-brown bark; but the older branches have a darker and rougher bark, and are armed with a few short thorns. Leaves two inches and a half long, by one and a quarter broad, dark green above but pale or light green beneath, having a pretty strong midrib, and several nerves proceeding from it, which diverge towards the sides, but meet again near the point: they stand upon pretty long slender footstalks. The flowers come out in clusters from the side of the branches: those of the male have as many stamens as there are divisions in the petal; those of the female (or hermaphrodite) have a roundish germ, which afterwards becomes a pulpy berry of a roundish form, inclosing four hard seeds.—Native of Europe, in hedges and woods: flowering from the end of April to June, and ripening its berries about the end of September.

According to Pallas, the buckthorn is common in the champaign and temperate parts of Russia and southern Siberia, but scarcely beyond the Irtis. The trunk is often thicker than a man's arm, and the wood very hard, of a reddish colour. The flowers are for the most part hermaphrodite, and clustered; in the gardens fewer and nearly solitary.

The juice of the unripe berries has the colour of saffron, and is used for staining maps or paper: these are sold under the name of French berries. The juice of the ripe berries, mixed with alum, is the sap-green of the painters; but if the berries be gathered late in the autumn, the juice is purple. The bark affords a beautiful yellow dye. The inner bark, like that of elder, is a strong cathartic, and excites vomiting. The juice made into a syrup is the officinal preparation; about an ounce is a moderate dose, but it is rarely prescribed except in conjunction with some other purging medicines.

2. Rhamnus infectorius, or dwarf, or yellow-berried buckthorn.—This is a procumbent shrub. The leaves are villose underneath. The calyx goblet-shaped and toothless. Stigmas two, reflexed.

It differs from the preceding, according to Gerard, in having the segments of the corolla the length of the tube, never longer.

Scopoli adds, that it differs in the whole habit, its place of growth, the naked spines, the leaves villose underneath, the calyx toothless and goblet-shaped, and the berries having commonly one cell empty.—Native of the south of Europe. Cultivated in 1683, by Mr. James Sutherland.

3. Rhamnus lycioides.—A shrub of about three feet high, very much branched, the branches spreading and terminated by a spine: the bark of a brown ash-colour and smooth. The leaves are sublinear, obtuse, narrower at the base, very smooth, sessile, fasciculated; the fascicles alternately scattered: several transparent pores are disseminated throughout the whole surface. The flowers arise solitary from the fascicles of leaves, and are two or three, supported on capillary footstalks shorter than the leaves. The calyx is yellow. There is no corolla. The filaments of the stamens are equal in number to the scales, and are capillary, upright-recurvate, and situated within the calyx near the germ: anthers globose. Germ globose, reddish; styles two, sometimes

times three, a little recurved: stigmas thickened and red. Capsule top-shaped, black, bisulcate, sometimes three-cornered, and opening with a two-fold or three-fold division. Seeds two or three, subtriquetrous, pale.

4. Rhamnus erythroxylon, or Siberian redwood.—This is a shrub, the height of a man, upright but twisted, stiff with few abrupt irregular spreading branches; sometimes unarmed, with short branches, sometimes more branched with thorns at the end of both branches and branchlets. Trunk among the rocks often twisted, covered with a thin brown strigose bark, Wood very hard, rigid, of an orange red colour, but frequently of a deeper red. Branches straight, rigid, alternate, with an ash-coloured brown bark, sometimes dichotomous, with thorns even from the divisions. Branchlets leafy, unarmed, very short, rugged with the scars of leaves, leafy at the end. Leaves very long, attenuated into a sort of petiole, smoothish, with very fine distant serratures; in the more branching shrub, which has the leaves narrower, scarcely visible. Peduncles frequent in bundles among the leaves. Male flowers both on a distinct shrub, and with the females, small, four cleft, with the segments sharp and yellowish. Female flowers never on the male shrub, similar, greenish: with a superior germ, three styles longer than the calyx, filiform, and a subcapitate stigma. Berry the size of a pea, globular-triconvex, sharply umbilicate. Seeds three, large, ovate-oblong, three-sided, convex.—Native of Siberia, by the Selenga and collateral rivers of Mongolia, and in the open pine woods in warm situations. The Mongols use the wood to make their images, on account of its hardness and colour. The berries yield a deep yellow dye.

5. Rhamnus oleoides, or olive-leaved buckthorn.—This is an upright shrub, with branches becoming thorny at the end. Leaves stiffish, perennial, lanceolate or ovate, blunt, even, petioled, paler and netted underneath, having frequently a very short point at the end. Flowers axillary, each on a pedicel shorter than the leaf. Berry juiceless, with a groove on each side, sub-bilobed, two-valved, two-celled, with one seed in each cell. Seed oblong, convex, subtriquetrous. There are two varieties; one with smaller leaves, ovate or ovate-oblong, like those of box, the other with linear-lanceolate leaves.

6. Rhamnus crenulatus, or Teneriffe buckthorn.—Native of the island of Teneriffe.

7. Rhamnus saxatilis, or rock buckthorn.—This species bears so much resemblance to the first, that it might be almost considered as a variety, were not all the flowers hermaphrodite, and some trifid, others quadrifid, in equal numbers. with stamens corresponding to these divisions. The leaves are narrower and much smaller, attenuated to both ends, and of an oval form. The principal branches are procumbent. The spines are more frequent. The berry is roundish, black, and contains three whitish seeds, each inclosed in a dry whitish membrane, separating into two parts with elastic force.

8. Rhamnus theezans, or tea buckthorn.—This is a shrub or small tree, creeping by runners. Branches round, striated, alternate, remote, divaricating at an acute angle. Leaves alternate, petioled, bluntish, very finely and acutely serrate, even, alternately veined, at the base of the branchlet often opposite. Spikes terminating simple or alternate, in a naked panicle. Flowers interruptedly glomerate, sessile, clustered, minute. Corolla five-cleft. Stamens five, within the petaloid scale. Style short. Stigma triple.

The poor in China, where it is a native, make use of the leaves instead of the true tea. They call it *Tia*.

II.—Unarmed.

9. Rhamnus sarcomphalus, or bastard lignum-vitæ.—This tree rises generally to a very considerable height: the trunk is often above two feet and a half in diameter, and covered with a thick scaly bark. The wood is hard, of a dark colour and close grain; it is looked upon as one of the best timber-woods in the island of Jamaica, where it grows naturally in many parts.

10. Rhamnus ferreus.—Branches round, scattered, smooth, with an ash-coloured bark. Leaves petioled, alternate, an inch and more in length, very finely nerved and veined, quite smooth on both sides, blunt. Umbels axillary on very short peduncles. Pedicels smooth, a little longer than the common peduncle.—Native of the island of Santa Cruz, whence it was sent by v. Rohr and West.

11. Rhamnus lævigatus.—Branches round, scattered, smooth, with an ash-coloured bark. Leaves petioled, alternate, an inch and half long, quite smooth, paler and yellowish at the edge, especially the younger ones, blunt, above scarcely veined, beneath paler, veinless and nerveless. Peduncles two or three together, very short, smooth, one-flowered. Flowers smooth. Germ oblong, smooth. Style one, with a bifid stigma.—West sent it from the same island.

12. Rhamnus tetragonus, or square-branched buckthorn. —This was found at the Cape of Good Hope by Thunberg.

13. Rhamnus polifolius.—Branches slender, tomentose above, hoary. Leaves petioled, alternate, scarcely an inch in length, gradually less and less upwards, on the upper surface smooth and somewhat wrinkled, mucronate. Petioles very short, tomentose. Flowers sub-solitary, scarcely peduncled, ash-coloured, subtrigynous.—Supposed to be a native of New Zealand.

14. Rhamnus Valentinus, or Valencia buckthorn.—This is a small species, growing in calcareous rocky places, and is never upright, but always repent upon the bare rock; it is very branchy, and the branches are tortuous. The bark of a reddish brown, smooth, but tuberculated here and there with knots and fissures. The leaves on the young branches are scattered and approximated, standing on very short footstalks, and are ovate, slightly serrated, bright green above, and pale beneath. The flowers are axillary and numerous. The calyx is of an herbaceous colour. There is no corolla, unless the calyx be so named. The filaments are shorter than the calyx, subulate, and whitish: the anthers ovate, yellow, and twin. Germ ovate, in the bottom of the calyx; styles three: stigmas thickened. The fruit is an ovate trigonal capsule, and the seeds, which are three in number, are three-sided.

15. Rhamnus Cubensis, or Cuba buckthorn.—This is a small upright tree, seven feet high, branching, and in habit approaching near to Viburnum Lantana. Leaves ovate, very blunt, tomentose on both sides, petioled, alternate, four inches long. The petals, when examined by a magnifier, appear ciliate. It has the flower and fruit of the next species; and abounds in coppices, on the coast of the island of Cuba.

16. Rhamnus colubrinus, or pubescent rhamnus, or buckthorn redwood.—This is also an upright tree, with most of the branches spreading out horizontally. The twigs, petioles, peduncles, lower surface of the leaves, and outer surface of the calyx are covered with a slight ferruginous nap. Leaves oblong-ovate, their upper surfaces smooth and shining. Flowers without scent, all pointing upwards, with greenish scales. Calyx five-cleft. Anthers standing out beyond the scales. Style single, ending in a trifid stigma. Capsule roundish, three-grooved, three-celled, three-valved; the valves opening two ways at the top. Seeds, solitary, roundish, flatted a little, emarginate, black and very shining. In high mountain woods it attains the height of twenty feet, whilst in coppices on the coast it is rarely seven feet high, with leaves four inches long; whereas in the former, they are half a foot in length. The nap in Cuba is silvery, in the other islands always ferruginous. In the island of Martinico, the French know it by the name of bois coleuvre, or snake-wood; whence the name.—Native of several islands in the West Indies.

17. Rhamnus volubilis, or twining buckthorn.—Stem shrubby, twining, rufescent, even. Leaves alternate, quite entire, repand, even; on roundish, rufous, inarticulate petioles.—Native of Carolina. It flowers in June and July.

18. Rhamnus Dauricus, or Daurian buckthorn.—This is a small tree, resembling R. catharticus very much, but taller, bushy, with thicker branches, less spreading, and never having

ing any thorns. Trunk often the thickness of the human arm; the wood pale red, of a brighter colour than in the common buckthorn. Branches straight, testaceous-hoary, even: the twigs mostly opposite, leafy at the end. Leaves large, more oblong, sub-acuminate. Flowers greenish-yellow; the leaflets acute and deciduous. Stigma twin. Berries among the leaves on peduncles equal to the petioles; they are the size of a large pea, frequently twin, and commonly two-seeded; the rudiment of the third seed being abortive.—Native of Dauria, by the river Argun, where it is plentiful; but neither this nor the common buckthorn occur in other parts of Siberia.

19. Rhamnus Alpinus, or Alpine buckthorn.—This forms a shrub of several feet in height. The rounded leaves, manifestly crenate all about, distinguish it easily from R. Frangula. These leaves are not doubly-crenate: in the younger ones, the margin, being plaited by prominent veins, has the appearance of doubled notches.—Native of the mountains of Germany, Switzerland, the south of France, and Piedmont.

20. Rhamnus pumilus, or dwarf buckthorn.—This differs from the next species by its stems adhering to the rocks, and by its serrate leaves; from the preceding by its hermaphrodite flowers. The leaves are scarcely villose underneath. The berries are three-seeded. It roots itself in the fissures of the rocks, and covers them like ivy.

21. Rhamnus frangula, alder buckthorn, or berry-bearing alder.—The black berry-bearing alder rises with a woody stem to the height of ten or twelve feet, sending out many irregular branches, covered with a dark bark. Leaves ovate-lanceolate, about two inches long, and an inch broad, having several transverse nerves from the midrib to the sides. The flowers are produced in clusters at the end of the former year's shoots, and also upon the first and second joints of the same year's shoot, each upon a short separate pedicel; they are small, of an herbaceous colour, and are succeeded by small round berries, which turn red, but are black when ripe. The flowers appear in June, and the berries ripen in September.

22. Rhamnus latifolius, or Azorian buckthorn.—23. Rhamnus glandulosus, or Madeira buckthorn.—24. Rhamnus ellipticus, or oval-leaved buckthorn.—25. Rhamnus prinoides, or prinos-leaved buckthorn.—26. Rhamnus mystacinus, or wiry buckthorn.—27. Rhamnus alnifolius, or alder-leaved buckthorn.—28. Rhamnus sphærospermus, or round-berried buckthorn.—29. Rhamnus hybridus, or hybrid buckthorn.—30. Rhamnus lineatus.

31. Rhamus alaternus, or common alaternus.—The alaternus is a shrub with alternate, shining, evergreen leaves, ovate, ovate-lanceolate, or lanceolate, often glandular at the base, having remote serratures about the edge. Flowers small, numerous, axillary, in short blunt racemes. There is a very small bracte at the base of each pedicel. Flowers male and female or imperfect hermaphrodites, on the same or different individuals. The calyx in both sorts five-cleft, with the segments ovate, spreading, often bent down, yellow or brownish. Corolla none. In the male flowers, five upright stamens, alternate with the segments of the calyx: in the others, the rudiments of five stamens; the style three parted; the berry small, round, from red turning blackish when ripe, having two or three seeds, convex on one side, angular on the other.—Native of the south of Europe, and of Barbary. The fresh branches or young shoots with the leaves will dye wool a fine yellow. The honey breathing blossoms, says Mr. Evelyn, afford an early and marvellous relief to the bees. They come out in April.

This gentleman informs us, that he was the first who brought the alaternus into use and reputation in this kingdom, and that he had propagated it from Cornwall to Cumberland.

This boast of Mr. Evelyn's must be understood of his bringing this shrub into general use: for Parkinson, in 1629, had said, that we have growing in our country the tree called alaternus. It was however then rare; for Parkinson adds—"The beauty and verdure of the leaves, abiding so fresh all the year, doth cause it to be of the greater respect, and therefore findeth place in their gardens only, that are curious conservers of all nature's beauties." He calls it evergreen privet, which name is now lost in the Latin one.—Gerarde says, it is a stranger in England; and Johnson (in 1633) does not contradict it.

Clusius reports, that the fishermen in Portugal dye their nets red with a decoction of the bark; and that dyers there use small pieces of the wood to strike a blackish blue colour.

Mr. Miller makes four species of alaternus, and has figured two in his plates. These are the only varieties worth considering. The first has a variety with variegated leaves, commonly called bloatched Phillyrea by the nursery-men; and the third has the leaves striped with white and with yellow, called silver and gold-striped alaternus.

β. has the leaves much longer and narrower, and the serratures on the edges much deeper: this shoots its branches more erect, forms an handsomer bush, and is equally hardy.

The Phillyrea is sometimes confounded with the alaternus, by such as are not botanists; but they may easily be distinguished by the position of their leaves, which are alternate in this, but placed opposite by pairs in that.

The alaternus was much more in request formerly than it is at present; having been planted against walls in court yards to cover them, as also to form evergreen hedges in gardens; for which purpose it is very improper, for the branches shoot very vigourously, and being pliant are frequently displaced by the wind; in winter, when much snow falls in still weather, the weight of it often breaks the branches; these hedges also must be clipped three times in a season to keep them in order, which is both expensive, and occasions a great litter in a garden.

This shrub is still sometimes used in towns for concealing walls; but chiefly to make a variety in ornamental plantations.

32. Rhamnus carpinifolius, or hornbeam-leaved buckthorn.—Leaves oblong-lanceolate equally toothed acute, fruit sessile, all as elm.

III.—Prickly.

33. Rhamnus paliurus, or common Christ's-thorn.—This tree rises with a pliant shrubby stalk, to the height of eight or ten feet, sending out many weak slender branches, garnished with oval leaves placed alternately, standing upon foot-stalks near one inch long; these have three longitudinal veins, and are of a pale green. The flowers come out at the wings of the stalk in clusters, almost the length of the young branches; they are of a greenish-yellow colour, and appear in June, and are succeeded by broad, roundish, buckler-shaped seed-vessels, which have borders like the brims of a hat, the foot-stalks being fastened to the middle; these have three cells, each containing one seed.

From this singular appearance of the fruit, like a head with a broad brimmed hat on, the French call it *Porte chapeau*.—Native of the South of Europe, the Levant, Caucasus, and Barbary.

This by many persons supposed to be the plant from which the crown of thorns, which was put upon the head of our Saviour, was composed; the truth of which is supported by many travellers of credit, who affirm that this is one of the most common shrubs in the country of Judæa; and from the pliableness of its branches, which may easily be wrought into any figure, it may afford a probability.

34. Rhamnus lotus, or the genuine lotus.—The true Lotus of the Lotophagi is a very branching shrub; the branches are reclining and flexuose. Prickles in pairs at the origin of the leaves, one straight, the other shorter and bent in. Leaves alternate, small, blunt, three-nerved, smooth, somewhat rigid, on very short petioles. Flowers solitary or glomerate, axillary, each on a short pedicel. Calyx five-parted; segments small, ovate, spreading, alternate with the petals; which are five in number, minute, half funnel-form. Stamens five, opposite to the petals. Styles two, short approximating. Fruit a spherical drupe, the size of a wild plum, sweet and harmless; inclosing a small, round, bony, two-celled

celled nucleus, first green, but when ripe tinged with saffron colour.

Pliny describes two sorts of lotus; the one found at the Syrtis, and among the Nasomones, &c. which is this; the other in Egypt, which is Nymphæa Lotus. The former, he says, from Cornelius Nepos, is the fruit of a tree, in size ordinarily as big as a bean, of a yellow colour, sweet and pleasant to the taste. The fruit was bruised, made into a kind of paste, and then stored up for food. A sort of wine was also made from it, resembling mead; but it would not keep many days. Pliny adds, that armies in marching through that part of Africa, have subsisted on the Lotus. Perhaps this may refer to the army of Balbus, which Pliny informs us, had penetrated to Gadamis and Fezzan.

Polybius, who had himself seen the Lotus, being employed by Scipio Africanus the younger, in exploring the coasts of Africa, says, that it is the fruit of a shrub, which is rough, and armed with prickles, and in foliage resembles the Rhamnus; that when ripe it has the size of a round olive; has a purple tinge, and contains a hard stone; that being pounded it is laid by for use; and that its flavour approaches to that of figs or dates: finally, that a kind of wine is made of it by expression, and diluted with water; that it affords a good beverage, but will not keep more than ten days.

Of modern travellers, Dr. Shaw says the fruit is common in the deserts, and other parts of Barbary; is still in great repute, and sold in the markets all over the southern districts of those kingdoms. Mons. Desfontaines relates, that it is spread over the southern parts of the kingdom of Tunis, on the borders of the desert, and in the environs of the Lesser Syrtis; that the fruit is sold in the markets, their cattle fed with it, and a liquor drawn from it, as heretofore.

Mons. Saugnier, who was shipwrecked on the coast of Africa, in 1784, and was carried captive, along the western border of the Sahara to Morocco, says, that between the Capes Bojador and Nun, the people with him, eat of nothing during the day-time, that is, on the way, but a small wild fruit, resembling the jujube, which is to be found everywhere. This was about the middle or end of March. Brisson, who was in like manner carried across the Desert, during the latter part of the summer and in autumn, only remarks abundance of prickly shrubs; probably the same, after the season of fruit. Mr. Park mentions February and March as the season, on the south of the Desert; Mons. Desfontaines, says August and September, to the north of the Desert; and Mr. Browne, that the fruit remains dry on the tree, great part of the winter months.

Mr. Park describes the fruit, as small farinaceous berries, of a yellow colour, and delicious taste. The natives, he says, convert them into a sort of bread, by exposing them some days to the sun, and afterwards pounding them gently in a wooden mortar, until the farinaceous part is separated from the stone. This meal is then mixed with a little water, and formed into cakes, which, when dried in the sun, resemble in colour and flavour the sweetest gingerbread. The stones are afterwards put into a vessel of water, and shaken about, so as to separate the meal which may still adhere to them: this communicates a sweet and agreeable taste to the water, and with the addition of a little pounded millet, forms a pleasant gruel, called *fondi* which is the common breakfast in many parts of Ludamar, during the months of February and March. The fruit is collected by spreading a cloth upon the ground, and beating the branches with a stick.

Mr. Park says, that the Lotus is very common in all the kingdoms which he visited; but is found in the greatest plenty on the sandy soil of Kaarta, Ludamar, and the northern parts of Bambarra, where it is one of the most common shrubs of the country. He had observed the same species at Gambia, and had an opportunity to make a drawing of a branch in flower. The leaves of the desert shrub are, however, much smaller, resembling in that particular those represented in the engraving given by Mons. Desfontaines.

Mr. Browne informs us, that the Arabic name of the Lotus is Nebbek, and that there are two species of it in Dar-foor; the largest of which is termed Nebbek-el-arab. There is a difference in their fruit, as well as in their external appearance. The one is a bush, with leaves of dark green, not very different from those of the ivy, but much thinner. It appeared to be the same with that which he had seen in the gardens of Alexandria. The other a tree, growing to considerable size, but having both the leaves and fruit smaller; and the fruit of darker colour, and somewhat different flavour. Both of them equally thorny. The natives eat the fruit fresh or dry; for it dries on the tree, and so remains great part of the winter months. In that state it is formed into a paste of not unpleasant flavour, and is a portable provision on journeys.

Thus by comparing the information to be derived from ancients and moderns, collected with so much diligence, and digested with so much accuracy by Major Rennell, we are no longer left to wander in the wilds of conjecture, but are enabled to ascertain without ambiguity that Lotus, the history of which Homer and other ancients mixed with fable; Herodotus mentioned, without having seen, and Polybius described so well from his own knowledge.

The *Lotophagi*, as the Greeks called them, possessed a considerable part of the sea coast between the two Syrtis, the island of Meninx (now Jerba), and the coast beyond it, as far as the lake and river of Tritonis, to the Machlies. Scylax extends the name to the tribes generally, between the two Syrtis. Ptolemy limits them to the neighbourhood of the river Cinyps alone; whilst Herodotus appears to confine them to the west of that river. Strabo places them in the island of Meninx alone: although he calls the adjoining Syrtis, that of the Lotophagi. Pliny assigns them, in addition to the island, the environs of the Syrtis also.

But the allotment of this confined space, alone, to the eaters of Lotus, was owing to a want of a more extended knowledge of the countries that border on the Desert; for it appears, that the tribes who inhabit them, and whose habits are in any degree known to us, eat universally of this fruit, in a greater or less degree, according to circumstances; and most of them, apparently, as much as they can obtain of it.

35. Rhamnus Napeca.—This is a tree with subvillose branches. Leaves alternate, narrower towards the base on the hinder side, bluntish, smooth, three-nerved, petioled, yellowish. Corymbs solitary, shorter than the leaf, lateral, next the petiole. Prickles opposite to the peduncle, very short, black, recurved, very sharp, having frequently two points, one below the other.

36. Rhamnus jujuba, or blunt-leaved buckthorn.—This is a tree with round branches. Leaves very finely serrate, three-nerved, at the base on one side narrower, retuse, and deeply crenate, petioled. Flowers very many, axillary, each on very short pedicels, five-cleft, five-stamens; style bifid. Close to the petioles is a very small recurved prickle; but sometimes this is wanting.—Native of the East Indies. Cultivated in China and Cochinchina.

37. Rhamnus Xylopyrus, or sharp-leaved buckthorn.—This is a tree scarcely higher than a man. Branches from a pellicle of whitish cotton, armed very thinly with small solitary recurved prickles under the petiole. Leaves broad-ovate, often approaching to cordate, not seldom oblique, unequally serrate, dusky above, but underneath covered with a very fine white nap. Corymbus peduncled. Calyxes tomentose. Fruit a dry drupe, larger than a cherry, insipid, sub-astringent, with an unequal nut or stone.—Native of the East Indies, in deserts at the foot of the mountains.

38. Rhamnus oenoplia, or pointed-leaved buckthorn.—Native of the island of Ceylon.

39. Rhamnus Capensis, or Cape buckthorn.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

40. Rhamnus circumcissus.—Branches simple, opposite, spreading very much, angular, even. Prickles solitary, fixed, horizontal, recurved, solid. Leaves by the side of the prickles, even, obsoletely toothed, on petioles the length of the prickles.

41. Rhamnus

41. Rhamnus Zizyphus, shining leaved buckthorn, or common jujube.—Sometimes both prickles are straight, sometimes the shorter one is recurved. Calyx stellate, with the segments on the upper surface plaited through the middle. Petals hollowed like a snail's shell, upright, but after flowering recurved. Styles two or three. Drupe berried, superior, ovate-oblong, subumbilicate or obtuse at both ends, smooth, scarlet: pulp granular, sweet: shell or stone bony, ovate, acuminate at each end, wrinkled with little excavations, having at the base a transverse, prominent, compressed, acuminate callus, like an incomplete suture; two-celled, valveless. In each cell is one seed, of a rounded-ovate shape, flatted a little, plano-convex, rufescent, and at the umbilicus blackish; fastened to the bottom of the cell.

According to Loureiro, it is a middled-sized tree, with twisted branches spreading a little; and very many long straight subsolitary prickles. Leaves oblong-ovate, serrate, three-nerved, smooth on both sides. Flowers greenish-white, on axillary short peduncles, commonly single. Calyx corolline, wheel-shaped, five-cleft. Stamens five, defended by as many scales. Stigmas two, sessile. Drupe middle-sized, ovate-oblong, brownish-yellow, fleshy; inclosing an oblong two-celled nut.

Native of the south of Europe, China, Cochinchina, and Japan. The fruit is sold in the market at Canton during the autumn. In Italy and Spain it is served up at the table in desserts during the winter season, as a dry sweetmeat. Mr. Ray observed plenty of the fresh fruit exposed to sale at Venice. He saw abundance of the shrubs wild in Calabria. The jujube is said to have been first introduced into Italy from Syria, by Sextus Pampinius, in the time of Augustus: but we suppose we are to understand this of the variety improved by cultivation; as in the introduction of the Cherry by Lucullus. It was cultivated here in 1640, as appears from Parkinson.

42. Rhamnus spina Christi, or Syrian Christ's-thorn.—This sends up several shrubby stalks, dividing into slender branches, armed with straight spines, (prickles) set by pairs at each joint. Leaves small, ovate, veined, alternate, upon very short foot-stalks. Flowers small, yellow, axillary. Fruit round, about the size of the sloe.

Desfontaines describes it as an upright tree. Leaves alternate, perennial, blunt, notched about the edge, three-nerved, on short petioles: the younger ones pubescent underneath. Prickles short; one straight, the other recurved. Drupe oblong, the size of a wild plum, on a short pedicel, inclosing a roundish nucleus or stone. The fruit is eatable and pleasant.

Propagation and culture.—1. The purging buckthorn shrub is so common in the hedges of many parts of England, that it is seldom cultivated in gardens.

2. 7. Lay down the young branches in autumn, or plant cuttings in the spring, before the buds begin to swell.

16. Sow the seeds upon a hotbed in the spring, and when the plants are fit to remove, put them separately in small pots, filled with light sandy earth: plunge them into the tan-pit, and shade them till they have taken root; then treat them in the same manner as other tender exotic plants. In the autumn, place them in the bark stove, and during the winter water them, but with great caution; for too much moisture at that season will destroy them.

21. Sow the seeds as soon as they are ripe. Keep the plants clean till autumn, and then plant them in a nursery, in rows two feet asunder, and at one foot distance in the rows. Here let them remain two years, and then plant them where they are to remain. This shrub may also be increased by layers or cuttings; but the seedling plants are best.

31. The alaternus is easily propagated by laying the branches down. They should not remain in the nursery longer than a year or two. They may be transplanted either in the autumn or the spring, but in dry land the autumn planting is best, whereas in moist ground the spring is to be preferred.

RHAMNUS, among the ancients, a borough of Attica, belonging to the Ajantide tribe, 60 stadia from Marathon, in a northerly direction from the Ægean sea, in a place where the land formed a small peninsula or Chersonesus. The houses were on the sea-coast; and upon an eminence was the temple of Nemesis, in which was a fine statue of the goddess, made by Phidias, of marble, which the Persians had brought from Paros for the purpose of forming a trophy, and which had been found in their camp after the battle of Marathon; the pedestal was adorned with four basso relievos, representing different subjects of Grecian history. Leda is also exhibited presenting Helena to her mother Nemesis. See NEMESIS.

RHAMNUSIA, in Mythology, an appellation given to Nemesis, on account of her celebrated statue at Rhamnus, in Attica, which has been generally ascribed to Phidias. Pliny, however, gives the honour of it to Agoracritus, a scholar of Phidias, who, as he says, had designed it for a Venus; but seeing one preferred to it, which was executed by Alcamenes, another scholar of the same master, sold his to the Rhamnusians, on condition that they would only take it for a statue of Nemesis, whence she gained the name of Rhamnusia. See NEMESIS and RHAMNUS.

RHANTERIUM, [so named by Desfontaines, from ῥαντήριον, a brush; the down of the seed having a similar form,] in botany, a genus of the class tetrandria, order didynamia. Generic Character.—Common Calyx imbricated, nearly cylindrical; scales lax, recurved. Corolla compound, radiated; florets of the disk numerous, equal, funnel-shaped, five-cleft, erect, all perfect; those of the radius few, ligulate, three-toothed recurved, female. Stamina: in the perfect florets five, awl-shaped, short: anthers simple, united into a five-toothed cylinder. Pistil: germen in all the florets inversely conical, furrowed; style thread-shaped, the length of the stamens; stigmas two, club-shaped. Pericarp none, except the permanent calyx. Seeds of all the florets the shape of the germen; those of the disk crowned with from four to six bristles, thickened and feathery at the top; those of the radius naked. Receptacle flat, chaffy; scales acute, hollowed on one side. —*Essential Character.*—Receptacle chaffy. Seed-down of about five bristles, feathery at the top. Calyx cylindrical, imbricated. Seeds of the radius naked.

1. Rhanterium suaveolens.—Found by Desfontaines on the sandy sea-coast, near Sfax, in the kingdom of Tunis. Root perennial. Stem erect, much branched, round, leafy, one or two feet high. Branches slender, downy, striated, often entangled together. Leaves scattered, sessile, three-quarters of an inch long, lanceolate, acute, strongly serrated, either smooth or downy; the upper ones smaller, linear and entire. Flowers terminal, solitary, resembling those of several of the smaller-flowered American Asters, except in being entirely yellow. This plant flowers in summer. The bruised leaves have a fragrant smell.

RHAPHANEÆ, in ancient geography, a town of Asia, in Syria, placed by Ptolemy between Epiphania and Anteradus.

RHAPHIS, [from ῥαφίς, Gr. a needle, because of the long needle-like awn of the female flowers], in botany, a genus of the class monoecia, order triandria, natural order gramina. Generic Character.—Male flowers two, stalked, in one common involucrum. Calyx: glume single-flowered, of two awl-shaped, coloured, beardless, nearly equal valves. Corolla: glume of two lanceolate, membranous, fringed, beardless valves, shorter than the calyx. Stamina: filaments three, short; anthers oblong. Female flower solitary, in the same short, one leaved, hairy involucrum, sessile, below the male flowers. Calyx as in the male, but shorter. Corolla: glume of two valves, nearly equal to the calyx; one of them furnished with a longish, very sharp awn. Pistil: germen ovate; styles two, short; stigmas feathery. Pericarp none, except the permanent glumes. Seed solitary, oblong, compressed. *Essential Character.*—Involucrum of one leaf, three flowered. Male, calyx of two valves, coloured. Corolla of two fringed valves. Female, calyx like the male. Corolla of two valves; one of them awned. Styles two. Seed one, oblong.

1. Rhaphis trivialis.—A very common grass in China and Cochinchina, growing by road sides, and proving very troublesome on account of its seeds, which stick into the clothes of passengers, and cannot be shaken out. Rumphius speaks of it as equally common in the islands of the East Indies. The root is annual, creeping. Stem a foot high, erect, round, slender, smooth, scarcely branched, almost leafless, except at the base. Leaves nearly all radical, sessile, short, lanceolate, clasping the lower part of the stem. Panicle simple, solitary, terminal, conical, lax; its branches long, straight, ascending. Brown refers this to the genus Holcus.

RHAPIS, [from Ραπις, Gr. the same as ῥαβδος, a staff or rod.] In botany, a genus of the class polygamia, order dioecia, natural order palmæ. Generic Character.—Hermaphrodite flowers.—Calyx: perianth one-leaved, trifid. Corolla: one-petalled, trifid. Stamina: filaments six. Male flowers.—Calyx, corolla, stamina, as in the hermaphrodites. *Essential Character.*—Calyx trifid: corolla one: stamina six: pistil one.

1. Rhapis flabelliformis, creeping-rooted rhapis, or ground-ratan.—Stem arboreous, lofty. Leaves pale and smooth underneath: lobes cohering at the base, linear, cloven at the end, having rugged veins, placed on three-cornered entire petioles, the length of the leaves. Flowers in a decompound, spreading panicle, on the outmost pedicels sessile. Besoms are made of the thin netted bark of the trunk.—Native of China and Japan. It flowers in August.

2. Rhapis arundinacea, or simple-leaved rhapis.—Fronds two-parted, lobes acute plaited, plaits somewhat rugged.—Native of Carolina. It flowers in September.

RHAPPHA, a town of India, on the other side of the Ganges, among the people called Gangani.

RHAPSA, a town of Asia, in the interior of Media.

RHAPSODI. [Ραψωδοι, Gr.] Persons who made a business of singing or reciting pieces of Homer's poems.

Cuper informs us, that the rhapsodi were clothed in red, when they sung the Iliad; and in blue, when they sung the Odyssey.

They performed on the theatres; and sometimes strove for prizes, in contests of poetry, singing, &c.

After the two antagonists had finished their parts, the two pieces, or papers they were written in, were joined together again; whence the name, viz. from ῥαπτω, *suo, I join together*, and ωδη, *ode, song*.

But there seem to have been other rhapsodi of higher antiquity than these; people who composed heroic poems, or songs in praise of heroes and great men, and sung their own compositions from town to town, for a livelihood; of which profession, it is said, was Homer himself.

Hence, some critics, instead of the former origin, derive the word rhapsodist from ῥαβδω αδειν, *to sing with a laurel-rod in the hand*, which, it seems, was the badge of the primitive rhapsodi.

Philochorus, again, derives the word from ῥαπτειν τας ωδας, q. d. συντιθεναι, *to compose songs or poems;* as if they were the authors of the poems they sung. This opinion, to which Scaliger inclines, reduces these rhapsodi to the second kind.

In effect, it is probable, that they were all of the same class, whatever distinction some authors may imagine among them; and that their business was to sing or rehearse poems, either of their own, or other people's composition, as might best serve their purpose, which was gaining a pecuniary advantage by them. So that we do not apprehend it any injury to them, to set them on the foot of our ballad-singers; some of whom may probably pen their own ditties. After Homer's time, it is no wonder they confined themselves altogether to his pieces, for which the people had the utmost veneration; nor is it surprising, that they should erect stages, &c. and dispute the point of recitation in fairs and markets.

The import of the word rhapsodist underwent several changes in antiquity: it was first appropriated to bards, who sung their own verses from town to town, or at the tables of the great; in this sense Homer was called a rhapsodist. It was next bestowed on those who sung the verses of Homer on the stage, usually for a prize, allotted to the best performer of them; and, lastly, to such singers of centos, as have been just described. A rhapsody, in modern language, conveys no other meaning than that of an incoherent jumble of ideas. This sense of the word undoubtedly took its rise from the notorious folly and absurdity of the rhapsodists, in their rapturous comments upon their favourite poets; for they undertook to explain, as well as to recite. Hence it is that in Suidas, the word ῥαψωδια is defined by φλυαρια, *nonsense*.

RHAPSO'DICAL, *adj.* Unconnected.—See Dr. Heylin's confutation of Fuller's *rhapsodical* stories of the church of England. *Dean Martin.*

RHA'PSODIST, *s.* One who recites or sings rhapsodies, or compositions, for a livelihood; one who makes and repeats extempore verses. See the first sense of RHAPSODY.—Ossian and Homer, though both of the profession of *rhapsodists*, are thought to be very unlike. *Tyers.*—One who writes without regular dependence of one part upon another.—Ask our *rhapsodist*, if you have nothing but the excellence and loveliness of virtue to preach, and no future rewards or punishments, how many vicious wretches will you ever reclaim. *Watts.*

RHAPSODOMANCY, [ῥαψωδομαντεια, Gr.] An ancient kind of divination, performed by fixing on a passage of a poet at hazard, and reckoning on it as a prediction of what was to come to pass.

There were various methods of practising this rhapsodomancy. Sometimes they wrote several verses or sentences of a poet on so many pieces of wood, paper, or the like; shook them together in an urn; and drew out one, which was accounted the lot. Sometimes they cast dice on a table, on which verses were written; and that on which the die lodged, contained the prediction. The third manner was by opening a book, and pitching on some verse at first sight. This method was called, according to the poet thus made use of, *sortes Homericæ, sortes Virgilianæ*, &c.

RHA'PSODY, *s.* [ῥαψωδια, ῥαπτω, Gr. to sew, or join together; and ωδη, a song.] A collection of songs, or verses; dispersed pieces joined together.—Homer wrote a sequel of songs and *rhapsodies*, to be sung by himself for small earnings, and good cheer, at festivals and other days of merriment; the Ilias he made for the men, and the Odysseis for the other sex. These loose songs were not collected together in the Epic form till Pisistratus's time, above 500 years after. *Bentley.*—Any number of parts joined together, without necessary dependence or natural connection.

Such a deed, as sweet religion makes
A *rhapsody* of words. *Shakspeare.*

Hence among the moderns, rhapsody is also used for an assemblage of passages, thoughts, and authorities, raked together from divers authors, to compose some new piece. Lipsius's Politics make such a raphsody, in which there is nothing of the author's own but conjunction and particles.

RHAPTE, in ancient geography, the metropolis of the Ethiopians, near the river Raptus. *Steph. Byz.*

RHATOSTATHIBIUS, or, as Baxter thinks it was originally written, *Retostaubius*, a river of the isle of Albion, on the western side, the mouth of which is placed by Ptolemy between that of the Tobius and the estuary of Sabrina. This is the river Wye, and its ancient name is derived from "Rot in Tany," the course of a river.

RHATTA, a town of Asia, in Babylonia, in the vicinity of Chiriphe. *Ptolemy.*

RHAUCUS, a town of the island of Crete. *Steph. Byz.*

RHAVENA, a prefecture of Asia, along the Euphrates. Ptolemy places in it six towns on the banks of the Euphrates, and four in the interior of the country.

RHAVIUM, a river of Hibernia, the mouth of which is placed by Ptolemy between the promontory "Boreum" and the town "Magnata."

RHAUNDAL,

RHAUNDAL, a village of the island of Iceland, in the district of Sudland.

RHAUNETI, in ancient geography, a town of Arabia Felix, on the Arabian gulf, between the town "Phœnicum" and the extremity of this Chersonesius. *Ptolemy.*

RHAURARIS, a river of Gallia Narbonensis, according to Strabo. This river is called "Araurius" by Ptolemy, and "Arauraris" by Pomponius Mela.

RHAUZIUM, the metropolis of Dalmatia, according to Cedrenus and Curopalata.

RHAW (George), a learned bookseller and musician of Wittemberg, born in 1494. In 1531 appeared his "Enchiridion utriusque Musicæ Practicæ, ex variis Musicorum Libris congestum," in 8vo. And in 1538 he not only published "Select Harmony for four Voices," consisting of two Latin Passiones, the one by John Galliculus, and the other by Jacob Otrecht, with masses, lamentations of Jeremiah, and motets by John Walther, Lewis Senfels, Simon Cellarius, Benedict Dux, Eckel, Lemlin, Stoel, and Henry Isaac, to which Melancthon furnished him with a Latin preface; but in 1544 published, in oblong quarto, 123 German sacred songs, of four and five parts, for the use of schools. Prefixed to the second part of this publication, containing ecclesiastical hymns, set by sixteen different German composers, there is a print of the editor, Geo. Rhaw, Typographus, Wittemb. anno ætatis suæ LIV.

RHAYADER, or RHAYADERGWY, a market town of Wales, in the county of Radnor. The name signifies literally the falls of the Wye, and is derived from the situation of the town near the descent of that river over a ledge of rocks. The fall was greatly diminished in 1780, by the building of the present bridge, when the rocks were removed, and a freer passage opened for the water. The town consists of four streets, or two long ones intersecting each other at right angles. Near their intersection stands the town-hall, with the covered market underneath. This edifice was built by subscription in 1762. The church is a very respectable modern building, consisting of a nave and chancel. These were rebuilt in 1733, and the tower in 1783. A Presbyterian meeting-house has been erected on the site of the county jail. At the upper end of the town, near the parsonage house, is a newly built free school for boys. Rhayader formerly derived its chief importance from its castle, of which no vestige remains, except the fosse, which was excavated out of the solid rock. It was situated on a precipitous point of land, which projects into the channel of the river on the north of the town. In the neighbourhood of the town are several tumuli or barrows. A small manufactory of coarse cloth has been established here. In summer the coach for Aberystwyth passes this way twice a week. Rhayader is governed by a bailiff, chosen at a court leet. It has a voice in the election of the member of parliament for New Radnor. The great sessions were appointed by the act of union, to be held here alternately with New Radnor; but by a subsequent act in the same reign, they were removed to Presteigne. Market on Wednesday, well supplied. Population 446: 18 miles north-west of Radnor, and 177 west-north-west of London.

RHAZES, a learned and distinguished Arabian physician, who flourished in Chorasan in the seventh century. For an account of his life and writings see the historical introduction to the article PATHOLOGY, vol. xix. pp. 18, 19.

RHEA, a county of the United States, in East Tennessee. Population 2504, including 214 slaves. The chief town is Washington.

RHEA, one of the titles of Cybele, derived from ῥεω, *I flow*, on account of that abundance of benefits which she dispenses.

Rhea was, according to Diodorus Siculus, one of the eight great divinities of Egypt; the other seven being the Sun, Saturn or Chronos, Jupiter, Juno, Vulcan, Vesta, and Mercury. Chronos, says this historian, having married Rhea became, according to some, the father of Osiris and Isis, and, according to others, of Jupiter and Juno. The children of Rhea, by Saturn, were, according to fabulous history, Vesta, Ceres, Juno, Pluto, Neptune, and Jupiter, the father of gods and men; but that god learning from an oracle delivered by Cœlus and Terra, that one of his children should dethrone him, devoured them as Rhea brought them forth, which threw her into extreme distress. So that when she was near her time of being delivered of Jupiter, she consulted her parents to know in what manner she might rescue him from the cruelty of his father, and by their advice she secretly withdrew into Crete, where she was delivered, and presented Saturn with a stone, wrapped about with swaddling clothes, which he swallowed. Jupiter being grown up, rescued Cœlus from the chains with which Saturn had loaded him; and Cœlus, in return for his service, gave him thunder, by which he became the sovereign of gods and men. Rhea was one of the names under which the earth was worshipped.

RHEA Sylvia, was the mother of Remus and Romulus; and in order to give dignity to their origin, the fable reports that her uncle Amulius got into her cell, and her father Numitor propagated the story that the twins she brought forth had been begotten by the god of war.

RHEA, in Ornithology, a species of the struthio or ostrich, the same bird with the *nhan-dugaucu* of the Brazils. See STRUTHIO.

RHEBAN, in ancient geography, a river of Asia, in Bythynia. According to Arrian, the source of this river was on mount Olympus, and its mouth in the Euxine sea, near that of Psillis.

RHECHIUS, a river of Greece, which discharged itself into the sea near Thessalonica. At the mouth of this river Justinian erected a fort called "Artemisa."

RHEDEN, or RHEEDEN, a small inland town of the Netherlands, in the province of Gelderland. Population 3400; 5 miles west of Doesburg, and 6 east-north-east of Arnheim.

RHEDONES, a people of Gaul, in Armorica, according to Cæsar and Ptolemy.

RHEEDIA, (so called in honour of Van Rheede.) in botany, a genus of the class polyandria, order monogynia, natural order Gutitferæ, (*Juss.*) Generic Character.—Calyx none: Corolla: petals four, sessile, obovate, concave, spreading. Stamina, filaments numerous, thread-shaped, longer than the corolla; anthers oblong, Pistil: germen superior, ovate; style cylindrical, the length of the stamens; stigma funnel-shaped. Pericarp: berry ovate, thin, of one cell. Seeds three, very large, ovate-oblong, marched with simple or branched lines.—*Essential Character.*—Petals four. Calyx none. Berry superior, with three seeds.

1. Rheedia lateriflora.—Native of South America. A tree known only to Plumier, whose figure represents it with large, opposite, stalked, ovate, entire leaves; axillary tufts of numerous, rather small, flowers; and ovate pendulous fruit, about two inches long. Jussieu doubts whether the calyx be really wanting.

RHEENEN, or RHENEN, an ancient town of the Netherlands, in the province of Utrecht, situated on a declivity near the Rhine. Population 2200. Its environs contain pleasant walks, and from the neighbouring eminence of Hememberg, almost the only one in this flat country, is enjoyed a beautiful view; 14 miles west of Arnheim, and 22 south-east of Utrecht.

RHEGADORA, in ancient geography, a town of Asia, in Cappadocia.

RHEGIANUM, a town of Lower Mœsia, on the bank of the Danube. *Ptolemy.*

RHEGIAS, a town of Asia, in Syria; according to Ptolemy it was in Cyrrhestica, between Ariseria and Ruba.

RHEGMA, a place of Asia, in Cilicia, at the mouth of the River Cydnus. *Strabo.*—Also, a town of Arabia Felix, on the coast of the Persian gulf, in the country of the Anarites. *Ptolemy.*

RHEGMA, [ῥηγνυμι, Gr. *I break*], a word used by the ancients, for abscesses breaking inwardly.

RHEIDT,

RHEIDT, or RHEYD, a town of the Prussian province of Cleves and Berg, on the rivers Niers. It contains 3600 inhabitants, and is a brisk manufacturing place; the spinning and weaving of cotton employing above 1000 persons. Silk, velvet, and a very different article, soap, are also manufactured here.

RHEIMS, or REIMS, derived from *Remi*, a large and ancient city of France, in the north-east of the kingdom, in the department of the Marne. It stands on the bank of the small river Vesle, in a fine plain, surrounded at a distance with a chain of low hills, covered with vineyards. The form of the city is oblong, extending in length from south-east to north-west, and surrounded with a ditch and earthen mound, planted on both sides with double rows of trees, but serving only the purpose of embellishment, the remaining fortifications of the city having been levelled in 1812. The space inclosed by the walls is very large, but a considerable part of it, particularly on the south-west side, is occupied by gardens and walks. The closely built part, not one half the space inclosed, is a regular oval, of which the square called the *Place Royale*, may be considered the centre. The streets are in general wide and straight; in some quarters, however, they are winding and narrow. One of the finest is the very long street, which leads in a straight line, across the whole width of the town, from the eastern to the western gate, passing through the centre of the Royal square. The latter, for a French square, is large. The *Place St. Remy*, situated at the southern extremity of the town, though of an irregular shape, is pleasant. The houses of Rheims are in general well built, though, from their want of height, there is little striking in their appearance. The town is supplied with water by pipes from the Vesle. It has six gates, all of a fine appearance from the spacious and shady avenues leading to the city. Two of them, viz. the *Porte de Ceres*, and the *Porte de Mars*, have retained their Roman names. Outside of the former is a small suburb of the same name.

Of the public buildings of Rheims, the most remarkable by far is the cathedral, a vast Gothic edifice of the 12th century, and one of the finest specimens of that kind of architecture in France. The portal is quite a *chef d'œuvre*, but the frontispiece is loaded with a profusion of sculptures in an indifferent taste. It was in this church that the ceremony of anointing or consecrating the kings of France, formerly took place. The second object of interest, so long as it stood, was the church of St. Nicaise, with its arch and pillar, which were said to shake on the ringing of one of the bells. The church of St. Remy is worth notice, both for its architecture, and as the depositary of the famous phial of oil with which the kings are anointed, and which, according to a tradition not yet exploded, was brought from heaven by a dove, at the baptism of Clovis. The episcopal palace, near the cathedral, is a fine building. The *hotel de ville* is remarkable for its vast size, and the beauty of its front: it had formerly an equestrian statue of Louis XIII. Rheims contains three hospitals, and presents to the antiquary a considerable field for research; many of its old buildings containing vestiges of very remote ages. Outside of the *Porte de Mars* are to be seen the remains of a triumphal arch, and some traces of an amphitheatre. A university, founded here in 1547, is now replaced by a royal college, or high school. The archbishop of this ancient city is the primate of the kingdom. The population of Rheims is about 38,000. The chief manufactures are of cotton and woollens; also of hats and stockings. It is the residence of a sub-prefect, but not the capital of a department. It was the birth-place of the famous Colbert.

This town was the scene of sharp fighting between the French and Russians, in the spring of 1814. The latter entered it unexpectedly on the 12th March, but were attacked on the 13th by Buonaparte, then on his march from Laon, and driven from it, after the loss of their general, St. Priest, and 2000 men. This success, however, was temporary, being followed by the advance of the allies to Paris, and the abdication of Buonaparte; 26 miles north-north-west of Chalons-sur-Marne, and 100 east-by-north of Paris. Lat. 49. 16. N. Long. 4. 6. E.

RHEIN-BERRY, *s* [*spina cervina*, Latin.] Buckthorn, a plant.

RHEINA, the chief town of the principality of Rheina-Wolbeck, is situated on the Ems, in Prussian Westphalia, government of Munster. It has 2100 inhabitants.

RHEINAU, a town in the north-east of Switzerland, in the canton of Thurgau. Near it, on an island in the Rhine, is a rich Benedictine abbey. Population 800; 5 miles south-south-west of Schaffhausen.

RHEINA-WOLBECK, a small principality in Westphalia, formerly a bailiwic of the bishopric of Munster, but given as an indemnity to the prince of Lootz and Corswaren in 1802, and subject since 1815, to Prussia and Hanover. It consists of a long narrow track, extending along the west side of the Ems, and has an area of 256 square miles, with 10,000 inhabitants, a number of whom, as throughout the rest of Westphalia, go in summer to Holland, in search of employment.

RHEINBACH, or RHYNBACH, a town of the Prussian province of Cleves and Berg; 20 miles south of Cologne. Population 1200.

RHEINBERGEN, a town of the Prussian states, in the government of Cleves, with 1700 inhabitants. It was formerly fortified; and rows of trees are planted on each side of its streets. The Rhine at one time passed close to the town, but now flows two miles to the eastward; 8 miles south of Wesel.

RHEIN-BISCHOFFSHEIM. See BISCHOFSHEIM.

RHEINECK, a small town of Switzerland, in the canton of St. Gall, on the Rhine, not far from the lake of Constance. It is the chief place of the district called the Rheinthal, and has a brisk trade in linen and cotton; 8 miles south west of Bregentz, and 24 east-south-east of Constance.

RHEINFELDEN, a town in the north of Switzerland, on the Rhine; 9 miles east of Bale. Population 1200. There is here a covered wooden bridge over the river, which flows at this spot with great rapidity.

RHEINFELS, or RHINFELS, a fortress of the Prussian grand duchy of the Lower Rhine, situated on an island in the Lower Rhine, at St. Goar, between Coblentz and Bacharach. This fortress was besieged by the French in 1672, but without success. In 1794, it was taken and dismantled by them, but it has been repaired. Over against this fortress stands New Catzenelnbogen, a very strong castle on a lofty rock.

RHEINGAU, or RHINGAU, a district of Germany, in the duchy of Nassau, situated on the north bank of the Rhine, and extending from Biberach to Rudesheim. It is about 12 miles long, and 4 broad, has a warm exposure, and produces the best quality of Rhenish wine. Along the Rhine there is a number of villages.

RHEINHEIM, a town of the west of Germany; 7 miles east-south-east of Darmstadt. Population 1600.

RHEINHEIM, a village of the west of Germany, in Baden; 6 miles east-south-east of Waldshut. Population 900.

RHEINMAGEN, or REMAGEN, a town of the Prussian government of Coblentz, on the Rhine, with 800 inhabitants. It is a place of great antiquity, was anciently called Regiomagus, and has several vestiges of Roman works.

RHEINNAU, a town of France, in Alsace, on the Rhine; 5 miles south of Strasburg. It was formerly large, but injured by successive inundations of the river. It now contains only 1200 inhabitants.

RHEINTHAL, i. e. the Valley of the Rhine, a district of the Swiss canton of St. Gall, lying along the Rhine, from the lake of Constance to the lordship of Sax. It is above 16 miles long, and 4 broad, and contains about 15,000 inhabitants. In the immediate neighbourhood of the Rhine the soil is gravelly, and the population thin; but at a greater distance, tillage succeeds better, and flax, fruit, vines, and maize, are all raised with success. The chief employment of the inhabitants consists in spinning and weaving cotton and flax for the manufacturers of St. Gall and Appenzel. The majority are Calvinists, but there are a good many Catholics, and

and in many places both sects use the same church. The chief town is Rheineck.—Rheinthal is also the name of a small track in Baden, beginning at the town of Rheinfelden, and extending downward along the right bank of the Rhine.

RHEINZABERN, a town in the north-east of France, in Alsace, on the Erlebach. Population 1000; 8 miles south-east of Landau, and 15 north-east of Weissenburg.

RHEMAN, or REMAN, a fortified place of Asia, in Mesopotamia, which belonged to the Romans, according to Ammianus Marcellinus.

RHEMBA, an Hindoo goddess, corresponding to the popular Venus of the Greeks. Like her she sprang from the foam of the ocean, when churned by the gods and demons for the purpose of obtaining the amrita, or beverage of immortality.

RHENANUS (Beatus), a learned German, was born at Rheinac, in 1485, and died at Strasburgh, in 1547. He was corrector of the press for Frobenius, and by that means formed an intimacy with Erasmus. He wrote "A History of Germany," 4to.; "Illyrici Provinciarum utrique Imperiorum Romano, tam Constantinopolitano Servientis, Descriptio," 8vo.

RHENEA, an island of the Ægean sea, in the neighbourhood of that of Delos. Strabo says that it was deserted, but that it was the place of burial for the inhabitants of Delos; which being deemed sacred, it was forbidden to bury the dead in it. The two isles of Delos and Rhenea are called "Dili or Isdiles."

Rhenea retains its name, and is denominated also Great Delos; it is separated from the famous island of Delos by a strait of about 500 toises. In the middle of this narrow channel are two shoals, called the Great and the Little Ramateari: the ancient Greeks had consecrated the larger to Hecate or Diana, and called it the island of Hecate, or Psammite. Ships, even men of war, find good anchorage near this island. Lat. 37. 10. N. long. 25. 15. E.

RHENFERD (James), a celebrated German oriental scholar in the 17th and earlier part of the 18th century, was the son of a minister at Mulheim, in Westphalia. He went through a course of academical studies at the college of Meurs, a city in the dutchy of Cleves, and afterwards travelled for improvement into foreign countries. In 1678, when he was twenty-four years of age, he accepted an invitation to become rector of the Latin college in the city of Franeker; but upon the condition that, while he held that post, he should be at liberty to deliver lectures on the oriental languages to which he was attached. He became an adept in the study of the Cabala, and maintained public theses, in which he endeavoured to prove its utility in illustrating several obscure passages in the Apocalypse. In 1680, he resigned his rectorship and removed to Amsterdam, where some of the most wealthy families employed him in the capacity of tutor, and he enjoyed at the same time a favourable opportunity for conversing with learned Jews, and improving his knowledge of Rabbinical learning. In the year 1683, a vacancy having taken place in the professorship of the oriental languages and sacred philosophy at the University of Franeker, by the removal of the famous Vitringa to the theological chair, M. Rhenferd received an invitation to fill it; which he accepted. Rhenferd held this post nearly thirty years, during which he had the honour of being thrice chosen rector of the University. He died in 1712, when he was in the 59th year of his age. His learning was general and extensive. It was his delight to treat on singular subjects, and such as had not been discussed by any preceding writer. He published many works, of which the most important are: "Dispositio Scholastica argumentorum, quibus probatur Mortem corporalem non esse pœnam Peccati," 1693; "De Antiquitate Characteris hodierni Judaici," 1696, 4to., in which he endeavours to establish the claim of the present Hebrew characters to the highest antiquity, and to prove that the Samaritan characters were borrowed from the Hebrews; "Rudimenta Grammaticæ Harmonicæ Linguarum Orientalium, Hebrœæ, Chaldaicæ, Syriacæ, et Arabicæ," which he did not live to finish. *Moreri.*

RHE'NISH, *s.* A kind of German wine.—A pestilence on him for a mad rogue! he poured a flagon of *Rhenish* on my head once. *Shakspeare.*

RHENONES, among the ancient Germans, a kind of garment covering the shoulders and breast down to the middle. It was either entirely made of skins, or covered over with them; the long hair of which being outward, proved a good defence against rain.

RHENSE, or RECS, a town of the Prussian states, on the Rhine; 5 miles south of Coblentz. Population 1000.

RHEO-STATICS, is used by some pedants for the statics, or science of the equilibrium of fluids.

RESAPHA, a town of Syria, in the Palmyrene, near Cholle. *Ptol.*

RHESCIPA, or RESCHIPHA, a town of Asia, in Mesopotamia, upon the banks of the Euphrates, between Bethauna and Agamana. *Ptol.*

RHESINA, a town of Asia, near Mesopotamia, on the river Aboras. *Steph. Byz.*

RHETICUS (George Joachim), an excellent German astronomer and mathematician in the sixteenth century, was born in the year 1514. Discovering early an inclination towards the study of the mathematics, he was initiated in the elements of that science at Zuric; whence he removed to the University of Wittemberg, where he took the degree of master of philosophy in 1535; and two years afterwards, he was made joint professor of the mathematics and astronomy with the famous Reinhold. While he was daily rising into reputation by his lectures, he was informed of the hypothesis of Copernicus concerning the revolution of the heavenly bodies; which appeared to him to be so reasonable, that he determined to resign his professorship, and study the doctrine under the instructions of its author. Accordingly, in 1539, he left Wittemberg and went into Prussia, where he became a disciple of that great man; to whose system he was soon entirely converted, and whom he afterwards assisted for some years in his astronomical labours. While our author continued in Prussia, in order to render astronomical calculations more accurate, he began his very elaborate "Canon Doctrinæ Triangulorum," or, Canon of Sines, Tangents, and Secants, to fifteen places of figures, and to every ten seconds of the quadrant: a design which he did not live quite to complete. The canon of sines, however, to the same radius, for every ten seconds, and for every single second in the first and last degree of the quadrant, computed by him, was published at Francfort in 1613, folio, by Pitiscus, who himself added a few of the first sines computed to twenty-two places of figures. But the larger work, or, Canon of Sines, Tangents, and Secants to every ten seconds, was perfected and published after his death, in 1596, by his disciple, Valentine Otho, mathematician to the Elector Prince Palatine Frederic IV. Of this work an account and an analysis may be seen in Dr. Hutton's historical Introduction to his "Logarithms," p. 9. Upon the death of Copernicus, who lived only a few hours after he received a copy of his printed work, Rheticus returned to Wittemberg, and was again admitted to his post of mathematical and astronomical professor. About the same time, upon the recommendation of Melancthon, he went to Nuremberg, where he found certain manuscripts of Werner and Regiomontanus. In the year 1576, upon the invitation of a Hungarian nobleman, he went to Cassavia, in Hungary; where, in consequence of sleeping in a room recently plaistered, he had a disorder of the lungs, which proved fatal to him in the 63d year of his age. He composed and published "Ephemerides," according to the doctrine of Copernicus, till the year 1551; "Orationes de Astronomia, Geometria, et Physica;" "Borussiæ Encomium;" and he also projected, and partly executed, though they were never published, various other works. *Hutton's Math. Dict.*

RHE'TOR, *s.* [Latin; ῥητωρ, Gr.] A rhetorican.—Your hearing, what is it but as of a *rhetor* at a desk, to commend or dislike? *Hammond.*

Senators and pretors,
With great dictators, us'd to apply to *rhetors.* *Butler.*

RHETORIANS, Rhetorii, a sect, in the fourth century, in Egypt, so denominated from their leader Rhetorius. His distinguishing doctrine, as represented by Philastrius, was, that he approved of all the heresies before him, and taught that they were all in the right. But what Philastrius mentions of him appears so absurd and ridiculous, that St. Augustine could not persuade himself it was true.

RHE'TORIC, *s.* [ρητορικη, Gr.] The art of speaking not merely with propriety, but elegance.—We could not allow him an orator who had the best thoughts, and who knew all the rules of *rhetorique*, if he had not acquired the art of using them. *Dryden.*—The power of persuasion.—The heart's still *rhetorick*, disclos'd with eyes. *Shakspeare.*—See Oratory.

RHETO'RICAL, *adj.* [*rhetoricus*, Lat.] Pertaining to rhetoric; oratorial; figurative.—Because Brutus and Cassius met a blackamore, and Pompey had on a dark garment at Pharsalia, these were presages of their overthrow, which notwithstanding are scarce *rhetorical* sequels; concluding metaphors from realities, and from conceptions metaphorical inferring realities again. *Brown.*

RHETO'RICALLY, *adv.* Like an orator; figuratively; with intent to move the passions.—You shall see how *rhetorically* he expostulates. *Hammond.*

To RHETO'RICATE, *v. n.* [*rhetoricor*, low Lat.] To play the orator; to attack the passions.—'Twill be much more seasonable to reform, than apologize or *rhetoricate*;—not to suffer themselves to perish in the midst of such solicitations to be saved. *Dec. of Chr. Piety.*—When some Corinthians were puffed up by reason of a faculty which they had of *rhetoricating* religiously, St. Paul, like an apostle, tells them, that he would come amongst them, and know, not the speech of them that were puffed up, but the power. *Cudworth.*

RHETORICA'TION, *s.* Rhetorical amplification.—Take but away their *rhetorications* and equivocal expressions, their misrepresentations and misreports, their ostentation and their scurrilities; and their cause will be left in a manner destitute. *Waterland.*

RHETORI'CIAN, *s.* [*rhetor*, Lat.] One who teaches the science of rhetoric.—'Tis the business of *rhetoricians* to treat the characters of the passions. *Dryden.*—An orator

He play'd at Lions a declaiming prize,
At which the vanquish'd *rhetorician* dies. *Dryden.*

RHETORI'CIAN, *adj.* Suiting a master of rhetoric.

Boldly presum'd with *rhetorician* pride,
To hold of any question either side. *Blackmore.*

To RHE'TORIZE, *v. n.* To play the orator. *Cotgrave and Sherwood.*

To RHE'TORIZE, *v. a.* To represent by a figure of oratory.—A certain *rhetorized* woman, whom he calls mother. *Milton.*

RHEUM, *s.* [ρευμα, Gr.] A thin watery matter oozing from the mucous membrane of the eyes, nose, and mouth.

Trust not those cunning waters of his eyes;
For villainy is not without such a *rheum*;
And he long traded in it, makes it seem
Like rivers of remorse. *Shakspeare.*

RHEUM, [Ρηον of Dioscorides, from ρεω, *to flow*, as causing flux,] in botany, a genus of the class enneandria, order trigynia, natural order of holoraceœ, polygoneæ, *(Juss.)* Generic Character.—Calyx none. Corolla one-petalled, narrowed at the base, impervious, with a six-cleft border; the segments blunt alternately small; shrivelling. Stamina filaments nine, capillary, inserted into the corolla, and of the same length with it; anthers twin, oblong, blunt. Pistil: germ short, three-sided; styles scarcely any; stigmas three, reflexed, feathered. Pericarp none. Seed single, large, three-sided, acute, with membranaceous margins. *Essential Character.*—Calyx none. Corolla: six-cleft, permanent. Seed one, three-sided.

1. Rheum rhapontieum, or rhapontic rhubarb.—This has a large thick root, which divides into many strong fleshy fangs, running deep in the ground; the outside is of a reddish brown colour, and the inside yellow, from which arise several leaves, in number according to the size of the root; these come up folded in the spring, and afterward expand themselves; they are smooth, of a roundish heart-shape, having very thick foot-stalks of a reddish colour, which are a little channelled on their lower part, but flat at the top. When the plant grows in rich land, the foot-stalks of the leaves are near two feet long, and thicker than a man's thumb; the leaves also are often two feet long, and as much in breadth, having several strong longitudinal veins running from the foot-stalk to the borders, of a deep green, and waved on their edges, having an acid taste, but particularly the foot stalks, which are now frequently used for making tarts. From between the leaves arise the flower-stems, which is of a purple colour, garnished with one leaf at each joint, of the same shape with those below, but smaller, and sitting close to the stalk. The stalks grow from two to three feet high, according to the strength of the ground, and are terminated by thick, close, obtuse spikes of white flowers, which appear the beginning of June, and are succeeded by large, triangular, brown seeds, having a border or wing at each angle; they ripen in August.

When the seeds were first brought to Europe, they were supposed to be those of the true rhubarb; but upon making trial of the roots, they were found to be greatly inferior to those of the true rhubarb.—Native of Asia.

2. Rheum undulatum, or wave-leaved rhubarb.—The root of this sort divides into a number of thick fibres, which run deeper into the ground than those of the first, and are of a deeper yellow within. The leaves appear much earlier in the spring; the foot-stalks are not so much channelled on their under side, and are plain on their upper, not so red, nor so thick as the rhapoticum. The leaves are longer, running to a point, and are much waved on their edges, a little hairy nor on their upper side, and have many strong veins or ribs on their under. The flower-stem is of a pale brownish colour, rising about four feet high, dividing into several loose panicles or bunches of white flowers, which appear in May, and are succeeded by triangular seeds like those of the first sort, which ripen earlier in the season.—Native of China and Siberia.

3. Rheum palmatum, or officinal rhubarb.—Root perennial (as all the other species are), thick, of an oval shape, and sends off long tapering branches; externally it is brown, internally of a deep yellow colour. Stem erect, round, hollow, jointed, sheathed, slightly scored, branched towards the top, from six to eight feet high. Root-leaves numerous, large, rough, of a roundish figure, deeply cut into lobes and irregularly pointed segments; on long, smooth, round foot-stalks. Stem-leaves one at each joint, from a membranous sheath, successively smaller upwards. Flowers surrounding the branches in numerous clusters, and forming a kind of spike. Corolla of a greenish white colour.

This species cannot be mistaken, if we attend to its superior height, the ferruginous or reddish brown colour of the stem branches and petioles, the particular palmate form of the leaves, and the elegant looseness of the little panicles of flowers. Linnæus adds, that the vernal bud is not red but yellow; and that the leaves are somewhat rugged; and that the segments of the leaves are oblong and sharpish.—Native of China and Tartary.

4. Rheum compactum, or thick-leaved rhubarb.—Linnæus says, that the leaves are more coriaceous or compact than in the other species, whence his trivial name; that the lobes are rounded, more obscure, crenate with the margin cartilaginous and the toothlets acute; that they are very smooth on both sides, and have stouter veins. The branches of the panicle are nodding.

The seed is rounded, cordate, and three-sided; the sides besprinkled with raised dots, of a brownish-green colour, and shining; the angles membranaceous, striated, ferruginous.—Native of Tartary.

5. Rheum

5. Rheum ribes, or warted-leaved rhubarb.—This sort grows naturally on Mount Libanus, and other mountainous parts of Syria. It has a thick fleshy root, which runs pretty deep in the ground, from which arise several leaves in the spring, which come up folded together, and afterwards expand; they have very short foot-stalks, so spread near the ground; but during the spring their borders are erect, and form a sort of hood having several folds, and are curled and waved on their edges; they are of a purplish green, and have purple veins and borders; their surface appears studded with rough protuberances, and when the leaves are fully expanded in summer, they are a foot long, and above two feet broad; their under side is paler than the upper, and their borders appear fringed.

The stalks, as Rauwolff informs us, from those which he saw brought to Aleppo, in order to make the Rob Ribes of Serapio, are near a cubit in height, an inch thick, hirsute, green, tinged with purple towards the bottom.

6. Rheum Tataricum, or Tartarian rhubarb.—Leaves large, those next the root lying on the ground, on red petioles; the nerves very much widened. Inflorescence scarcely higher than the leaves.—Native of Lesser Tartary.

7. Rheum hybridum, or bastard rhubarb.—This is extremely allied in its appearance to the rheum palmatum; being of similar height, and having the same kind of leaves, stipules, &c.; the leaves, however, are not so deeply laciniated, nor so much pinnatifid as those of the former species.

The first or radical leaves are generally cordate, and pointed, but not palmated, and the plant, as it advances in age, seems to become more palmated from year to year.

It was considered by Professor Murray as a hybrid plant, produced by the mixture of rheum palmatum with some other species, which had been impregnated by its pollen.

Not known where it is a native, but cultivated in 1778, by John Fothergill, M. D.

There seems to be a strong disposition in the rheums to produce hybrid or mule plants; and purgative qualities are possessed by all the sorts. The drug which we employ is probably produced from different kinds. It is ascertained, however, that the sorts we call Turkey and Russia rhubarb, are produced from the rheum palmatum: the Chinese, or East Indian rhubarb, from the rheum undulatum.

Propagation and Culture.—The cultivation of this genus is of rather more importance than the botanist's amusement. Rhubarb raised in this country, is little inferior to that we obtain from abroad, and can be procured at a sixth less cost. The English plant is about a third weaker in its purgative effects, but otherwise possesses every quality in common with the foreign. All the species are propagated by seeds, which should be sown in autumn soon after they are ripe, and then the plants will come up the following spring, when the ground should be hoed over, to cut up the weeds; and where the plants are too close, some should be cut up, leaving them at the first hoeing six or eight inches asunder; but at the second, they may be separated to a foot and half distance or more.

In autumn, when the leaves decay, clean the ground, and in the spring, before the plants begin to put up their new leaves, dig the ground between the plants, or at least hoe and clean them. The second year, many of the strongest plants will produce flowers and seeds, but the third year most of them will do so. Gather the seeds carefully when ripe, and do not permit them to scatter, lest they should grow to injure the old plants. The roots will remain many years without decaying; and it is said that the old roots of the true rhubarb are much preferable to the young ones. They delight in a rich soil, not too dry, nor over moist; and where there is a depth in such land for their roots to run down, the leaves and roots will attain a great size.

The first sort is now frequently cultivated in gardens for the footstalks of the leaves, which are peeled and made into tarts in the spring.

Rhubarb may also be reared from offsets.

The greatest difficulty in procuring good rhubarb is the drying of the root. To this end it seems indispensable, according to Dr. Falconer:—First, that a seclection of the best pieces be made.—Secondly, that the central part of every piece hould be cut out; for it is found by experience that this, perhaps from its proximity to the sap, is moistest and most subject to decay; and when any part comes into this state, the infection soon spreads and damages the whole piece. Doubtless it is to avoid this, that the pieces of Russian rhubarb have all holes, and those pretty large, cut through their centre, which have been generally thought only to serve the purpose of hanging them up, but appear to answer this material purpose besides. The holes made in English rhubarb, when there are any, are not sufficiently large to clear away the spungy and decaying parts.—Thirdly, the outside should be scraped or rather rasped, as the foreign rhubarbs are. The want of this obstructs the quickness of drying, from the pores not being laid open for the herbaceous moisture to exhale.—Fourthly, it is probable, that great improvement might be made in the preparation of English rhubarb, by accelerating its drying. It was formerly thought that plants were best dried in a slow and gradual manner, which is now found to be a mistake, and that as quick drying as is consistent with the safety of the vegetable substance, best preserves the efficacious qualities of the plant.

Too much light indeed is thought to do injury, as it impairs the colour, and perhaps, (though that is dubious,) dissipates some of the finer parts; but culinary heat is free from that objection, and at the same time possesses all the advantages of quick drying.

The *Medical Virtues of Rhubarb.*—These chiefly rest on its cathartic qualities. It is a tolerably certain, yet mild aperient, not extremely unpleasant to the taste, and one which seems to promote secretion from the intestines with more fulness, yet less irritation than any other purge in use.

Like other cathartics, its effects seem greater when combined with drugs of similar nature than when exhibited alone. Hence, mixed with magnesia, it is very commonly used to correct griping diarrhœas in children; combined with calomel it is very generally prescribed for the cure of sudden bilious attacks, costiveness, &c.

There is another quality which rhubarb possesses, which is also worthy of note. This is its slightly tonic effect on the stomach when administered in small doses. It is a curious fact, that one or two grains of rhubarb have the effect of restraining diarrhœas and removing debility of the stomach. So that the plant, in a full dose and in a small one, have nearly opposite qualities.

RHEUMA'TIC, or RHEUMA'TIC, *adj.* [ρευματικος, Gr.] Proceeding from rheum or a peccant watery humour.

The moon, the governess of floods,
Pale in her anger, washes all the air,
That *rheumatick* diseases do abound. *Shakspeare.*

Denoting the pain which attacks the joints, and the muscles and membranes between the joints.

RHEUMATISM, *s.* [ρευμαλισμος, Gr.] A painful disorder of the muscles and joints; it gained its name from a supposition that it was owing to acrid humours, which opinion is now exploded. See PATHOLOGY, pp. 168-170.

The throtling quinsey, 'tis my star appoints,
And *rheumatisms* I send to rack the joints. *Dryden.*

RHEU'MY, *adj.* Full of sharp moisture.

Is Brutus sick?
And will he steal out of his wholesome bed,
To dare the vile contagion of the night?
And tempt the *rheumy* and unpurged air,
To add unto his sickness? *Shakspeare.*

The South he loos'd, who night and horror brings,
And fogs are shaken from his flaggy wings:
From his divided beard two streams he pours;
His head and *rheumy* eyes distil in show'rs. *Dryden.*

RHE'XIA,

RHEXIA, [of Pliny; from ῥηξις, a rupture—which it was thought to cure.] in botany, a genus of the class octandria, order monogynia, natural order of calycanthemæ, melastomæ, *(Juss.)* Generic Character.—Calyx: perianth one-leafed, tubular, ventricose at bottom, oblong, with a four-cleft border, permanent. Corolla: petals four, roundish, inserted into the calyx, spreading. Stamina: filaments eight, filiform, longer than the calyx, and inserted into it. Anthers declining, grooved, linear, blunt, versatile. Pistil: germ roundish. Style simple, the length of the stamens, declining. Stigma thickish, oblong. Pericarp: capsule roundish, four-celled, four-valved, within the belly of the calyx. Seeds: numerous, roundish.—*Essential Character.*—Calyx: four-cleft. Petals: four, inserted into the calyx. Anthers declining. Capsule four-celled, within the belly of the calyx.

1. Rhexia virginica.—Leaves sessile serrate, calyxes smooth. This rises with an erect, angular, hairy stalk, near a foot and half high. Leaves lanceolate, hairy, about two inches long. The stalk has two peduncles coming out from the side opposite to each other at the upper joint, and is terminated by two others; these each sustain two or three red flowers with heart-shaped petals, spreading open in form of a cross, and appear in June.—Native of North America.

2. Rhexia mariana.—Leaves ciliate. This sends up an erect stalk about ten inches high. Leaves lanceolate, about an inch long, in pairs; the whole plant is thick set with stinging iron-coloured hairs. The stalk divides at the top into two peduncles, spreading from each other, having one or two reddish flowers on each, with a single subsessile flower between them; they have four heart-shaped petals which spread open as in the preceding. It flowers about the same time.—Native of Maryland, Brasil, Surinam.

3. Rhexia trichotoma.—Flowers solitary, axillary and terminating; leaves sessile, opposite, lanceolate, hirsute. Stem frutescent. Branches four-cornered, with the corners rough-haired, trichotomous at bottom, dichotomous at top. Leaves an inch long, quite entire. Peduncles short, at the forks and ends of the branches. Petals ovate, ciliate.

4. Rhexia Acisanthera.—Flowers alternate, axillary, peduncled, five-cleft. This seldom rises above fourteen or sixteen inches in height. The stem is square, and emits many square branches towards the top. The leaves are small, ovate. The flowers spring singly from the alternate axils. The calyx is deeply five-cleft at the mouth. Petals five obovate, inserted into the throat of the calyx. Filaments ten, shorter than the corolla. Anthers oblong. Germ crowned with the calyx. Style short. Stigma sharp. Capsule two-celled, filled with two little placentas.—Native of Jamaica.

5. Rhexia Jussioides.—Leaves alternate, ribbed, rugged at the margin. This is a shrub four feet in height, pubescent, as are also the peduncles and fruit. Leaves subsessile, clustered, scarcely a finger's length, minutely serrated. Flowers axillary, solitary, peduncled, scarcely the length of the leaves, yellow. Perianth almost superior, lanceolate, acute, spreading. Petals subovate, double the length of the calyx, sessile. Filaments shorter: anthers incumbent, the length of the calyx or longer than the filaments. Germ inferior, the length of the calyx, a little prominent: style cylindrical: stigma warted. Capsule obovate, four-cornered, the length of the calyx, with four small laminæ at top.—Native of Surinam.

6. Rhexia glutinosa.—This is a small and very leafy tree, resembling the melastomas, with jointed branchlets, alternately channelled. Leaves petioled, clustered, elliptic, an inch long. Flowers scarcely longer than the leaves, peduncled. Calyx bell-shaped. Capsule inferior, four-parted. The ends of the branchlets and the calyxes are glutinous, whence the name.—Found by Mutis in New Granada.

7. Rhexia leucantha.—Leaves opposite, cartilaginous-toothletted, coriaceous, shining, branchlets four-cornered, flowers terminating, ten-stamened.

8. Rhexia purpurea.—Leaves opposite, toothletted, coriaceous, branchlets round, flowers axillary, ten-stamened.

9. Rhexia uniflora.—Stem herbaceous, four-cornered with four decurrent wings, having hairs glandular at the tip scattered over it, and viscid. Branches filiform. Leaves very small acute, having a few hairs pressed to the surface scattered over them, obscurely three-nerved, ciliate at the edge with glandular hairs: the uppermost narrower and sub-lanceolate. Petioles shorter than the leaf, ciliate, also with glandular hairs. Peduncles axillary, and at the forks of the branches solitary, very short. Calyxes hairy. Petals lanceolate. Stamens ten, longer than the petals. Capsules sub-bilobed, the size of coriander seed. —Found by Von Rohr in Cayenne.

10. Rhexia inconstans.—Leaves ovate hispid, with close-pressed bristles, hoary, three-nerved, peduncles terminating, one or two-flowered. This is a small low shrub, with diffused ascending branches, the lower ones towards their base rooting, four-cornered, hispid with frequent ferruginous hairs pressed close: branchlets axillary, opposite like the branches, shorter than the leaf. Leaves opposite, bluntish, ciliate. Petiole short, hispid. Peduncles commonly three or four, and sometimes five, hispid, ferruginous. Bractes two on each peduncle, a little above the middle. Calyx four or five cleft, obovate, having many bristles scattered over them, which are whitish with the tips purplish and glandular. Segments lanceolate, attenuated, ciliate with bristles. Petals four or five, obovate-roundish, rose-coloured, ciliate along the outer edge, with remote hairs, appearing to be terminated by a minute gland when examined with a magnifier. Stamens eight or ten, upright, half the length of the corolla. Anthers oblong, blunt, sulphur-coloured, a little curved in at the base, undivided on the lower tip, shorter by half than the filaments. Style a little shorter than the stamens. Capsule globular, smooth, shorter than the calyx in which it is enveloped.

11. Rhexia bivalvis.—Smooth, ash-coloured, ten-stamened, leaves oblong sessile, obscurely crenate, blunt, peduncles terminating, one-flowered.—Native of Guiana. 12. Rhexia trivalvis.—Smooth, ten-stamened, leaves linear-lanceolate, sessile, dotted, above quite entire, peduncles one-flowered. 13. Rhexia longifolia.—Hairy, ten-stamened, leaves lanceolate, quite entire, five-nerved, peduncles axillary and terminating, dichotomous, shorter than the leaves.

These plants are all found wild in America. Linnæus constructed the character of the genus from the two first species: in most of the rest (4. 7. 8. 9. 11. 12. 13.) the calyx is five-cleft; the petals five; and the stamens ten; in n. 10. the stamens are inconstant, from seven to twelve, the calyx four-cleft or five-cleft, the petals four or five. In n. 4. the capsule is two-celled; in n. 9. subbilobed; in n. 11. two-valved; in n. 13. five-valved. But notwithstanding these anomalies, they are evidently of the same natural genus, though allied to osbeckia and melastoma.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants are propagated by seeds. If the seeds arrive before the spring, and are sown soon after, in pots filled with good fresh earth, and placed under a frame, to guard them from frost, the plants will come up the following spring; but when the seeds are sown in the spring, the plants rarely come up the first year. When they are fit to remove, plant part of them in an east border, and others in pots, to be sheltered under a frame in winter. The second year the plants will flower, and with care may be continued three or four years.

RHEXIS, or Rhegma, [from the Gr. ῥῆξις, rupture, of ῥηγνυμι, I break,] in Surgery, denotes a rupture of the corner of the eye, i. e. fistula lacrymalis.

RHIBII, a people of Scythia, on this side of the Imaus, near the river Oxus, to whom belonged the town of Dauaba. *Ptolemy.*

RHIENECK, a petty principality in the north-west of the Bavarian states, in the circle of the Lower Maine, belonging to prince Colloredo. Its area is about 24 square miles; its population 2000. It is only a part of an ancient county of the same name, the rest of which now belongs immediately to Bavaria.

RHIGIA, a town situated in the interior of the eastern part of Hibernia, near Rhœbe, according to Ptolemy.

RHIME'. See RHYME.

RHINANTHUS, [from ῥιν, the nose or snout; and ανθος, the flower, which is ringent, or like a snout.] in botany, a genus of the class didynamia, order angiospermia, natural order of personatæ, pediculares, *(Juss.)* Generic Character. —Calyx: perianth one-leafed, roundish, inflated, compressed, four-cleft, permanent. Corolla: one-petalled, ringent; tube sub-cylindrical, the length of the calyx; border gaping, compressed at the base; upper lip galeate, compressed, emarginate, narrower; lower lip spreading a little, flat, half-three-cleft, blunt; the middle segment widest. Stamina: filaments four, about the length of the upper lip, under which they lie concealed; two of them shorter. Anthers incumbent, bifid on one side, hirsute. Pistil: germ ovate, compressed. Style filiform, in the same situation with, but longer than the stamens. Stigma blunt, bent in. Pericarp: capsule blunt, erect, compressed, two-celled, two-valved, opening at the edges; partition contrary. Seeds several, compressed.—*Essential Character.*—Calyx: four-cleft, ventricose. Capsule two-celled, blunt, compressed.

1. Rhinanthus orientalis.—The corollas with the upper lip awl-shaped, and curved in. The stems a foot and half high, hollowed, four-cornered. Leaves opposite, on short foot-stalks, hairy, veined. On the upper part of the stem the flowers grow opposite from the axils: the corolla is yellow, with a spot of feuille-mort colour on the lower lip, and the upper lip has two red spots on the top. The flowers have an agreeable scent.

2. Rhinanthus elephas.—The corollas with the upper lip awl-shaped, straight. This has the habit of the preceding, but the calyx is trifid, with two of the segments bent back, and the third larger, erect, plaited, acute. It is an annual plant, a native of Italy, in shady places, and of Siberia.

3. Rhinanthus crista galli, yellow rattle, or cock's-comb. —Root annual, small, with few fibres. The whole plant is smooth. Stem a foot or more in height, four-cornered, mostly stained with dark purple. Leaves in pairs. Spike terminating, leafy. Bractes like the leaves, only broader at the base and more deeply cut in. Flowers not always strictly opposite, on short peduncles. Calyx remarkably large, inflated, of a pale greenish yellow colour, with strong ribs and a network of veins. Corolla twice as long as the calyx, yellow except the tube, which is white, and the anterior edge of the upper lip, which is dirty blue. Anthers awnless, but very hairy. Germs smooth, surrounded at the base by a membranaceous nectary. Capsule rounded, emarginate at top, two-celled, two-valved. Seeds from eight to twelve in each cell, kidney-shaped.

Yellow rattle is common in pastures, and flowers early in June. It has this name from the rattling of the seeds, when ripe, in the capsule: for the same reason in Ireland it is called rattle-boxes. It is known in some counties by the name of penny-grass, and in Yorkshire by that of henpenny; from the shape and size of the seed-vessel, like a silver penny. Its other appellation of cock's-comb is derived from the appearance of the upper leaves or bractes which accompany the flowers. Horses, sheep, and goats are said to eat it, and kine to refuse it. Others affirm that domestic quadrupeds in general, when at liberty, refuse it, but that they will eat it in the stall or stable; others again, that they will eat it when fresh, but reject it when dry among hay. As it comes early, except perhaps near London, it is usually far advanced when grass is mowed, and the leaves dropping off, nothing remains but the stalk and the membranaceous seed-vessels. The rattling of the seeds in these, indicates to the Swedish peasant, as Linnæus informs us, the time of cutting his grass for hay.

4. Rhinanthus trixago.—Calyxes hirsute-tomentose, leaves opposite bluntly serrate, stem quite simple. Root annual, though throwing out runners. Stem a cubit high or more, straight, firm, square, somewhat lanuginose. Leaves commonly opposite, long, narrow, pale green, with few but very large teeth, as it were jagged. Spikes of flowers heaped at the end, large, square, lanuginose, and even somewhat viscid. Flowers, yellow, large.

5. Rhinanthus capensis.—Calyxes tomentose, bractes ovate, leaves lanceolate toothed. This plant has the appearance of the preceding, and becomes wholly black in drying. The leaves have three or four teeth on each side. Spike oblong, with tomentose bractes a little acuminate. Calyxes four-cleft, blunt, as in the third species, but tomentose.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

6. Rhinanthus trifida.—Corollas spreading at the throat, leaves trifid. Root annual. Stem herbaceous, ascending, round. Leaves opposite, sessile, approximating, pubescent, nerved, deeply trifid. Flowers from all the axils, from the bottom to the top, solitary, opposite, sessile. Calyx ovate, pubescent, inflated, membranaceous, four-cleft; the segments linear-lanceolate, the length of the leaves. Corolla a little shorter than the calyx, somewhat villose on the outside. Filaments smooth. Anthers cloven at the base, two-celled. Germ ovate-acuminate. Style the length of the corolla, linear, sub-villose. Stigma truncate. Capsule ovate, acuminate.—Native of Armenia.

7. Rhinanthus indica.—Leaves sub-lanceolate, hairy, quite entire.—Native of Ceylon. 8. Rhinanthus virginica.—Corollas spreading at the throat, leaves sinuate-toothed.—Native of Virginia.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants, being annual, can only be propagated by seeds, which should be sown soon after they are ripe, where they are to remain, for they will not bear removing. They require a moist rich soil, and a shady situation. If the seeds be permitted to scatter, the plants will come up better than when sown by hand; but they thrive best among grass.

The common rattle (n. 3.) is a very troublesome weed among grass. In order to destroy it, the grass should be cut as soon as the flowers appear.

RHINE, the greatest river in Europe, after the Danube and the Wolga. It has its source in the central and highest part of Switzerland, on the north-east side of Mount St. Gothard, and is joined, almost at the outset of its course, by a surprising number of rivulets. Flowing to the north-east, it receives two rivers, called by the Germans, from their situation, the Middle and Hither Rhine, the latter a large stream. The united waters now pass the Grison town of Coire or Chur, become navigable, and hold a northern course to the lake of Constance, which they traverse in all its length. Issuing from the lake with a copious current, the Rhine flows to the west, and receives a great addition to its volume, by the junction of the Aar, the Reuss, and the Limmat, whose united stream brings the tributary waters of the west and centre of Switzerland. It is now the third river in Europe, and continues to flow to the west, until it reaches Bale, when it takes a northern direction, and receives several rivers, of which the chief are the Neckar and Maine on the side of Germany, and the Moselle on that of France. Continuing its course to the north, it enters the kingdom of the Netherlands, and turning to the west, divides into two great branches, of which the southern takes the name of Waal, receives the Maese, becomes like an arm of the sea, and flows into the German ocean by Dort, Rotterdam, and Williamstadt. The northern, or less considerable branch, is farther divided, first above, and afterwards below Arnheim; and the name of Rhine is finally retained by a small slow flowing water, which passes Utrecht and Leyden in its way to the sea, or rather to the sands near Catwyk. From its source to Mentz, this great river is called the Upper Rhine, and from Mentz to Holland, the Lower Rhine.

The course of the Rhine, about 700 miles, is not in proportion to the greatness of its volume. Its waters, unlike those of the Danube, are limpid, and of a beautiful green: its stream, rapid in the early part of its course, becomes afterwards deep and tranquil. During its course in Switzerland, the scenery of the Rhine is often bold and romantic; and below Schaffhausen it forms a cascade, which, though not the highest, is, in mass of waters, the largest in the civilised part

part of Europe. From Bale to Strasburg, and even to Germersheim, a number of islands succeed each other in the river; but it is not until reaching Mentz that the banks of the Rhine assume their most beautiful aspect. From that city to Cologne, it flows through one of the finest parts of Germany: castles, towns, and villages, beautifully situated on each side of the river, embellish and vary the prospect. Hills, covered with vineyards to their summits, rise from the banks; while towers and forts, the remains of the feudal ages, frequently overhang the water. Below Cologne, the river loses much of its grandeur, its banks becoming flat and sandy, with little variety of prospect.

As a medium of water communication, the Rhine is of infinite importance to the countries through which it flows, being navigable, with few interruptions, from Coire in the Grisons, to the German ocean. It receives likewise a number of navigable rivers, which, as well as canals cut to join it, open a passage into the different countries to the right and left. It is by the Rhine that the timber of Suabia is conveyed to the Netherlands, and colonial produce transported from the coast to the interior of Germany and Switzerland. The passage boats up and down the Rhine afford a commodious conveyance, by which the traveller not only avoids bad roads, but enjoys delightful views along the banks. The navigation is sometimes difficult, but seldom hazardous. At Cologne, the vessels are from 100 to 150 tons burden; they are generally drawn by horses, but use their sails when the wind is favourable. In the year 1820 a beginning was made in introducing steam navigation. The Rhine gives name to several divisions of Germany and France, described in the following articles.

RHINE, Circle of, a province subject to Bavaria, though at a considerable distance from the rest of that monarchy, being situated to the west of the Rhine, between Weissemburg on the south, and Worms in the north. It consists of the track of territory on the Upper Rhine ceded by France in 1814, assigned by the congress of Vienna to Austria, and made over by the latter to Bavaria, in their subsequent exchanges. Its form is compact, and approaches to a square; its area is about 1800 square miles: its population 308,000, of whom the majority are Catholics. Being intersected by branches of the Vosges mountains, its surface is very uneven, and the scenery often wild and beautifully varied. The more favourable aspects exhibit vineyards, while the rugged summits are often crowned with the ruins of castles. This province contains mines of iron, quicksilver, coal, a few hardware manufactures, extensive pastures, and in the vallies, wheat, oats, barley, and the fruit of similar latitudes. It is divided into four districts, of which the chief towns are Frankenthal, Landau, Kaiserslautern and Deux Ponts. The Rhine forms its eastern boundary. Of the other rivers, the chief are the Queich and the Lauter.

RHINE, is also the name of a province of the grand duchy of Hesse, situated to the north of a Bavarian circle of the Rhine. Its area is about 1000 square miles: its population 155,000: the majority of these are Catholics, though the Protestants and Jews are both numerous. The surface is hilly and romantic, being intersected by branches of the Vosges mountains, and by Mont Tonnerre; while the Rhine forms a great semicircle along its east and north frontier, and receives all the smaller streams. The vallies and small plains are of great fertility, producing corn, flax, tobacco, vines. The hills contain in certain parts, mines of iron and salt; in others very good pasturage. The chief manufactures are of linen, cotton, and leather. These various productions give rise to a brisk traffic, to which the only material drawback is the high rate of the navigation dues on the Rhine.

RHINE, Confederation of the, the name of a great but short lived association, entered into by several German princes, in 1806, by which they separated themselves from the empire, and formed a new political compact, under the protection of France. It was concluded at Paris in July 1806, and remained in force somewhat more than seven years. Virtually dissolved after the reverses of the French in Russia, it was finally annulled in 1814. The original parties to this league were—Bavaria, which supplied 30,000 troops: Wirtemberg, 12,000: Baden, 8000: Berg, 5000: Hesse-Darmstadt, 4000: Nassau and the smaller states collectively, 4000. To these were added, after the overthrow of Prussia in 1806, Saxony, Westphalia, Mecklenburg, and all the lesser princes of the west and north of Germany. It was, in a great measure, by means of the troops thus furnished, that Buonaparte vanquished the Austrians in 1809.

RHINE, Lower, Grand Duchy of the, a province of the Prussian states, composed of territories taken in 1814, from France and the grand duchy of Berg, and assigned to Prussia by the congress of Vienna. The provincial administration is the same as in the rest of the Prussian dominions. The grand duchy is bounded on the north by the province of Cleves and Berg, on the east by Nassau and Hesse-Darmstadt, on the south by the French, on the west by the Dutch frontier. The grand duchy lies between 6. 0. and 80. 37. of east long. and between 49. 20. and 51. 8. north lat. having an area of 5700 square miles, and 950,000 inhabitants. It is included in the same military division as Westphalia, and is divided into the governments of Aix-la-Chapelle, Coblentz, and Treves. The capital of the whole is Aix-la-Chapelle.

This country is in general hilly, and though it has extensive valleys, it has no great extent of fertile soil. The lower ranks subsist, in a great measure, on potatoes, corn being but partially cultivated. For vines, the climate has sufficient warmth in particular situations; but in the elevated tracks, such as those called the Hundsruck, the Eiffel, and Westerwald, the cold and humid atmosphere checks the growth of every thing but wood. The wine is best along the banks of the three principal rivers, the Rhine, the Aar, (or Ahr), and the Moselle, particularly the last. The other products are hops, tobacco, flax, also potash; and in the hilly districts, minerals. Grazing is followed up more on the east than on the west of the Rhine. The manufactures are limited to the districts around Aix-la-Chapelle and Neuwied. On the east of the Rhine, mining, and the preparing of metals, afford considerable employment; but in most parts of the province, the manufactures are limited to a few articles, chiefly for inland consumption, such as coarse woollens, leather, tobacco; and the inhabitants are in general poor and ignorant. The great majority are Catholics.

RHINE, Circle of the Lower, was one of the ten circles of the German empire, before the establishment of the Confederation of the Rhine in 1806. Its figure was very irregular. The princes who chiefly had possessions here, were the electors of Mentz, Treves, and Cologne, and the elector palatine. It is now divided among the states of Baden, Bavaria, Hesse-Darmstadt, Nassau, Prussia, and Hanover.

RHINE, Circle of the Upper, another division of the German empire, abolished in 1806. It was cut in two by the circle of the Lower Rhine, and, like it, was very irregular in its outline. The area of the two circles exceeded 20,000 square miles. The members of the imperial body who had possessions in the circle of the Upper, were still more numerous than those in the Lower Rhine. The western half being contiguous to Alsace, was repeatedly invaded by the French, and remained in their hands from 1794 to 1814. Since then this circle has been divided among Bavaria, Hesse-Cassel, Hesse-Darmstadt, and other states.

RHINE, Lower, *Bas Rhin*, a department in the north-east of France, consisting of the north part of Alsace, and forming an oblong tract, extending from north to south. Of this oblong, the eastern side is formed by the Rhine, the western by the Vosges mountains, which extend in a chain nearly parallel to the course of that river. The surface of the

the department, about 1900 square miles, is diversified with hills, forests, and small vallies, all picturesque, and in general well cultivated. On the mountains, the soil is bare and stony; in the vicinity of the Rhine it is in certain places marshy, but in general it is fertile, and the average produce of corn exceeds the consumption of the inhabitants, whose number, however, is nearly 40,000. Agriculture is less backward here than in most parts of France. The products are wheat, barley, oats, hemp, flax, tobacco, madder, and rape-seed. In the mountains are mines of iron, copper, coal, and salt. The pastures are extensive, and on the warmer exposures vines are cultivated. Of the manufactures, the chief are hardware and linen. Cotton has been introduced since the close of the 18th century, and there are likewise fabrics of pottery, glass, china-ware, paper, &c. all affording materials for a considerable export. This department, situated to the east of the Vosges, the natural limit of France, is inhabited by Germans, and French is spoken only in the large towns. In regard to religion, the Lutherans are computed at 160,000, the Calvinists at 25,000, and the rest, with the exception of the Jews, are Catholics. This department is divided into four arrondissements, viz. Strasburg the capital, Saverne, Bar, and Weissemburg. The treaty of Paris in 1815 curtailed it of Landau, and of a track of country to the north of Weissemburg.

RHINE, Upper, *Haut Rhin*, another department in the north-east of France, which, like the preceding, is of an oblong form, the Rhine flowing along its eastern limit, and the long chain of the Vosges extending on its western side, in a course nearly parallel to that river. Its extent is about 1700 square miles. It contains the southern division of Alsace, and like the northern, has a stony soil on the mountains, but in the plains and vallies, a rich and fertile mould. Its chief rivers, after the Rhine, are the Ill, the Laber, the Lauch, and the Largue. It has likewise several canals, and two small lakes. Agriculture is less backward here than in the interior of France; corn, hemp, flax, rape-seed, also wines and tobacco, being raised in large quantities. Cherries are so abundant, that the liquor called cherry water forms a considerable article of export. The mineral products are iron, coal, and, in a small degree, copper, lead, and antimony. Of coal, the quantity annually extracted from the mines is about 1000 tons; but of iron, above 5000 tons. Linen, woollen, and latterly cottons, are made in quantities; and on a smaller scale, paper, leather, and glass. Placed, like the preceding department, beyond the natural limit of France, the inhabitants (in number 320,000), are almost all of German descent, and French is spoken only in the towns. The Protestant part of the inhabitants are computed at 57,000; the Jews at 10,000; the Anabaptists at 3000; the Catholics at 250,000. The department is divided into the four arrondissements of Colmar, Altkirch, Neufbrisach, and Befort.

RHINE, a name given by Aristotle, Appian, and most of the Greek writers, to that species of the squalus, which we usually call the squatina: the squatus of Isidore and Pliny. Artedi has distinguished this from all the other species of the squalus, by the having no pinna ani, and the mouth in the extremity of the snout.

RHINEBECK, a township of the United States, in Dutchess county, New York, on the east side of the Hudson; 67 miles south of Albany.

RHINE-GRAVE, in Germany, a count palatine of the Rhine.

RHINE-LAND Rod, in Fortification, &c. a measure of two fathom, or twelve feet, used by the Dutch and German engineers, &c.

RHINESTOWN, a township of the United States in Cumberland county.

RHINGAU, the name given by some authors to the lavaretus, a small fish caught in the German lakes, and sent in pickle into many parts of the world.

RHINOBATOS, the name of a flat cartilaginous fish, of the squatina or monk-fish kind, but differing from it in this, that the body is proportionably longer, and the head is more pointed; and the mouth is a great way beyond the end of the snout, and placed under the head. It is from three to four feet long, and is common in the Mediterranean, and brought to market in some parts of Naples. This is a species of ray in the Linnæan system. See Raia.

RHINO'CEROS, *s.* [ῥιν and κερας, Gr.] A vast beast in the East Indies, armed with a horn on his nose.

Approach thou like the rugged Russian bear,
The arm'd *rhinoceros*, or Hyrcanian tyger;
Take any shape but that, and my firm nerves
Shall never tremble. *Shakspeare.*

The Rhinoceros is a genus of animals of the class mammalia, order brutæ, and is distinguished into two species by the number of the horns: both species have the hoof cleft into three.

1. Rhinoceros unicornis, or one-horned rhinoceros. This animal is among the largest of quadrupeds. His body equals the bulk of the elephant; and, were not his legs shorter, he would exhibit a no less stately figure. A single, black, smooth horn, sometimes three feet and a half long, and situated near the extremity of the nose, constitutes his specific character: the upper lip is disproportionably large, hanging over the lower, and terminating in a point: it is furnished with muscles, which enables the animal to move it with great dexterity in collecting his food, and introducing it into the mouth: the nostrils are in a trasverse direction: the ears are large, erect, and pointed: the skin is naked, rough, and extremely thick: about the neck it is gathered into enormous folds; a fold extends between the shoulders and the fore legs, and another from the hinder part of the back to the thighs: the tail is slender, flat at the end, and covered on the sides with very stiff, black, hairs. In consequence of the vast bulk of the body, and the disproportionate shortness of the legs, the belly hangs low. The breadth of the feet does not exceed the circumference of the legs.

This animal was well known to the ancients. Several of the sacred writers make frequent allusions to him, as an animal familiarly known to the people to whom their writings were directly addressed. They have not indeed condescended to a minute description; but the terms in which they have mentioned it sufficiently indicate the species. Pliny mentions the rhinoceros as an animal that appeared in the Roman circus, in games exhibited by Pompey. He was opposed to the elephant, and shewed himself no unequal antagonist. Though not described by Aristotle, the rhinoceros is mentioned by the historians of Alexander, as one of the strange animals discovered by his army in their progress into India.

The rhinoceros is a native inhabitant of Bengal, Siam, Cochinchina, Quangsi in China, and the isles of Java and Sumatra. He is a solitary, stupid, animal. Shady forests adjoining to rivers, and miry, marshy plains, are his favourite haunts. Unless provoked by injuries, he is commonly mild and inoffensive: his rage is desperate and dangerous. The mode in which copulation takes place between the two sexes is backwards; the female produces only one at a birth. During the first month of its age, the young rhinoceros does not rise above the size of a large dog: the horn is at first almost imperceptible, and increases by slow gradations: the bulk of the animal is indeed but very slowly enlarged; at the age of two years he has scarcely attained half his full height: his eyes are small, and his sight dull: but he possesses the senses both of hearing and smelling in high perfection; thorns and prickly shrubs are his chief food; his tongue was once said to be rough and hard; but, from later and more accurate observation, we learn, that it is as smooth and soft as the tongue of any other animal. It has been conjectured, that sixty or seventy years may be the natural term of the life of the rhinoceros. His skin has been represented as impenetrable, even by balls; but we now find that this vast animal is liable to be mortally wounded by

by missile weapons of all kinds. The flesh is not unlike pork; but of a coarser grain, and a stronger taste.

The species we have described is usually supposed to represent the unicorn of Scripture; it would appear, however, that another animal exists far more closely resembling the common idea of a unicorn, than the R. unicornis. The annexed engraving, fig. 2, represents the head of this animal, which was seen by Mr. Campbell, at Mashow, in South Africa, the skull of which is now in the Museum of the Missionary Society in London. When shot it was called a rhinoceros, but the head being brought in, it was found to be different from all the others that had been killed.

"The common African rhinoceros," continues Campbell, "has a crooked horn resembling a cock's spur, which rises about nine or ten inches above the nose and inclines backwards; immediately behind this is a short thick horn; but the head they brought had a straight horn projecting three feet from the forehead, about ten inches above the tip of the nose. The projection of this great horn very much resembles that of the fanciful unicorn in the British arms. It has a small thick horny substance, eight inches long, immediately behind it, which can hardly be observed on the animal at the distance of a hundred yards, and seems to be designed for keeping fast that which is penetrated by the long horn; so that this species of rhinoceros must appear really like a unicorn when running in the field. The head resembled in size a nine-gallon cask, and measures three feet from the mouth to the ear, and being much larger than that of the one with the crooked horn, and which measured eleven feet in length, the animal itself must have been still larger and more formidable. From its weight, and the position of the horn, it appears capable of overcoming any creature hitherto known. Hardly any of the natives took the smallest notice of the head, but treated it as a thing familiar to them. As the entire horn is perfectly solid, the natives, I afterwards heard, made from one horn four handles for their battle-axes. Our people wounded another, which they reported to be much larger."

It has been further stated in No. XV. of the Missionary Sketches, that "the head measured from the ears to the nose three feet: the length of the horn, which is nearly black, is also three feet, projecting from the forehead, about ten inches above the nose. There is a small horny projection, of a conical shape, measuring about eight inches, immediately behind the great horn, apparently designed for keeping fast or steady whatever is penetrated by the great horn. This projection is scarcely observed at a very little distance. The animal is not carnivorous, but chiefly feeds on grass and bushes."

Mr. Campbell was very desirous to obtain as adequate an idea as possible of the bulk of the animal killed near Mashow, and with this view questioned his Hottentots, who described it as being much larger than the Rhinoceros, and equal in size to three oxen or four horses.

2. Rhinoceros bicornis: in size, form, and manners, and almost all other characteristics, this species appears nearly allied to the former. The only, or at least the chief, distinction is an additional horn. The former rhinoceros bears only one horn on his nose; but this species are furnished with two, one standing strait behind the other. We know not whether the unicorn and the bicorn copulate and breed together indifferently. It has even been doubted, whether all animals of the rhinoceros character may not naturally possess two horns; and an unicorn appear only in consequence of an accidental loss.

The anterior is always larger than the posterior. Both horns are universally of a conical shape, with the tips reclining somewhat backwards. The posterior horn of an old rhinoceros has always the appearance of being worn away. Dr. Sparrman relates, from the information of the Hottentots and colonists at the Cape, that the horns are remarkably loose on the nose of the living rhinoceros; he moves them backwards and forwards at pleasure; as he walks carelessly, they shake and clatter against each other; and in digging roots, which he eats, as well as prickly shrubs, he reclines the anterior horn, and, employing only the posterior, thus wears the latter by degrees to a stump, while the former remains entirely uninjured. The tips of both horns are slightly bent backwards: their texture seems composed of parallel horny fibres: near the root, the surface of the horn is rough and unequal; towards the point smooth and plain like the horns of oxen. The anterior horn of a rhinoceros of moderate size, shot by Dr Sparrman, was a foot in length, and five inches in circumference at the base. The anterior horn of a larger rhinoceros was a foot and an half in length, and seven inches in circumference at the base: the posterior horn stands rather on the forehead than on the snout.

Dissecting the smaller rhinoceros, Sparrman found its stomach filled with masticated roots and branches of trees, and succulent plants, several of which seemed to be prickly. It had no fore-teeth; but the lips were of so hard a texture, that they might easily serve to perform all the same functions as the fore-teeth of other animals. The jaws of a full-grown rhinoceros are furnished with four-and-twenty grinders: the anterior part of the os palati exhibits a tooth-like process; but so distant from the lower jaw, that it can scarcely serve any of the purposes of a tooth: the skin is hard and thick in proportion to the bulk of the animal; but not proof against the impression even of blunt-pointed weapons: on the feet, the skin is thicker, and more callous than on the other parts: the skin is not gathered into folds, as that of the former species: it is smooth and flesh-coloured between the legs; a few stiff bristles are thinly scattered over the other parts of the body; they are most numerous about the ears and the end of the tail: the skin is of a deep cinereous grey colour; and numerous warts appear all over the body: the foot is divided into three parts, the hoofs of which project but a little beyond the leg. Such, according to Dr. Sparrman, are the more remarkable external characteristics of the rhinoceros with two horns.

Mr. Bruce represents the rhinoceros of Abyssinia as having his skin gathered into folds, on the neck, the shoulders, the buttocks, and some other parts of his body. His mouth he describes as furnished with twenty-eight teeth: the upper lip he allows to be remarkably large: the skin is always smooth, except when flies and other troublesome insects have broken it, so as to produce pustules; a distress to which the animal is very liable: the tongue of the young rhinoceros is indeed smooth; but, as he grows old, it becomes very rough: the anterior horn is round, and bends slightly back at the point; behind it appears the second, which is flat and straight; and behind this have been observed the rudiments of a third.

It is only in Africa that this animal has been discovered in modern times. In the southern parts of the African continent, the species are well known. The Europeans, who have penetrated into Abyssinia, represent them as not less numerous in that country. From an epigram of Martial, and some coins of Domitian, we learn that the rhinoceros with two horns was not unknown to the Romans.

The manners and economy of this species differ but little from those of the last. But the bicorn has been more accurately observed than the unicorn. He resides almost constantly in deep forests: he never eats hay or grass: large succulent plants, prickly shrubs, the branches, and even the trunks, of trees, are the articles of food which he prefers. The strength of his jaws and teeth enables him to break off and masticate the thickest branches of the hardest and toughest trees. But the forests of Abyssinia afford trees of a softer consistency, and peculiarly succulent; which he eats in preference to others: his upper lip is his chief instrument in collecting his food: he extends and twists it, so as to perform with it many of the functions which the elephant performs with his proboscis. After stripping a tree of its branches, a rhinoceros often applies his horn to the trunk, and, splitting it into so many lathes, devours it with as much ease and avidity as an ox would eat up a bunch of celery. In the forests inhabited by animals of this species, there appear sometimes trees divested of their leaves and branches, sometimes a trunk divided into lathes, a part of which have been eaten, and another part left for a future repast; and sometimes short stumps, of which the leaves, branches, and trunks, have been devoured.

RHINOCEROS.

J. Pass sc.

1. R. Unicornis. 2. A new species. (Anomalous)

devoured. The horns of the rhinoceros suffer greatly in the preparation of his food; he often leaves a part of a horn either fixed in a tree, which he has in vain attempted to tear, or lying beside it on the ground. The sensibility of the rhinoceros in this part, must render such an accident as the breaking of a horn, if not fatal, at least extremely painful and dangerous. Mr. Bruce relates, that he saw a rhinoceros so affected, on having the point of his foremost horn broken off by a musket ball, as to appear, for an instant, absolutely incapable of sense and motion.

However unwieldy his form, the rhinoceros displays astonishing swiftness. He moves with a sort of trot; quickening his pace by degrees, as he runs. His speed is not equal to that of a swift and vigorous horse; but, between speed and cunning, he seldom suffers a hunter, mounted on horseback, to overtake him. The Hottentot and Caffrarian hunters are accustomed to steal upon the rhinoceros when asleep, and gore him with several deep wounds. After which they follow his footsteps, even for several days, till he drops down of weakness, or dies of his wounds. But they commonly poison their darts immediately before the enterprise; and, in this case, the animal does not long survive. As he moves through the forest, the trees are crushed under his weight, like so many dry reeds. His eyes are so small, and his sight so feeble, that he sees only a very short way before him. The Abyssinians pursue him, two on a horse; and, as he seldom looks behind him, commonly overtake him before he is aware. The one, armed with a sword, then drops down; and, cutting the hams of the rhinoceros, the vast animal falls to the ground, alike incapable of flight and of resistance. Although naturally peaceable, he is disposed, as well as other animals, to defend himself when attacked. His rage is impetuous, and generally ill directed; he injures himself as readily as an antagonist; he knocks his head against a wall or manger; strikes against a tree with as much satisfaction as against the hunter who attacks him.

It may be naturally conceived, that so large an animal as the rhinoceros must require a considerable quantity of water to macerate his food. The tracts of country which he inhabits are interspersed with marshes, lakes, and rivers. The district of Shangalla, the favourite abode of this species, in Abyssinia, is, for six months in the year, deluged by constant rains, and overspread with woods which prevent evaporation. The rhinoceros, as well as most other species, is pestered by flies. Being destitute of hair, he is peculiarly exposed to the persecution of these insects. Nature has taught him, however, to roll occasionally in the mire, till he acquires a crust of dirt, which may, for some time at least, protect him from their stings. But this dries, cracks, and falls off in pieces. The flies then renew their attacks and often pierce through his skin; so that his body is at length covered over with pustules. It is in the night chiefly, that he rolls in the mire; and the hunters often steal on him at that period, while he is enjoying one of his favourite pleasures, and stab him with mortal wounds in the belly, before he is aware of their approach. By wallowing in the mire, he often gathers reptiles and insects upon his body; such as millepedes, scolopendræ, worms, and snails.

The rhinoceros, though next in size, yet in docility and ingenuity greatly inferior, to the elephant, has never yet been tamed, so as to assist the labours of mankind, or to appear in the ranks of war. Thus, Job asks, "Will the unicorn be willing to serve thee or abide by thy crib? can'st thou bind the unicorn with his band in the furrow? or will he harrow the valleys after thee?"

RHINOCEROS Avis, the name of a species of BUCEROS, which see, vol. iii. p. 478.

RHINOCEROS an insect of the genus scarabæus or beetle. See SCARABÆUS.

RHINOCOLURA, or RHINOCORURA, a town of Syria, 22 miles from Raphia, and which formed a kind of boundary between Syria and Egypt. Strabo attributes it to Phœnicia; and Pliny calls the sea, on a strait of which this place is situated, the "Sea of Phœnicia." Diodorus Siculus mentions this town, as destitute of all the conveniences of life; that its water was bitter and noxious, and that it was surrounded with salt marshes.

RHINOMACER, in Entomology, a genus of insects of the order Coleoptera. The generic character is, antennæ setaceous, seated on the snout; four feelers, growing thicker towards the end; the last joint is truncate. There are three species, none of which are found in this country.

1. Rhinomacer Curculioides. This is grey and downy; the antennæ and legs are black. It inhabits Italy. It resembles a curculio. The antennæ are setaceous and black, and as long as the thorax; the last joint is sharp; the snout is flat, and impressed in the middle.

2. Rhinomacer Attelaboides. This is piceous-downy; the antennæ and legs are testaceous. It is found in divers parts of Sweden. The snout is elevated and projected; the body is cinereous.

3. Rhinomacer Cæruleus. This species is of a blueish colour, and it is subvillous; the base of the antennæ and legs are yellow. It inhabits Calabria, and has been thought to be a species of the Attelabus.

RHINOPTES, a word used by the ancients to express a person, who, from an ulcer in the inner corner of the eye, laying open the passages to the nose, could see through his nostril.

RHINSBERG. See REINSBERG.

RHINSBERGERS. See COLLEGIANTS.

RHIPSALIS, Gærtner's name for the CACTUS pendulus. See vol. iii. p. 581.

RHIPTASMOS, a word used by the ancients to express a restlessness and frequent tossing about, a very common symptom in fevers.

RHISOPHAGI, a people of Ethiopia, in the vicinity of the isle of Meroe, upon the banks of the rivers Astaboras and Astapas, according to Diodorus Siculus.

RHISPIA, a town of the Higher Pannonia, at a distance from the Danube, and situated between Savaria and Vincendria. *Ptolemy.*

RHISUS, a town of Greece, on the coast of Thessaly, according to Strabo and Steph. Byz. Pliny mentions a town of this name in Magnesia.

RHITHYMNA, a town situated on the northern coast of the isle of Crete. *Ptolemy.*

RHITIA, a town of Africa, in Mauritania Cæsariensis; placed by Ptolemy in the interior of the country between Arina and Victoria.

RHITTIUM, a town of Lower Pannonia, upon the banks of the Danube, between Acumincum Legio and Taururum, according to Ptolemy.

RHIUM, a promontory on the north-east part of Achaia: it formed with Anti-Rhium, another promontory opposite to it, and more northerly, the strait by which the Ionian sea communicated with the gulf of Corinth.—Also, a town of the Peloponnesus, in Messenia, upon the gulf of Thuriates, opposite to the promontory Tanarus, according to Strabo.—Also a promontory on the east side of the island of Corsa, between mount Rhætius and the town Urcipium. *Ptolemy.*

RHIUSIAVA, a town of Germany, on the banks of the Danube, between Aræ Flaviæ and Alcimænis. *Ptolemy.*

RHIW, a mountain in Wales, in Caernarvonshire, 1013 feet in height.

RHIZAGRA, an old instrument for extracting the stumps of teeth.

RHIZANA, a town placed by Ptolemy in the interior of Dalmatia.—Also, a town of Asia, in Gedrosia, upon the sea-coast near Coiamba. *Ptol.*—Also, a town placed by Ptolemy in Arachosia, between Alexandria and Arbaca.

RHIZINIUM, or RHISINUM, or Rhison, a town of Dalmatia, on a gulf to which it gave the name of Rhisonicus Sinus. *Ptol.*

RHIZIUM, RHIZE, a town of Asia, in the Colchide, on the coast of the Euxine sea, and west of the mouth of the small river "Rhizius."

RHIZOBOLUS, [from ῥίζα, a root; and βολη from βαλλω, to throw; because it throws out many roots,] in botany, a genus of the class polyandria, order tetragynia.—Generic Character.—

ter.—Calyx: perianth one-leafed, fleshy, tomentose, half-five-cleft; segments roundish, concave. Corolla: petals five, ovate, rounded, concave, fleshy, inserted below the divisions of the calyx, and much larger than it. Stamina: filaments very numerous, filiform, longer than the corolla, inserted into the receptacle. Anthers roundish. Pistils: germ four-cornered, at the bottom of the calyx. Styles four, filiform, longer than the corolla. Stigmas blunt. Pericarp: drupes four, kidney-shaped, compressed, inserted by the internal wedge-formed margin into a conical receptacle, one-celled with a fleshy rind, and a buttery soft pulp. Seeds: nuts solitary, kidney-shaped, with a brittle shell covered with prickles. Kernels solitary, kidney-shaped.—*Essential Character.*—Calyx: half-five-cleft. Petals five. Germ four lobed, superior. Nuts four, one-celled, one-seeded.

1. Rhizobolus butyrosis.—This is a tall tree, the trunk of which is three feet in diameter: the bark is grey, and the wood reddish and compact. It is much branched at the top, the branches growing in an opposite direction, and the leaves growing exactly opposite also; they are about seven inches long, of a bright green, the leaflets being entire, oval, and pointed. The flowers grow in large bunches at the extremities of the branches, and are of a white colour, large, with numerous stamens, and yellow anthers.—It is a native of Guiana, and is cultivated at Cayenne, where it flowers in the month of July.

2. Rhizobolus tuberculosus.—This differs from the preceding in having the leaves downy beneath: they are also thicker; and the fruit is larger, and tuberculate; juiceless, and without the butyraceous quality of the former.—It grows in Guiana, and produces its fruit in July.

RHIZOMA, an appellation bestowed, by several late authors, on the tuberous *caudex*, or body, of some roots; as that of *Iris Germanica*, and many other of the natural order of *Ensatæ* of Linnæus and Gawler. See ROOT.

RHIZOMORPHA, [so called from its resemblance to the branching fibrous roots of various plants,] a genus of fungi, established by Persoon, in his Synopsis, 704. Generic Character. Creeping, rigid, smooth, with a villous pith. Persoon enumerates three species: R. *subcorticalis*, *subterranea*, found among wet timber-work, in mines; and *setiformis*, found among dead leaves in woods. They are all, to us, very obscure, and perhaps imperfect productions.

RHIZOPHORA, *s.* [from ῥίζα, a root, and φέρω, Gr. to bear.] In botany, a genus of the class dodecandria, order monogynia, natural order of holoraceæ, caprifolia, *(Juss.)* Generic Character.—Calyx: perianth one-leaved, four-parted or many-parted, patulous; segments oblong, acuminate, permanent. Corolla: petals four or more, oblong, rather shorter than the calyx. Stamina: filaments scarcely any, alternately shorter; anthers four to twelve, small, acuminate. Pistil: germ superior, roundish; style awl-shaped, semi-bifid, grooved on each side; stigmas acute. Pericarp fleshy, sub-ovate, inclosing only the base of the seed. Seed single, club-oblong, acuminate, fleshy at the base. The stamens differ in number, as do the calyx and corolla.—*Essential Caracter.*—Calyx four-parted. Corolla four-parted. Seed one, very long, fleshy at the base.—All the species of this genus are maritime trees, extending far and wide by their many-times-rooting branches, which are frequently opposite. They are all natives of the East Indies. Rhizophora mangle is found in the West Indies also.

1. Rhizophora conjugata.—Leaves ovate-oblong, bluntish, quite entire, calyxes sessile, fruits cylindric-subulate.

2. Rhizophora gymnorhiza.—Leaves ovate-lanceolate, quite entire, root placed upon the ground. This tree is above the middle size, with a lofty straight trunk: the bark is thick, cloven, of a brown-red colour: with many large bowed roots spreading upon the cone that is covered with sea-water. Calyx from ten to thirteen-parted.

Gærtner thus describes the fruit. "The calyx when ripe is coriaceous, thick, divided into twelve or fourteen parts, which are linear-acuminate, and curved in: shell of the seed fleshy-coriaceous, inversely parabolical, regularly truncate at top, detached on all sides, wholly immersed in the belly of the calyx. Embryo inverted, of a greenish bay colour; cotyledons four, convex on one side, angular on the other, leafy, twisted together, converging into a globe, grass green: radicle detached every way from the integuments, clavate-cylindrical, obscurely angular, very smooth, shining, from three inches to a foot and more in length, bluntish or acuminate."

The bark of this tree is very useful in dying rufous or chesnut colour; which is easily changed into a very fine permanent black.

3. Rhizophora candel.—Leaves obtuse, peduncles bigeminate, longer than the leaf; fruits awl-shaped.

4. Rhizophora mangle, or the mangrove tree.—Leaves acute, fruits subulate-clavate. The mangrove tree commonly attains the height of fifty feet; the wood is white, but becomes red when macerated in water; the bark is thick and rust-coloured. Leaves ovate, shining, deep green on the upper surface, on the lower yellowish green with blackish dots, from three to six inches long. The flowers are commonly without scent, but sometimes they are a little sweet. Calyx deeply four-cleft, yellowish. Petals four, white. Anthers constantly eight, and very caducous.

Jacquin has given an interesting description of the fruit, and the extraordinary mode in which the seed germinates.

"The fruit of this tree," says Browne, "germinates within the cup, and grows from the top downwards, until it acquires a due degree of weight and perfection: then it falls off; and as the root is always thickest, and hangs lowest, it drops in that direction, and is thus received in its natural position in the mud below; the leaves immediately unfold, and in a few minutes a perfect plant is seen, sometimes of ten or twelve inches in length, which soon begins to shoot its roots, and push its growth like the parent stem, for the germ is frequently a foot in length before it falls, and has always two leaves at the top; but these are folded up, and inclosed within the cup whilst it continues on the tree."

The Mangrove is generally found on the borders of the sea, in whose waters alone it seems to thrive; and there only in such places as have a soft and yielding bottom. Its larger branches frequently emit soft and weakly appendicles, that have the appearance of so many slender leafless branches, and bend always downwards: but as these are softer, and furnished each with a large column of a lax spongy pith in the centre, they grow more luxuriantly than the other parts of the tree, and reach the mud in a short time, where they throw out a numberless series of slender fibres, which in time become roots, to supply the stem more copiously with nourishment, whilst they become so many props or limbs to the parent tree. Thus it continues to enlarge its bulk, as its weight increases, or its branches spread; these constantly throwing out new appendicles as they multiply their shoots, and so forms those interwoven groves we so frequently meet with on the sea shore in the tropical climates, which serve to stop the mould that is constantly washed down by those rapid floods that come from the inland parts, and thereby in time turn what might have otherwise continued useless ponds or open creeks, into rich and fertile fields.

The trunk of the mangrove seldom grows to any considerable thickness, but the wood is very tough and hard, bears the water well, and is much used for knees and ribs in long-boats, and other small-craft. The American oysters feed on the lower branches, which has given rise to the fabulous account of the growth of this shell-fish on trees, as a fruit.

The bark is more excellent for tanning leather than oak-bark.

According to Dampier, there are three sorts of Mangrove trees, black, red, and white. The white never grows so big as the other two, neither is it of any great use. Of the young trees they make handles for oars, for it is commonly straight, but not very strong.

5. Rhizophora cylindrica.—Fruits cylindrical, blunt. This much resembles the second species.

6. Rhizophora sexangula.—Leaves ovate-lanceolate, opposite, fruits hexangular, petals ten, stamens twenty.

RHIZUS, a port of Cappadocia, near Trebizond, between

tween the town of Pitiusa and the promontory of Athenæ. *Ptolemy.*

RHO, a small, populous, and salubrious town; 8 miles west of Milan.

RHOARA, a town of Asia, in Parthia, between Casipraca and Semina. *Ptolemy.*

RHOAS, a river of the Colchide, according to Pliny.

RHOBASCI, a people of Sycthia, on this side of the Imaus, placed by Ptolemy near the most easterly sources of the river Rha.

RHOBODUNUM, a town of Germany, upon the banks of the Danube, between Phelicia and Andupedum. *Ptolemy.*

RHOBOGDIUM, a promontory placed by Ptolemy in the northern part of Hibernia.

RHOBONDA, a town of Africa, in Mauritania Cæsariensis, between Tupusuptus and Ausum. *Ptolemy.*

RHOCAS, an old term for fistula lacrymalis. See SURGERY.

RHODA, or RHODE, a town of Hispania Anterior, belonging to the Indigetes, and north of a small gulf. It is said to have been built by the Rhodians on the banks of a small river which flowed from the Pyrenees, and called by Pomponious Mela "Thicis." But Cellarius conjectures that it was founded by the inhabitants of Emporiæ, who came thither from the town of Rhodes, in the island of that name.—Also, a town of Gallia Narbonnensis, at the mouth and on the banks of the Rhone, according to Pliny; who adds, that it was built by the Rhodians. St. Jerome intimates that the Rhone took its name from this town.

RHODE ISLAND, one of the United States, which is situated between 41. 22. and 42. 0. N. lat. and between 5. 0. and 5. 50. E. long. It is bounded north and east by Massachusetts, south by the Atlantic, and west by the Connecticut. It extends 49 miles from the Atlantic on the south, to the Massachusetts line of boundary on the north, and the greatest width is 37 miles. It stretches along the west coast of the bay 22 miles, and 5 along the eastern coast, containing about 1580 square miles, of which 190 are covered with water, and 90 consist of islands.

The following table exhibits the population, and the number of towns.

Counties.	Towns.	Population.
Bristol	3	5,972
Kent	4	9,834
Newport	7	16,294
Providence	10	30,769
Washington	7	14,962
	31	77,831

The tribe of Indians who inhabited Rhode island at the time of its settlement, was the Narragansetts, who were a brave and powerful people. The first settlement in this state was made by Roger Williams, and a party of malcontents from Massachusetts, in 1635; and in 1643 a charter was obtained for the whole colony by Sir Henry Vane. The charter, on which the present constitution is founded, was obtained of Charles II. in 1663. In May 1789, Rhode island adopted the federal constitution. The inhabitants of this state are chiefly of English descent. Agreeably to the charter just mentioned, the legislature is composed of a council of 12, including the governor, and deputy governor, all chosen annually, and a house of representatives consisting of deputies from the several towns, chosen twice a-year. There is one supreme court, which sits twice a-year in each county, and an inferior court of common pleas and general sessions of the peace for each county, sitting also twice a-year. The militia of this state amount to between 7000 and 8000 men, organized and disciplined in a manner similar to the rest of the New England militia. The settlement of Rhode island is said to have originated in a religious dispute; and some of its first settlers were exiles from the Massachusetts, on account of their religious opinions. The prejudice and animosity thus excited were never thoroughly removed; but were long cherished by the descendants of the first occupiers.

The face of the country is mostly level, except in the north-west part, which is hilly and rocky. The soil is generally better adapted to grazing than tillage. A large proportion of the western and north-western part of the state has a barren soil; but the islands and the country bordering on Narraganset bay, are of great fertility, and are celebrated for their fine cattle, their numerous flocks of sheep, and the abundance and excellence of their butter and cheese. Cyder is made for exportation. Corn, rye, barley, oats, and in some places wheat, are produced in sufficient quantities for home consumption; and the various kinds of grasses, fruits, culinary roots and plants in great abundance and perfection. Iron ore is found here, both rich and abundant. Some of it not far from the town of Providence, gave 50 per cent. at the first fusion. Copper ore is also found; and there is abundance of limestone, particularly in the county of Providence. Coal has also lately been discovered. The manufactures of Rhode Island are extensive. They consist chiefly of iron, cotton, woollen, paper, oils, spirits, and straw-bonnets. The whole amount of the manufactures may be estimated at above three millions of dollars. In 1809, in the town and vicinity of Providence, there were 17 cotton mills, with 14,296 spindles, yielding 520,000 pounds of yarn, from 640,000 pounds of cotton; and seven additional mills were then erecting. The weaving looms amounted to 1100. The cloths manufactured, consisting of bed-ticking, shirting, counterpanes, stripes, checks, and ginghams, were considered equal to any imported goods of the same kind. There are woollen manufactures at Warwick and Portsmouth. The number of hats manufactured are estimated at 50,000. The rivers and bays abound in fish, and the fishery gives employment to a number of hands. The exports consist chiefly of flax-seed, lumber, horses, cattle, beef, pork, fish, poultry, onions, butter, cheese, barley, grain, spirits, and cotton and linen goods.

The following is the amount of the exports from the year 1791, at different periods:—

1791	470,131 dollars.
1797	975,530
1800	1,322,945
1802	2,433,363
1805	2,572,094
1808	242,034
1810	1,331,576
1816	612,794

The imports are West India produce, logwood from Honduras bay, and the manufactures of Europe and of India.

The climate of this state, extending on the south along the shore of the ocean, and comprehending towards the east considerable islands, is somewhat milder than that of Massachusetts, the cold of winter being less intense, and the heat of summer less oppressive. This is more particularly the case on the islands, where the breezes from the sea have the effect not only to mitigate the heat in summer, but to moderate the cold in winter. The summers are delightful, especially on Rhode Island, strictly so called. The month of April is generally cold and rainy; May is temperate, regular, and favourable to rapid vegetation. The heat generally prevails during three months, June, July, and August. The winter is cold and rigorous during four months, from the 1st of November to the 1st of March. The snow falls from the 1st to the middle of December, and sometimes at an earlier period. The air, throughout the year, is pure and wholesome, especially in the Narraganset track, where no destructive disease has ever been known to prevail.

Though the soil be light, it produces considerable crops of Indian corn, rye, barley, and oats. Wheat is also cultivated, but not in sufficient quantity for the wants of the inhabitants. Culinary plants are in great abundance. The pasture, owing to the maritime situation and mildness of the winter, is of an excellent quality, especially in Hancock and Washington counties, where neat cattle have grown to the

the enormous weight of 1600 or 1800 pounds. There are numerous dairies, and the butter and cheese is of an execellent quality. The number of sheep reared upon the island is, upon an average, about 30,000. Fruit thrives here extremely, especially the apple, of which more cyder is made than is required for home consumption, particularly at Cranston, Johnson, and Smithfield. The farms and dairies of the Narraganset country were celebrated before the revolutionary war; but during this period they suffered greatly. The English troops in possession of Rhode island cut down the fruit trees for fuel, ravaged the plantations, and seized the cattle for their own use. Of several thousand head, there remained but 300 in 1786. The Narraganset track, which terminates on the bay of the same name, produces a breed of pacing horses remarkable for their speed and vigour.

The wild animals, deprived of their cover, have disappeared. Of fishes there is a great abundance and variety. No less than 80 different kinds are seen in the market of Newport, of which the black fish, known by the name of *tataag*, is in high estimation. The shores abound with cod, halibut, mackerel, haddock, bass, and perch; the rivers and bays with sheepshead, shad, and herrings; sea-bass, some of the largest weighing 60 pounds; in Point Judith Pond, from 2 to 40 pounds. A fish called the horse-mackerel disappeared during the revolutionary war, which was ascribed by some to the noise of the guns of the French and English fleets: others suppose, with greater probability, that they were destroyed by a storm, which drove them ashore on the coast of Maine or Massachusetts.

The rivers are Pawtucket, Providence, Pawtuxet, Pawcatuck, and Wood river. Narraganset bay extends up from south to north, between the mainland on the east and west, and embosoms many pleasant and fertile islands, among which are Rhode island, from which the state derives its name, Canonicut, Prudence, Patience, Hope, Dyer's, and Hog islands. Providence bay lies 15 miles from Narraganset bay, and is from one to three miles wide. Block island, off the coast in the Atlantic, is the most southerly land belonging to the state.

The most considerable towns are Providence, Newport, Bristol, Warren, South Kingston, East Greenwich, Smithfield and the villages of Pawtucket and Pawtuxet. The harbours are Newport, Providence, Wickford, Pawtuxet, Bristol, and Warren. There are 31 banks in this state, 7 at Providence, 5 at Newport, 4 at Bristol, 2 in North Providence, including one at the village of Pawtucket, 2 at Westerly, 1 at Warren, 1 at East Greenwich, 1 at South Kingston, 1 at Smithfield, 1 at Warwick, 1 at Wickford, 1 at Pawtuxet, 1 at Chepachet, 1 at Burrillville, 1 at Scituate, and 1 at Coventry. There is a college at Providence, and a large Friends' boarding-school recently established at the place. There are 7 academies in the state, at Bristol, Cumberland, East Greenwich, Newport, Smithfield, South Kingston, and Wickford. Public and private schools are supported, in a greater or less degree, in various places; but public schools are not supported by law in Rhode Island, as in the other New England states. The number of congregations of the several denominations of Christians in this state, is stated as follows:—Baptists 57, Friends 18, Congregationalists 11, Episcopalians 5, Moravians 1, Jews 1.

The legislature meets at Newport twice a-year, at Providence once, and once a year alternately at East Greenwich and South Kingston. This state sends two representatives to congress.

The following is a progressive account of the population from the year 1730:

Increase of Population.		Including Blacks.	
1730,	17,935	2,633	
1748,	32,773	4,373	
1761,	40,636	4,697	
1774,	59,678	5,243	
1783,	51,899	3,361	
1790,	68,825	948 slaves;	3,407 free blacks.
1800,	69,122	380	3,304
1810,	76,931	108	3,609

RHODE ISLAND, the island from which the above state takes its name, is situated in Narraganset bay, near the coast of Massachusetts. It is about 15 miles from north to south, and 3½ wide, and is divided into three townships, Newport, Portsmouth, and Middletown. It is a noted resort for invalids from southern climates. The island is exceedingly fertile and healthful. Travellers call it the *Eden of America*. It suffered much by the revolutionary war. Between 30,000 and 40,000 sheep are fed on the island, besides neat cattle and horses. There is a valuble coal mine on the north-west part of the island. Lat. 41. 25. N. long. 71. 20. W.

RHODE RIVER, a river of south Carolina, which runs into the north-west branch of Cape Fear river.

RHODES, an extensive island of the Mediterranean, near the coast of Asia Minor. In ancient times, it was one of the most celebrated of the states of Greece, and distinguished above all others by its wealth, and naval power. Though this city early began to distinguish itself in trade, yet its greatness was not coeval with that of Sparta and Athens. It was even subjected to the latter power, during the period of its most extended dominion. It was after the death of Alexander that Rhodes appeared in its full glory, and not only dazzled the world by its magnificence, but raising almost alone the standard of independence, became illustrious by its warlike exploits. Demetrius, the greatest captain of that age, undertook the siege of Rhodes, hoping to make its reduction the most illustrious of his exploits. He not only exhausted all the known resources of war, but invented new machines, of immense power and magnitude, to reduce it; yet, after a year's perseverance, he was obliged to raise the siege, and found before Rhodes the wreck of his military fortunes, as well as of his fame. At this time Rhodes was as much distinguished by art as by splendour. It was all built on a regular plan, the houses corresponding to each other, and forming as it were only a single edifice. The walls, of enormous strength and thickness, were marked at intervals by lofty towers, serving also as light-houses to the numerous shipping which frequented its harbour. The port, naturally one of the most commodious in the world, had been improved by all the resources of art. In short, it is described as the only city which was at once strongly fortified and ornamented like a palace. It was particularly famous for the works of painting and sculpture, by which it was adorned. Protogenes, the cotemporary and rival of Apelles, produced here those masterpieces, which were the admiration of antiquity. In sculpture, Rhodes could boast of her celebrated colossus, reckoned one of the seven wonders of the world. It is described as seventy cubits high, and as much distinguished for beauty as for grandeur; but the relations which describe its feet as placed on the opposite sides of the harbour, and ships as sailing between its legs, appear to be altogether fabulous. It was overthrown by an earthquake; and after lying for many ages extended on the ground, was, in the reign of the emperor Constans, sold to a Jew, and its fragments transported to Emesa on 900 camels. Rhodes too, though it did not produce the most celebrated Greek authors, assiduously cultivated learning; and in the time of Cicero and Cæsar, its schools were much frequented.

Rhodes was among the last states which yielded to the Roman arms; and she was allowed even to enjoy the forms of liberty, till the reign of Vespasian, who reduced her into the regular form of a Roman province. Rome, however, owned in one respect her pre-eminence, by adopting the greater part of her naval and commercial code. Rhodes thus lost her political existence, and is not heard of in history, till, on the downfall of the eastern empire, the island became one of the last retreats to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem. This little band of heroes rendered it illustrious, by their resistance to the Ottoman emperors, during the period of their greatest power. They baffled the efforts of Mahomet II. the conqueror of Constantinople, and were not reduced by Solyman the Great, till after one of the most memorable sieges recorded in history.

Rhodes, which occupies so great a place in history, holds a very insignificant one on the present theatre of the world.

world. Like the neighbouring islands, it is reduced by the oppressions of the Porte, and the arbitrary exactions of its governors, to a state of the most wretched poverty. The Kharatsh, or capitation tax, indeed, is more moderate than in some of the neighbouring islands, amounting to about 30 piastres for each house. The natives, however, are compelled to labour hard in the services required by government, which occupy about three months in the year of the time of each individual, with little or no remuneration. The conveyance of a large tree from the interior of the island, in which several men are employed for a considerable space of time, is paid for at the rate only of five-pence, while it is charged to the grand seignior at £3. 10*s*. Yet few districts, in proportion to their extent, enjoy greater natural advantages. In the centre rises Mount Artemira, the ancient *Atabyrus*, a steep and lofty summit, commanding a most extensive view, not only over the island, but over all the surrounding seas and coasts. It forms the pinnacle of a range of mountains, on which grow those forests of pine which supplied the ancient navies of the Rhodians, and are still sent in great quantities to the arsenal at Constantinople. They are now, however, greatly thinned, no care having been taken to supply the place of those that have been cut down. Beneath this range rises a track of lower hills, which still produce some of that perfumed wine so much prized by the ancients. It has a very delicate flavour, which the Rhodians suppose themselves to render still more agreeable, by a particular species of cups out of which it is drunk. This culture might easily be greatly extended, as a great part of the hills fitted for it are at present in an entirely neglected state. The track beneath, forming the greater portion of the island, slopes gradually down to the sea, and being watered by numerous streams descending from the higher regions, is capable, under proper cultivation, of producing the most luxuriant crops. The oppression of the pacha, and the insecurity of property, have rendered these gifts of nature of no avail. Rhodes, which might be the granary of the neighbouring islands, is now obliged to import a considerable proportion of the grain which it consumes. The pacha having assumed the monopoly of this article, finds it his interest to perpetuate the poverty on which it depends. He imports, at a cheap rate, inferior grain from Caramania, and retails it at an enormous profit, adding the capricious regulation, that the price paid for the first bushel of the new harvest must invariably regulate the market through the course of the year. The consequence of these oppressive regulations is, that a great part of the island is left entirely waste. "In travelling over it," says Savary, "you have the mortification of passing through several fine valleys, unadorned with either cottage or hamlet, and discovering no marks of cultivation. Wild roses hang around the foot of the rocks; beds of flowering myrrh perfume the air; tufts of laurel roses adorn the banks of the rivulets with their gaudy flowers. The husbandman here suffers the earth to waste her strength in pouring forth a profusion of weeds and useless plants, without taking pains to enjoy her favours." Besides corn, there is a deficiency of olives for the consumption of the inhabitants. The quantity of cotton raised is barely sufficient for the supply of this island. The exportation of wine, figs, and other fruit, is, however, considerable.

The climate of Rhodes is delightful. The greater part of the summer is free from those intense heats usually felt in this climate. The months of July and August only are exposed to hot winds from the coast of Caramania. The scorching wind of the Siroc also is never felt. The winters are uncommonly mild and humid.

The following statements are given by Savary, respecting the population of Rhodes. The capital is inhabited chiefly by Turks. There are five villages occupied by Mussulmans. Five towns and 41 villages are inhabited by Greeks. The families in the island are stated at 4700 Turks, 2500 Greeks, and 100 Jews, making in all 7300 families, which, at five persons to each family, would amount to 36,500.

RHODES, a city, and capital of the island of the same name. From a distance, Rhodes presents some vestiges of its ancient grandeur. Its advantageous situation at the extremity of a promontory, the disposition of its buildings in the form of an amphithcatre, the solidity of its walls, and its towers situated on rising rocks, impress high ideas of its strength and grandeur. On entering the city, however, scarcely any thing is found to correspond with the expectations thus excited. It displays no remarkable curiosity or monument of former times. In vain you attempt to discover the remains of the theatre, of magnificent temples, and spacious porticoes. Statues, colossi, and paintings, have all been destroyed or removed. Those streets which were laid out on so great a scale, and so regular and magnificent a plan, have been succeeded by narrow winding streets and buildings, devoid at once of regularity and elegance. The inhabitants consist of 5000 Turks and 1000 Jews; no Greeks being allowed to enter the city, unless by three or four at a time. The state of the buildings bears marks of the desolation occasioned by tyranny. One half of the houses in the city are in ruins, and one half of those in the suburbs uninhabited. House-rent is thus very cheap, and the expense of living in general so moderate, as to make it be said, that at Rhodes, a man with 3000 piastres a year, may live like a nobleman; one with 5000 piastres, like a prince. The city does not cover the fourth part of its ancient circuit; for the walls, which still remain, and bear marks of great strength and solidity, are those built by the knights of St. John. The principal public buildings which remain are the church of St. John, and another; the palace of the grand masters, and a convent, all large massy buildings, in the Gothic style. The churches are converted into mosques; a large hospital, where Christian charity once received the faithful from all the different quarters of the world, is used by the Turks for the purposes of a granary; and the palace of the grand master, falling into ruins, is almost entirely deserted. Lat. 36. 25. N. long. 27. 45. E.

RHODES, a town of Africa, in the kingdom of Tunis, situated on an eminence, between the lake of Tunis and the sea, at a distance from some hills, where Hanno was defeated by Regulus.

RHODEZ. See Rhodes.

RHODIGINUS (Cœlius), a learned Italian, whose proper name was Lodovico Celio Richieri, was born at Rovigo, about 1450. He studied at Ferrara and Padua, and then travelled into France, in which country he resided a considerable time. On returning to Italy, he filled the office of a public professor in his native place from 1491 to 1497, and again obtained the same appointment in 1503. But the intestine divisions of Rovigo caused him to be banished from it in 1505, and he opened a school of belles-lettres at Vicenza, till, in 1508, he was invited to Ferrara by Duke Alfonso I. The wars obliged him to quit that situation, and he taught at Reggio, in 1512, and afterwards kept a private school at Padua. Francis I., in 1515, nominated him to the chair of Greek and Latin eloquence in Milan, as successor to Demetrius Chalcondylas. In 1521, he returned to Padua; and two years after had the satisfaction of being re-admitted to the council of his native city, and deputed from it to Venice to congratulate the new doge. He died in 1525, of chagrin (it is said) on account of the defeat and capture of Francis at the battle of Pavia. The principal work of this learned man is his "Antiquæ Lectiones," of which he published 16 books, and 14 more were added after his death. Editions of the whole in folio were printed at Basil, 1566, and at Frankfort 1666. It is a miscellany of profound erudition, "in which (says Ger. Vossius) abstruse words in Greek and Latin are explained, obscure passages in the best authors are elucidated, and corrupt ones are rectified, recondite histories and ancient rites are narrated, and many arcana of the deepest philosophy, especially of the Platonic school, are brought to light; whence I am often moved with wonder, and indeed with indignation, in observing that the precious labours of such

a man are so little in the hands of the youth of the present time." Julius Cæsar Scaliger, who was a pupil of Rhodiginus, also speaks of him with great esteem, and calls him "The Varro of the age." *Vossii Hist. Lat. Tiraboschi.*

RHODIOLA, [dimin. from Rhodia;] in botany, a genus of the class dioecia, order octandria, natural order of succulentæ, sempervivæ, (*Juss.*) Generic Character.—Male. —Calyx: perianth four-parted, concave, erect, obtuse, permanent. Corolla: petals four, oblong, obtuse, from erect-spreading, double the length of the calyx, deciduous. Nectaries four, erect, emarginate, shorter than the calyx. Stamina: filaments eight, awl-shaped, longer than the corolla. Anthers simple. Pistil: germs four, oblong, acuminate. Styles and stigmas obsolete. Pericarp: abortive.—Female. Calyx: perianth as in the male. Corolla: petals four, erect, obtuse, equal with the calyx, permanent. Nectaries as in the male. Pistil: germs four, oblong, acuminate, ending in simple straight styles. Stigmas obtuse. Pericarp: capsules four, horned, opening inwards. Seeds very many, roundish.—Dahl observed hermaphrodite flowers with ten stamens and five styles. This genus therefore might be associated with the sedums.—*Essential Character.*—Male. Calyx four-parted. Corolla four-petalled Nectaries four.—Female. Calyx four-parted. Corolla four-petalled. Nectary four. Pistil four. Capsule four, many-seeded.

1. Rhodiola rosea, common or yellow rosewort.—This has a very thick fleshy root; it has many heads, whence in the spring come out thick succulent stalks like those of sedum telephium, about nine inches long, closely garnished with thick succulent leaves of a grey colour, an inch long, and half an inch broad, indented on their edges towards the top, and placed alternately on every side the stalk; which is terminated by a cluster of yellowish herbaceous flowers, appearing early in May. They have a very agreeable scent, but are not of long continuance. —Native of most parts of Europe. There is a smaller variety called rhodiola minor.

2. Rhodiola biternata.—Leaves biternate gashed, stem twining.—Native of Cochinchina, in ill cultivated gardens, but not frequent.

Propagation and Culture.—1. Plant cuttings the beginning of April, soon after they come out from the head, in a shady border; covering them close down with a glass, and keeping them dry: they will put out roots in about six weeks.

RHODITES LAPIS, the Rose-stone, in Natural History, the name given by authors to a kind of astroites, or star-stone, in which the figures more represent roses than stars; they are in both owing to coralloide bodies immersed in the stone; which according to their various species, afford a different figure, when cut transversely, in cutting the stone into plates for use.

RHODIUM, a mineral substance. See MINERALOGY, pp. 479, 507.

RHODIUM MARMOR, a name given by the ancients to a marble brought from Rhodes; it was a good white, but inferior to the Parian, and was used by the Romans in their public buildings, and sometimes in statuary.

RHODIUS (Ambrose), a German mathematical professor and physician of some note in the 17th century, was born at Kemberg, a town near Wittemberg, in Saxony, in the year 1577. Having laid a good foundation of classical learning, at the age of eighteen he was sent with an exhibition from the Elector of Saxony to the University of Wittemberg, where he was for some time wholly occupied with the study of the mathematical sciences, and afterwards added to it that of medicine. Of the proficiency which he made in the former, an honourable testimony was given by Melchior Justell, mathematical professor in the University, who, when Tycho Brahé, then residing at Prague, requested that he would send him a student qualified to assist in his astronomical observations, fixed upon Rhodius, and advised him not to lose so favourable an opportunity of improving under such a master. This advice Rhodius willingly followed, and, after being admitted to the degree of master of philosophy, went to Prague. Here his services gave perfect satisfaction to Brahé, and also introduced him to the acquaintance and warm esteem of his friend, the famous Kepler. How long he continued at Prague we are not informed; but we learn that, upon quitting that city, he returned to Wittemberg, and commenced private lecturer in the mathematics. His merits soon recommended him to the favour of the Elector, who appointed him professor extraordinary of the mathematical sciences in the University, with a regular stipend. In the year 1609, a vacancy taking place in the chair of professor in ordinary of the same sciences, he was nominated to that post. During the next year he went through the requisite public exercises, and took the degree of doctor of medicine. He entitled himself to the lasting gratitude of the citizens of Wittemberg, by his exertions as a civil engineer, in supplying the city with wholesome water, at a considerable expence. After being twice honoured with the office of rector of the University, and six times with that of dean of the College of Philosophy, he died of a stroke of apoplexy, in 1633, at the age of fifty-six. He was the author of "Euclides illustratus et explicatus;" "Optica;" "Tactatus de Crepusculis;" De Cometa, qui An. 1618 conspectus est;" "De Matheseos Necessitate in Republica;" "De vera Mundi conditi Epocha, et genuino natali Abrahami, Anno, &c." The editors of Moreri's Dictionary have confounded our author with another physician of the same name, who practised at Christiana, in Norway, and was appointed professor of natural philosophy and the mathematics in the college at that city. He rendered himself obnoxious to the government by the part which he took in politics, and was committed to prison, where he is thought to have died, about the year 1633, leaving behind him some writings not of sufficient moment to be enumerated. *Freheri Theat. Vir. Erud. Clar. Witte Diar. Biog. Moreri.*

RHODIUS (John), a learned physician and antiquary, was born at Copenhagen, about 1587. After completing his studies in his own country, he went to Padua in 1614, for the purpose of receiving the instruction afforded by that celebrated school. His residence there proved so agreeable to him, that he resolved to fix his abode in Padua; and, in order to be perfectly at leisure for his literary and scientific pursuits, he refused to enter into a matrimonial engagement that was proposed to him, or to accept the chair of botany and the superintendence of the botanical garden. When he revisited his native city in 1640, he in like manner declined a professorship that was offered him; and he returned to Padua; where he died, in 1659, at the age of 72. The fruits of a life spent in study, were some learned works relative to medicine and medical antiquities. The first appear chiefly to have been observations collected from the Paduan professors. Of these are "Observationum Medicinalium Centuriæ tres;" *Patav.* 8vo. 1657; "Mantissa Anatomica ad T. Bartholinum;" *Hafn.* 8vo. 1661; and "Observationes posteriores" in Act. Hafn. V. iv. His critical and antiquarian writings are "De Acia Dissertatio ad Cornelii Celsi mentem," *Patav.* 1639; afterwards printed at Copenhagen with the author's "Oratio de ponderibus et mensuris, et Vita Celsi;" "Analecta et Notæ in Lud. Septalii Animadversiones et Cautiones medicas;" 1652; "Notæ et Lexicon in Scribonium Largum de Compositione Medicamentorum," a work full of erudition, and highly useful for the understanding of the ancient medical writers. *Halleri Bibl. Med. and Anatom. Eloy. Dict.*

RHODODENDRA, in botany, a natural order of plants, named after its principal genus, (see the next article,) and constituting the fiftieth in Jussieu's series, or the second of his ninth class.

Calyx divided, permanent. Corolla inserted into the bottom of the calyx; sometimes of one petal, and lobed; sometimes almost polypetalous, the limb being so very deeply divided. Stamens definite, distinct; in the monopetalous genera

genera inserted into the corolla; in the rest into the base of the calyx. Germen superior; style one; stigma simple, often capitate. Capsule superior, of several cells, and several valves, both margins of each valve inflexed, and connected with the central axis (or columella), so that each forms a cell, containing numerous minute seeds. Stem shrubby, more or less lofty. Leaves alternate, or more rarely opposite; the young ones, in many instances, revolute at the margin.

1. Corolla monopetalous.—Kalmia, rhododendrum, and azalea; all Linnæan genera; to which is to be added menziesia.

2. Corolla imperfectly polypetalous.—Rhodora, ledum, befaria (now more correctly written bejaria, by Ventenant and others; the Spaniards having pointed out the error, which originated in a mistake of Linnæus, in reading Mutis's manuscript), and itea; all likewise Linnæan genera.

Jussieu considers the rhododendra as essentially distinguished from his ericæ, by the want of horns to the anthers, and especially by the inflexed margins of the valves of the capsule. It does not appear to us that these characters are, either of them, strictly absolute. Mr. Salisbury has long ago observed, that the leaves of the rhododendra have always a remarkable glandular tip.

RHODODENDRUM, [from the Greek name of Dioscorides, compounded of ροδον, a rose, and δενδρον, a tree.] in botany, a genus of the class decandria, order monogynia, natural order of bicornes, rhododendra, (*Juss.*)—Generic Character.—Calyx: perianth five-parted, permanent. Corolla, one-petalled, funnel-form; border spreading, with rounded segments. Stamina: filaments ten, filiform, almost the length of the corolla, declined. Anthers oval. Pistil: germ five-cornered, retuse. Style filiform, the length of the corolla. Stigma obtuse. Pericarp: capsule ovate, subangular, five-celled, divisible into five parts. Seeds numerous, very small.—*Essential Character.*—Calyx five-parted. Corolla somewhat funnel-form. Stamens declined. Capsule five-celled.

1. Rhododendrum ferrugineum, or rusty-leaved rhododendron.—Leaves smooth, leprous underneath, corollas funnel-shaped. It is an irregular, distorted ever-green, which rises with a shrubby stalk near three feet high, sending out many irregular branches, and is covered with a purplish bark. The flowers are produced in round bunches at the ends of the branches: the corolla is funnel-shaped with a short tube, and is cut into five obtuse segments at the brim, spreading a little open, and of a pale rose-colour.—Native of high mountains in Switzerland, Austria, Savoy, Piedmont, and Dauphiny, where this and the hirsutum terminate ligneous vegetation as we ascend, and furnish the shepherds with their only fuel.

2. Rhododendrum dauricum, or dotted leaved rhododendron.—Leaves smooth, dotted, naked, corollas wheel-shaped. Root tuberous-knobbed, thick, deeply bound down by by rootlets striking into the ground, or into the fissures of rocks. Trunks very short above ground, twisted and knobbed. The flowers come out before the leaves at the ends of the branchlets of the former year, from a bud that continues the branch, composed of ferruginous, subpubescent, concave scales: they nod a little, and have some smell.—Native of Siberia; peculiar to the subalpine tracts of eastern Asia.

3. Rhododendrum chrysanthum.—Leaves oblong, undotted, above rugged and very much veined, corolla wheel-shaped, irregular, flowering-bud ferruginous-tomentose. This shrub, in alpine situations is less than a foot in height, in lower grounds it grows to a foot and a half, sending out abundance of decumbent branches, having their ends emerging from the moss, subdivided, bearing both leaves and flowers. Trunk seldom the thickness of two or three fingers, commonly an inch thick. Flowers handsome, large, nodding. Calyx none, except the receptacle of the flower, and especially of the fruit, slightly margined and oblique. Seeds irregular, like sawdust, gray.—Native of Siberia, in the highest mountains.

4. Rhododendrum hirsutum, or hairy rhododendron. Leaves ciliate, naked, corollas funnel-shaped.—This shrub seldom rises two feet high, and sends out many short woody branches, covered with a light brown bark. The flowers are produced in bunches at the ends of the branches.—Native of the mountains of Switzerland, Austria, Syria, and Dauphiny.

5. Rhododendrum chamæcistus. Leaves ciliate, corollas wheel-shaped.—This is a small shrub, very much branched, the extreme branches leafy. Calyx deeply five-cleft, reddish-brown; the segments acute.—Native of Austria, Carniola, Monte Baldo, and near Saltzburgh.

6. Rhododendrum ponticum, or purple rhododendron.—Leaves lanceolate, shining smooth on both sides, racemes terminating. Trunk upright, shrubby, commonly the height of a man, but sometimes only half so high, frequently thicker than the human arm, very much branched from the bottom irregularly; the wood white, the bark ash-coloured. Branches round, scarred, with a smoothish testaceous bark. Flowers in a short raceme at the end of the branchlets, about ten, and very handsome.—Native of the Levant and Gibraltar; also of Georgia, in the southern subalpine tracts of Caucasus, &c. It flowers in May and June.

7. Rhododendrum Caucasicum.—Leaves ovate, rugged, bent in at the edge, umbels terminating, bractes elongated. Root creeping among moss, thick, woody. Trunk arborescent, eighteen inches high, diffused and procumbent, scarred, ascending at the end, and there leafy and flowering. Flowers in an umbel-shaped corymb, having from six to nine erect peduncles, the length of the leaves, hairy, one-flowered. Bractes remaining from the flowering bud, larger than in rhododendrum chrysanthum, ovate-lanceolate, ferruginous, subtomentose. No calyx, except the receptacle of the flower.—Native of the higher rocks of Caucasus, near the perpetual ice, in the highest range of shrubby vegetation, with myrtillus and vitis idæa.

8. Rhododendrum Kamtschaticum.—Leaves ciliate nerved, corollas wheel-shaped, calyxes leafy. This is a very elegant undershrub. Root woody, dry, the size of a quill, creeping by prostrate runners, of a brown testaceous colour. Branchlets rising, leafy, frequent. Calyx from five foliaceous, three-nerved, ciliate leaflets, like the rest of the leaves, two of them more approximating than the others. Corolla wheel-shaped.

It grows abundantly in the peninsula of Kamtschatka and Bering's island, in muddy places on the mountains. It begins to flower at the end of July, and ripens its seeds towards the end of September.

9. Rhododendrum maximum, or broad-leaved rhododendron.—Leaves oval shining, blunt, veined with an acute reflex margin, peduncles one-flowered. This rises, in its native soil, fifteen or sixteen feet high, with a shrubby stalk, sending out a few branches towards the top.—Native of North America, upon rocks, where it continues flowering great part of the summer, and is a great ornament to their barren surfaces.

Propagation and Culture.—These shrubs are propagated by seeds, which should be sown as soon as possible after they are ripe, either in a shady border, or in pots filled with fresh loam, and very lightly covered with earth. Plunge the pots up to their rims in a shady border, and in hard frost cover them with bell or hand-glasses; taking them off in mild weather. If these seeds be sown early in autumn, the plants will come up the following spring. These must be kept shaded from the sun, especially the first summer, and duly refreshed with water: in the autumn following transplant them to a shady situation, and on a loamy soil, covering the ground about their roots with moss, to guard them from frost in winter, and keep the ground moist in summer.

RHODOLÆNA, [from ροδον, a rose, and χλαινα, a cloak or outer covering.] in botany, a genus so named by Aubert du Petit-Thouars, because of the fine rose colour of the flowers.

RHODOMAN (Laurence), a learned German, was born in 1546, at Sassowerf, in Upper Saxony. He studied at the College of Ilfeld, under Michael Neander, and acquired such a knowledge of classical literature, that he became an able instructor both in public and private. He taught in several seminaries of learning, and was professor of Greek at Jena for seven years. His chief service to literature was by his Latin versions of Diodorus Siculus, and Quintus Calaber. He also wrote a "History of Martin Luther" in Greek verse; "Troica seu Historiæ Troganæ Epitome," Gr. and Lat. verse; "Historiæ Ecclesiæ ejusque Politiæ," Gr. verse with a Lat. translation; "Historiæ sacræ Gr. Lat. Lib. ix.; and several other pieces in the two languages. *Moreri.*

RHODOMELON, a name given by the ancients to a confection made of roses, quinces, and honey, used as a grateful astringent and detergent in many cases.

RHODOMONTA'DE. See RODOMONTADE. It is written, improperly, *rhodomontade.*

RHODON, from ῥοδον, rosa, an old name applied to some compositions, where roses were the chief ingredient, as diarrhodon, &c.

RHODOPE, a famous courtezan and player on the flute, in antiquity, was born in Thrace. She was at first a slave in the same house as Æsop. Charaxus, the brother of Sappho, was violently enamoured of her, and having purchased her, gave her liberty. She established herself at Mucrates, where she became a courtezan, and amassed immense riches. Pliny says that she built, at her own expence, the most beautiful of the Egyptian pyramids; but Herodotus and Bayle from his authority, reject this tale; nor do they give any more credit to the following story.

One day, when she was bathing, and her attendants watching her clothes, an eagle pounced upon one of her shoes, and carrying it away, flew with it to Memphis, where he let it fall near king Psammiticus. This prince, admiring the beauty of the shoe, ordered the officers of his household to seek throughout all Egypt, the person to whom the shoe appertained. She was found and brought to him; and he espoused her. But she had before married Æsop.

RHODOPHUS GALLINULA, a name given by some authors to the bird more usually known by the name TRINGA.

RHODORA, [ῥοδορον, rosy.] in botany, a genus of the class decandria, order monogynia, natural order of bicornes, rhododendra, (*Juss.*)—Generic Character.—Calyx: perianth one-leaved, five-toothed, permanent. Corolla: petals three, unequal: the two upper ones lanceolate, equal; the lowest concave, oblong, subtrilobate; the middle lobe smaller, concave. Stamina: filaments ten, filiform, declined, the length of the corolla. Anthers roundish, twin. Pistil: germ ovate. Style filiform, declined, a little longer than the stamens. Stigma five-cleft, thickish. Pericarp: capsule ovate, five celled. Seeds very many, minute.—*Essential Character.*—Calyx five-toothed. Petioles three, unequal. Stamina declined. Capsules five-celled.

Rhodora canadensis is the only species; it is chiefly distinguished from the rhododendrons by its three-petalled corolla, and appears to be generically distinct from them; but has nothing of the herb of rhododendron. It has the habit rather of azalea. The stem is upright, somewhat branched, round, ash-coloured, two feet high. Leaves alternate, oblong, almost entire, scarcely nerved, with the midrib prominent underneath; the upper surface almost naked, bright green, the lower pubescent, glaucous, spreading, two inches long, one inch wide; on round petioles, flatted on one side, pubescent, eight times shorter than the leaf. Flowers in umbels, on short pedicels, purple, the upper lip with darker spots.

Rhodora agrees with rhododendron in having the calyx inclined; the filaments villose at the base, ascending a little at the end, inserted into the receptacle; the anthers biperforated; the style a little declined; the capsule fastened obliquely to the calyx; the receptacle of the seeds five-cornered: but the corolla is absolutely three-parted in rhodora, whereas it is bell-wheel-shaped, with an inclined five-parted nearly equal border in rhododendrum; the seeds are margined all round in this, but in that they are scarcely augmented at each end.—Native of Newfoundland; whence it was introduced by Sir Joseph Banks.

Propagation and Culture.—It is raised with great difficulty from seeds, like other shrubs, in which they are so very small. It may be propagated by slips or cuttings; and thrives best in a good moist sandy loam.

RHŒADEÆ, in botany, the 27th natural order, among the fragmenta of Linnæus; of which there is no explanation in his Prælectiones, published by Giseke. The genera referred hither, at the end of the Gen. Pl., are argemone, chelidonium, papaver, podophyllum, sanguinaria, bocconia.

RHŒAS, an old name for a diminution of the caruncula lachrymalis.

RHŒTUM or RHŒTIUM, a town of Asia Minor, in the Troade, on the coast of the Hellespont. According to Strabo, it was built on an eminence near the tomb of Ajax. The promontory called "Rhœtium" was four miles distant from that of Siæum.

RHOGME, in Surgery, a rupture or fracture.

RHOITES, the name of a medicine among the ancients, which is a sort of rob of the juice of pomegranates. Dioscorides describes it as the simple juice of the fruit, evaporated over the fire to the consistence of an extract; but Paulus Ægineta gives the receipt to be three parts juice of pomegranate, and one part honey, boiled to the evaporation of a third part.

RHOMB, *s.* [*rhombe*, Fr. *rhombus*, Lat. ῥομβος, Gr.] In geometry, a parallelogram or quadrangular figure, having its four sides equal, and consisting of parallel lines, with two opposite angles acute, and two obtuse: it is formed by two equal and right cones joined together at their base. *Trevoux.*

Save the sun his labour, and that swift
Nocturnal and diurnal *rhomb* suppos'd
Invisible else above all stars, the wheel
Of day and night. *Milton.*

RHOMBIC, *adj.* Shaped like a rhomb.—Many other sorts of stones are regularly figured; the asteria in form of a star, and they are of a *rhombick* figure. *Grew.*

RHOMBITES, a river of Asiatic Sarmatia. *Ptolemy.*

RHOMBO, in Ichthyology, the name of a peculiar fish, of the turbot kind, called *rhombus aculeatus* by Aldrovand, Gesner, and other writers. It is very common in the markets at Venice, and is caught in the neighbouring seas, and in many other places. See PLEURONECTES MAXIMUS.

RHO'MBOID, or RHOMBO'IDES, *s.* [ῥομβοειδης, Gr.] A figure approaching to a rhomb.—See them under sail, in all their lawn and sarcenet, with a geometrical *rhomboides* upon their heads. *Milton.*

RHOMBOIDAL, *adj.* Approaching in shape to a rhomb.

RHOMBOIDEUS, the name of a rhomb shaped muscle of the back.

RHOMNUS. See PLURONECTES.—Rhomnus is also the name of a shell-fish, the CYLINDRUS.

RHON, a river of India, among the people called Gandarii. *Steph. Byz.*

RHONE, a river of France, formed by the union of three springs, which rise in mount Susberg, a part of the Grimsell, at the eastern extremity of the Valais. It passes through the lake of Geneva to Seissel, &c. and thence to Lyons, where it joins the Sâone, and after watering Vienne, Valence, Viziers, Avignon, Arles, &c. discharges itself by several mouths into the Mediterranean.

RHONE, mouths of the, Bouches de Rhône, one of the twelve departments of the south-east region of France, bounded on the north by the county of Venaissin, on the north-east by the department of the lower Alps, on the east by the department of the Var, on the south by the Mediterranean, and on the west by the department of the Gard: 5315 kiliometres in extent,

extent, or 269 square leagues, and containing a population of 320,072 persons. It is divided into three circles or districts, including 26 cantons and 108 communes. The circles are, Marseilles, having 142,058 inhabitants; Aix, 97,938; and Tarascon, 80,076. According to M. Hassenfratz, its extent in French leagues is 30 in length and 20 in breadth; its circles are 5, its cantons are 40, and its population consists of 446,643 persons. It is a portion of Lower Provence, and lies in north lat. 43. 40. Its capital is Aix. Its contributions to the land-tax, &c. amounted, in the 11th year of the French era, to 3,612,199 fr.; and its expences, administrative, judiciary, and for public instruction, to 354,531 fr. 33 cents. Many of the hills in the northern districts are bare rocks, destitute of soil and verdure. The chief productions of the department are grain, wine, silks, olives, fruits, and pastures. It has mines of iron, alum, vitriol, with quarries of marble, &c. Pools and marshes are dispersed near the coast.

RHONE, or Rhone and Loire, one of the eleven departments of the east region of France, bounded on the north by the department of the Sâone and Loire, on the east by the departments of the Ain and the Isere, on the south by the departments of the Ardêche and the Upper Loire, and on the west by the departments of the Puy de Dôme and the Allier; to the east it is bounded by the river Rhine, and the Loire passes nearly through its centre from north to south. Its extent is 147 square leagues, and its population consists of 345,644 persons. It is divided into 2 circles, 25 cantons, and 261 communes. Its circles are Villefrauche, including 106,262 inhabitants, and Lyons, having 239,382. According to Hassenfratz, its extent in French leagues is 20 in length, and 9 in breadth; its circles are 2, its cantons 32, and its population is 323,177. It lies in north lat. 46, between Ain and Loire, and comprehends the provinces formerly called Lyonnais and Beaujolais. Its capital is Lyons. The plains yield scanty crops of grain and pasture; the gentle eminences are covered with vineyards, and the summits of the mountains are clothed with pines. This department has mines of copper, lead, coal, quarries of marble, free-stone, &c.

RHOPALA, [from ῥοπαλον, Gr. a club, or stake. The stem rising to the height of three or four feet before it sends off any branches.] in botany, a genus of the class tetrandria, order monogynia, natural order proteaceæ, *(Juss.)* Generic Character.—Calyx none. Corolla: petals four, spatulate, regular, concave, recurved at the extremity; nectary of four glands, separate, or combined, at the base of the germen. Stamina: filaments four, short, inserted above half-way up the petals; anthers oblong, two-lobed, projecting beyond their recurved extremities. Pistil: germen superior, ovate, with rudiments of but two seeds; style awl-shaped, permanent, the length of the corolla; stigma vertical, club-shaped, undivided. Pericarp: follicle ovate, somewhat woody, of one cell. Seeds two, bordered, winged at each end, the kernel central.—*Essential Character.*—Calyx none. Petals four, regular, recurved. Stamens inserted into the middle of each petal. Nectary of four glands. Stigma vertical, club-shaped. Follicle of one cell. Seeds two, bordered, winged at each end.

The habit of the genus is arborescent. Leaves alternate, rarely whorled; simple, entire or toothed, rarely pinnate, or ternate on the same branch. Spikes axillary, sometimes terminal, racemose, the flowers in pairs with a single bractea to each pair.

1. Rhopala montana.—A small tree, seven or eight feet high; its trunk three or four feet. Bark wrinkled and cracked, whitish, as well as the wood. Both exhale, when cut, a strong fetid scent, like that of the serpents of the same country. Leaves smooth, of a firm dry texture, about three inches long. Footstalks an inch long, inflated at the base. Flowers about eight or ten alternate sessile pairs, in each lax spike.

2. Rhopala media.—Leaves alternate, entire, ovate, flat, pointed, running down the footstalk, with depressed veins. Clusters axillary, solitary, longer than the leaves. Partial flower-stalks and petals somewhat hairy. Germen downy. —Gathered in the same country by Von Rohr, who sent specimens to Sir Joseph Banks. This seems very nearly related to the foregoing.

3. Rhopala nitida.—Leaves alternate, entire, elliptical, short-pointed, flat. Clusters axillary, solitary, about the length of the leaves. Partial flower-stalks, petals and germen smooth.—Gathered by Joseph Martin in Guiana.

4. Rhopala moluccana.—Leaves alternate, entire, elliptical, flat, finely veined, somewhat reticulated, longer than the clusters. Partial flower-stalks and petals smooth.—Gathered in the Molucca islands.

5. Rhopala Cochinchinensis.—Leaves alternate, elliptic-ovate, short-pointed, flat, somewhat serrated above half-way down. Clusters axillary, solitary, about the length of the leaves. Partial flower-stalks, petals and germen smooth. —Native of woods in Cochinchina.

6. Rhopala serrata.—Leaves alternate, broadly elliptical, scarcely pointed, serrated; somewhat contracted and entire at the base; paler beneath. Clusters axillary, solitary, shorter than the leaves. Partial flower-stalks, petals and germen downy.—Gathered in the Molucca isles.

7. Rhopala dentata.—Leaves alternate, ovato-lanceolate, folded, toothed, tapering at each end; with a linear point. Clusters axillary, solitary, rather longer than the leaves. Petals and germen downy.—Gathered in Guiana.

8. Rhopala Peruviana.—Leaves alternate, ovate, serrated, woolly; rusty beneath. Clusters axillary, solitary, longer than the leaves.—Native of the colder mountains of Peru.

9. Rhopala diversifolia.—Leaves alternate, simple or pinnate, very veiny; downy beneath. Clusters axillary, solitary, longer than the leaves. Follicles scymitar-shaped, downy. —Native of waste ground, and the borders of fields in Peru.

10. Rhopala sessilifolia.—Leaves four in each whorl, nearly sessile, oblong, somewhat wedge-shaped, slightly pointed, entire. Clusters terminal, umbellate. Flowers whorled.—Native of Guiana.

RHOPALIC Verses, among the ancients, a kind of verses which began with monosyllables, and were continued in words growing gradually longer and longer to the last, which was the longest of all.

They had their name from the Greek ῥοπαλον, a club, which, like them, begins with a slender tip, and grows bigger and bigger to the head. Such is that verse of Homer:

"Ω μακαρ Ατρειδη μοιρηγενες, ολβιοδαιμων."

And this Latin one of Ausonius:

"Spes deus æternæ stationis conciliator."

RHOPALOSIS, an unused name for the Plica Polonica.

RHOPIUM, [from ῥοπιον, a slender shoot, the flower-stalks of this plant having a delicate, twiggy appearance.] Schreber's name for a genus of plants of the class gynandria, order triandria, natural order euphorbiæ.—Generic Character.—Calyx: perianth inferior, of one leaf, permanent, cloven into six lanceolate, acute segments, each having a little bordered cavity at the base. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments none; anthers three, cloven, each adhering to a single style under the stigma, with distant cells, bursting transversely. Pistils: germen superior, roundish or triangular; styles three, erect, approximated; stigmas flat, acute, bent down over the anthers. Pericarp: capsule composed of three obtuse-angled lobes, with six cells, and six valves: partitions from the middle of the valves. Seeds two, one adhering to each side of the partition, ovate. —*Essential Character.*—Calyx six-cleft. Corolla none. Anthers three, with remote cells, and placed in the middle of the styles. Styles three. Capsule three-lobed, of three cells, each with two seeds.

Rhopium citrifolium.—Native of woods in Guiana, where it flowers and bears fruit in January. The stem of the

this shrub is from three to four feet in height, branched towards the summit. Leaves alternate, ovate, acute, smooth, entire, nearly sessile. Stipulas twin, small, deciduous. Flowers corymbose, axillary and terminal, of a yellowish green colour, each standing on a long, slender stalk, which is furnished with a scale at its base.

RHOPOGRAPHI, [Ῥοπογραφοι, Gr.] an appellation given to certain painters, who confined themselves to low subjects, such as animals, plants, landscapes, &c.

The same appellation has been also given to such as cut figures of men, &c. in box, yew, &c. in gardens.

RHOSOS, a town situated on the gulf of Issus, at the eastern extremity of the Mediterranean sea, between two defiles, one of which led to Syria, and was called the "Gates of Syria;" and the other formed by mount Amanus and the sea-coast, communicating with Cilicia, and called the "Amanic gates." Ptolemy places this town in Syria, and Strabo places it in Cilicia. After the death of Seleucus Nicator, Demetrius caused the statue of Fortune to be conveyed hither. It was famous for the manufacture of earthen vessels, mentioned by Cicero, when he was governor of Cilicia, in a letter to Atticus. Sapor, king of Persia, burnt this city, after he had taken prisoner the emperor Valerian, A. D. 260. It was pillaged under the reign of Arcadius, in the year 404, by the Isaurians, a savage people, who inhabited the mountains. Jupiter was worshipped in this town; and the statue of this deity was engraven on the medals of Rhosos.

RHOX, a word used by some authors to express the tunica uvea of the eye.

RHUABEN, a village of Wales, in Denbighshire; 6 miles from Wrexham.

RHU'BARB, *s.* [*rhabarbarum*, Latin; which Morin derives from the Gr. ῥα, in its medicinal sense of root, and βαρβαρος, strange, foreign.] A purgative root. See RHEUM.

What *rhubarb*, senna, or what purgative drug
Would scour these English hence? *Shakspeare.*

RHUBRA, a town situated on the southern coast of the island of Corsica, between the port of Syracuse and the promontory Graniacum. *Ptolemy.*

RHUBRICATA, a town of Hispania, in the Tarragonese, in the country of the Lacetanians. *Ptolemy.*

RHUBUNA, a town of Africa, on the northern bank of of the river Gira, between Artagira and Lynxama. *Ptolemy.*

RHUDA, a town of Asia, in Parthia, between Passacarta and Simpsimida. *Ptolemy.*

RHUDDLAN, a village of Wales, in Flintshire, anciently a place of considerable importance, being one of the most considerable towns in North Wales, and the residence of several of the Welsh princes. It still retains its elective franchise as a contributary borough. It is situated in the vale of Clwyd. Its castle, of which some detached towers still remain, was once a place of great strength, and of very great importance. It was built anterior to the Normam conquest. In 1646, having fallen into the hands of the royalists, it was dismantled by order of parliament. Its form was nearly square, and the walls were flanked by six round towers, three of which remain tolerably entire. The ditch is wide and deep, and on both sides faced with stone. In this castle Eleanor, consort of king Edward, was safely delivered of a daughter. Rhuddlan was made a free borough by Edward I., and endowed with numerous privileges and immunities; 3 miles from Disert. Population 831.

RHUDEN. See RUTHEN.

RHUDEN, GROSS, a village of Germany, in Hanover, principality of Hildesheim, with 1000 inhabitants, and large salt-works.

RHUMB, RUMB, or *Rum*, in Navigation, a vertical circle of any given place; or the intersection of a part of such a circle with the horizon.

Rhumbs, therefore, coincide with *points* of the world, or of the horizon. And hence the mariners distinguish the rhumbs by the same names as the points and winds. But we may observe, that the rhumbs are denominated from the points of the compass in a different manner from the winds: thus, at sea, the north-east wind is that which blows from the north-east point of the horizon towards the ship in which we are; but we are said to sail upon the north-east rhumb, when we go towards the north-east.

They usually reckon 32 rhumbs; which are represented by the 32 lines in the rose, or card, of the compass.

Aubin defines a rhumb to be a line on the terrestrial globe, sea-compass, or sea chart, representing one of the 32 winds which serve to conduct a vessel. So that the rumb a vessel pursues is conceived as its route, or course.

Rhumbs are divided and subdivided like points. Thus, the whole rhumb answers to the cardinal point. The half rhumb to a collateral point, or makes an angle of 45° with the former. The quarter rhumb makes an angle of 22° 30′ with it. And the half quarter rhumb makes an angle of 11° 15′.

Sometimes navigators divide the 32 points into four quarters, and call the rumb next the east the first rhumb, the next to that the second rumb, &c.

RHUMB-LINE, *Loxodromia*, is a line prolonged from any point of the compass in a nautical chart, except the four cardinal points; or it is the line which a ship, keeping in the same collateral point or rhumb, described throughout its whole course.

The great property of the rumb-line, or loxodromia, and that from which some authors define it, is, that it cuts all the meridians under the same angle.

This angle is called the *angle of the rhumb*, or the loxodromic angle.

The angle which the rhumb-line makes with any parallel to the equator, is called the *complement of the rhumb.*

An idea of the origin and properties of the rhumb-line, the great foundation of navigation, may be conceived thus: a vessel beginning its course, the wind with which it is driven makes a certain angle with the meridian of the place; and as it is supposed, the vessel runs exactly in the direction of the wind, it makes the same angle with the meridian which the wind makes.

Supposing then the wind to continue the same, as each point or instant of the progress may be esteemed the beginning, the vessel always makes the same angle with the meridian of the place where it is each moment, or in each point of its course, which the wind makes.

Now a wind, e. gr. that is north-east, and which, of consequence, makes an angle of 45° with the meridian, is equally north-east, wherever it blows, and makes the same angle of 45° with all the meridians it meets. A vessel, therefore, driven by the same wind, always makes the same angle with all the meridians it meets with on the surface of the earth.

If the vessel sail north and south, it makes an angle infinitely acute with the meridian, i. e. it is parallel to it; or rather sails in it. If it run east and west, it cuts all the meridians at right angles.

In the first case, it describes a great circle; in the second, either a great circle, viz. the equator, or parallel to it. If its course be between the two, it does not then describe a circle; since a circle, drawn in such a manner, would cut all the meridians at unequal angles, which the vessel cannot do.

It describes, therefore, another curve, the essential property of which is, that it cuts all the meridians under the same angle. This curve is what we call the *loxodromic curve, rhumb-line*, or *loxodromy.*

It is a kind of spiral, which, like the logarithmic spiral, makes an infinity of circumvolutions without ever arriving at a certain point, to which it yet still tends, and towards which it approaches at every step.

This asymptotic point of the rhumb line is the pole: at which, were it possible for it to arrive, it would find all the meridians conjoined, and be lost in them.

The course of a vessel then, except in the two first cases, is always a rhumb-line; which line is the hypothenuse of a right-

a right-angled-triangle, whose two other sides are the ship's way or distance run in longitude and latitude. Now, the latitude is usually had by observation, and the angle of the rhumb, with one or other of the two sides, by the compass.

All, therefore, that is required by calculation in sailing, is the value of the length of the rumb-line for the distance run.

RHUME, a small river of Hanover, in the principality of Calenberg, which falls into the Leine, near Nordheim.

RHUS, [of Pliny. Ρους of Dioscorides.] in botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order trigynia, natural order of dumosæ, terebintaceæ, *(Juss.)* Generic Character.—Calyx: perianth five-parted, inferior, erect, permanent. Corolla: petals five, ovate, from upright spreading. Stamina: filaments five, very short. Anthers small, shorter than the corolla. Pistils: germ superior, roundish, the size of the corolla; styles scarcely any; stigmas three, cordate, small. Pericarp: berry roundish, one-celled. Seed one, roundish, bony. *Essential Character.*—Calyx: five-parted. Petals five. Berry one-seeded. With pinnate leaves.

1. Rhus coriaria, or elm-leaved sumach.—The common or elm-leaved sumach has a strong woody stem, dividing into many irregular branches, and rises to the height of eight or ten feet. The leaves are composed of seven or eight pairs of leaflets terminated by an odd one. The flowers grow in loose panicles at the end of the branches.—It grows naturally in Italy, Spain, the south of France, and the Levant. It is used instead of oak bark for tanning leather, and it is said that Turkey leather is all tanned with this shrub.

2. Rhus typhinum, or Virginian sumach.—This has a woody stem, from which are sent out many irregular branches, generally crooked and deformed. The young branches are covered with a soft velvet-like down, resembling greatly that of a young stag's horn both in colour and texture, whence it has vulgarly the name of the stag's-horn tree. The flowers are produced in close tufts at the end of the branches in July; and are followed by seeds, inclosed in purple woolly, succulent covers, so that the bunches are of a beautiful purple colour in Autumn: the leaves also then change first to a purplish, and before they fall, to a feuillemort colour. This shrub, as well as the preceding, is used for tanning leather; and the roots are prescribed in medicine, where it grows naturally; that is in almost every part of North America.

3. Rhus Javanicum, or Java sumach.—This is a large tree with spreading branches. Leaves unequally pinnate, with from five to seven pairs of leaflets. Flowers small, in a compound, tomentose, terminating panicle. Corolla white, bell-shaped, longer than the calyx.—Native of China and Japan, where it flowers in September.

4. Rhus glabrum, or scarlet sumach.—This is not so high as the common Virginian sumach, the branches are much more spreading and smooth, the leaflets are wider and less serrate.—Native of North America, in woods, high glades, and old corn-fields. It is like a weed in some parts of the country, and if a field be left a few years uncultivated, this shrub overruns it.

5. Rhus elegans, or Carolina sumach.—This rises commonly to the height of seven or eight feet, and divides into many irregular branches, which are smooth, of a purple colour. The leaves have seven or eight pairs of lobes, not always exactly opposite; they are three or four inches long, and almost an inch broad in the middle; above they are of a dark green, underneath hoary but smooth. Flowers of a bright red colour, in very close, thick, large, panicles; appearing in July and August, and continuing till autumn.—Native of South Carolina.

6. Rhus vernix, or varnish sumach.—Trunk straight. Leaflets four or five pairs, sometimes more, the upper surface green and smooth, the lower paler and pubescent, entire about the edge or sometimes slightly sinuate, with oblique superficial veins, and the midrib inclining to the inner side, except in the odd leaflet, which it divides into equal parts. Petioles oblong, purple. From the base of these come out the peduncles, which are green, and bear many flowers in a racemed spike; these are small and herbaceous. Fruit a juiceless drupe, slightly compressed: rind thick, on the outside highly polished and shining, within of a fibrous and fungous substance, or at first pulpy but not succulent, becoming dry when ripe, with a fibrous net, in which the stone lies; shell bony, transversely elliptic, obscurely wrinkled, thickish, of a pale testaceous colour without. Seed obliquely elliptic, pale, fastened by an umbilical chord, which ascends from the bottom of the shell to the top of the seed.

According to Cutler, the blossoms are whitish; the panicles open; the fruit yellowish, small and pear-shaped. It is common in swamps in North America, whence it is called swamp-sumach, and flowers in June.

Kalm gives this account of the American poison-tree or swamp-sumach. An incision being made, a whitish-yellow juice, which has a nauseous smell, comes out between the bark and the wood: it is noxious to some persons, but does not in the least affect others. On himself it had no effect, except once, in a hot day, when being in some perspiration, he cut a branch, and carried it in his hand for half an hour, smelling at it now and then. It produced a violent itching in his eye-lids and the parts thereabouts, and during a week, his eyes were very red, and his eye-lids very stiff: but the disorder went off by washing the parts in very cold water.

Thunberg affirms that the best Japan varnish is prepared from the Rhus vernix, which grows in great abundance in many parts of that country, and is likewise cultivated in several places, on account of the great advantage derived from it. This varnish, which oozes out of the tree on its being wounded, is procured from stems that are three years old, and is received in some proper vessel.

7. Rhus succedaneum, or red lac sumach.—This is certainly distinct from the preceding, to which it is allied, but differs from it particularly in the size of the leaves. In this species these are somewhat rigid, shining on both sides, very seldom equal on both margins. In Rhus vernix, the leaves are of an opaque green. The fruit in this species is the size of a cherry, and not white; in that it is only the size of a pea, and white.—Native of Japan and China. Introduced in 1773 by John Blake, Esq. It flowers in June.

Osbeck informs us that the Chinese call the Rhus Javanicum *Tay-sha*, and the Rhus Chinense, by which he means this species, *Monkhi*.

The true Chinese varnish or lacker-tree, is named in China *Sat Shu*, and not *UTong Shu*. In collecting the varnish, they make an incision in the bark, and insert a tube for the juice to run into a little pot; which is taken in every morning before sun-rise. The juice blisters the skin.

8. Rhus semialatum, or half-winged sumach.—Leaves pinnate serrate, petioles on the outmost internodes membranaceous. 9. Rhus copallinum, or lentiscus-leaved sumach.—Leaves pinnate quite entire, petiole membranaceous jointed. 10. Rhus alatum, or winged sumach.—Leaves pinnate, leaflets ovate serrate at the end, petioles on all the internodes winged. 11. Rhus pauciflorum, or few-flowered sumach.—Leaves pinnate, leaflets alternate, decurrent, wedge-shaped, serrate at the end, panicle sessile, few-flowered.

12. Rhus metopium, or the hog gum-tree.—This tree seldom rises to more than twenty-five or thirty-five feet, and is very spreading towards the top. It is surrounded with round pinnate leaves, which have seldom above five leaflets on every rib; and the flowers, which grow in clusters, are succeeded by so many reddish succulent capsules. It yields a great quantity of a gummy resin, which, when pure, is of a yellow colour, and after a short time, acquires a hard brittle consistence.—Native of America.

13. Rhus digitatum, or finger-leaved sumach. 14. Rhus pentaphyllum, or five-leaved sumach.—With ternate leaves. 15. Rhus cirrhiflorum.—Scandent, leaflets quite entire, smooth. 16. Rhus tridentatum.—Scandent, leaflets hoary serrate, serratures three to five.—Natives of the Cape.

17. Rhus radicans, rooting poison-oak, or sumach.—This has a low shrubby stalk, which seldom rises more than three feet high, sending out shoots near the bottom, which trail upon

upon the ground, putting out roots from their joints, whereby it multiplies and spreads greatly. If it be near a wall, the fibres will strike into the joints, and support the stalks when severed from the root. When it is thus supported, the stalks become more woody, and rise much higher, than when it trails on the ground. The flowers come out from the side of the stalk in loose panicles; they are small, and of an herbaceous colour, male and female on distinct trees: the latter are succeeded by roundish, channelled, smooth berries, of a gray colour, inclosing one or two seeds. It grows naturally in many parts of North America, where it is called creeping ivy.

18. Rhus toxicodendron, trailing poison-oak or sumach.—The stalks of this sort rise higher than those of the preceding; the branches are slender but woody, and have a brown bark. Leaves on pretty long petioles; leaflets oval, two inches long, one inch and a half broad, indented angularly, and hoary on their under side. The male flowers, which are produced on separate plants from the fruit, come out from the side of the stalks in close short spikes, and are of an herbaceous colour. The females are produced in loose panicles, agree in shape and colour with the males, but are larger, and have a roundish germ supporting three very short styles.—Native of many parts of North America.

19. Rhus aromaticum, or aromatic sumach.—Leaflets sessile, ovate, somewhat hairy. 20. Rhus suaviolens, or sweet sumach.—Leaflets sessile, wedge-shaped, smooth. 21. Rhus dentatum, or toothed sumach.—Leaflets obovate, stem rugged. 22. Rhus sinuatum, or sinuate-leaved sumach.—Leaflets ovate, blunt, sinuate, villose underneath. 23. Rhus cuneifolium, or wedge-leaved sumach. 24. Rhus incisum, or gash-leaved sumach.—Leaflets sessile, wedge-shaped, underneath tomentose, veined, calyxes tomentose. 25. Rhus tomentosum, or woolly-leaved sumach.—Leaflets sub-petioled, rhombed, angular, tomentose underneath. 26. Rhus villosum, or hairy-leaved sumach.—Leaflets hairy on both sides. 27. Rhus pubescens, or hairy-branched sumach.—Leaflets obovate, mucronate, smooth, branches villose. 28. Rhus viminale, or willow-leaved sumach.—Leaflets attenuated at the base, the middle one sub-petioled. 29. Rhus angustifolium, or narrow-leaved sumach.—Leaflets petioled, tomentose underneath. 30. Rhus rosmarinifolium, or rosemary-leaved sumach.—Leaflets sessile, ferruginous underneath. 31. Rhus lævigatum, or smooth-leaved sumach.—Leaflets sessile, lanceolate, even. 32. Rhus lucidum, or shining-leaved sumach.—Leaflets sessile, wedge-shaped, even.—All these with simple leaves.

33. Rhus cotinus, or Venice sumach.—This rises with an irregular shrubby stalk to the height of ten or twelve feet, sending out many spreading branches covered with a smooth brown bark, garnished with single obovate leaves about two inches long, and of the same breadth, rounded at their points, and stand upon long foot-stalks; they are smooth, stiff, and of a lucid green, having a strong midrib, whence several transverse veins run towards the border. The flowers come out at the end of the branches upon long hair-like foot-stalks, which divide, and branch into large hair-like bunches of a purplish colour; they are small, white, and composed of five small oval petals, which spread open. The root is used for dyeing: the leaves and young branches dye black: and the bark is used for tanning leather.—Native of the south of France, Spain, Italy, Austria, Carniola, Hungary, Bohemia, Switzerland, the Levant, and Siberia.

34. Rhus atrum.—Leaves simple, ovate-oblong, flowers polygamous.—Native of New Caledonia.

Propagation and Culture.—1, 2, 4, 5, 9. These are hardy plants, and will thrive in the open air in England. Propagating the plants from seeds is seldom practised after a person is once possessed of the plants, for they are very subject to set up a great number of suckers from their roots, whereby they are easily propagated. The suckers of all the sorts may be taken up and planted in a nursery for a year or two to get strength, and then may be planted where they are to remain.

The 6th, 17th, 18th, 19th, 20th sorts propagate in plenty, by their creeping stalks and roots, or by laying down their branches.

10, 11, 13, 15, 16, 21, 22, 22, 23, 24, 25, 26, 27, 28, 29, 30, 31, 32. All these African sorts being too tender to live through the winter in the open air in England, are planted in pots or tubs, and housed in autumn, and during the winter they must be treated in the same way as other hardy greenhouse plants. They all retain their leaves through the year.

33. Venice sumach is propagated by layers in autumn; by the autumn following these will have taken root, when they may be taken off, and transplanted into a nursery.

RHUSELNIUM, a name given by some authors to the *ranunculus.*

RHUSTICANA, or RUSTICANA, a town of Hispania, in the interior of Lusitania, between Talebriga and Mendeculia. *Ptolemy.*

RHUSONCORÆ, or RUSUCURRUM, a town of Africa, in Mauritania Cæsariensis. *Ptolemy.*—It had the title of a Roman colony.

RHUTHYN. See RUTHIN.

RHYDDA, a town of Palestine, belonging to the Arabs, according to Josephus.

RHYME, *s.* [either from *rimen*, a verb in the Franco-Theotisc "to agree together, to meet," which is the opinion of Sharon Turner, or from the Latin *rythmus.* Mr. Turner has also noticed the Saxon ȝryme, or ȝream, signifying *harmony*; and Serenius produces the Su. Goth. *rim, ryma,* scriptum metricum; à *hreim,* resonantia canora; *hreimer,* (verb imp.) resonat.]—An harmonical succession of sounds.

The youths with songs and *rhimes:*
Some dance, some hale the rope. *Denham.*

The consonance of verses; the correspondence of the last sound of one verse to the last sound or syllable of another.

If Cupid throws a single dart,
We make him wound the lover's heart;
But if he takes his bow and quiver,
'Tis sure he must transfix the liver;
For *rhime* with reason may dispense,
And sound has right to govern sense. *Prior.*

Poetry; a poem.

All his manly power it did disperse,
As he were warmed with inchanted *rhimes,*
That oftentimes he quak'd. *Spenser.*

A word of sound to answer to another word.

What wise means to gain it hast thou chose?
Know fame and fortune both are made of prose.
Is thy ambition sweating for a *rhyme,*
Thou unambitious fool, at this late time? *Young.*

A feminine RHYME is that where the last syllable of the rhyme ends with an *e* mute, or quiescent, as in dove, belle, &c.

Masculine RHYMES are those of all other words.

Menage observes, that the masculine rhymes close the periods better; but the feminines, being the softer and more languishing, end more agreeably, especially in mournful subjects.

RHYME or *reason.* Number or sense.—The guiltiness of my mind drove the grossness of the foppery into a received belief, in despight of the teeth of all *rhime* and *reason,* that they were fairies. *Shakspeare.*

To RHYME, *v. n.* [*rimen,* Fr. Theotisc. See RHYME. Dan. *rimer;* Germ. *reimen.*] To agree in sound.

He was too warm on picking work to dwell,
But fagotted his notions as they fell,
And, if they *rhym'd* and rattled, all was well. *Dryden.*

To make verses.—These fellows of infinite tongue, that can *rhyme* themselves into ladies' favours, they do always reason themselves out again. *Shakspeare.*

To RHYME, *v. a.* To put into rhyme.—The first [translation of the Psalms] too elegant for the vulgar use; the other as flat and poor, as lamely worded, and unhandsomely *rhimed,* as the old. *Bp. King.*

RHY'MELESS,

RHY'MELESS, *adj.* Not having consonance of verses.

Too popular is tragick poesie.
Straining his tiptoes for a farthing fee:
And doth beside on *rhymeless* numbers tread. *Bp. Hall.*

RHY'MER, or RHY'MESTER, *s.* One who makes rhymes; a versifier; a poet in contempt.

Saucy lictors
Will catch at us like strumpets; and scald *rhymers*
Ballad us out o'tune. *Shakspeare.*

RHYMNICI MONTES, in ancient geopraphy, mountains of Scythia, on this side of Imaus, in which the river Rhymnus had its source. The mouth of this river was in the Caspian sea, between that of the river Rha and that of the river Daïs.

RHYN, a small river of the Prussian province of Brandenburg, which has its source on the confines of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, flows through several lakes, and falls into the Havel. It is used for floating wood.

RHYNCHÆ, in ancient geography, a country of Greece, in the isle of Eubœa. *Steph. Byz.*

RHYNCOSPORA, a genus of plants established by Brown, consisting of some species of DICHROMENA and SCHOENUS, which see.

RHYNCOSIA, [from ῥυγχος, Gr. a beak, because the keel terminates in a long sharp point.] in botany, a genus of the class diadelphia, order decandria, natural order papilionaceæ. Leguminosæ, *(Juss.)—Essential Character.* Corolla papilionaceous. Keel rhomboid, beaked. Legume membranous, with two seeds.

1. Rhyncosia volubilis.—Found wild near Canton in China. Stem herbaceous, round, twining. Leaves ternate, roundish, downy. Flower-stalks axillary, in pairs, many-flowered. Calyx two-lipped. Corolla yellow. Seeds black and shining. This genus was introduced by Loureiro.

RHYNDACUS, in ancient geography, a river of Asiatic Mysia, according to Pomponius Mela, who places its source in mount Olympus. According to Pliny it had been denominated Lycus.—Also, a town of Asia, between Phrygia and the Hellespont. *Steph. Byz.*

RHYNIE AND ESSIE, a united parish of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, of nearly a square form, comprehending 30 square miles. Population 676.

RHYNS, or RINNS OF GALLOWAY, is a term applied to that peninsula of Wigtonshire, Scotland, formed by the approximation of the bays of Loch Ryan and Glenluce. It is named by Ptolemy and the ancient geographers, *Chersonesum Novantum* from the *Novantæ*, or *Tovantes*, the inhabitants.

RHYPÆ, RIPE, or RHYPES, in ancient geopraphy, a town of the Peloponnesus, in Achaia, the territory of which was denominated Rhypidis. According to Strabo it was north of Helice, and at some distance from the coasts of the gulph of Corinth. Pausanias says that in his time they could only perceive the ruins of Rhypæ; 30 miles from Ægium. Homer calls this town Rêpe.

RHYPTICS, RHIPTICS, [Ῥυπτικα, Gr.] In old medical writers, detergent remedies.

RHYSSADIUS, in ancient geography, a mountain of Africa, in Lybia interior, in which Ptolemy places the source of the river Stachir.

RHYTHM, *s.* [*rhythmus*, Lat. ῥυθμος, Gr.] Metre; verse; numbers.

Now sportive youth
Carol incondite *rhythms* with suiting notes,
And quaver unharmonious. *Philips.*

Proportion applied to any motion whatever. *Harris.*

RHY'THMICAL, *adj.* [ῥυθμικος, Gr.] Harmonical; having one sound proportioned to another.—The term figurate, which we now employ to distinguish florid from more simple melody, was used to denote that which was simply *rhythmical* or accentual. *Mason.*

RYTIDOSIS, formed of ῥυτιδοω, to wrinkle; the name of a distemper in the eye, in which it wastes and wrinkles up.

RHYTIS, [from ῥυτις, a channel, or furrow, so named by Loureiro, because it has a furrowed berry.] in botany, a genus of the class polygamia, order dioecia.—Generic Character. Perfect flowers.—Calyx: perianth inferior, cloven into from three to six, obtuse spreading segments. Corolla none. Stamens: filaments three, thread-shaped, erect, longer than the calyx, attached to the receptacle; anthers two-lobed. Pistils: germen superior, rather long; style none; stigmas three, cloven, reflexed. Pericarp: berry flatly ovate, rugose, flaccid, with one cell, and three, ovate, small seeds.

Female flowers on a separate plant. Calyx: perianth inferior, cloven into numerous, lanceolate, hairy, spreading segments. Corolla none. Stamina none. Pistil and pericarp as in the perfect flowers.—*Essential Character.* Calyx from three to six-cleft. Corolla none. Stamens three. Stigmas three. Berry three-sceded. Female: Calyx cloven into many segments.

1. Rhytis fruticosa, or shrubby rhytis.—Native of woods in Cochinchina. A shrub about six feet high. Stem nearly erect, branched in a spreading manner. Leaves alternate, ovate-oblong, slightly pointed, smooth, entire. Flowers in long, slender, crowded, terminal spikes. Berry channelled.

RHYZELIUS (Andrew), a learned Swedish bishop, was born in West Gothland in 1677, and studied at Upsal. In 1711 he was appointed professor of theology at Abo, from thence he proceeded to Upsal, where he was ordained, and appointed under pastor of the congregation of St. Nicholas at Stockholm. In 1713 he was nominated by Charles XII. to be one of his chaplains, whom he afterwards accompanied to Norway. He obtained other high offices, and at length, in 1743, he was raised to the episcopal bench. He died in the year 1761, leaving behind him a high character for deep learning and accurate judgment. His works are numerous, some of which are, 1. "Svio-Gothica munita," or an historical description of the towns, fortresses, castles, and royal palaces in the kingdoms of Sweden and Gothland. 2. "Monasteriologia Svio-Gothica," or a description of monasteries. 3. "Mnemonica Historiæ Svio-Gothica Epitome."

RIACA, or RIAZA, a river of Spain, which rises in the mountains between Old and New Castile, and runs into the Douro, at Roa.

RIACHUCO, a small river of the province of Buenos Ayres, which enters the Plata, opposite the capital.

RIACHUELO, a small river of the same province and government, which runs west, and enters the Plata.

RIADHIAT, a superstitious practice among the Mahometans, and chiefly among those of Hindoostan, which consists in shutting themselves up for fifteen days, without any other nourishment than bread and water, in a place where there is no light; during which time, the devout Mussulman incessantly repeats the word *hou*, which denotes one of the attributes of God.

RI'AL, *s.* A piece of money. See REAL.

In 1 Henry VI. by indenture of the mint, a pound weight of gold of the old standard was coined into 45 rials, passing for ten shillings a-piece, or a proportional number of half rials, passing at five shillings a-piece; or rial farthings, which went at two shillings and two-pence.

In 1 Henry VIII. the gold rial was ordered to pass at eleven shillings and three-pence. In 2 Elizabeth, gold rials were coined at fifteen shillings a-piece, when a pound weight of old standard gold was to be coined into forty-eight rials. In 3 James I. rose-rials of gold were coined at thirty shillings a-piece, and spur-rials at fifteen shillings.

RIALEJO, a sea-port on the western coast of the island of Tencriffe.

RIANA, [so named by Aublet, but that author gives no account or reason why it is so called. We presume this may be its common name in Guiana.] In botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order berberides, *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth inferior, of one leaf, cloven into five roundish-acute segments. Corolla: petals five, ovate, acute, joined at the base

base. Nectary of five scales. Stamens: filaments five, very short, inserted at the base of the nectary; anthers ovate-oblong, nearly sessile, two-celled. Pistil: germen superior, ovate, villous, with five streaks; style fleshy; stigma capitate, obtuse. Pericarp: capsule oblong, of one cell, and three valves, compressed in the middle. Seeds three. Aublet describes the five-scaled nectary, as five inner petals.—*Essential Character.* Calyx deeply five-cleft. Petals five. Nectary composed of five scales. Anthers nearly sessile. Capsule of one cell and three valves. Seeds three.

1. Riana Guianensis.—Native of woods in Aroura, where it flowers in August. This shrub is ten feet high, and has a branched trunk. Branches erect, knobbed. Leaves opposite, stalked, ovate-oblong, acute, toothed, smooth, rigid. Stipulas short, twin, opposite, acute, deciduous. Flowers white, arranged in an alternate manner, forming a terminal spike; each flower on a short stalk, which has four scales or bracteas at the base. Jussieu suspects that this plant may be akin to passoura.

RIANS, a town of France, department of the Var. Population 3200. It has some manufactures of woollens; and in the neighbourhood are quarries of mill-stones; 24 miles north-west of Brignolles, and 36 north-west of Toulon.

RI'ANT, *adj.* [Fr.] Laughing; exciting laughter. —In such cases the sublimity must be drawn from the other sources; with a strict caution however against any thing light and *riant.* *Burke.*

RIAO, an island in the Eastern seas; about 25 miles in circumference, near the west coast of Morty. Lat. 2. 25. N. long. 128. 2. E.

RIAPA CREEK, a river of Louisiana, in the territory of the Mississippi, which runs into the Mississippi. Lat. 31. 2. N. long. 91. 17. W.

RIAY, a river of Paraguay, in South America, which runs west, and enters the Yucay.

RIAZAN, an extensive province or government of the central part of European Russia, lying to the south of the government of Vladimir, and to the east of that of Moscow, extending from Lat. 53. 40. to 55. 0. N. and from long. 38. 25. to 41. 45. E. Its area is above 13,000 square miles, and its population is said to amount to 1,000,000, mostly Russians, but intermixed with a few Tartars. It is a level country, with only a few elevations. The north contains a number of woods and marshes, but the soil of the rest is in general a fine black mould, producing wheat, oats, barley, and other corn, also hemp and flax, all of which are articles of export. The number of cattle, on the other hand, is rather below the average proportion in Russia, but the breed of horses is good, and great attention is paid by the peasantry to bees. Woollen and linen are made for domestic use, and a few articles, such as iron, canvas, glass, and leather, are exported, but the quantity is inconsiderable. The imports are also very limited, the only one of importance being salt, and the inhabitants having very little knowledge of foreign luxuries. This goverment, in former ages an independent duchy, became a province of the Russian empire, under the name of Pereslavl-Riasanskoi, and received its present name from Catherine II. It is divided into 12 circles.

RIAZAN, the capital of the above government, is situated on the river Oka; 123 miles south-south-east of Moscow. It is the see of a Greek bishop, and has an unusual number of churches, great and small. The episcopal residence was formerly the mansion of the dukes; but the best building of the town is the one in which the government offices and courts of justice hold their sittings. In this town are manufactures of linen, woollen, leather, needles, and glass; also iron forges. The town is small, having only about 5000 inhabitants, and is one of the most ancient of the empire.

RIB, *s.* [ribbe, Saxon.] A bone in the trunk.

Why do I yield to that suggestion?
Whose horrid image doth upfix my hair,
And make my seated heart knock at my *ribs,*
Against the use of nature! *Shakspeare.*

Any piece of timber or other matter which strengthens the side.

I should not see the sandy hour-glass run,
But I should think of shallows and of flats;
And see my wealthy Andrew dock'd in sand,
Vailing her high top lower than her *ribs,*
To kiss her burial. *Shakspeare.*

Any prominence running in lines; as, the stalks of a leaf. Any thing slight, thin, or narrow; a strip.—Fetching up his single melancholy cow from a small *rib* of land, that is scarce to be found without a guide. *Eehard.*

To RIB, *v. a.* To furnish with ribs.

Was I by rocks engender'd, *ribb'd* with steel,
Such tortures to resist, or not to feel? *Sandys.*

To enclose, as the body, by ribs.

It were too gross
To *rib* her cerecloth in the obscure grave. *Shakspeare.*

RIBA, a small town of the north of Spain, in the province of Leon, on the river Tormes; 6 miles east-south-east of Salamanca.

RIBA DE SELLA, a small sea-port in the north of Spain, province of Asturia, on the coast of the Atlantic; 40 miles east-north-east of Oviedo.

RIBADAVIA, a town of Spain, in Galicia, on the Minho. with 2400 inhabitants; 45 miles south-south-east of Santiago.

RIBADENEIRA (Peter), a Spanish Jesuit, was a native of Toledo. He studied at Paris and at Padua, after which he taught rhetoric with reputation at Palermo. He died at Madrid in 1611, aged 81. His works are "Lives of the Saints," folio 1616; the "Lives of St. Ignatius Loyola, St. Francis de Borgia, and of the Father Lainez and Solmeron;" "A Treatise of the Schism of England;" another entitled "The Prince," which is full of bad political maxims; and the "Library writers among the Jesuits," 8vo.

RIBADEO, a town of Spain, in Galicia. It is still surrounded with a wall, and is situated at the mouth of the river Eo. Population 2000; 18 miles north-east of Mondonedo.

RI'BALD, *s.* [*ribauld,* Fr. *ribaldo,* Italian; *ribaldr,* Su. Goth. nebulo, which Ihre derived from *hrid* pugna, and *balladr,* audax; meaning licentious, ungovernable soldiers. On appelloit aussi ribauds, sous Phillippe-le-bel et Philippe-Auguste, des soldats d'elite, choisis pour leur garde particuliere. Enfin ribaud signifioit encore bandit, voleur, scelerat, mechant, libertin, excommunie; homme qui procure des femmes de mauvais vie, qui les soutient." Roquefort.]—A loose, rough, mean, brutal wretch.

That lewd *ribald* with vile lust advaunst,
Laid first his filthy hands on virgin clean,
To spoil her dainty corps, so fair and sheen. *Spenser.*

RI'BALD, *adj.* Base; mean.

The busy day,
Wak'd by the lark, has rous'd the *ribald* crows. *Shakspeare.*
Which *ribbald* art their church to Luther owes. *Dryden.*

RI'BALDRY, *s.* [*ribaudie,* old Fr. *ribalderia,* old Ital. Our old word was *ribaudry.* "Ditties of wanton love or *ribaudrye.*" Sir T. Elyot, "Rymes of *ribaudrie.*" Spenser.] Mean, lewd, brutal language.—Mr. Cowley asserts, that obscenity has no place in wit; Buckingham says, 'tis an ill sort of wit, which has nothing more to support it than barefac'd *ribaldry.* *Dryden.*

RI'BAND, *s.* [*rubande, ruban,* Fr.] A fillet of silk; a narrow band of silk, which is worn for ornament.

A *ribband* did the braided tresses bind,
The rest was loose. *Dryden.*

To RI'BAND, *v. a.* To adorn with ribands.—One that has miraculously purchased a *ribanded* waistcoat. *Beaum. and Fl.*

RIBAR, a village of the north-west of Hungary; 3 miles north-north-east of Altoshl.

RIBATTUTA, [Ital.] in Music, is iterating, striking, or sounding the same note again.

RIBATUA, a town in the north of Portugal, province of Entre Minho e Douro. Population 2000.

RIBAUD, Grand, a small island of the south-east of France, in the Mediterranean, to the south of the peninsula Giens. It belongs to the arrondissement of Toulon, and is very thinly peopled.

RIBAUE, Petit, a small island in the south-east of France, belonging, in like manner, to the arrondissement of Toulon.

RIBAUDEQUEM, a projectile machine used in the 11th and 12th centuries, which was a large kind of cross-bow.

RIBBED, *adj.* Furnished with ribs.

Hung on each bough a single leaf appears,
Which shrivell'd in its infancy remains,
Like a clos'd fan, nor stretches wide its veins,
But as the seasons in their circle run,
Opes its *ribb'd* surface to the nearer sun. *Gay.*

Marked with protuberant lines.

And plantain *ribb'd*, that heals the reaper's wound;
And marj'ram sweet in shepherd's posie found. *Shenstone.*

RIBBESFORD, a village of England, adjacent to Bewdley, in Worcestershire.

RIBBEY, a village of England, in Lancashire; 2½ miles west of Kirkham.

RIBBLE, a considerable river of England, which rises in the West Riding of Yorkshire, near the foot of Ingleborough hill, descends southwards by Lettle, enters Lancashire near Clitheroe, and running south-eastwards, falls into the Irish sea below Preston, in a very wide estuary, the navigation of which is much obstructed by sand-banks.

RIBBLETON, a village of England, in Lancashire near Preston.

RIBBLING, a term used in some districts to signify a mode of ploughing similar to that of slob-furrowing. It is thus performed. From the beginning to the end of the ridge, every alternate furrow, is left untouched, and the ploughed furrow is turned over above it, so that the greatest surface possible is exposed to the ameliorating influence of the atmosphere, while, at the same time, the loose soil is out of the reach of any little rills which may run down in the different ruts.

RIBBON. See Riband.

RIBCHESTER, a village and parish in the hundred of Blackburn, and county palatine of Lancaster, is situated at the distance of five miles and a half north-north-west from the town of Blackburn, and eight miles north-east from Preston. Though now comparatively an insignificant place, it was in Roman times an important and flourishing town. Much dispute has taken place among antiquaries with respect to the original name of this station. Horsley calls it the Coccium of Antoninus, and Camden the Rigodunum of Ptolemy, the identity of which places is clearly proved by the reasonings of Dr. Whitaker, in his History of Whalley. Mr. Whitaker, the author of the History of Manchester, however, contends that Ribchester must have been the Rerigonium of Richard Cirencester, and places Coccium at Blackrode. But whatever was the name of this place, it was indubitably among the number of Agricola's stations, and appears to have been not merely a military post, but the seat of manufacturing and commercial prosperity. At that period the river Ribble was navigable as high as Coccium to vessels of no inconsiderable burden. Of this fact, tradition, the vestiges of a dock, and numerous nautical relics, afford incontestible proof. To the filling up of the river, by the gradual accumulation of sand, is to be attributed, in part at least, the decay of this place after its abandonment by the Romans. Many votive stones, and others with inscriptions, have been found here. Of these Dr. Whitaker has printed nine, but they do not furnish any thing interesting either with respect to the place or the people. Various smaller antiquities have likewise been dug up here at different periods; such as silver and brass coins, an intaglio in a ruby, gold rings, &c. "But," to use the exaggerated terms of the historian of Whalley, "the noblest discovery ever made here, or perhaps in Britain, was in the year 1796, when the shelving bank of the Ribble exposed the following remains, which seemed to have been deposited in an excavation of the earth, filled up with soil of a different quality. These were, 1. A large flat earthen vessel, extremely thick, with the potter's stamp very distinct, 'Boriedof, Boriedi officina.' 2. An entire patera of copper, about six inches diameter, with a handle. 3. The imperfect remains of a similar vessel. 4. A column or colander of the same size and metal. 5. Several concave and circular plates of copper, with loops behind, which had evidently been intended to fasten them perpendicularly against a shaft, in order to form a Roman vexillum: such are frequent upon ancient monuments; but for a particular illustration, the reader is referred to a monument of Lucius Duccius, signifer of the ninth legion, in Horsley, pl. 63. 6. A very fine helmet, of which the crest was a sphinx, afterwards unfortunately lost, the head piece enriched with basso-relievos of armed men skirmishing with swords, and a visor, consisting of an entire and beautiful female face, with orifices at the eyes, mouth, and nostrils." These remains were deposited in the museum of Charles Townley, Esq. The helmet particularly merits attention. From the style of the head-piece, it is conjectured by the best judges not to be prior to the age of Severus; but the visor is a much more delicate and exquisite piece of workmanship, and is supposed not only to be Grecian, but, from the boldness of its lines, to belong to a period somewhat anterior to the last perfection of the arts in that wonderful country. For an engraving of this helmet, with some observations thereon, see "Vetusta Monumenta," vol. iv.

The chief remains of this station, now visible, are a mutilated rampart and fosse, surrounding a small eminence near the church, which is called Anchor-hill, from the circumstance of several anchors having been dug up at its base. In the same place, some years ago, an entire vessel was discovered at a great depth beneath the surface of the ground. From this place the Roman road, called Watling Street, stretches itself in a northern direction over Long Ridge Fell, marked by "a long stripe of green intersecting the brown heath of the mountain." Hence it is denominated Green Lane. It enters Yorkshire a little below Dowford Bridge, and proceeds by Newton and Bentham to the celebrated station at Overborough.

The parish of Ribchester formerly constituted a portion of the original parish of Whalley, but was severed from it at the same time with that of Chipping. According to the parliamentary returns of 1811, it contained 649 houses, and 3544 inhabitants, including the townships of Ribchester, Dilworth, Dutton, Alston, and Hothersal.

At Stede, in the vicinity of Ribchester, is a parochial chapel, which Dr. Whitaker states to be the oldest building within the boundaries of ancient Whalley. It appears to have formerly belonged to a guild, or hospital, and, from the style of its architecture, was probably erected in the reign of king Stephen. The arches are lightly pointed, and are decorated with zig-zag, and other Saxon ornaments. In the interior is a "coffin tomb" of high antiquity, placed in front of the pulpit, which is elevated upon an antique stone pediment. The floor is covered with ancient grave stones, some of which are inscribed with Longobardic or Norman characters. See for ampler reformation an History of the original parish of Whalley and Honor of Clitheroe, in the counties of Lancaster and York, by Thomas Dunham Whitaker, L. L. D., F. S. A., 2d edit. 4to. Lond. 1806. A Description of the Country, from thirty to forty miles round Manchester, by J. Aikin, M. D. 4to. Lond. 1795. History of Manchester, by John Whitaker, B. D., F. S. A. 2 vols. 4to. 1771. Antiquitates Bremetonacenses; or the Roman Antiquities fo Overborough, &c. Lond. 4to. 1746.

RIBE, Ripen, or Rypen, an ancient but decayed town of Denmark, on the west coast of the peninsula of Jutland. It stands on the river Nibsgae, which falls into the German ocean at about two miles distance, but is navigable for small vessels

vessels only. This place is the chief town of a bailiwick, and the see of a bishop, with a large diocese, but its population is only 2600. Its trade in grain, cattle, and horses, is considerable. The decline of Ribe is attributed to the effects of fire, and repeated indundations; 80 miles south of Wiborg, and 120 north of Hamburgh. Lat. 55. 21. N. long. 8. 46. E.

RIBEAUVILLER, or Rappolzweiler, a town in the east of France, department of the Upper Rhine, on the Strengbach, near which is the now ruinous castle of Rappolzstein. It contains 4600 inhabitants, and has some manufactures of linen and leather. Wine is cultivated in the neighbourhood; 7 miles south-west of Schelestadt, and 9 north-by-west of Colmar.

RIBEIRA GRANDE. See Jago, St.

RIBEMONT, a town in in the north-east of France, department of the Aisne, situated on an eminence near the Oise, with 2400 inhabitants, who manufacture woollens and linen. It gave birth to the unfortunate Condorcet; 9 miles south-east of St. Quentin, and 21 north-west of Laon.

RIBENSKOI, a village of Asiatic Russia, on the Tunguska; 72 miles east-south-east of Yeniseisk.

RIBENZA. See Reiffnitz.

RIBERA (Francis de), a learned Spanish Jesuit in the sixteenth century, was born in the year 1537. He pursued his academical studies at the university of Salamanca, and acquired a high reputation for his intimate acquaintance, not only with the Latin, but with the learned languages also. Having been ordained priest, he retired to his native place, that he might prosecute his theological studies in uninterrupted privacy, and at the same time assist his brethren in the neighbouring country churches. In the year 1570, when he was thirty-three years of age, he was persuaded to unite himself with the disciples of Loyola, and become a member of their society. He now spent most of his time in interpreting the scriptures, and filling the chair of professor of divinity, in their seminary at Salamanca, till his death, which happened in the year 1591. He was author of numerous works which are still in estimation with the Catholics; among these may be mentioned "Commentarii in XII. Prophetas minores, sensum eorundem Prophetarum historicum et moralem, sæpe etiam Allegoricum complectentes," 4to. "Commentarii Historici selecti in XII. Prophetas minores," 8vo. De Templo, et iis quæ ad Templum pertinent Lib. V." 8vo. And "The Life of St. Theresa, Foundress of the reformed Order of the barefooted Carmelites," written in the Spanish language.

RIBERA (Joseph), called Lo Spagnoletto, an eminent painter, was born at Xativa, in Valencia, about 1589. There is some doubt concerning the place in which he spent his early years; for while the Spanish writers affirm that he was a pupil of Francisco de Ribalta, in Valencia, the Italians say that his father, being an officer in Castel-nuovo at Naples, sent him to the school of Caravaggio. There seems no doubt, however, that he was a disciple of the latter, and that from him he went to Rome, where he acquired the appellation of Lo Spagnoletto, the Little Spaniard. He there studied with great application the works of Raphael, the Carracci, and other masters, in the midst of extreme penury, and occasionally employed in mean tasks for his subsistence. As he was one day painting some outside ornaments of a house, a cardinal passing through the street stopped to admire his work, and seeing the artist young, ragged, and half-starved, took compassion on him, and gave him a home in his palace. The ease and affluence of his new situation rendered him indolent and voluptuous: but perceiving these faults to gain ground upon him, he had the strength of mind to tear himself from temptation, by silently withdrawing from the house of his protector, and returning to labour and indigence. He then went to Parma and Modena to view the works of Correggio, from which he derived a softer manner than that of the school of Caravaggio. To the latter, however, he returned, as the best calculated to attract popular admiration, when he revisited Naples, in which capital he first worked for a dealer in pictures. This man, who was rich, struck with the talents of Ribera, gave him his daughter in marriage; and from this period he rose to distinction in his profession. His picture of St. Bartholomew flead was so much admired by the viceroy, that he nominated Ribera his own painter, and gave him a considerable pension and apartments in his palace. His fame extended to Rome, where the Pope created him a knight of the order of Christ, and the academy of St. Luke elected him one of its members.

The genius of Spagnoletto delighted in subjects of severity and even of horror. Hermits, anchorets, and fathers of the church, were clothed by his pencil with all the awful dignity of age united with sanctity and austerity. His historic pieces generally represent martyrdoms, executions, tortures, and scenes of suffering, which the force and truth of his painting render too painful to the feelings to allow a calm admiration of their excellence as works of art. They were, however, well suited to the ferocity of Naples and the gloomy devotion of Spain, to which last country many of them were sent by the viceroy, where they enrich the royal collections. Few of this master's works were painted for churches, and they are mostly easel pieces, which are dispersed in the cabinets throughout Europe.

Ribera, in his prosperous state, was fond of figure and splendour, worked only six hours a day, then visited, and in the evenings opened his house to company. When Don John of Austria visited Naples in 1648, he engaged that prince to come to his parties, boasting to him of the beauty of his daughters. The natural result was an intrigue with one of them, whom the prince carried off, and placed in a convent. The painter was so much affected by this disgrace, and by the reproaches of his wife, that (according to D'Argenville) one day in 1649, leaving his house near Posilippo for the purpose of going to Naples, he was never more heard of. Other accounts, however, mention him as dying at Naples in 1656. He left a manuscript tract on the principles of painting, said to have been an excellent composition. He etched 26 pieces of his own designs, and several engravings from his works have been made by other artists. *Pilkington.*

RIBERAC, a town in the south-west of France, department of the Dordogne, on the small river Isle. Population 3000; 20 miles west-by-north of Perigueux.

RIBERAINY, a village of Abyssinia; 25 miles east-north-east of Axum.

RIBES, [an Arabic name] in botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of pomaceæ, cacti, *(Juss.)* Generic Character.—Calyx: perianth one-leafed, half-five-cleft, ventricose; segments oblong, concave, coloured, reflex, permanent. Corolla: petals five, small, obtuse, erect, growing to the margin of the calyx. Stamina: filaments five, subulate, erect, inserted into the calyx. Anthers incumbent, compressed, opening at the margin. Pistil: germ roundish, inferior. Style bifid. Stigmas obtuse. Pericarp: berry globular, umbilicated, one-celled; receptacles two, lateral, opposite, longitudinal. Seeds very many, roundish, somewhat compressed. *Essential Character.*—Petals five, inserted with the stamens into the calyx. Style bifid. Berry many-seeded, inferior.

I. Unarmed species. Ribesia, or Currants.

1. Ribes rubrum, or common currant.—Branches smooth. Leaves on longish petioles, doubly serrate, sub-pubescent. Racemes simple, nodding, when in fruit pendulous. Bracte ovate, small, shorter than the pedicels. Corolla yellowish green, with obcordate petals. Berries acid, shining.—Native of Europe, chiefly in the northern parts, in hedges and woods; flowering in May. Wild in the northern counties of England. There are several varieties of this species of currant; of these the most remarkable are the common red and common white sorts. A third variety with blotched leaves is kept in some plantations; but as the variegation is apt to go off when the plant is vigorous, it scarcely deserves notice.

2. Ribes petræum, or rock currant.—Racemes somewhat hairy, erect, when fruiting pendulous, petals obtuse, bractes shorter

shorter than the flower; leaves acuminate-lobed, gash-toothed, stem erect. Berries large, very deep red, extremely acid, and not losing their acidity by culture, and full of juice. —Native of Carinthia, Styria, Silesia, Bohemia, and occasionally found in England.

3. Ribes procumbens, or trailing currant.—Racemes erect, flowers flattish, leaves obtusely lobed, stem procumbent. Stems concealed in the moss, scarcely thicker than a swan's quill. Berries often larger than the black currant, hanging down from almost erect racemes, yellowish green, or when ripe rufescent, very pleasant to the taste, and therefore in much request in Dauria, where the shrub grows wild.

4. Ribes glandulosum, or glandulous currant.—Racemes erect, with glandular hairs, flowers flattish, leaves acuminate-lobed toothed, stem ascending, rooting. Fruit eatable but not good.—Native of North America.

5. Ribes alpinum, or tasteless mountain currant.—Racemes erect, bractes longer than the flower. Leaves smaller than in the common currant (ribes rubrum), threelobed, serrate, smoothish, shining, especially underneath; the segments lanceolate, pointed. Berries elliptic, red, mucilaginous and insipid; or with a flat sweetish taste. The wood being hard and tough, makes good teeth for rakes. —Native of Europe and Asia, in woods, thickets, and hedges. In England only in the northern parts. Flowering in April and May.

6. Ribes spicatum, or acid mountain currant.—Spikes erect, petals oblong, bractes shorter than the flower. Berries like those of the black currant in colour and taste.—Native of Yorkshire.

7. Ribes fragrans, or fragrant currant.—Racemes erect, corollas bell-shaped, leaves bluntly three-lobed, stem ascending, exuding from their under surface a scent similar to that of black currants. Fruit at most the size of the black currant, red, and very sweet.—Native of Siberia, on mountains bordering on Mongolia, where there are no woods.

8. Ribes triste.—Racemes pendulous, corollas flattish, leaves five-lobed. Berries small, black, insipid, full of a blackish-red juice, very excellent for colouring wines.—Native of Siberia.

9. Ribes nigrum, or common black currant.—The common black currant is distinguished by its humble habit, its strong smelling leaves glandular underneath, its hairy racemes, tubular calyx, and black fruit, but especially by its solitary, one-flowered peduncle at the base of the raceme, and distinct from it.

The buds are glandular; the bractes woolly and as long as the pedicels; the flowers villose; the petioles also subvillose and glandular.—It is a native of most parts of Europe, especially the more northern parts; also of Siberia, especially the subalpine regions, by river-sides and in woods; where the bunches and berries are very large and sapid; and of woods in the northern parts of Russia. In Britain it is found in wet hedges, on the banks of rivers, in alder-swamps, and sometimes in woods; flowering in May.

The Russians make a wine of the berries alone, or fermented with honey, with or without spirits; or they mix the expressed juice with spirit drawn from wheat. They make a drink also of the leaves in Siberia.

10. Ribes floridum, or American black currant.—Racemes pendulous, flowers cylindrical, bractes longer than the germ (scarcely longer than the flower), leaves dotted on both sides. According to Pallas, it agrees exactly with ribes nigrum in its form and manner of growth, but differs in having the racemes a span in length, erect, not pendulous; and the leaves, bark, and berries without any smell. Berries black, oblong; the pulp purplish, having a vinous smell, and a taste like strawberries.—Native of Pennsylvania.

II. Prickly. Grossulariæ or Gooseberries.

11. Ribes diacantha, or two-spined gooseberry.—Prickles in pairs, stipular, flowers in racemes, leaves wedgeform-three-parted, toothed. This is a sort of intermediate species between the currants and gooseberries; it has a pair of prickles only at the buds; in other parts it is unarmed. Berries dusky red when ripe, of a sweetish acid flavour, having four, or sometimes five, flattened seeds.—Native of Siberia; flowering in May. The berries dried are used there as we do the currants of Zante.

12. Ribes saxatile, or mountain gooseberry.—Prickles scattered, leaves wedgeform, obtusely three-lobed, racemes erect. 13. Ribes reclinatum, or procumbent gooseberry.—Branches somewhat prickly, reclining, bracte of the peduncle three-leaved. 14. Ribes grossularia, or rough-fruited gooseberry. —Branches prickly, petioles hairy, peduncles one-flowered, bractes two, fruit hairy.

15. Ribes uva crispa, or smooth-fruited gooseberry.—Branches prickly, peduncles one-flowered, bractes connate-tubulous, fruit smooth. Buds woolly. Calyx bent back. Peduncle woolly. Bracte ovate, embracing, generally with three divisions. Flowers solitary, pendant. Stipules ciliate with knobbed hairs. A triple thorn beneath the buds. Berry crowned with the permanent calyx, peduncled, pulpy, subdiaphanous, pale, amber-coloured, red or purple, smooth; the pulp watery and sweet. Receptacles formed of the skin of the berry thickened, oblong, narrow; with filiform umbilical chords, the length of the seeds, and inserted into their inner and blunter extremity. Seeds as far as thirty, ovate-oblong, with a pellucid jelly about them, rufescent.

This differs from the preceding only in the smoothness of the berries, in having the bractes united into a tube at the base, and the hairs of the petioles glandular: all fallacious and uncertain marks.—Native of Europe, especially the northern parts. It is common in Cambridgeshire, Norfolk, and other counties of England, but only in hedges, on walls and old buildings, and decaying trees, where the seeds have been deposited by birds: or if it be found sometimes in woods, it has got there by the same chance.

The varieties now best known, are—Of the red; the hairy, smooth, deep red, damson or dark-red blueish, red raspberry, early black-red, Champaigne, &c.—Of the green; hairy, smooth, Gascoigne, raspberry, &c.—Of the yellow; great oval, great amber, hairy amber, early amber, large tawney or Great Mogul, &c.—Of the white; common, white-veined, and large crystal.

Besides these, there is the rumbullion, large ironmonger, smooth ironmonger, hairy globe, and innumerable others, some of very large size, annually raised from seed; weighing from ten to fifteen pennyweights, but there are small ones better tasted. There are said to be upwards of two hundred, at least in name.

16. Ribes oxyacanthoides, or hawthorn-leaved currant.—This has more frequent and milder prickles than the common gooseberry; the leaves are smooth and more deeply cut; the fruit small and round, the size and shape of a currant; colour at first purple, but when ripe dark purple with a blue bloom; it is smooth, on a short slender peduncle; the pulp subacid, dusky purple, with one or two brown seeds, of a round form slightly angular.—Native of Canada. Cultivated, according to Plukenet, by Mr. Reynardson, 1705. It flowers in April and May.

17. Ribes cynosbati, or prickly fruited currant.—This has the appearance of the other species, but the leaves are little gashed. Prickle like a thorn under the axils. Peduncles generally three-flowered. Germ in the flower hairy, but not prickly. It has the corolla of ribes grossularia. Berries the size of a hazel-nut, armed all over with stout prickles.—Native of Canada. Cultivated by Mr. Miller in 1759. It flowers in April.

Propagation and Culture.—These are propagated either by suckers taken from the old plants, by layers, or by cuttings; the latter of which are preferred to the former, because those plants which are produced from suckers are always more disposed to shoot out a great number of suckers from their roots, than such as are raised from cuttings, which generally form much better roots.

RI'BIBE, *s.* [*rubebe*, violon. Lacombe.] A sort of stringed instrument. *Obsolete.* See REBECK.

RIBIERS, a town in the south-east of France, department of the Upper Alps, on the river Bunet, with 1300 inhabitants,

itants, who manufacture woollens, cloth, and hats; 4 miles north-west of Sisteron.

RIBNIK, a town of Prussian Silesia, in the principality of Ratibor. Population 1400; 13 miles east of Ratibor, and 21 north of Teschen.

RIBNIK, a small town of European Turkey, in Walachia, on the river Ribnik. Here a combined force of Austrians under the prince of Saxe-Cobourg, and Russians under Suwarrow, obtained a decisive victory over the Turks, in September 1789. It gave to Suwarrow the epithet of Ribnikskoy; 100 miles south of Jassy, and 112 west of Ismael. Lat. 45. 36. N. long. 27. 4. E.

RIBNIK, a small town of European Turkey, in Walachia, on the Aluta; 44 miles south of Hermannstadt, and 180 south-west of Jassy. Lat. 45. 19. N. long. 24. 8. E.

RIBNIK, a river of Walachia, which runs into the Siret, near Dubravitza, on the borders of Moldavia.

RIBNITZ, a town of Germany, in the grand duchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, on a bay of the Baltic; 12 miles north-east of Rostock. Population 1900.

To RIBROAST, *v. n.* To beat soundly. A burlesque word.—I have been pinched in flesh, and well *ribroasted* under my former masters; but I'm in now for skin and all. *L'Estrange.*

RIBSTON, Great and Little, two hamlets of England, West Riding of Yorkshire, about 4 miles south-east of Knaresborough.

RIBTON, a small village of England, in Cumberland, situated 4 miles east of Workington, on the opposite side of the Derwent.

RIBWORT, *s.* A plant.

RIBY, a village of England, in Lincolnshire; 6 miles west of Grimsby.

RIC, *s.* *Ric* denotes a powerful, rich, or valiant man; as in these verses of Fortunatus:

Hilperice potens, si interpres barbarus adsit,
Adjutor fortis hoc quoque nomen habet.

Hilperic Barbarians a stout helper term. So Alfric is altogether strong; Æthelric, nobly strong or powerful: to the same sense as Polycrates, Crato, Plutarchus, Opimius. *Gibson's Camden.*

RICA, Villa, a city of Chili, which was sacked by the Araucanos Indians in 1559. It is about 66 miles from the Pacific ocean, and 66 north-east of Valdivia. Lat. 39. 9. S. long. 72. 8. W.—There is another town of the same name in Brazil, at the source of the Rio Francisco.

RICARD (Dominic), born at Toulouse in 1741, entered into the congregation of the Christian doctrine, and became a distinguished professor in it. When he quitted that society he took up his residence at Paris, where he employed himself in instructing youth, and in literary pursuits. He was particularly addicted to the study of the Greek language, and engaged in the great task of translating the whole works of Plutarch. From 1783 to 1795 he published his version of that philosopher's "Moral Works," in 17 vols. 12mo.; of the "Lives" he only gave to the public 4 vols. 12mo. They are executed in a very reputable manner, both as to style and sense. He also published a poem, entitled "La Sphere," in eight cantos, 8vo., 1796, which contains a system of astronomy and geography, enriched with notes, and notices of Greek, Latin, and French poems, that treat on astronomical subjects. It is a work more fertile in instruction than poetical beauties. This estimable person, who was distinguished by modest merit, and the practice of all the social virtues, died in 1803.

RICARDO (David), an eminent political writer and distinguished member of the British Parliament, was born on the 19th of April, 1772. His father, a native of Holland, and of very respectable connections, came over on a visit to this country, when young, and preferring it to his own, became naturalized, and settled here. He entered the Stock Exchange; and being a man of good natural abilities, and strict honour and integrity, acquired a respectable fortune and considerable influence in the circle in which he moved. He married, and was the father of several children, of whom the subject of the present memoir, was the third. This son, when very young, was sent to Holland. After two years' absence he returned home, and continued the common school education till his father took him into business. At his intervals of leisure he was allowed any masters for private instruction whom he chose to have; but he had not the benefit of classical education; and it is doubtful whether it would have been a benefit to him, or whether it might not have led his mind to a course of study, in early life, foreign to those habits of deep thinking, which in the end enabled him to develope the most abstruse and intricate subjects, and to be the author of important discoveries, instead of receiving passively the ideas of others.

In the early years of Mr. Ricardo but little appeared in his intellectual progress, which would have led a cursory observer to predict his future eminence. But he was remarkable for solidity and steadiness of character. At the age of fourteen his father began to employ him in the Stock Exchange, where he placed great confidence in him, and gave him such power as is rarely granted to persons considerably older than himself. At the age of sixteen he was entrusted with the care of two of his younger brothers, to convey them to Holland; and neither his father nor his mother felt the smallest anxiety for the charge that was confided to him. When young, Mr. Ricardo showed a taste for abstract and general reasoning; and though he was without any inducement to its cultivation, or rather lay under positive discouragement, yet at the age of nineteen, his mind disclosed a propensity to go to the bottom of the subjects by which it was attracted, and he showed the same manly and open adherence to the opinions which he had deliberately formed, and the same openness to conviction which distinguished his maturer years.

His father was a man whose prejudices were exceedingly strong; and they induced him to take the opinions of his forefathers in points of religion, politics, education, &c. upon faith, and without investigation. Not only did he adopt this rule for himself, but he insisted on its being followed by his children; his son, however, never yielded his assent on any important subject, until after he had thoroughly investigated it. It was, perhaps, in opposing these strong prejudices, that he was first led to that freedom and independence of thought for which he was so remarkable, and which has indeed extended itself to the other branches of his family.

Soon after he had attained the age of twenty-one, Mr. Ricardo married; and this threw him upon his own resources, as he quitted his father at the same time. The general estimation in which he was held now manifested itself. All the most respectable members of the Stock Exchange came forward to testify the high opinion they entertained of him, by their eagerness to assist him in his undertakings.

His success answered his most sanguine expectations; and in a very few years, certainly not wholly without some anxiety at first, he had secured to himself a handsome independence. During this time his mind was chiefly occupied by his business; but as his solicitude for its success lessened, he turned his attention to other subjects.

At this time, or about the age of 25, by the example and instigation of a friend with whom he was then very intimate, his leisure hours were devoted to some of the branches of mathematics, chemistry, geology, and mineralogy. He fitted up a laboratory, formed a collection of minerals, and was one of the original members of the Geological Society, but he never entered very warmly into the study of these subjects, and his interest in them totally vanished, when he became deeply involved in the investigation of his favourite topic.

The talent for obtaining wealth is not held in much estimation, but perhaps in nothing did Mr. Ricardo more evince his extraordinary powers than he did in his business. His complete knowledge of all its intricacies; his surprising quickness

quickness at figures and calculation; his capability of getting through, without any apparent exertion, the immense transactions in which he was concerned; his coolness and judgment, combined certainly with a peculiar series of public events, enabled him to leave all his contemporaries at the Stock Exchange far behind, and to raise himself infinitely higher not only in fortune, but in general character and estimation, than any man had ever done before in that place.

It was not till Mr. Ricardo was somewhat advanced in life that he turned his attention to the subject of political economy. While on a visit at Bath, where he was staying for the benefit of Mrs. Ricardo's health, he took up, and read, the work of Adam Smith. It pleased him; and it is probable that the subject from that time occupied, with the other objects of his curiosity, a share of his thoughts, though it was not till some years after that the fruits of these meditations appeared.

The immense transactions which he had with the Bank of England, in the course of business, tallying with the train of study on which he was then engaged, led Mr. Ricardo to reflect upon the subject of the currency, to endeavour to account for the difference which existed between the value of the coin and the Bank notes, and to ascertain from what cause the depreciation of the latter arose. This occupied much of his attention at the time, and it formed a frequent theme of conversation with those among his acquaintance who were inclined to enter upon it. He was induced to put his thoughts upon paper, without any view at the time to publication.

The late Mr. Perry, proprietor of the Morning Chronicle, was one of the few friends to whom Mr. Ricardo showed his manuscript. Mr. Perry urged him to allow it to be published in the Morning Chronicle; to which, not without some reluctance, Mr. Ricardo consented; and it was inserted in the shape of letters under the signature of R., the first of which appeared on the 6th day of September, 1810. These letters produced various answers; among the rest was one signed by "A Friend to Bank Notes," &c. whom Mr. Ricardo soon after found to be an intelligent friend of his own; and who, from being a warm opponent of the doctrines of Mr. Ricardo, was soon transformed into a complete convert to them.

The interest which the subject excited was a motive with him for enlarging upon it, and publishing his views very shortly after, in the form of a pamphlet, entitled "On the Depreciation of the Currency." Many were the publications which this elicited, some in defence of, and some in opposition to it. To one by Mr. Bosanquet he replied, but not so much with a view to refute the arguments which that gentleman advanced, as to give still further and stronger support to opinions which he thought of great practical utility. Some time after, the late Mr. Horner brought the question before Parliament, and obtained a committee to investigate the subject; the result of the inquiry was a confirmation of Mr. Ricardo's doctrines. The famous Bullion Report coincided mainly with his pamphlet; and the facts elicited from the evidence collected by the Committee afforded practical illustrations of the accuracy of his speculation.

By some, the credit of originating the bullion question is given to Mr. Horner; but though much is due to him for his patient and persevering investigation of the subject, and the very able manner in which he drew up the report, yet to Mr. Ricardo the credit of developing the doctrine of money, in its present perfect state, is mainly to be ascribed.

Among the other effects of this pamphlet, it is not surprising that it should have been the means of introducing Mr. Ricardo to a number of first-rate literary characters. His society was courted by many, and his talents were duly appreciated by all who knew him. About this time, too, he became acquainted with Mr. Mill, the distinguished author of "The History of British India;" an acquaintance which ultimately grew into a warm and sincere attachment.

Mr Ricardo's next essay was on Rent; and the suggestions of Mr. Malthus, who had previously written upon the same subject, were followed up by him so ably, and the true nature of rent was so admirably expounded, that there was little further left for explanation.

It is well known that Mr. Grenfell for some time had been engaged, as a member of Parliament, in the investigation of the affairs of the Bank. Mr. Ricardo took great interest in his proceedings. As his reputation was now high as a writer on the subject of money, he was urged to lend his aid to the work, which was so laudably begun. He expressed great reluctance, from that unfeigned distrust of himself with which he was habitually impressed; at last he yielded to persuasion, and his masterly exposition of the affairs of the Bank, together with his proposal for an economical currency, was the result. The high ascendancy which the Bank directors had acquired over the great mass of proprietors of Bank stock, prevented those few who wished to have their transactions examined into from gaining their point. Many ineffectual attempts had been made: the majority of proprietors still supported the wish of the directors for secrecy; and they, shielding themselves behind that majority, withheld all account of their accumulated gains. Mr. Ricardo took a view of their various transactions; showed what their annual savings ought to have been; and, following up the examination to the time at which he wrote, clearly pointed out to what, under proper management, their accumulation would have amounted.

In this pamphlet, Mr. Ricardo suggested his plan for an economical currency. If there was any suggestion which emanated from him, upon which he seemed to pride himself more than any other, it was certainly this; and his wish to see it brought into effect at the time, induced him to step out of his usual course. He addressed a letter to Mr. Perceval, then Chancellor of the Exchequer, upon the subject; but that gentleman expressed his dissent from Mr. Ricardo's opinions, and on that account declined adopting his advice.

Mr. Ricardo's next undertaking was his work on the Principles of Political Economy and Taxation,—a work abounding with as strong marks of deep thought, and masterly comprehension of a difficult subject, as any that was ever published. The train of arguments is derived from a few luminous principles, and one is so consequent upon another, that the work cannot be examined in detail: it must be taken as a whole, and as such, its conclusions are demonstrated with almost mathematical precision. Mr. Ricardo never courted notoriety: at first he shrunk from it, not so much because he undervalued it, as from a distrust, which not even success removed, of his powers. When he became sensible that he was held in some estimation, he seemed satisfied with what he had obtained, and was unwilling to risk it by a desire to accomplish more. These considerations made him very reluctant, first to write, and afterwards to publish this work; and it was only by the successive urgings of some of his most confidential friends, but particularly through the influence of Mr. Mill, that he was at length prevailed upon to do so. The success which followed amply compensated him; and this book, upon a subject which had heretofore not been popular, in a very short time passed through three editions, and placed the author in the highest rank as a philosophical writer.

Mr. Ricardo had now wholly retired from business, with an ample fortune, acquired without exciting any of those envious and unpleasant feelings which usually attend upon those who precede their competitors. No one who knew him ever talked of his possessions without, at the same time, acknowledging that he had earned them fairly, and was worthy of them. In the year 1819 he became member of parliament for Portarlington; and perhaps few men, in so short a time, ever attained such influence, and, without eloquence, commanded such attention as he did in the House of Commons. He never spoke upon any subjects, but with a view to communicate ideas which he deemed important; and then he always spoke to the point. He was of no party, and at all times advocated such principles as he held to be sound and true, whether on the ministerial or the opposition side.

side, or at variance with both. Attachment to party has generally made a neutral station a place of contempt, and those who have taken it have seldom obtained much consideration. Not so with Mr. Ricardo: his independance was truly appreciated. Not courting popularity, not wanting or seeking anything from either side of the House, he stood aloof and claimed the respect and admiration of both. During the session, Mr. Ricardo's whole time was devoted to his duties as a member of parliament. His mornings were spent in study, in receiving visitors, in answering correspondents, or in attendance upon some committee; and in the evening he never missed going to the House. During the recess, he usually retired to his seat at Gatcomb Park, in Gloucestershire, where, in the bosom of his family, he spent his time in the enjoyment of contributing to the happiness of all around him. In the recess of 1822 he went to the Continent; travelled with his family through Holland, Germany, Switzerland, and Italy, and returned home, after an absence of five months, through France.

Mr. Ricardo never appeared more cheerful, or in better health, than he did during his last retirement in the country, just previous to his death. This premature event was occasioned by an affection of the ear, which ultimately extended itself to the internal part of the head. Mr. Ricardo had for many years not been entirely free from this complaint, of which he thought but slightly; for it had never before occasioned him any very serious inconvenience. He was attended through his last illness by one of his brothers, who had retired from the medical profession, and who was then on a visit to him. There were no symptoms that could excite the smallest anxiety about his recovery, till a very short time before his decease. He died on Thursday, the 11th of September, 1823, and was buried at Hardenhuish.

High as has been the testimony publicly borne to the merits of Mr. R. since his death, it has not exceeded what he deserved. His private worth kept pace with those public qualities which earned him so great an estimation. To intellectual powers of the first order, he joined a candour, a modesty, a diffidence, which never allowed him to assume to himself a merit which he felt he did not deserve;—a love of justice which never permitted him to be influenced by his feelings, or biassed by any circumstances that might divert him from doing that which he thought strictly right;—a disinterestedness which made him always regardless of his own personal benefit, in the maintenance of general principles. When a Bank proprietor, he argued strenuously and warmly against the inordinate gains of that body; he defended the cause of the fund-holders when he had ceased to be one; he was accused of an attempt to ruin the landed interest after he became a large landed proprietor; and while a member of parliament, he advocated the cause of reform, which, if adopted, would have deprived him of his seat. Superior to the misleading power of self-interest, his aim was the dissipation of erroneous, and the promulgation of true and correct principles, the adoption of which should tend to the amelioration of mankind, and the production of the greatest possible good. *Annual Biography.*

RICARAS, a tribe of Indians who live near the Missouri, but who have been reduced by the small pox.

RICCALL, a parish of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles north-by-east of Selby. Population 518.

RICCARTON, a small village of Scotland, in West-Lothian, about 3 miles south from Linlithgow.

RICCARTOUN, a parish of Scotland, in the district of Kyle, Ayrshire; 6 miles long, and 2 broad. Population 1840.

RICCARTOUN, a village of the above parish, immediately adjoining Kilmarnock. The manufacturing of carpets and cotton goods is the principal business carried on here.

RICAUT or Rycaut (Sir Paul), a well-known historical writer, was the youngest son of Sir Peter Ricaut, Knight, who was probably a merchant in London. The time and place of the birth and education of Paul are unknown, but he appears to have travelled during several years, in Europe, Asia, and Africa. When the Earl of Winchelsea, in 1661, was sent ambassador extraordinary to the Ottoman Porte, he took Ricaut with him as his secretary, who remained eight years in that post. In 1663, he published the treaty or capitulation concluded between Charles II. and the Turkish Sultan, in which was the favourable article, that English ships should be exempted from search for foreign goods. After this commission was expired, he was appointed English consul at Smyrna, which office he filled about eleven years, to the entire satisfaction of the Turkey-company, and with the regard of all the Europeans in that city. Upon his return, he employed himself in literary occupations, till, in 1685, he accompanied the Earl of Clarendon, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland, as his secretary for Leinster and Connaught. He was also nominated by James II. one of his privy-council for Ireland, and Judge of the Admiralty Court, and received the honour of knighthood. Soon after the Revolution, he was sent by King William as his resident to the Hanse-Towns, in which post he continued ten years. He returned to England in 1700, and died in that year, worn out with age and long services. From his employment by Kings and parties so different in politics, it may be inferred that he was a man who prudently confined himself to his proper business, and made himself useful to all by his talents and industry. He was well acquainted with the learned languages, with the Turkish and modern Greek, the Italian, Spanish, and French.

The first publication of Ricaut's, was a work composed in Turkey, entitled, "The present State of the Ottoman Empire," 1670, fol., and 1675, 8vo.; this contains much valuable information respecting the civil and military state of that country, though not without mistakes. One error, which has been noted, is his assertion that the Mahometan women have no expectation of paradise. During his residence at Smyrna, he drew up, by command of Charles II., "The present State of the Greek and Armenian Churches," 1678. After his return to England, he composed his principal work, which was a continuation of "Knolles's General History of the Turks;" this he brought down from 1623 to 1677, in one vol. fol., printed 1680; and from 1679 to 1699 in another vol. fol., 1700. This performance displays the knowledge of Turkish affairs that might be expected from his long residence in the East, but is inferior in historic merit to the work of Knolles. He further gave a continuation of "Platina's Lives of the Popes," from 1471 to his own time, which was annexed to an English translation of Platina, published in 1685; and he translated from the Spanish, "The Royal Commentaries of Peru, by Garcilasso de la Vega." A work called "The Spanish Critick," also passes under his name; and a paper of his, relative to the gregarious mice of Norway, is printed in the Transactions of the Royal Society, of which he was a member. *Biogr. Brit.*

RICCATI (Vincent), a learned Italian Jesuit, who flourished in the 18th century, was born at Castel-Franco, in the territory of Treviso, about the year 1707. His genius inclining him chiefly to the study of the mathematical sciences, he cultivated them with so much success, that his superiors selected him as a proper person to teach them to others. Accordingly, he was placed in the mathematical chair in their college at Bologna, which he filled with reputation till the suppression of the order in 1773. This event he did not long survive: for, having retired to his native place, he died of a colic in 1775, when he was about 68 years of age. He was the author of several mathematical works, the most valuable of which is, "A Treatise on the Integral Calculus," in 3 vols. 4to. He did not confine his labours, however, to the abstract or pure mathematics, but also paid particular attention to the study of hydraulics: a branch of science of the greatest importance in all the northern Italian states, where the numerous rivers expose the country to continual inundations. In this line he appears to have rendered considerable services to the Venetian territories, since the republic, in 1774, directed that a gold medal, of the value of forty livres, should be struck in his honour. *Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

RICCI (Bartolomeo), a learned Italian, was born in 1490, at Lugo, in Romagna. He studied under Amaseo, in Bologna, and for further improvement visited Padua and Venice, in which last city he received instructions in Greek from Musuro. He passed some years in the house of Giovanni Cornaro, as preceptor to his son. Returning to his native place, he married in 1534, and for some time kept a school at Ravenna. Through the recommendation of Calcagnini he was invited, in 1539, to the court of Duke Hercules II. of Ferrara, to undertake the education of the Princes Alfonso and Luigi. He there acquired the affection of his pupils, and the esteem of the learned, though his high conceit of his own merits, and his critical severity, involved him in some warm controversies. It is said even, that an attempt was made to poison him; he however reached the age of 79, and died in 1569. The principal works of Ricci are Orations and Epistles, the Latin style of which has been much applauded as a happy imitation of that of Cicero: it is, however, unequal, and betrays a want of good taste. His three books "De Imitatione" contain many valuable precepts and observations, but his censures are occasionally exorbitant, as when he condemns all the poems of Ovid to the flames. The most laborious of his works is entitled "Apparatus Latinæ Locutionis," being a Latin lexicon in two parts, the first containing the verbs, and the second the nouns with which they are joined. It was printed at Venice in 1533, but had little success, probably on account of its plan. Ricci also wrote a comedy in Italian prose, entitled "Le Balie," which is well spoken of; and some Italian poems which have appeared in collections. *Tiraboschi.*

RICCI (Matthew), an eminent Jesuit missionary, was born of a good family at Macerata in 1552. He was sent to study the law at Rome, where, at the age of 19, he entered into the society of Jesuits. He had not completed his theological studies, when he followed to the East Indies his preceptor, Father Valignan. During his abode at Goa he applied assiduously to the language of China, to which country he was destined. He was furnished with another branch of knowledge necessary in that mission, that of mathematics, which he had acquired at Rome under the celebrated Clavius. In 1583 he arrived at Caoquin, in the province of Canton, where he settled with some brethren. To ingratiate himself with the Chinese, he made a map of the world, in which, whilst he corrected their prejudices with respect to the relative dimensions of their country, he complied with them by altering the meridian so as to place it in the centre. With a similar spirit of compliance, he drew up a Chinese catechism, containing only the precepts of morality and natural religion; judging, perhaps rightly, that to present to them the mysteries of the Catholic faith without previous preparation, would only serve to inspire them with repugnance. His policy, however, did not prevent him from undergoing some persecutions in consequence of Chinese suspicion; and it was not till 1600 that he was able to gain access to the Emperor at Pekin, employing the pretext of bringing him a present of curiosities from Europe. He was well received, and permitted to settle in that capital, where his mathematical skill rendered him acceptable to the court and men of letters. He purchased a house there, and built a church; and the progress, such as it was, which Christianity made in the metropolis of China, was greatly owing to his exertions. He died there in 1610, leaving curious memoirs on China, of which Father Trigault made use in his work "De Christiana expeditione apud Sinas." In the "Lettres Edifiantes" is a dialogue by Ricci between a lettered Chinese and an European, on the necessity of a first cause. Father Orleans, in a life of this missionary, speaks of him as an apostle, a saint, another Xavier. He seems, indeed, to have possessed all the indefatigable zeal of his profession, joined to the peculiar policy of his order. *Moreri. Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

RICCI (Sebastian,) an eminent painter, was born in 1659 at Belluno, in the Venetian territory. He was placed at an early age with a painter at Venice, and afterwards visited Bologna and other cities for improvement. His reputation procured for him the patronage of Rannuccio II., Duke of Parma, who maintained him liberally at Rome, where he completed his studies. By the exercise of his art at Milan and Venice he rendered himself so advantageously known, that he was invited by the court of Vienna for the purpose of decorating the palace of Schoenbrun. The Duke of Tuscany next drew him to Florence; and he was afterwards induced (by the persuasion of his nephew Marco, says Mr. Walpole; others say, by invitation of the Queen,) to visit England, where he continued ten years, much employed by the court and nobility. Among his works in this country are the chapel at Chelsea-college, and the staircase at Montague-house. He then returned to Venice, where he passed the remainder of his days, executing a great number of pictures which were bespoken from different countries. He acquired wealth and distinction, and was regarded as an honour to his profession. In his latter years he was afflicted with the stone, and submitted to the operation of lithotomy, shortly after which he died, in 1734, at the age of 75. This master was grand in his ideas, fertile in invention, and ready in execution: his compositions are well studied, and his colouring is agreeable, though somewhat too dark. The great number of works he undertook obliged him to consult his imagination rather than nature, so that he is deficient in correctness. Many of his principal performances are in the churches of Venice. Several of his Scripture-pieces have been engraved. *D'Argenville. Pilkington. Walpole's Anecd.*

RICCI (Michael-Angelo), an Italian cardinal, and able mathematician in the 17th century, was descended from a noble family originally from Bergamo, and born at Rome in the year 1619. His studies in the mathematics, were directed by Torricelli, during the temporary residence of that philosopher at Rome. After Torricelli left Rome, he maintained a regular correspondence with Ricci, who proved and illustrated in a happy manner several of his new theorems. In the year 1666, Ricci published a little work, entitled, "Exercitatio Geometrica," &c., in which he determined, in a purely geometrical manner, the tangents, and the *maxima* and *minima* of curves, chiefly compared with conic sections of the first order. This piece was reprinted by the Royal Society of London, as a treatise of the greatest utility; and it was warmly applauded by some of the most distinguished mathematicians of the age. The author announced his intention of pursuing his enquiries on the subject of these curves, and of other essential points in geometry; but, having been induced to enter into the church, he relinquished his mathematical pursuits, and wholly devoted his attention to the assiduous study of divinity, and the duties of his new profession. He filled several ecclesiastical stations. At length, in the year 1681, Pope Innocent XI. raised him to the purple: an honour which he sincerely wished to decline, but was compelled to accept by the Pontiff's absolute command. He possessed it, however, only for a short period, as he died in 1682, at the age of 64, highly respected for his learning, his virtue, and unaffected modesty. One of his "Dissertations" is preserved in "Cardinal Brancaccio's Works;" another in Charles Dati's "Epistola ad Philalethos;" and one of his "Letters" in the first vol. of the collection entitled, "Lettere memorabili." *Landi's Hist. de Lit. de l'Italie. Bayle.*

RICCIA, a town of Naples, in the province of Molise, with 4300 inhabitants.

RICCIA (so named in honour of one Pietro Riccio), in botany, a genus of the class cryptogamia, order hepaticæ.—Generic Character.—Male flowers sessile on the surface of the frond. Calyx and corolla none. Stamina: anthers conical, truncate, sessile, opening at the top. Female flowers on the same, or according to Micheli, on a distinct plant. Calyx none, except a vesicular cavity, within the substance of the leaf. Corolla none. Pistil: germ turbinate. Style filiform, erect, reaching the surface of the frond or exceeding it. Stigma simple. Pericarp: capsule sessile, globular, one-celled, at the apex of the leaf, crowned with the style. Seeds very many (twenty to thirty) hemispherical.—The little

little bodies which Micheli takes for the anthers, seem to Schreber not to be different from the other papillæ on the surface of the frond, except in size. He conjectures that the tube on the germ is the anther, and the little granules within it, the pollen. He recommends the examination to be made before the germ becomes spherical. Linnæus has five species, all natives of Europe. Withering as also the same number, natives of Britain, one of which, namely R. fruticulosa, is the same with jungermannia furcata of Linnæus. Swartz has added another species (R. reticulata) from Jamaica; figured by Dillenius as a Lichenoides, in t. 19. f. 21. These plants were formerly known under the names lichen, lichenastrum, and hepatica.

RICCIOLI (John-Baptist), a learned Italian Jesuit, and an eminent philosopher, astronomer, and mathematician, in the 17th century, was born at Ferrara, a city belonging to the papal jurisdiction, in the year 1598. At the age of sixteen, he commenced his noviciate in the society of Jesus; and as he was distinguished by uncommon talents, together with indefatigable application, he made a rapid and astonishing progress in all the branches of literature and science. When he had completed his course of academical studies, he was selected to teach successively rhetoric, polite learning, philosophy, and scholastic divinity, in the Jesuit's colleges at Parma and Bologna. While he discharged the duties of these appointments with great success and reputation, he devoted his leisure hours to the study of geography, hydrography, chronology, experimental philosophy, and astronomy. These were the subjects best adapted to his genius and inclination; and at length his superiors permitted him to quit all other employments, that he might apply himself wholly to these sciences. In experimental philosophy he had an excellent associate in Father Francis Grimaldi, a member of the same society, who united with him in making curious experiments on the fall of bodies, which confirmed the law of acceleration, invented by Galileo, and fixed by Balliani. During the dispute which took place in his time, respecting the correctness of the Gregorian reformation of the calendar, he enlisted himself among the advocates for the reform, and published some little pieces on the subject at Bologna, under the name of Michael Manfredi. His principal attention, however, was occupied on productions of greater magnitude. He projected a grand work which was to be divided into three parts, containing a complete system of philosophical, mathematical, and astronomical knowledge. The first of these parts was given by him to the public in 1651, in two large and closely printed volumes folio, under the title of "Almagestum Novum, Astronomiam veteram Novamque Complectens." &c. In imitation of the "Almagest" of Ptolemy, it presents us with a collection of the discoveries and improvements in astronomical science, from the earliest ages of antiquity to the author's own time, so ably digested, that Gassendi pronounced it to be "Promptuarium et Thesaurum ingentem Astronomiæ," and Montucla calls it "a Treasure of Erudition and Astronomical Science." This part is divided into ten books, treating of the sphere of the world, the elementary sphere, the sun, the moon, eclipses, the fixed stars, the planets, comets, and new stars, the several systems of the world, and general problems relating to astronomy. From a table of contents which is prefixed to this part, it appears that the second part was to be divided into five books, treating of trigonometry, or the doctrine of plane and spherical triangles, astronomical instruments, the optical part of astronomy, geography, and chronology; and the third part into ten books, comprehending observations of the sun, of the moon, of eclipses, of the fixed stars, and planets, with precepts and tables of the primary and secondary motions, and other astronomical tables. But if these parts were completed by the author, they do not appear to have been ever published. In the year 1661, he presented to the world his "Geographiæ et Hydrographiæ Reformatæ, Libri XII.," in folio; and in 1665, his "Astronomiæ Reformatæ Tomi duo," folio, two volumes in one. In the last-mentioned work, he compares together all the best observations of astronomers, and, after examining what is most certain in them, proceeds upon that foundation to reform the principles of astronomy. The last work which he published made its appearance in 1669, under the title of "Chronologia Reformata, et ad certas Conclusiones Redacta," folio, two volumes in one. Father Riccioli died in 1671, when about seventy-three years of age. *Landi's Hist. de la Lit. de l'Italie. Moreri.*

RICCOBONI (Louis), a comic actor and writer, born at Modena in 1674, devoted himself to the theatre under the name of Lelio. In 1716 he came to France with his family, and distinguished himself as the best actor at the Théatre Italien. Religious motives induced him to quit the stage in 1729, and he died in 1753, much esteemed for the decency of his manners, and his amiable disposition. He was the author of a number of comedies composed for the theatre to which he belonged, and which, though drawn from characters in low life, and tainted with the fashionable false wit of play on words, had a temporary success, and contain real comic humour. One of them, entitled "Les Caquets," was revived a few years since. He also wrote "Pensées sur la Déclamation;" "Discours sur la Réformation du Théatre;" "Observations sur la Comédie et sur le génie de Molière;" "Réflections Historiques et Critiques sur les Théatres de l'Europe;" and "Histoire du Théatre Italien;" works which display good sense and information. *Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

RICCOBONI (Marie Laboras de Mezieres), second wife of the preceding, was born at Paris in 1714. After her marriage she became an actress on the Italian theatre, which she quitted with her husband. She contributed by the purity of her taste to the improvement of his comedies, and made herself extensively known by several novels written with much elegance of style and refinement of sentiment. Some of the principal of these are "Lettres de Miladi Catesby;" "Lettres de la Comtesse de Sancerre;" "Lettres de Sophie de Valiere;" "Ernestine;" "Lettres de Milord Rivers." She also translated Fielding's Amelia, and she appears to have had a predilection for England, in which the scene of several of her novels is laid. She was in habits of intimate correspondence with Garrick. The works of Mad. Riccoboni were printed collectively in ten volumes 12mo. Neufchatel, and 9 volumes 12mo. Paris. They rank among the most elegant and ingenious of the class, and display much knowledge of the tender affections, and great decency joined to vivacity. Several of her novels have been translated into English. This estimable woman died in 1792, reduced by the troubles of the time to a state approaching to want. *Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

RICE, *s.* [*oryza*, Lat. ὀρύζα, Gr. from the Arabic word *rouz.*] One of the esculent grains: it is somewhat like barley, and is cultivated in most Eastern countries.—*Rice* is the food of two thirds of mankind; it is kindly to human constitutions, proper for the consumptive, and those subject to hæmorrhages. *Arbuthnot.*

For the cultivation of Rice, see Oryza.

RICE, Lake, a lake of Canada; 6 miles north from Lake Ontario, with a portage between them.

RICEBOROUGH, a town of the United States, and capital of Liberty county, Georgia, situated on Newport river, and containing about 30 houses.

RICERCARE, [*ricercata*, Ital.] A research, a flourish, a prelude, an impromptu, a voluntary.

RICEVILLE, a post village of the United States, in Rowan county, Tennessee.

RICEYS, Les, a town of France, department of the Aube, on the small river Laigue. Though small, it consists of three distinct but adjacent places, Ricey-Haut, Ricey-Hauterive, and Ricey le Bas, whose aggregate population is about 4000. The environs are noted for their excellent wine; 8 miles south of Bar-sur-Seine, and 26 south-east of Troyes.

RICH, *adj.* [ric, rice, riche, Saxon; *rice*, old Fr. *riche*, modern; *ricco*, Ital. *rik*, Su. *rikr*, Icel. from the M. Goth. *reiks*, a prince, a ruler, according to Serenius.] Wealthy; abounding in wealth; abounding in money or possessions; opulent; opposed to *poor*.

I am as *rich* in having such a jewel,
As twenty seas, if all their sand were pearl. *Shakspeare.*

Valuable;

Valuable; estimable; precious; splendid; sumptuous.

Earth, in her *rich* attire,
Consummate lovely smil'd. *Milton.*

Having any ingredients or qualities in a great quantity or degree.

So we th' Arabian coast do know
At distance, when the spices blow,
By the *rich* odour taught to steer,
Though neither day nor star appear. *Waller.*

Fertile; fruitful.

There are, who, fondly studious of increase,
Rich foreign mould on their ill natured land
Induce. *Phillips.*

Abundant; plentiful.

The gorgeous East with *richest* hand
Pours on her sons barbarick, pearl and gold. *Milton.*

Abounding; plentifully stocked: as, pastures *rich* in flocks. Having something precious.—Groves whose *rich* trees wept odorous gums and balms. *Milton.*

To RICH, *v. a.* [from the noun. Dr. Johnson gives the word in the passage from Shakspeare's K. Lear as an adjective. But to *rich* is certainly one of our old verbs.] To enrich. *Obsolete.*

Then he shall be *riched* so,
That it maie faile nevermo. *Gower.*

To *ritch* his country, let his words lyke flowing water fall. *Drant.*

Of all these bounds,
With shadowy forests, and with champions *rich'd*,
With plenteous rivers and wide-skirted meads,
We make thee lady. *Shakspeare.*

RICHARD I.; his reign and character, see ENGLAND, 576. His exploits in the Holy Land, see EGYPT, 323.—RICHARD II., see ENGLAND, 602, 606.—RICHARD III., see ENGLAND, 620, 625.

RICHARD (John), a French advocate and theological writer in the 17th and the early part of the 18th centuries, was born at Verdun, in Lorraine, about the year 1638. The first part of his education he received at Pont-à-Mousson, and was then sent to Paris, where he studied law and divinity. Afterwards he was admitted an advocate at Orleans; but more for the sake of possessing the rank and privileges connected with that title, than from any design to practise at the bar. His inclination led him to devote his time and talents to the composition and publishing of sermons. By his numerous productions of this description he acquired celebrity. In the year 1700, he began to publish a compilation, under the title of "A Moral Dictionary, or, Universal Pulpit-Science," which, in 1715, was extended to 6 vols. 8vo. It consists of striking sentiments and reasonings on a great variety of subjects, selected from the works of French, Spanish, Italian, German, and other divines, arranged in alphabetical order.

RICHARD (of St. Victor), a celebrated divine and Scripture commentator in the 12th century, was a native of Scotland, who went to pursue his studies at the University of Paris. According to Cave, his fame as a writer commenced about the year 1150. In 1164, he was elected prior of his monastery; where he died in the year 1173, equally respected for his virtues as for his learned attainments. Concerning his merits as a writer, Dupin observes, that "he shews a great deal of subtlety in his theological treatises, and argues methodically, with an exactness becoming an able logician. His critical pieces are very accurate, for the time in which he lived. His style, however, is not very elevated; on which account his pious treatises, though abounding in excellent matter, are greatly deficient in weight and energy." His works consist of critical observations and remarks on some of the historical parts of the Old Testament, relating to the tabernacle, and the temple of Solomon; allegorical and moral "Commentaries" on several of the Psalms, the Song of Songs, and the Apocalypse; questions on certain difficult passages of St. Paul's epistles, and other parts of the Bible, part of which is printed among the works of Hugh of St. Victor; and numerous critical, doctrinal, and practical treatises, which are particularized by Cave. The whole of them have been frequently printed in a collective form; and the best edition is said to be that of Rouen, in 1650, in 2 vols. folio. *Cave's Hist. Lit.*

RICHARD'S CASTLE, a parish of England, in Herefordshire; 7 miles north of Leominster. Population 582.

RICHARDIA, (so named by Linnæus, from one Richardson); in botany, a genus of the class hexandria, order monogynia, natural order of stellatæ, rubiaceæ, (*Juss.*) Generic Character.—Calyx: perianth one-leafed, six-parted, erect, acuminate, shorter by half than the corolla. Corolla one petalled, cylindric-funnel-shaped; border six-cleft, acute, erect. Stamina: filaments six, very short. Anthers roundish, small, at the incisures of the corolla. Pistil: germ inferior. Style filiform, the length of the stamens, three-parted at top. Stigmas blunt. Pericarp none. Seeds three, round on one side, angular on the other, at top wider, gibbous. It varies, according to Gærtner, with the calyx and corolla eight-cleft, and eight stamens.—*Essential Character.*—Calyx six parted. Corolla one-petalled, subcylindric. Seeds three.

1. Richardia scabra.—Stem high, brachiate, somewhat jointed, obsoletely four-cornered, hispid with stiffish scattered reflex hairs. Leaves lanceolate-ovate, alternately nerved, quite entire, subpetioled, rugged. Flowers in terminating heads, and also heaped into whorls; the former radiate with four or more leaves, alternately larger and smaller. Corollets as in asperula, slender and long, but six-cleft, and the fruit consisting of three seeds: thus it differs from Spermacoce in number and other circumstances.—Found by Houstoun at Vera Cruz.

RICHARDSON (Jonathan), a painter and a writer, was born about 1665. He was apprenticed to a scrivener in London; but when he became free on the death of his master, after six years' service, he pursued his natural inclination for the arts of design, and entered as a pupil with Riley the portrait painter, whose niece he afterwards married. He acquired as much professional skill as a late and defective education, and the want of genius, could promise, being reckoned one of the best English painters of a head that had hitherto appeared; but there his excellence ended, for he drew nothing well below it, and was void of imagination, dignity, and grace. From the state of the art at that period, however, he was able to rise to the summit of his profession after the death of Kneller and Dahl. He would not have been entitled to biographical commemoration as an artist, had he not displayed considerable judgment and feeling in his writings. He published in 1719 two discourses in an 8vo. volume, entitled "An Essay on the whole Art of Criticism as it relates to Painting;" and "An Argument in Behalf of the Science of a Connoisseur." He had a son, who received an advantage which the father wanted, that of a classical education, and who travelled into Italy. They jointly published, in 1722, "An Account of some of the Statues, Bas-reliefs, Drawings and Pictures in Italy, &c., with Remarks by Mr. Richardson, senior and junior," which is a valuable performance. The style of the elder, who was a formal man, is stiff and full of singularities and quaintnesses which excited some ridicule; but it is strongly expressive, and his observations are instructive and judicious. The father and son, who were united in cordial affection, published together in 1734 "Explanatory Notes and Remarks on Milton's Paradise Lost, with the Life of the Author, and a Discourse on the Poem," 8vo. Of the notes, Bishop Newton says, "There are strange inequalities in them, some extravagances, and many excellences; there is often better sense than grammar or English; and he sometimes hits the true meaning of the author surprisingly, and explains it properly." Richardson also attempted poetry, and a volume of his poems was published in 1776, with notes by his son. They are chiefly on moral and religious topics, and have little poetical merit

merit; "Yet (says Mr. Walpole) such a picture of a good mind, serene in conscious innocence, is scarcely to be found. It is imposible not to love the author, or not to wish to be as sincerely and intentionally virtuous." Richardson quitted business some years before his death, and although he had suffered a paralytic stroke in one arm, he was capable of enjoying life till his sudden decease in 1745, at the age of 80. His son, who practised painting occasionally, and was also a worthy character, died in 1771. When his drawings were sold, there were hundreds of portraits in chalk by the father of both himself and his son, and it appeared that after his retirement he was accustomed every day to draw his own or his son's portrait, and to write a short poem. *Walpole's Anecd. of Painting. Newton's Milton.*

RICHARDSON (Samuel), a very distinguished novelist, was born in 1689, in Derbyshire, to which county his father had retired from the business of a joiner, which he had carried on in London. An early gravity and sedateness of disposition caused him to be destined by his father for the church; but, on account of pecuniary losses, the latter found it impossible to give his son the requisite education; and the learning of a common school was all that Samuel ever obtained. A fondness for such reading as he could command, however, characterized him from childhood, together with a faculty of inventing stories for the entertainment of his companions. He also, when a mere boy, displayed the more uncommon quality at that age, of a love for *letter-writing*, which he afterwards brought so much into fashion. To those who take pleasure in tracing the early indications of atlents and propensities which are the ground-work of future celebrity, it will be a precious anecdote that Richardson, at the age of 13, was the confidant of three young women in their love secrets, and was employed by them to give utterance to their tender sentiments in draughts of letters to their lovers; and that such was his fidelity and discretion, that not one of them suspected him to be the secretary of the others. When it became necessary to chuse for him a calling, that of a printer was fixed upon, as congenial with his literary turn, and in 1706 he was bound apprentice to Mr. Wilde, of Stationers'-hall. Here he passed seven years with a master who, as he says, "grudged every hour to him that tended not to his profit;" and, as he was extremely conscientious in performing all the duties to which he was bound, he stole from the hours allowed to rest and recreation his times for mental improvement. One exercise that, doubtless, proved a valuable preparation for the mode of writing which afterwards gave him so much celebrity, was a copious correspondence with a gentleman of large fortune and in a station much superior to his own, who excelled in the epistolary style. After the expiration of his apprenticeship, he passed five or six years as compositor, corrector, and foreman, in a printing-office; and at length set up for himself, first in a court in Fleet-street, and then in Salisbury-court. His habits of diligence and accuracy, and his honourable dealing, soon gained him employers and friends; and the superiority of his attainments to those of mere printers by trade, caused him to be applied to by booksellers for making indexes, and writing prefaces and dedications. The immediate occasion of his becoming a novel-writer was an application made to him by two booksellers, his particular friends, to write for them a volume of Letters in a common style, on subjects that might serve as models for the use of those who had not the talent of inditing for themselves. He extended the idea to the conveying of instruction in thinking and acting upon important occasions; and, in composing some letters for the salutary purpose of teaching girls going out to service how to avoid the snares that might be laid against their chastity, a story which he had heard of a real occurrence, became the parent of "Pamela." It was probably his old predilection for letter-writing, and acquired facility in it, that suggested to him the novelty of telling the whole story by means of letters; a mode which he practised in his two other works of the kind, and which has since been frequently imitated. He began to write Pamela in the close of 1739, and within two months, in the midst of other engagements, finished the two volumes of which the work first consisted—such was the fluency of his pen and his invention! When published in 1740, it was received with extraordinary applause by readers of all ranks. The novelty of the plan, the simplicity of the language, the pathetic incidents of the story, and the sentiments of piety and virtue that it was the author's great object to inculcate, rendered it universally interesting, and gave it a place among works of edification as well as of amusement. It was at the same time recommended from the pulpit, and made a topic of conversation at polite assemblies.

Pamela brought Richardson into notice; but "Clarissa," of which the first two volumes appeared in 1748, placed him in the first rank of novellists. "A tale so varied by character, so minutely developing the movements of the human heart, so pathetic in its circumstances, and presenting so sublime and perfect an image of female purity, had never before been given to the public. The interest it excited during its progressive appearance, especially among female readers, was incredible: the fate of no real personage could have agitated more bosoms than that of the fictitious heroine. Its protracted length of eight full volumes, whilst it undoubtedly is apt to become wearisome, yet affords such scope for an intimate acquaintance with all the characters, and so realizes them and their concerns to the reader, that the sense of tediousness is lost in sympathetic emotion. The admirers of this work were not confined to the author's countrymen. When made known on the continent by translations, it was regarded as a first-rate production of genius, and raised the name of Richardson to the level of the most applauded writers of the age." Perhaps, indeed, its most enthusiastic admirers have been found in countries where the delicacies of moral painting and the refinements of sentiment have borne their highest value. Rousseau, whose great excellence lay in a similar walk, speaking, in a letter to D'Alembert, of this work, asserts that "nothing was ever written equal or approaching to it in any language."

The "History of Sir Charles Grandison," his concluding performance, appeared in 1753. As in Clarissa, he had represented the female character in its perfection, he now aimed to give the world an example of a perfect man, uniting the fine gentleman and the Christian. This arduous task he undertook in seven volumes, more copious in character and incident than Clarissa, but written in the same minute circumstantial manner. It was a proof of the author's popularity and high reputation, that the reading world was immediately divided into parties respecting the comparative merit of Clarissa and Grandison; it seems, however, that the interest excited by the latter was not equal to that by the former; which may be accounted for partly from the less pathetic nature of the tale, and partly from a kind of satiety with the writer's mode of composition. Yet Grandison is a work of more compass, invention, and entertainment; and the part of Clementina has, perhaps, no equal in delicate delineation. This was likewise translated into foreign languages, and received with great applause. With respect to all Richardson's works, it may be remarked that the matter receives no advantage from the style, which is of a low order, inelegant, gossiping, and verbose. It was, indeed, hardly possible that one who wrote so much and so rapidly should be choice in his expressions, nor had his education qualified him for the rank of a fine writer.

Whilst he was thus advancing in the career of literary fame, he was by no means inattentive to that improvement of his fortune which his assiduity and integrity in his profession so well merited. He had been for some time a printer of newspapers, but his first great public employment was that of printing the Journals of the House of Commons, in 26 volumes folio, which he obtained through the friendship of the Speaker Onslow. In 1754, he rose to be master of the Stationers' Company, and, in 1760, he purchased a moiety of the patent of law-printer to his Majesty. As he grew rich, he indulged himself with a country residence, first at North-End, Hammersmith, and then at Parson's-Green. No man ever enjoyed prosperity more rationally or honourably

honourably. His heart and hand were always open to do good: his charities were large, his manner of living was generous and hospitable. After the death of his first wife, in 1731, he took for a second the sister of Mr. Leake, a bookseller at Bath, a valuable woman, with whom he lived in the same harmony that had marked his first conjugal union, and who survived him. He had many children, but had the misfortune to lose all his sons; and four daughters alone grew up to solace his declining years. When his writings had rendered him, as it were, the patron of the female sex, he had many amiable young friends of that sex, who were frequent visitors at his house, and who formed a circle of affectionate admirers, in which it was his delight to read his works in the progress of composition, and attend to the remarks of his auditors. And if, on these occasions, he indulged in a little vanity of applause, it was surely a pardonable foible in its association with so much kindness and solid worth. Several of these visitors were women of excellent understandings and various accomplishments, and the circle was beyond comparison more respectable than that in which Swift passed his trifling and misanthropical old age. Richardson was rather silent and reserved in mixed company, and probably never got over the bashfulness incident to a man of feeling who has risen to notice beyond what his original rank in society could claim. He had also an independent soul, and did not value the acquaintance of his superiors enough to court it. His courtesy (of which no man had a greater share) was bestowed on his equals; and it is an amiable picture that one of his correspondents draws of him, when he says, "I think I see you sitting at your door like an old patriarch, and inviting all who pass by to come in." Nor did he limit his benevolence to the common exercise of hospitality; he was the substantial, valuable friend in difficulty, distress, and sickness. In temperance both of mind and body, piety, and the faithful discharge of every moral duty, he was most exemplary. This estimable person was afflicted with a train of nervous disorders in his latter years, which at length terminated in an apoplectic seizure, that carried him off in July, 1761, at the age of 72. He was interred according to his own directions, by the side of his first wife, in the church of St. Bride.

The writings of Richardson, exclusive of his three novels, were of no great consequence. They are chiefly "Familiar Letters," alluded to in the account of his life; an edition of "Æsop's Fables, with Reflections;" his "Case," on the piracy of his Grandison by the Dublin booksellers; and some fugitive pieces in different periodical publications, of which one is No. 97, of the Rambler, describing the progress of a virtuous courtship. His "Correspondence," selected from the original manuscripts, was published in six volumes, in 1804, with a biographical account of the author by Mrs. Barbauld, from which the chief part of the preceding narrative has been extracted.

RICHARDSON'S BAY, a bay on the south-east coast of Jamaica.

RICHBOROUGH, a small village of England, in the county of Kent, formerly a place of very considerable importance, being the famous Rutupium of the Romans, supposed to have been the first and principal station of that people, and the port where their armies usually landed. This port maintained its consequence about a thousand years, till, about the year 1010, both the town and the castle built for its defence by Vespasian, were ruined by the Danes. No traces of the town are now to be found by the most diligent research, its site being entirely occupied with arable fields and inclosed pastures. The remains of the castle, by their immense mass, have alone withstood the ravages of time, and rising above the extensive and surrounding marsh, form an interesting object to the antiquary and the traveller. These ruins afford a more perfect specimen of Roman architecture, than exists any where else in Britian. The castle has been a regular parallelogram. The whole site occupied six acres and one-fourth. The walls were upwards of 10 feet thick; they were flanked by round projecting towers at the angles, and by square ones at irregular distances along the sides. The castle had two gates, the one on the western, the other on the northern side. The Roman coins, and other antiquities that have been found either within or contiguous to this station, are very numerous. The remains of a Roman amphitheatre are also still apparent, at about 460 yards from the south-west angle of the castle. The station of Rutupium is mentioned by all the ancient writers on British affairs. The city is said to have been founded by Cæsar's army, and the shores in the neighbourhood were called by the poets, the Rutupium shores; 2 miles north-north-west of Sandwich.

RICHEA, a genus of plants established by Brown, which seems to be no other than Craspœdia. See CRASPŒDIA.

RICHELET (Cæsar Peter), a French writer. About 1660 he went to Paris, where he was admitted an advocate, and began to plead at the bar. It appears that he was for some time placed about the Dauphin, with no particular office, but as one who might contribute to inspire that prince with the love of literature. He died at Paris in 1698, at the age of sixty-seven. The principal work of Richelet is his "Dictionnaire François," of which the first edition was published at Geneva in 1680, 4to., and several have since been printed with successive augmentations. The last is that of the Abbé Goujet, *Lyons*, 1759, three vols. folio. Richelet's Dictionary has been popular though his orthography was much censured, as well as the satirical strokes and the obscenities which he had interspersed in the work, but which have been expunged in the later editions. He also published "Dictionnaire des Rimes;" "Les plus Belles-Lettres des meilleurs Auteurs François:" a "Translation of Garcilasso de la Vega's History of Florida;" and some other works of no great reputation. *Moreri. Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

RICHELIEU (Armand du Plessis), a famous prime-minister of France, born at Paris in 1585, was the son of Francis du Plessis Richelieu, grand provost of France, and captain of the guards to Henry IV. He was brought up to the church, and after studying at the Sorbonne, went to Rome, and at the early age of 22 was consecrated bishop of Lucon. Though he had obtained some distinction by his proficiency in scholastic theology, the ecclesiastical profession neither suited his morals nor his ambition, and his great object was to make his way at court. He concealed under polite and insinuating manners, a firm and determined disposition, and a spirit of intrigue well suited to a female regency and a reign of favourites. The queen-mother, Mary of Medicis, in 1616 nominated him her grand-almoner and secretary of state. On the fall of the marshal D'Ancre, his protector, and the disgrace of the queen-mother, Richelieu retired from court, and affected to employ himself in writing books of devotion, whilst he was upon the watch to recover his credit. This point he at length gained by affecting an accommodation between the queen and her son, Lewis XIII., and the new favourite De Lugnes rewarded his services by procuring for him a cardinal's hat in 1622. After the death of Lugnes, the court and kingdom fell into disorder through the intrigues of the great, and the contentions of different parties, while all agreed in their defiance of the laws, and encroachments upon the supreme authority. A minister of equal talents and resolution was wanted to remedy these evils, and he existed in Richelieu. He had entirely gained the confidence of the queen-mother, who recovered influence enough to introduce him into the council, notwithstanding the opposition of the other ministers who feared him, and the repugnance of the king, who suspected his ambition, and was shocked with his licentious manners. Like Sextus V. he affected an unwillingness to accept that station which had been the object of his warmest wishes, and for some time he conducted himself with great modesty and reserve; but it was not long after his return to the ministry, which was in 1624, that he found means to subvert all his rivals, and to possess himself of the whole authority of the crown.

The government in his hands soon assumed a tone of vigour and decision. He concluded the treaty of marriage between the Prince of Wales and Henrietta the French king's sister, in spite of the efforts of Rome and Spain, and equally disconcerted

disconcerted those courts by sending an army into the Valteline, and preventing its projected union with the Milanese. He next turned his arms against the French Calvinists, who, rendered disaffected by the frequent breaches of the treaties made with them, were become a kind of republic within the kingdom itself, under ambitious leaders. Having first secured the friendship of Holland by pecuniary aid, he obtained the assistance of its fleet and that of the English against their brother protestants of Rochelle, and expelled them from the isle of Rhé. In order to prepare for the great schemes he had formed respecting foreign politics, it was necessary to begin by strengthening the royal authority at home, and for this purpose the humiliation of the turbulent and factious grandees was an essential measure. This he effected by a course of despotic severity which has fixed upon his administration the stigma of tyranny, though his vigour was in many instances justified by the criminality of its subjects; and it is acknowledged that the French monarchy dates from him its strength and independence. One of the principal enemies he had to contend with was Gaston duke of Orleans, the king's brother, a feeble but restless character, perpetually engaged in intrigues against the government, and as constantly, when his plots were discovered, giving up his partizans to make his peace. In consequence of a conspiracy entered into by this prince to assassinate the minister, and effect great changes at court, Richelieu arrested several of his confidants, and brought some of them to the scaffold. The danger he had incurred formed a pretext for giving him a body-guard; and by his pretended wishes to quit his station, he augmented his influence over his weak master. In 1627 war broke out with England, chiefly in consequence of the insolent vanity of the duke of Buckingham; and the Rochellers, with whom an accommodation had been made, were induced to favour the English. Richelieu thereupon resolved to reduce to submission a town which had long been the seat of an independent power, often leagued with the enemies of the kingdom; and after the duke of Buckingham had been obliged with disgrace to quit the isle of Rhé, Rochelle was invested on all sides. Richelieu in person took the command of the siege, and in order to prevent the arrival of succours by sea, he caused to be constructed a vast dyke in the ocean, by which all communication from abroad was cut off. This circumstance has given occasion to the cardinal's flatterers to compare him with Alexander before Tyre, and the work has been represented as one of the prodigies of his genius; but it was really that of the genius of the engineer Metezeau, and Richelieu only deserves the praise of adopting a bold design, and finding resources for putting it in execution. At length, after a noble resistance of eleven months, Rochelle submitted to famine; and the protestants having lost their great bulwark, and all their other strong places, were rendered incapable of again acting as an armed party. It is to the credit of the policy and moderation of Richelieu that they were still allowed the free exercise of their religion.

In 1629 Richelieu received the patent of prime-minister, and was nominated lieutenant-general of the army employed in the war in Italy, with powers so extensive, that the royal authority was reduced to a shadow. The king, who submitted to his minister without loving him, was easily indisposed against him during an illness by the queen-mother, whose former attachment for the cardinal was turned into inveterate hatred; and a promise was extorted from him for Richelieu's dismissal. After his recovery, however, he attempted to reconcile his mother and the minister, but without effect, and the disgrace of the latter was fully expected by the whole court. But another interview restored all the ascendancy of the servant over the master, who assured him of his support against all his enemies. The queen-mother's creatures were left to his vengeance, which he exercised with great severity. One of his victims was the marshal de Marillac, who, after a process of two years, was condemned for peculation and illicit profits, and brought to the scaffold. Both queens, and the king's brother, were made to feel the resentment of the cardinal, and all that was great in the nation trembled before him. His foreign politics had chiefly in view the humiliation of the house of Austria: and by his treaty, in 1631, with Gustavus Adolphus, he enabled that great king to pursue those plans which brought the empire to the brink of ruin. Gaston, duke of Orleans, in his retreat with the duke of Lorraine, whose sister he had married for his second wife, plotted to excite a civil war for the expulsion of Richelieu, and his own return to consequence. His intrigues were discovered, and all his partizans were declared guilty of treason. The duke of Lorraine was compelled to abandon him, and incurred the loss of some of his strongest places. Gaston entered France with a small body of troops, accompanied by the brave duke of Montmorenci, but was defeated at Castelnaudari. Montmorenci was taken prisoner, and expiated his crime on the scaffold, whilst resentment against the duke of Orleans was carried so far as to procure from the parliament of Paris a cassation of his marriage, as having been contracted without the king's consent. The queen-mother herself was put under arrest, her servants were sent to the Bastille, and she finally ended her days in exile at Cologne. The king supported his minister in all these severities, created him a duke and peer, and gave him the government of Britanny.

France had hitherto acted only as an ally to the Swedes in their hostilities against the house of Austria; but after their defeat at Norlingen in 1634, the cardinal thought it necessary to enter as a principal into the war: and forming an alliance with Holland, and the dukes of Savoy and Parma, he caused war to be declared against the king of Spain in 1635. Events were at first unfavourable to the French arms, and Richelieu saw himself in danger of being ruined by a measure which he had adopted in order to render himself necessary, and augment his power. Picardy was overrun by the Spanish troops; the alarm spread to Paris, and the cardinal thought seriously of resigning his post. In this emergency he was supported by the courage of his confidant, the famous capuchin Father Joseph du Tremblay, a man whom he had for some years employed in court intrigues and foreign negociations, and who, with the habit and austerities of a friar, united consummate political skill, and a haughty intrepidity of spirit. Father Joseph advised him to appear without his guards in the streets of Paris, putting on an air of tranquillity and confidence; and the result was, that he received benedictions instead of execrations from the people. He was brought into greater personal danger by a plot between the duke of Orleans and the count of Soissons to cause him to be assassinated in the presence of the king; but when all was prepared for the execution, it failed through the wonted irresolution of Gaston. On its discovery the two princes quitted the court: but Richelieu was so much alarmed with the hazard he had undergone, that he reconciled himself with the duke of Orleans, by procuring the king's ratification of his marriage with the princess of Lorraine.

The war at length became more prosperous to France, and the enemy was driven from her territories; the public finances were, however, exhausted, and recourse was had to the creation of a great number of venal offices, and other objectionable measures, to raise the necessary supplies. The talents of a financier do not seem to have been among Richelieu's qualifications; and he himself gave an example of profusion which increased the public discontent. No prime minister ever affected more state or splendour. The daily expence of his household was estimated at a thousand crowns—a prodigious sum at that period! His guards and attendants, his equipage and establishments, were rather upon the scale of a sovereign prince than of a subject, and he much surpassed his master in external pomp. Lewis betrayed a dissatisfaction on this account, which probably induced Richelieu to make him a present of his palace, since called the Palais Royal. It is observable that Cardinal Wolsey fell into the same extravagance, and made a similar sacrifice of his palace of Hampton-court.

Richelieu proceeded in his career of promoting wars abroad, and avenging himself of his enemies at home. He is said to have fomented the discontents in England which produced the civil war under Charles I., but they had a much deeper

deeper and more serious origin than foreign intrigue. The war with Spain was attended with various success, and whenever it was unprosperous, the cardinal covered his own failures by calling to a severe account the unfortunate generals. The king's confessor, the Jesuit Caussin, having imprudently attempted to render the minister's political conduct odious to his master, was banished from court: and a Jesuit confessor of the duchess of Savoy underwent a similar disgrace. The cardinal even braved the court of Rome; and he reduced the French clergy to the same submission to the will of the crown that all the other bodies of the state displayed. He again incurred a great personal danger in 1642, from a conspiracy against his power and life headed by Cinqmars, a young man whom he had placed about the king's person, and who was become a favourite. The duke of Bouillon, and, as usual, the duke of Orleans, entered into the plot, and negociations were opened with Spain for assistance. The good fortune of Richelieu produced a timely discovery of this treason, and Cinqmars was beheaded. The duke of Bouillon was arrested, but made his peace by resigning his principality of Sedan. Gaston, with his accustomed meanness, furnished proofs against his associates. The victim most worthy of compassion, on this occasion, was the son of the illustrious De Thou, who was capitally condemned only for not revealing a conspiracy which he disapproved. Richelieu was at this time lying dangerously sick at Torascon. He proceeded to Lyons by water, and was thence carried to Paris in a kind of chamber borne on the shoulders of his guards, breaches being made in the walls of the towns through which he passed, to admit him. It soon appeared that he had not long to live, and he prepared for the final change with great firmness. In receiving the sacrament, he declared that in the course of his ministry, he had had nothing in view but the good of religion and the state—a declaration which the public opinion did not ratify. He died in December, 1642, at the age of 58, worn out with toil and anxiety.

Richelieu was undoubtedly a great minister for a monarchy; and France, under a weak king, and a prey to all the evils of court favouritism, and a turbulent aristocracy, was indebted to him for an exertion of the sovereign power, which essentially augmented her domestic strength and her foreign consequence. But the principles of his administration were all despotic, and in pursuit of his objects he trampled law and justice, rights, and privileges under his feet. He made the crown triumphant, but debased the spirit of the nation. His own account of his public character was thus given to a confidant; "I venture upon nothing till I have well considered it; but when I have once taken my resolution, I go directly to my end; I overthrow and mow down all that stands in my way, and then cover the whole with my red mantle." He had some features of generosity; his promise might be relied upon; he was not less ardent in serving his friends than in ruining his enemies; he was a kind master, and liberally recompensed all who served him. He is said to have been fonder of power than of money, yet he bequeathed to the king a princely fortune extorted from his subjects, whilst the state was often necessitous. He was the author of some useful and splendid establishments: he rebuilt the Sorbonne, founded the royal printing-house, the botanical garden, and the French Academy, which last during his life was chiefly occupied in offering incense to his vanity. Richelieu had an attachment to literature; but had also the weakness to aim at the same superiority in letters that he possessed in politics. He composed dramatic pieces, and was as much disquieted by the reputation of Corneille as by the power of the house of Austria. He engaged the academy in a criticism of the Cid, which only served to increase the number of its admirers, whilst his own drama of "L'Europe" was hissed. The affectation of gallantry to the fair sex was another of his foibles, and exposed him to ridicule. As a writer, he obtained some credit in controversy with the opponents of the catholic church, but he both wrote and harangued in a bad taste. The most famous of his supposed works is his "Testament Politique," the authenticity of which has been a subject of warm controversy. Voltaire has adduced many arguments to prove it spurious, which M. de Foncemagne, in the preface to his edition of 1764, has endeavoured to refute. The question is at present of little importance. The letters of Richelieu, of which the most ample edition is of 1696, 2 vols. 12mo., are said to be interesting. *Voltaire Hist. Gen. Millot. Elemens. Moreri. Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

RICHELIEU, a small town of France, department of the Indre and Loire, on the river Amable. It has a castle and 3200 inhabitants; also manufactures of serge, woollen stuffs, and linen. Wine is cultivated in the neighbourhood; 35 miles south-west of Tours.

RICHELL, a village of England, in Essex, near Hatfield Regis.

RICHELSDORF, a large village of Germany, in Hesse-Cassel, near Sontra. It has hardware manufactures.

RICHEN, a village of Germany, in Hesse-Darmstadt, near Umstadt, with 900 inhabitants.

RICHENBURG, a small town of Bohemia; 10 miles south-east of Chrudim, with manufactures of woollen; also of iron and glass.

RICHENVEIR. See Reichenweyer.

RICHER (Edmund), a learned French catholic divine, distinguished by his strenuous opposition to the encroachments of the Roman pontiffs on the liberties of the Gallican church, was born at Chaource, in the diocese of Langres, in the year 1560. He studied divinity at the University of Paris, where he was admitted a member of the house and society of the Sorbonne, and performed the exercises for his licentiate, in 1587, with great reputation. At the same time he taught the logical class in the college of Cardinal le Moine. Possessing a bold and impetuous spirit, he was enticed to join the party and to embrace the sentiments of the league; and he had even the hardihood, in one of his theses, to express his approbation of the murder of Henry III. by James Clement. His opinions, however, soon underwent a radical change, and he was induced, from motives of genuine patriotism, to espouse the cause of Henry IV. No sooner had he taken the degree of doctor, in 1590, than he openly declared in favour of that prince, and distinguished himself by his activity and success in bringing back the faculty to their duty. In 1594, he was made grand master and principal of the college of Cardinal le Moine. In 1600, he made his first appearance in print as editor and translator into French of Tertullian's book, "De Pallio." About the year 1605, he began to print an edition of the works of John Gerson, or Charlier, that bold defender of the authority of general councils above that of the Pope, but he was prevented from publishing them for some time, by the interposition of the papal nuncio at Paris. This circumstance did not deter him from defending the opinions of Gerson, for whom he wrote an "Apology," which he caused to be published in Germany, and which was afterwards connected with his edition of that author's works. In the year 1608, Richer was elected syndic of the faculty of divinity at Paris; and while he held that office, he distinguished himself by the zeal and spirit which he discovered in support of the ancient privileges of the Gallican clergy. In the year 1611, at the request of Nicholas de Verdun, first president of the parliament of Paris, he published his treatise "De Potestate Ecclesiæ in Rebus Temporalibus," 4to. by way of answer to the thesis of a Dominican of Cologne, who maintained the infallibility of the Pope, and his superiority to a general council. This production made a considerable noise, and excited against Richer the intrigues of the nuncio, and of some doctors devoted to the court of Rome, who endeavoured to procure his deposition from the syndicate, together with the condemnation of his book by the faculty of divinity; but the parliament prevented the faculty from passing their censure upon it. Notwithstanding the interference of that body, Cardinal du Perron assembled eight bishops of his province at Paris, in the year 1612, who condemned the work. Against their judgment, as partial and improperly obtained, Richer entered an appeal before the parliament, which was registered according to

to the customary forms; but no further proceedings on the subject took place in that court.

That Richer's book should be proscribed at Rome, was naturally to be expected; and the papal anathema was speedily followed by that of the archbishop of Aix, and of three of his suffragans. Immediately afterwards a crowd of writers entered the lists against the obnoxious work, whose patrons procured an express order from court, that the author should not publish any thing in its defence. Not satisfied with having thus silenced him, his enemies availed themselves of their influence with the higher powers, to obtain letters of command from the king and queen-regent to the faculty of divinity, enjoining them to choose another syndic. Against this arbitrary attack on the privileges of the faculty Richer publicly protested; after which, having first read a written defence of himself and opinions, he withdrew from his post. From this time he ceased to attend the meetings at the Sorbonne, and shut himself up chiefly in solitude, occupied in study and the composition of works which were not published before his death. His enemies, however, would not suffer him to pursue his labours in peace, but by their interest procured his arrest and commitment to the prison of St. Victor. They would even have delivered him up to the Pope, had not the parliament and the chancellor of France prevented them, on the complaint of the University against their proceedings. Still his enemies continued their persecution; and in the year 1620, he was pressed to publish a declaration condemning his book. This he was determined not to do; but he made a declaration of his readiness to explain the proposition which it contained, in a catholic sense, adding, moreover, that he submitted his work to the judgment of the holy see and of the catholic church. Afterwards he made a second declaration to the same purport. In 1629, he reprinted his treatise "De Potestate," accompanied with such a comment as he thought might prove satisfactory, and the two declarations just mentioned. The court of Rome, however, demanding a more explicit retractation of his doctrine, Cardinal Richelieu determined that he should sign a third declaration, drawn up by an apostolical notary, who was sent to Paris for that purpose by the Pope. Richer's friends relate, that his signature was forcibly obtained in the apartments of Father Joseph, by the threatening of immediate death on his refusal, from two assassins who seized the old man and presented to him their drawn daggers; and they add, that the shock occasioned by this scene contributed to shorten his days. The opposite party deny this story, as entirely without foundation, and maintain, that Richer signed the declaration voluntarily and sincerely. Be the truth as it may, he did not long survive that act, as he died towards the close of 1630, in the 70th year of his age. He left behind him several works, which discover extensive learning, great discernment, much critical skill, and a laudable boldness in exploding the prejudices of the schools. Mosheim honourably distinguishes him from his contemporaries, by observing, that he "was the only doctor in the University of Paris who followed the literal sense and the plain and natural signification of the words of Scripture; while all the other commentators and interpreters, imitating the pernicious example of several ancient expositors, were always racking their brains for mysterious and sublime significations, where none such were, nor could be, designed by the sacred writers." Besides the articles already mentioned, he was the author of "Vindiciæ Doctrinæ majorum, de Auctoritate Ecclesiæ in Rebus Fidei et Morum," 4to.; "De Optimo Academii Statu," 8vo., written on the subject of the reformation of the University, by order of Henry IV. in 1599; "Obstetrix Animorum," 4to., intended to facilitate the acquaintance of students with the sciences; some other elementary treatises: and after his death were published from his manuscripts, "Notes on the Censure of the Books of Mark Anthony de Dominis by the Sorbonne;" "A History of General Councils," in Latin, printed at Cologne in 1682, in 3 vols 4to; and "A History of the Syndicate of Edmund Richer, written by himself," 8vo., printed at Paris, under the title of Avignon, in 1753. He also left behind him in manuscript "A History of Joan of Arc, or, the Maid of Orleans," in 4 vols. folio, of which the Abbé Lenglet made free use in composing his "History of Joan of Arc." *Moreri. Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

RICHER (John), a French astronomer and natural philosopher in the 17th century, concerning whose life and labours though but few particulars are recorded, yet they are such as entitle him to this brief notice. He was admitted a member of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, 1666, under the title of astronomer to that body. About the year 1671, Lewis XIV. sent him to the island of Cayenne, in South America, for the purpose of making observations which might contribute to the improvement of astronomical science. On this mission he spent three years; and after his return to Paris, gave the result of his labours in his "Astronomical and Physical Observations made at the Island of Cayenne," which are inserted in the seventh vol. of the old "Memoirs" of the Academy of Sciences. Cassini speaks of him with commendation in his "Elements of Astronomy;" as does also John Frederic Weidler in his "Historia Astronomiæ." Richer died in the year 1696.

RICHER (Claude), a learned French priest and mathematician in the 18th century, was born at Auxerre, in the year 1680. Being destined to the ecclesiastical profession when very young, he was sent from the seminaries of his native place to pursue his studies at Paris. Here he distinguished himself in 1701, when little more than 20 years of age, by printing a work entitled "Universal Gnomonics, or, the Science of tracing solar Dials on all Kinds of Surfaces, whether fixed or moveable," in 8vo. The reputation which he acquired by this work, more particularly as it was the production of so young a man, afforded reason to expect that he would support and increase it by new productions. But the narrowness of his circumstances, and an inconstancy of disposition which was afterwards observable in his whole conduct through life, turned off his attention from mathematical pursuits to other studies adapted to his intended profession. Having been ordained priest, he remained for about 30 years almost an entire stranger to men of letters. About the year 1730, his passion for mathematical studies revived, and being encouraged by M. Fantat de Lagny, who gave him the free use of his papers, he produced a work of great merit, entitled, "General Analysis, containing new Methods of resolving Problems of every Kind, and of all Degrees to Infinity," 4to. The author had the modesty to send it into the world under the name of M. Lagny; but it was soon ascertained, that a very small share of the credit arising from it could fairly be awarded to that mathematician. Another sudden change now took place in the direction of our author's studies. After he had been first appointed a canon of Provins, in Champagne, and then dean of Notre-Dame in the same town, the perusal of a fragment of Manetho, high-priest of Heliopolis, in Egypt, induced him to devote his whole attention to the most profound researches in ancient history. Notwithstanding the obscurity of this relic of antiquity, which the most learned and sagacious men from the days of Origen to the present time have not been able to clear up, he conceived that he thoroughly understood it, and that it furnished him with a clew, by the aid of which he could unravel all the difficulties of ancient history, sacred and profane. Under the influence of this persuasion, he laboured day and night in attempting to illustrate it, till he had produced two immense folio volumes, which no person would undertake to print. Thus circumstanced, he drew up and circulated among several of the learned, a memoir, intended to explain, and, if possible, to obtain their approbation of a system, which had cost him so much pains, that his health was ruined, and he proved the victim of constant and increasing infirmities during the latter years of his life. As a specimen of his labours, he published, "A Chronological Series of the Kings of Egypt, determined, according to three Simple Dynasties, from the fragment of Manetho," in folio. *Moreri.*

RICHERIA, [so named in memory of Pierre Richer de Belleval,

Belleval, professor of botany at Montpelier.] In botany, a genus of the class dioecia, order pentandria. Generic Character.—Male flower. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, permanent, inferior, four-cleft or five-cleft; clefts ovate, acute, subtomentose, (three-leaved, very small, *Ryan.*) Corolla: petals four or five, roundish, the length of the calyx,—(one petalled, with five concave segments, *Ryan.*) Nectary four or five glands at the base of the germ. Stamina four or five (sometimes six, *Ryan.*) between the glands of the nectary, erect, longer than the calyx, (length of the corolla, *Ryan.*) Anthers oblong, erect, (twin, *Ryan.*) Pistil: germ conical, villose. Style none. Stigma none. Female flower. Calyx and corolla as in the male. Nectary a rim round the base of the germ. Stamina none. Pistil: germ superior, ovate. Style very short. Stigmas three, revolute, chanelled above. (Stigma bicapitate, *Ryan.*) Pericarp: capsule corticate, subovate, smooth and even, three-celled, having six valves opening from the base. Seed one in each cell, berried, pendulous below the tip of the columella. According to Ryan, the fruit is a capsular berry, or a berried capsule.—*Essential Character.*—Capsule corticate, six-valved, three-celled. Seeds solitary, pendulous below the tip of the columella. Style trifid.

1. Richeria grandis.—This is a large tree, having the habit of mammea Americana. Branches round, the thickness of a goose-quill, rigid, angular at the end, warted, smooth. Leaves mostly at the ends of the branches, alternate, frequently six or seven inches in length. Spikes axillary, solitary, three times shorter than the leaf, commonly simple, but sometimes having a spreading branch at the base. Flowers frequent, scattered, sessile. Peduncle angular, appearing villose when examined by a microscope. Capsule the size of a hazel nut, having six obscure longitudinal sutures. Ryan discovered this very rare tree in Montserrat, in one place only, where fifteen or twenty trees all together filled up a small valley among the high mountains.

RI'CHES, *s. pl.* [ꝏchꝏe Saxon; *richesse*, French: and our old language had the singular, as, "Let us when we perceyve the daunger of this worldly and transytory *rychesse* call unto Almyghty God for helpe." *Bp. Fisher.* Ps. and see Revel. xviii. 16. "In one hour so great *riches is* come to nought."] Wealth; money or possessions.—*Riches* do not consist in having more gold and silver, but in having more in proportion than our neighbours, whereby we are enabled to procure to ourselves a greater plenty of the conveniencies of life, than comes within their reach, who sharing the gold and silver of the world in a less proportion, want the means of plenty and power, and so are poorer. *Locke.*—Splendid sumptuous appearance.—The *riches* of heaven's pavement, trodden gold. *Milton.*

RICHFIELD, a township of the United States, in Otsego county, New York; 72 miles west of Albany. Population 2079.

RICHFIELD, a township of the United States, in Ashtabula county, Ohio, on Grand river.

RICHFORD, a township of the United States, in Franklin county, Vermont. Population 442.

RICHIER DE BELLEVAL (Peter), one of the founders of French Botany, was born at Chalons, in Champagne, in 1558, and was brought up to the practice of medicine. To his zeal for science was owing the establishment of the botanical garden at Montpellier, the earliest institution of the kind in France. For the purpose of enriching it, he made several tours to the Cevennes, and the sea-coast, and sent his pupils to all the ports of Lauguedoc, Dauphinê, and Provence, at the same time maintaining at his own expence, engravers, who made draughts of curious plants under his inspection. He was the first botanist who gave copper-plate figures, which are executed with accuracy, but in a hard style, being imitations of the wooden cuts then in use. The Montpellier garden having been destroyed in the troubles consequent upon the death of Henry IV. Richier was extremely active in procuring its restoration, and advanced a considerable sum of his own property for the purpose. He died in 1632, at the age of 74. The sole publication of this botanist was "Onomatologia seu Nomenclatura Stirpium quæ in Horto medico Monspeliensi coluntur," 1598. *Halleri Bibl. Botan.—Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

RICHHILL, a township of the United States, in Green county, Pennsylvania. Population 716.

RICHLAND, a county of the United States, in the north part of Ohio, which has Knox south, Wayne east, Huron and Medina north, and Indian lands west. It is watered by the head branches of the Huron, East Fork of the Sandusky, Clear Fork, a branch of the Muskingum, Muddy creek, &c. Its name represents the quality of its soil. It will rank with any county in the state in point of fertility. It is new, and contains large bodies of rich unsettled lands. The chief town is Mansfield.

RICHLAND, a district in the central part of South Carolina. The chief town is Columbia. Population 9027, including 5238 slaves.

RICHLAND, a river of the United States, in Tennessee. It passes by Pulaski, and is navigable from that town to its junction with Elk river, 12 miles. Length 70 miles.

RICHLAND, the name of several townships in the United States, in Giles county, Tennessee.

RICHLAND, a township of the United States, in Oswego county, New York, on the east end of Lake Ontario. Population 947.

RICHLAND, a township of the United States, in Bucks county, Pennsylvania. Population 1317.

RICHLAND, a township of the United States, in Venango county, Pennsylvania. Population 434.

RICHLAND, a township of the United States, in Belmont county, Ohio. Population 2831.

RICHLAND, a township of the United States, in Clinton county, Ohio. Population 783.

RICHLAND, a township of the United States, in Fairfield county, Ohio. Population 614.

RICHLAND, a township of the United States, in Guernsey county, Ohio. Population 227.

RICHLIEU, Chambly, or Sorel River, a river of Lower Canada, which flows from Lake Champlain in a northerly course, and joins the St. Lawrence. It is the channel by which the waters of the lake are for the most part conveyed to the latter river. Its course is through a well cultivated country. Its banks are generally between eight and twelve feet high, diversified on each side by many farms and extensive settlements, in a very high state of improvement; some neat, populous, and flourishing villages, handsome churches, numerous mills of various kinds, good roads in all directions, with every other characteristic of a country inhabited by an industrious population. The navigation is carried on by boats, canoes, and other craft of large dimension and burden, and by rafts. From its junction with the St. Lawrence, decked vessels of 150 tons may ascend from 12 to 14 miles. This river is remarkable for the unusual circumstance of being much narrower at its discharge than at the place from whence it flows, and for the gradual diminution of the breadth of its bed. At its mouth it is about 250 yards wide, which it preserves, with the exception of one or two expansions occasioned by some small islands, which greatly increase the beauty of its scenery, up to the basin of Chambly; from hence to the isle du Portage the breadth is 500 yards; beyond this it spreads to double that distance, and continues to widen still more up to St. John's, from whence there is a ship navigation to the towns on Lake Champlain. From the basin down to the St. Lawrence the current is regular and gentle, and although there are some shoals and flats, they do not disturb the smoothness of its course; but from Lake Champlain the stream is hurried, in some places rather violent, and in others broken by rapids. The passage downwards for loaded boats, &c. is in general quick and unattended with the smallest difficulty, except what is occasioned by the rapids. Upwards to Chambly nothing more than ordinary care is required to avoid the shallows, but from thence to St. John's, the ascent is attended with more labour, from the causes just spoken of. The number of river craft, canoes, &c. with their various ladings, the immense quantity of timber

ber composing the numerous rafts that are continually descending, and upon which many hundred tons of pot and pearl ashes, and large cargoes of flour, are brought down every summer, exclusive of what is conveyed by the boats, unequivocally point out the value and importance of this communication.

RICHLIEU ISLANDS, a cluster of islands in the river St. Lawrence, situated at the south-west entrance of Lake St. Peter, nearly 100 in number. Several of them are partly cleared of their woods, and afford good pasturage for cattle. They lie very low, and are always overflowed in the spring, when the lake is swelled by the melting of the ice and snow. They abound with a variety of wild fowl, principally duck and teal. Lat. 42. 22. N long. 71. 7. W.

RI'CHLY, *adj.* [ricelice Sax.] With riches; wealthily; splendidly; magnificently.

In Belmont is a lady *richly* left,
And she is fair, of wondrous virtues. *Shakspeare.*

Plenteously; abundantly.—In animals, some smells are found more *richly* than in plants. *Brown.*—After a man has studied the laws of England, the reading the reports of adjudged cases will *richly* improve him. *Watts.*—Truly; abundantly. (An ironical use.)—There is such licentiousness among the basest of the people, that one would not be sorry to see them bestowing upon one another a chastisement, which they so *richly* deserve. *Addison.*

RICHMAN (George William), a member of the Imperial Academy of Sciences at Petersburgh, was born at Pernau in 1711, after the decease of his father, who was treasurer to the King of Sweden. Having acquired the rudiments of education in the gymnasium at Revel, he prosecuted his studies at the Universities of Halle and Jena, but applied chiefly to mathematics and philosophy, to which he shewed a particular attachment. In the year 1735 he was made a member of the Imperial Academy of Sciences at Petersburgh: in 1741 he became extraordinary professor; and in 1745 he was appointed ordinary professor of experimental philosophy. Among the subjects which Richman studied, the electricity of bodies, in general, and that of thunder clouds, in particular, had engaged a great deal of his attention. On the discoveries made in this branch of knowledge he had composed a treatise, which he intended to read on the 6th of September 1753, at a public meeting of the members of the academy; and in order to demonstrate what he might advance in this discourse, he omitted no opportunity upon the appearance of a thunder cloud, of endeavouring to ascertain its strength. For this purpose he had iron bars always standing ready on the top of his house. These received the electrical matter from the clouds, and communicated it to chains, by which it was conducted into one of his rooms where he kept his apparatus. He was attending the usual meeting of the academy on the 26th of July, 1753, a little before noon, when it thundered at a considerable distance; the sky being then clear, and the sun shining bright. In the hope of confirming his former observations, or of being able perhaps to make some new ones, he now hurried home, accompanied by Sokolof, an engraver, that the latter might make himself better acquainted with the chief circumstances of the electrical experiment, and be thus enabled to represent it more correctly on a copper-plate which he intended to add to his dissertation. Richman immediately carried the engraver to his apparatus; but while examining it with his head inclined towards it, he received a violent shock, which instantly deprived him of existence. A wire, which brought the electricity to his metal rod, was broken in pieces, and its fragments thrown upon M. Solokof's clothes. Upon examining the effects of the lightning in the room, it was found that the door-case was half split through, and the door torn off and thrown into the room. An attempt was made to bleed the breathless body, but no blood followed. The shoe belonging to the left foot was burst open, and uncovering the foot at that place, they found a blue mark, from which it was inferred that the electric fluid, having entered at the head, made its way out again at the foot. Upon the body were several red and blue spots, but the hair of the head was not singed. The stocking was entire though the shoe was ripped up; the coat was uninjured though the waistcoat was much singed; and there appeared on the back of M. Solokof's coat long narrow streaks, as if red-hot wires had burnt off the nap. On opening the body the cranium was entire, and the brain perfect, but the transparent pellicles of the windpipe were excessively tender, gave way, and were easily rent. There was some extravasated blood in it, as likewise in the cavities below the lungs; those of the breast being quite sound, but those toward the back were of a brownish colour, and filled with more of the above-mentioned blood: otherwise none of the entrails were touched, but the throat, the glands, and the thin intestines, were all inflamed. After two days the body was in such a state of putrefaction that it was with difficulty got into a coffin.

He was a man of extensive learning; assiduous in his pursuits; and so much distinguished by his piety, integrity, and other good qualities, that he was much lamented by his friends and regretted by the academy. *Philosophical Transactions.*

RICHMAN'S ISLAND, a small island on the coast of Maine; 3 miles north of Portland.

RICHMOND, a village of England, in the county of Surrey, situated on an eminence on the south bank of the Thames. It is a spot of great celebrity, both for the beauty of its scenery, and from its being the seat of a royal palace during several centuries. The manor here was anciently denominated Shene. In the reign of Edward I. it reverted to the crown, and has since been generally possessed either by the king, or some branch of the royal family; it was named Richmond by Henry VII. from the district in Yorkshire of which he was earl. The palace seems to have been erected at an early period, but fell into neglect, until Henry V. rebuilt it in a style of greater magnificence than before. In 1492, Henry VII. held a grand tournament here; and the same king died here in 1509. Queen Elizabeth was imprisoned here by her sister Mary; but after she was seated on the throne, this became her favourite residence. During the commonwealth, the palace was sold by the commissioners of the House of Commons, who ordered an accurate survey of it to be taken. After this the palace fell to decay: it is now totally demolished, and its site occupied by several houses, which hold of the crown. Richmond Park is first mentioned in the reign of Edward I.; in that of Henry VIII. it was called the Old or Great Park, to distinguish it from a new park which had been formed by Henry VII. Charles I. formed a third park, of greater extent than the other two together. The lodge of the new park formed, for some months after his disgrace, the residence of Cardinal Wolsey. It was purchased of the earl of Arran, by king George II. who frequently retired hither. His queen Caroline was very partial to the spot, and had a dairy and menagerie here. Several ornamental buildings were also erected by this princess, through the gardens, in one of which, called the Hermitage, she placed the busts of Newton, Locke, and other eminent characters. George III. frequently resided here in the early part of his reign: he pulled down the old lodge, with the view of building a magnificent palace in its stead, which, however, has never risen above the foundation. At a short distance from it, however, an observatory has been erected, from designs by Sir William Chambers, and amply provided with the finest astronomical instruments. Here is a mural arc of 140°, and 8 feet radius; a zenith sector of 12 feet, a transit instrument of 8 feet, and a 10 feet reflector by Herschel. On the top of the building is a moveable dome, which contains an equatorial instrument. Part of the Old Park forms a grazing and dairy farm, formerly occupied by George III. The remainder is occupied by the beautiful royal gardens, which in summer are opened to the public. The New or Great Park, formed by Charles I. is kept in its proper state, well stocked with deer; it is enclosed by a brick wall, 8 miles in compass. The rangership of this park is reckoned an office of high dignity and trust. The rich scenery of Richmond

mond and its vicinity have been the theme of general admiration, and have attracted a number of families of distinction, whose seats render the village and neighbourhood remarkably gay and splendid. The village extends about a mile, or more, up the hill, from the Thames, skirted and intermingled with agreeable gardens. The view from Richmond hill is particularly celebrated. It includes the windings of the Thames from Kingston to London, with a rich and varied scene of towns, villages, bridges, woods, gardens, villas, and fields in the highest cultivation. The summit called Richmond Green, is levelled and inclosed in a handsome manner, being surrounded with lofty elms. Richmond church, dedicated to St. Mary Magdalen, consists of a nave, two aisles, and a chancel, built of bricks, with a square embattled tower at the west end, composed of stone and flints in chequers. Among the monuments in the church is one to Thomson the poet. In the village there are several alms-houses, and a charity school. An elegant stone bridge was erected over the river here, of five semicircular arches, from a design by Payne. Population 5219: houses 875; 9 miles west-south-west of London.

RICHMOND, a market and borough town of England, in the North Riding of Yorkshire. It stands on a lofty eminence, which rises boldly from the northern bank of the river Swale. The situation is delightful, the river winding in a semicircular sweep round the town, and the neighbouring county abounding, in a remarkable degree, in picturesque and grand scenery; while the buildings of the town, which are mostly of stone, with the striking appearance of the castle, contribute to give the place a dignified and interesting appearance. The town is built on the northern declivity of the hill, and the castle crowns the summit, and, from a great height, over-looks the Swale, running in the valley beneath. On all sides, excepting the north, the ascent is steep and difficult. Though now in a very ruinous condition, the castle still bears marks of its former grandeur and importance. The keep tower, of which the walls are nearly entire, is about 100 feet high; the walls are 11 feet thick; the lower story is supported by a vast column of stone in the middle, from which spring circular arches, closing the top. The staircase only reaches to the first chamber, the rest of it being dilapidated, as the floors of the two upper rooms are fallen in. In this keep is a well of excellent water. The ruins of several other parts of the castle still remain. In the south-eastern corner of the area is a ruinous tower, in which is a dismal dungeon, 13 or 14 feet deep. The ground covered by the castle comprises nearly six acres: it belongs to the Duke of Richmond and Lennox. The castle of Richmond was founded by Alan, the first Earl of Richmond, who, in reward for his services, received from William the Conqueror, the forfeited estates of Edwin, Earl of Mercia, married Hawise, the daughter of William, and built the castle and part of the town of Richmond, to protect his family and estates. During the Norman monarchs, the title and property were possessed by several different families, allied to the blood royal, both of England and France. In the wars of York and Lancaster, they also several times changed possessors, and at length were vested in the crown, by the accession of Henry, earl of Richmond, to the throne, under the title of Henry VII. Henry VIII. constituted Richmond a duchy, in the person of his natural son, Henry, who died without issue in 1535. Richmond contains two churches, one of which is both parochial and collegiate. The market-place is a spacious and handsome building, surrounded with good shops and houses. Richmond was incorporated in the 19th of the reign of Elizabeth. It sends two members to parliament. The right of election is vested in the owners of ancient burgages in the borough, having a right of pasture in Whitecliffe common. The number of voters is about 270. The corporation consists of a mayor, recorder, 12 aldermen, and 24 common council men. The chief trade of Richmond is in corn and lead. This is one of the greatest corn markets in the county; the town being situated in the boundary of the grain district. The corn factors and millers repair hither from Swaledale, and other parts of the moors, where grazing is the principal pursuit of the farmer. The lead is brought from the mines, about 14 miles westward of Richmond, and conveyed by land carriage to Boroughbridge and Yarm. The inhabitants of Richmond are also much engaged in the manufacture of knit yarn, stockings, and woollen caps for seamen. The want of water carriage and of coal is greatly felt here, and obstructs the progress of trade and business. The country round Richmond is celebrated for its picturesque beauties. The valley of Swaledale is in many places skirted with perpendicular rocks, almost covered with trees and shrubs, and the hills on the north-west side of the town afford the most magnificent prospects. Market on Saturday, very good for cattle and all sorts of provisions; and four annual fairs. Population 3056; 40 miles north-west of York, and 233 north-west of London. Lat. 54. 24. N. long. 1. 45. W.

RICHMOND, a county of the United States, in the north part of Georgia. Population 6189, including 3536 slaves. Augusta is the chief town.

RICHMOND, a county of the United States, in New York, occupying all Staten island. It is about 14 miles in length, and its greatest breadth is 8 miles. It is in many parts broken and hilly, though there are some tracks of good arable lands, of considerable extent. Population 5347. The chief town is Southfield.

RICHMOND, a county of the United States, in the south part of North Carolina. Population 6695, including 1394 slaves. Rockingham is the chief town.

RICHMOND, a county of the United States, in Virginia, bounded north by Westmoreland county, north-east by Westmoreland and Northumberland counties, south-east by Lancaster county, and south-west by the Rappahannock. Population 6214. Slaves 3178.

RICHMOND, a city and port of entry of the United States, and metropolis of Virginia, in Henrico county, on the north side of James river, between 50 and 60 miles by the course of the river, above City Point, and 150 miles from its mouth, immediately below the falls, at the head of tide water, and opposite Manchester, with which it is connected by two bridges. Richmond is one of the most flourishing, wealthy, and commercial cities of the United States, in a situation highly picturesque, and favourable to health. It contains about 800 houses built of brick, many of them elegant; and about 600 built of wood; a glass-house, a sugar refinery, an iron foundry, a rolling and slitting mill, a cotton manufactory, 8 tobacco warehouses, 2 insurance offices, 3 banks, including a branch of the United States bank; a capitol or state-house, a house for the governor, an armory, a penitentiary, a court-house, a jail, an alms-house, 2 market-houses, a public library containing about 3000 volumes, a museum, a Lancasterian school, and 8 houses of public worship; 2 for Episcopalians, 1 for Presbyterians, 1 for Baptists, 2 for Methodists, 1 for Friends, and a Jew's synagogue.

The falls extend nearly 6 miles, in which distance the river descends 80 feet. A canal with three locks is cut on the north side of the river, terminating at the town, in a basin of about two acres. Few cities situated so far from the sea, possess better commercial advantages than Richmond, being at the head of tide water, on a river navigable for batteaux 220 miles above the city, and having an extensive and fertile back country, abundant in the production of tobacco, wheat, corn, hemp, coal, &c. It has an extensive inland trade, and its foreign commerce is considerable. The shipping owned here in 1816, amounted to 9943 tons. James river is navigable to Warwick for vessels drawing 15 or 16 feet water, and to Rockets, just below Richmond, for vessels drawing 10 feet. The exports of the city consist of tobacco, flour, coal, and various articles of produce.

In 1811, on the 26th of December, the theatre at Richmond took fire during an exhibition, and in the conflagration, 72 persons lost their lives. An elegant Episcopal church of brick, styled the Monumental church, has since been erected on the spot, with a monument in front, commemorative of the melancholy event. The city was formerly divided into two sections, the upper or western part, called Shockoe Hill, and the lower part, Richmond, separated by Shockoe

Shockoe creek, a small rivulet; but these distinctions are now going out of use, and the sections are united together. Population in 1800, 5537; in 1810, 9735, of whom 4937 were blacks; and in 1817, 14,333; 25 miles north of Petersburg, and 123 west of South Washington. Lat. 37. 30. N. long. 77. 31. W.

RICHMOND, the name of several townships in the United States.

RICHMONDSHIRE, a district of England, in the North Riding of Yorkshire, of which Richmond is the capital town. It is included in the duchy of Lancaster, was formerly a county within itself, and contains many towns and villages.

RI'CHNESS, *s.* Opulence; wealth.

Of virtue you have left proof to the world;
And virtue is grateful with beauty and *richness* adorned.
Sidney.

Finery; splendour; fertility; fecundity; fruitfulness.—This town is famous for the *richness* of the soil. *Addison.*—Abundance or perfection of any quality.—I amused myself with the *richness* and variety of colours in the western parts of heaven. *Spectator.*—Pampering qualities.

The living tincture of whose gushing blood
Should clearly prove the *richness* of his food. *Dryden.*

RICHTENBERG, a town of Prussia, in Pomerania; 10 miles south-west of Stralsund, on a lake of the same name. Population 800.

RICHTENSCHWEIL, a market town of Switzerland, on the south side of the lake of Zurich. It has a harbour, and some trade, with manufactures of silk, cotton, and knives. Population 2400; 11 miles south of Zurich.

RICHVALD, a small town of Hungary; 15 miles west-by-south of Eperies.

RICIMER, Count and Patrician of the Western empire, and an important civil and military character in the fifth century, was the son of Wallia, daughter of the king of the Visigoths, by a father of Suevian origin. From his youth he served in the Roman armies, where he acquired great reputation by his warlike exploits, and came to be regarded as the ablest commander of the age. Sidonius Apollinaris accumulates in his character of Ricimer all the excellences of the most celebrated names in ancient Rome; it appears, however, from his actions, that they had the alloy of perfidy and unprincipled ambition. In the reign of the Emperor Avitus, being one of the chief commanders of the Barbarian troops which formed the defence of Italy, he destroyed, in the year 456, on the coast of Corsica, a fleet of Genseric the Vandal King, destined to ravage the coasts of Gaul or Italy. This success enabled him to avail himself of the public discontents to depose Avitus, and raise to the throne Majorian in 457. The vigour and ability with which this prince maintained his dignity having disappointed Ricimer in his expectations of enjoying the supreme authority under his name, he fomented a sedition among the troops at Tortona, where Majorian was encamped on his return from Gaul, and compelled him, in 461, to abdicate the purple, which act was soon followed by his death. Ricimer then elevated to the throne one Libius Severus, an obscure man, who bore the title of Emperor, during four years, without performing any one imperial function. In that period, and in an interregnum of two years more, Ricimer exercised sovereign authority, amassing treasures, forming a separate army, and negociating alliances. He cut off a king of the Alans, with all his followers, who had invaded Italy; but he was unable to extend his sway beyond the Alps, where two generals, Ægidius in Gaul, and Marcellinus in Dalmatia, maintained themselves in independence. The Barbarian birth of Ricimer prevented his assumption of the purple; and in 467 he concurred in the inauguration of Anthemius, whose daughter at the same time he married. The new Emperor and his potent son-in-law passed some years in union; but at length dissentions broke out between them, and Ricimer, withdrawing from Rome, fixed his residence at Milan. There, after a feigned reconciliation with Anthemius, he excited his army to revolt, and with a reinforcement of new Barbarian levies marched to Rome. After a vigorous resistance, the unfortunate capital was stormed and sacked with every circumstance of cruelty, in July 472, and Anthemius, dragged from his concealment, was murdered by order of Ricimer, who caused Olybius to be proclaimed in his stead. He himself was shortly after carried off by disease, bequeathing the command of his army to his nephew Gundebald, a Burgundian prince. *Univers. Hist. Gibbon.*

RICINA, an island situated on the coast of Hibernia, being one of those called Ebudes, according to Ptolemy and Pliny.—Also, a town of Italy, in the Picenum, which became a Roman colony under the reign of the emperor Severus. It was situated south-west of Auximum.—Also, a town of Italy, in Liguria, south-east of Genoa.

RICINOCARPODENDRON, [compounded of *ricinus*, καρπος, Gr. *fructus*, and δενδρον, *arbor*.] In Botany, the name of a genus of plants, established by Dr. Amman, the characters of which are these: the flower is of the rosaceous kind, consisting of three petals, disposed in a circular order, in the centre of which there arises a large and open tube, through which shoots up the pistil, which grows at the bottom of the cup; this pistil, finally, becomes a trigonal fruit, divided into three cells within, each containing one seed in a rough coat.

The leaves of this tree sometimes resemble those of the ash, being composed of three or four pairs of smaller leaves joined to a middle rib; these are not serrated, and terminate in a sharp point; the flowers grow at the alæ of the leaves, they are white, and are disposed in lax spikes; the fruit is green at first, afterwards it becomes of a yellowish-red, and finally scarlet; it is of the bigness of a walnut, and in shape much resembles the fruit of the ricinus; the covering of the seeds is black on the outside, and red within, and each seed is divided into two lobes; when ripe, the fruit bursts, and the seeds fall out.—It is a native of the East Indies.

RICINUS, [so named from the similitude of the seed to a tyke or tick, which in Latin is Ricinus. Dioscorides calls it Κικι or Κροτων, Gr.] In botany, a genus of the class monoecia, order monadelphia, natural order of tricoccæ, euphorbiæ, (*Juss.*) Generic Character.—Male. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, five parted; segments ovate, concave. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments very numerous, filiform, branchingly collected below into various bodies. Anthers twin, roundish. Females on the same plant. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, three-parted; segments ovate, concave; deciduous. Corolla none. Pistil: germ ovate, covered with subulate corpuscles. Styles three, two-parted, from erect spreading, hispid. Stigmas simple. Pericarp: capsule roundish, three-grooved, prickly all over, three-celled, three-valved. Seeds solitary, subovate.—*Essential Character.*—Calyx five-parted. Corolla none. Male: stamens numerous. Female: styles three, bifid. Capsule three-celled. Seed one.

1. Ricinus inermis, or smooth-fruited palma Christi.—This is stouter than the common sort at the same age, but it can scarcely be regarded as a distinct species. Miller has two species without prickles: rugosus, n. 4. which is undoubtedly the same with this of Jacquin's, and inermis, n. 6. The former native of both Indies; the latter of the Spanish West Indies.

2. Ricinus communis, or common castor-oil tree.—The common palma Christi of Europe rises with a strong herbaceous stalk to the height of ten or twelve feet; the joints are at a great distance from each other; the stalk and branches are of a gray colour; the leaves are large, and on long footstalks; they are deeply divided into seven lobes, and are gray on their under side. The flowers are disposed in long spikes, which spring from the division of the branches: the males are placed on the lower part of the spike; the females which occupy the upper part, have prickly calyxes.

The root is biennial, long, thick, whitish, and beset with many small fibres. Stem round, thick, jointed, channelled, glaucous, of a purplish red colour towards the top. The capsule is subglobular, corticate, echinated all over with small

small spines; rind herbaceous, thin; the three component parts or cells (coeculi) ovate, papery, on one side convex with a dorsal streak, on the other angular and perforated with a cordate hole below the tip. Receptacle columnar, three-cornered, widening above, entering by a triple blunt end the ventral perforations of the cells. Seeds solitary, ovate, convex on one side, very bluntly angular on the other, smooth, somewhat shining, sometimes livid with cloudy spots, sometimes variegated like the abdomen of the spider with white lines, dots and stains on a testaceous or brown ground; on the top is a fungous thick white umbilicus or navel.

Loureiro describes the stem as eight feet high, upright, round, of an even surface, with a few spreading branches.

This plant, which in our gardens is annual and herbaceous, in Africa becomes a tree. In Candia it continues many years, and according to Belon, requires a ladder to come at the seeds. Clusius relates, that he observed it in Spain, of the size of the human body, and the height of three men. And Ray saw it in Sicily, frequent in the hedges, as big as our common elder trees, woody, and long-lived.

The several varieties are natives of the East and West Indies, China, Cochinchina, and Japan, about Tripoli in Syria; Africa, and the South of Europe.

It was cultivated in England in 1562, as appears from Turner's herbal. It flowers here in July and August.

The oil extracted from the seeds of this plant, and known by the name of oleum ricini, in frequent use, is a quick but gentle purgative. The London College direct this oil to be expressed from the seeds in the same way as that of almonds, and without the assistance of heat, by which method it would seem to be obtained in the purest state: but this method is seldom practised, and the oil usually employed here is imported from the West Indies, where it is commonly prepared by freeing the seeds from the husks, bruising them in a mortar, tying them up in a linen bag, throwing them into a large pot, with about eight gallons of water to one gallon of seeds, and boiling them till the oil is risen to the surface, when it is carefully skimmed off, strained and kept for use.

Dr. Cullen observes with justice, that castor oil, when the stomach can be reconciled to it, is one of the most agreeable purgatives we can employ. It has these advantages, that it commonly operates in two or three hours, seldom gripes, and is generally moderate in its operation: it is particularly suited to cases of costiveness, and even of spasmodic colic; is one of the most certain remedies in the colica pictonum.

The ricinus is called oil-nut tree in our West Indian islands, and the oil is burned in the boiling-house lamps, by many of the sugar planters. The roots are looked upon as strong diuretics, and the leaves are generally used to dress blisters.

In China, the oil is rendered esculent and palatable, but is seldom used in medicine.

In Japan, the seeds pounded with Moxa and Touche (Japan ink) together, are put into a little box or case, over which a piece of silk is stretched, and that is besmeared with oil, that the powder underneath may be moistened by it. Whenever a Japannese has occasion to put his seal, which is often curiously wrought in horn, to any thing, he first dips the seal into this box, and then impresses it upon the writing. Thus this powder supplies the place of printer's ink.

3. Ricinus tanarius. Leaves peltate, repand.—4. Ricinus mappa. Leaves peltate, undivided.—5. Ricinus apelta. Leaves petioled at the base, conical, quite entire.—6. Ricinus dioicus. Dioecous, leaves cordate, acuminate.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants are generally annuals in these countries, though in their native places of growth they continue longer; and in England the plants are often preserved through the winter, but young plants are much preferable to those which are thus preserved; therefore few persons are at the trouble to keep them, unless when the seasons prove so bad as that their seeds do not ripen, whereby the species might be lost, if the plants are not preserved through the winter.

These plants are propagated by seeds, which must be sown upon a hot-bed in the spring, and when the plants are come up, they should be each planted into a separate pot, filled with light fresh earth, and plunged into a fresh hot-bed, observing to water and shade them until they have taken root; after which they must have a great share of free air when the season is mild.

These plants deserve a place in every curious garden for the singular beauty of their leaves (notwithstanding their flowers make no great appearance), especially those which may be propagated every year from seeds; because those persons who have no green-house to place them into in winter, may cultivate them as other annual plants, amongst which these being placed either in pots or on borders, afford an agreeable variety; but it must be observed, as these are large growing plants, never to place them too near others of less growth, because they will overbear and destroy them; and those which are planted in pots, should be allowed room for their roots to spread, and must be frequently watered, otherwise they will not grow very large.

RICIUS (Paul), a celebrated converted Jew, who flourished in the 16th century, was a native of Germany, concerning the date of whose birth or death we have no information. He became professor of philosophy at the University of Pavia, and conducted himself with such abilty in that department, that he acquired great reputation, and secured the esteem of many learned men. He appears to have graduated in medicine, and was so powerfully recommended to the Emperor Maximilian, that he was sent for by that prince, and appointed his physician. He engaged in a controversy with the famous Eckius concerning the philosophical question, whether the heavens are animated, or have a soul? the affirmative of which he defended. He also published several books against the Jews, which reflected great honour on his learning, moderation, and candour. On his merits as a scholar and a man, Erasmus has passed a high encomium. Ricius was the author of "Lib. iv. de Cælesti agricultura;" "De Talmudæorum Codice excerpta Farrago;" "De Novenario Doctrinæ ordine, et de Aristotelici Dogmatis Cohærentia et Nexu;" "De Modo indagandi statuendique cujuslibet Scientiæ Subjectum;" with many others, which were collected together and printed in a folio volume at Augsburg, in the year 1541. *Bayle.*

RICK, *s.* [usually *reek* in our old books, ricz hric, Sax. a heap; *hrauk*, Icel. from *hreika*, to pile a heap, according to Serenius; from the Goth. *rikjan*, to rake together, according to Mr. H. Tooke. See also REEK.] A pile of corn or hay regularly heaped up in the open field, and sheltered from wet.

An inundation
O'erflowed a farmer's barn and stable;
Whole *ricks* of hay and stacks of corn
Were down the sudden current borne. *Swift.*

A heap of corn or hay piled by the gatherer.—In the North they bind them up in small bundles, and make small *ricks* of them in the field. *Mortimer.*

RICKERBY, a hamlet of England, in Cumberland, in the vicinity of Carlisle.

RI'CKETS, *s.* [*rachitis*, Lat.] A disease of children. Its nature and cure are expounded in the article PATHOLOGY.

O were my pupil fairly knocked o' th' head,
I should possess th' estate, if he were dead;
He's so far gone with *rickets* and th' evil,
That one small dose will send him to the devil. *Dryden.*

RI'CKETY, *adj.* Diseased with the rickets.—In a young animal, when the solids are too lax, the case of *rickety* children, the diet should be gently astringent. *Arbuthnot.*

RICKINGHALL INFERIOR, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 13½ miles north-east-by-east of Bury St. Edmund's. Population 400.

RICKINGHALL SUPERIOR, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 7½ miles west-by-north of Eye. Population 568.

RICKLING, a parish of England, in Essex, near Quendon.

RICKMANSWORTH, a market town of England, in the county of Hertford. It lies in a low moorish situation, near the confluence of the rivers Gade and Colne. The church is a spacious building, consisting of a nave, aisles, and chancel. It was repaired in the year 1677, and again in 1802. The large gallery at the west end seems to have been erected about the former period. Within the church are various monumental remains. By the vicinity of several streams, Rickmansworth is peculiarly adapted for trades that require a supply of water. Several mills have accordingly been erected for various purposes in the neighbourhood, viz. a large cotton and flour mill at the south entrance to the town, one flock and silk to the westward of this, and several paper mills on the north. The females of the town are a good deal employed in the manufacture of straw plait. The market was formerly noted for its supply of corn, but is now little frequented. The market-house is a mean wooden building, raised on pillars, and open beneath. Rickmansworth is governed by two constables and two headboroughs. The manor was given by king Offa to the abbey of St. Alban's, to which it was confirmed by succeeding monarchs, and had the charter of its market, and of two annual fairs, granted by Henry III. Market on Saturday. Population 3230; number of houses 589; 18 miles north-west of London.

RICKSGÖLD, in Commerce, one of the two species of paper currency in Sweden, the other being *banco*. The latter is issued by the national bank, and the former by the Ricksgöld bank, which is under the direction of government. Banco is 50 per cent. better than Ricksgöld; that is, two dollars of the former are worth three dollars of the latter. Banco is a legal tender, and has lately been declared, by royal authority, the national currency. Ricksgöld is current in all payments; but as no fresh issues of this paper have been lately made by government, it is continually decreasing in circulation, while banco increases. Both currencies are made payable to bearer on demand, and are accordingly discharged when presented for payment.

RICKTON, a village of England, in Salop, situated on the Rea, near North Cleobury.

RICLA, a small town of Spain, in Arragon, on the Xalon; 30 miles west-south-west of Saragossa.

RICOCHET FIRING, in the Military Art, is a method of firing with pieces elevated from three to six degrees, and loaded with a small charge, so that the ball may bound and roll along the inside of the parapet. The ball or shot, thus discharged, goes rolling and bounding, killing, maiming, or destroying all it meets with in its course, and creates much greater disorder, by moving thus slowly, than if thrown from the piece, whose elevation is greater, with greater violence.

The word *ricoche* signifies *duck and drake*, terms applied to the bounding of a flat stone thrown almost horizontally into the water.

RICOTIA, in botany, a genus of the class tetradynamia, order siliquosa, natural order of siloquosæ or cruciformes. Cruciferæ, *(Juss.)* Generic Character.—Calyx: perianth four-leaved; leaflets oblong, parallel-approximating, deciduous. Corolla, four-petalled, cruciform. Petals obcordate, spreading. Stamina: filaments six, the length of the tube; two opposite, a little shorter. Anthers oblong, acute. Pistil: germ cylindrical, the length of the stamens. Style scarcely any. Stigma acute. Pericarp: silique lanceolate-oval, one-celled, two-valved; valves flat. Seeds: about four, orbicular, compressed. *Essential Character.*—Silique one-celled, oblong, compressed; with flat valves.

1. Ricotia Ægyptiaca, or Egyptian ricotia. See LUNARIA ÆGYPTIACA.

RICQUIER, ST. a small town of France, department of the Somme, on the small river Scardon, with 1300 inhabitants; 6 miles north-east of Abbeville, and 15 west of Doulens.

RICTURE, *s.* [*rictura*, Lat.] A gaping.

RID, *pret.* of *ride*.

To RID, *v. a.* in the *pret.* perhaps *ridded* or *rid;* in the passive part. *rid.* [from hpeðban, Saxon.] To set free; to redeem.—It is he that delivereth me from my cruel enemies; thou shalt *rid* me from the wicked man. *Ps.* xviii. 49. —To clear; to disencumber.

I can put on
Thy terrours, as I put thy mildness on,
Image of thee in all things; and shall soon,
Arm'd with thy might, *rid* heaven of these rebels. *Milton.*

The god, uneasy till he slept again,
Resolv'd at once to *rid* himself of pain. *Dryden.*

To dispatch.

Having the best at Barnet field,
We'll thither straight; for willingness *rids* away.
Shakspeare.

To drive away; to remove by violence; to destroy.—Ah, deathsmen! you have *rid* this sweet young prince. *Shakspeare.*

RIDALE, or RISDALE, a small river of England, in Yorkshire, which runs into the Swale, below Richmond.

RI'DDANCE, *s.* Deliverance.—Deliverance from sudden death, *riddance* from all adversity, and the extent of saving mercy towards all men. *Hooker.*—Disencumbrance; loss of something one is glad to lose.

I have too griev'd a heart
To take a tedious leave: thus losers part.
—A gentle *riddance.* *Shakspeare.*

Act of clearing away any encumbrances.

Those blossoms, and those dropping gums,
That lie bestrown, unsightly and unsmooth,
Ask *riddance*, if we mean to tread with ease. *Milton.*

RI'DDEN, the participle of *ride.*—He could never have *ridden* out an eternal period, but it must be by a more powerful being than himself. *Hale.*

RIDDERKERK, a village of the Netherlands, in the province of South Holland. Population 2600; 6 miles south-east of Rotterdam.

RI'DDLE, *s.* [ræðep, Saxon, from ræðe, counsel or aræðian, to guess, to divine.] An ænigma; a puzzling question; a dark problem.

How did you dare
To trade and traffic with Macbeth,
In *riddles* and in charms of death. *Shakspeare.*

The Theban monster, that proposed
Her *riddle*, and him, who solved it not, devoured;
That once found out and solv'd, for grief and spight
Cast herself headlong from the Ismenian steep. *Milton.*

Any thing puzzling.

'Twas a strange *riddle* of a lady;
Not love, if any lov'd her: hey day!
So cowards never lose their might,
But against such as will not fight. *Hudibras.*

[hpiðle, Saxon; as Skinner has observed.] A coarse or open sieve.—Horse-beans and tares, sown together, are easily parted with a *riddle.* *Mortimer.*

To RIDDLE, *v. a.* To solve; to unriddle.—There is something of whimsical analogy between the two senses of the word *riddle:* as, we say, *to* sift *a question:* but their derivations differ.

Riddle me this, and guess him if you can,
Who bears a nation in a single man? *Dryden.*

To separate by a coarse sieve.—The finest sifted mould must be *riddled* in. *Mortimer.*

To RIDDLE, *v. n.* To speak ambiguously or obscurely.

Be plain, good son, and homely in thy drift;
Riddling confession finds but *riddling* shrift. *Shakspeare.*

RI'DDLER, *s.* One who speaks obscurely or ambiguously.

Thou *riddler*, speak
Distinct and clear; else I will search thy soul. *Home.*

RI'DDLINGLY

RI'DDLINGLY, *adv.* In the manner of a riddle; secretly.

Though like the pestilence and old-fashion'd love,
Riddlingly it catch men, and doth remove
Never, till it be starv'd out, yet their state
Is poor. *Donne.*

To RIDE, *v. n.* preter. *rid* or *rode;* part. *rid* or *ridden.* [ṙiðan, Saxon; *rijden,* Dutch.] To travel on horseback.

Brutus and Cassius
Are *rid,* like madmen, through the gates of Rome.
Shakspeare.

Were you but *riding* forth to air yourself,
Such parting were too petty. *Shakspeare.*

Am not I thine ass, upon which thou hast *ridden?* *Numbers.*

Through storms of smoke, and adverse fire he *rides,*
While every shot is levell'd at his sides. *Smith.*

Let your master *ride* on before, and do you gallop after him. *Swift.*—To travel in a vehicle; to be borne, not to walk.—Infected be the air whereon they *ride.* *Shakspeare.*—Upon this chaos *rid* the distressed ark, that bore the small remains of mankind. *Burnet.*—To be supported in motion.

As venerable Nestor, hatch'd in silver,
Should with a bond of air, strong as the axle-tree,
On which heaven *rides,* knit all the Grecian ears
To his experienc'd tongue. *Shakspeare.*

To manage an horse.

Skill to *ride* seems a science,
Proper to gentle blood; some others feign,
To manage steeds, as did this vaunter; but in vain.
Spenser.

The horses I saw well chosen, *ridden,* and furnished. *Shakspeare.*

Inspir'd by love, whose business is to please,
He *rode,* he fenc'd, he mov'd with graceful ease. *Dryden.*

To be on the water.

On the western coast
Rideth a puissant army. *Shakspeare.*

The sea was grown so rough, that the admiral was not able longer to *ride* it out with his gallies; but was enforced to slip his anchors, and run his gallies on the ground. *Knolles.*—They were then in a place to be aided by their ships, which *rode* near in Edinburgh Frith. *Hayward.*

Waiting with his royal fleet did *ride,*
And willing winds to their low'r'd sails deny'd. *Dryden.*

Men once walk'd where ships at anchor *ride.* *Dryden.*

Now on their coasts our conquering navy *rides,*
Way-lays their merchants, and their land besets. *Dryden.*

To be supported by something subservient.

A credulous father, and a brother noble,
Whose nature is so far from doing harms,
That he suspects none; on whose foolish honesty
My practices *rid* easy. *Shakspeare.*

To RIDE, *v. a.* To sit on so as to be carried.—They *ride* the air in whirlwind. *Milton.*—To manage insolently at will.—Humility does not make us servile or insensible, nor oblige us to be *ridden* at the pleasure of every coxcomb. *Collier.*

RIDE, *s.* A saddle-horse. Norfolk. *Grose.*—An excursion in a vehicle, or on horseback: as, to take a *ride.*—A road cut in a wood, or through grounds, for the purpose of using the diversion of riding therein; a riding.

RIDE, a village of England, in the Isle of Wight, situated on an eminence opposite Portsmouth, and commanding a fine view of Spithead. This place possesses many advantages above Cowes, as the beach is composed of a beautiful sand, and so gently sloping, that at low water a boat cannot approach within 100 yards of the quay. In the vicinity are a number of pleasant houses, frequented by respectable families during the summer season; 9 miles north-east of Newport.

RIDEAU, in Fortification, a small elevation of earth, extending itself lengthways on a plain; serving to cover a camp, or give an advantage to a post.

The word, in its original French, signifies a *curtain* or *cover,* formed from the Latin *ridellum.* Borel derives it from *ridere.*

A RIDEAU is also convenient for those who would besiege a place at a near distance, and to secure the workmen in their approaches to the foot of a fortress.

RIDEAU is sometimes also used for a trench, the earth of which is thrown up on its side, to serve as a parapet for covering the men.

RIDEAU RIVER, a river of North America, in Canada, which runs into the Utawas river. It falls in one sheet over a perpendicular rock, 40 feet high, and has the appearance of a curtain; from which circumstance it derives its name. Many Americans are settled on this river, and have thriving plantations, as the soil is excellent. Cultivation is indeed rapidly spreading, from the vicinity of this spot to Montreal.

RI'DER, *s.* [Sax. ṙiðere.] One who is carried on a horse or in a vehicle.

The strong camel and the generous horse,
Restrain'd and aw'd by man's inferiour force,
Do to the *rider's* will their rage submit,
And answer to the spur, and own the bit. *Prior.*

One who manages or breaks horses.—As horses are bred better; and to that end *riders* dearly hired. *Shakspeare.*—An inserted leaf; an additional clause, as to a bill passing through parliament.—They tacked the following *rider* to it. *Brand.*

RIDER, a village of Arabia, in the province of Hadramaut.

RIDGE, *s.* [hṙiɡɡ, Saxon; *rig,* Danish; *rugge,* Dutch; the back.] The top of the back.

He thought it was no time to stay;
But in a trice advanc'd the knight
Upon the bare *ridge* bolt upright. *Hudibras.*

The rough top of any thing, resembling the vertebræ of the back.

As when a vulture on Imaus bred,
Whose snowy *ridge* the roving Tartar bounds,
Dislodges from a region scarce of prey. *Milton.*

A steep protuberance.—The ground thrown up by the plough.—Thou visitest the earth; thou waterest the *ridges* thereof abundantly; thou settlest the furrows thereof. *Ps.* lxv. 10.—The top of the roof rising to an acute angle.—*Ridge* tiles or roof tiles, being in length thirteen inches, and made circular breadthways like an half cylinder, whose diameter is about ten inches or more, and about half an inch and half a quarter in thickness, are laid upon the upper part or *ridge* of the roof, and also on the hips. *Moxon.*—*Ridges* of a horse's mouth are wrinkles or risings of the flesh in the roof of the mouth, running across from one side of the jaw to the other like fleshy *ridges,* with interjacent furrows or sinking cavities. *Farrier's Dict.*

To RIDGE, *v. a.* To form a ridge.

Thou from heaven
Feign'dst at thy birth was given thee in thy hair,
Where strengh can least abide, though all thy hairs
Were bristles rang'd like those that *ridge* the back
Of chaf'd wild boars, or ruffl'd porcupines. *Milton.*

To wrinkle.

An eye
As fix'd as marble, with a forehead *ridg'd*
And furrow'd into storms. *Cowper.*

RIDGE, a parish of England, in Hertfordshire; 4 miles north-west of Chipping Barnet.

RIDGE, a post village of the United States, in St Mary's county, Maryland.—Also a post village of Edgefield district, South Carolina.

RIDGEBURG, a township of the United States, in Orange county, New York.

RIDGEFIELD, a township of the United States, in Fairfield county, Connecticut. Population 2103.

RI'DGEL, or RIDGELLING, *s.* [from *rig.*] An animal half castrated: a ram of this description, in the north, is called a *rigglit*.

Tend my herd, and see them fed;
To morning pastures, evening waters, led:
And 'ware the Libyan *ridgel*'s butting head. *Dryden.*

And 'ware the *ridg'ling* with his butting head. *Dryden.*

RI'DGINGLY, *adv.* After the manner of ridges, or ridge by ridge. *Huloet.*

RIDGEVILLE, a township of the United States, in Warren county, Ohio.—Also a township of Cuyahoga county, Ohio.

RIDGMONT, a parish of England, in Bedfordshire; 2½ miles north-east of Woburn. Population 677.

RIDGWELL, a village and parish of England, formerly a market town, in Essex; 5 miles from Clare. Population 453.

RI'DGY, *adj.* Rising in a ridge.

Far in the sea against the foaming shore,
There stands a rock; the raging billows roar
Above his head in storms; but, when 'tis clear,
Uncurl their *ridgy* backs, and at his feet appear. *Dryden.*

RI'DICULE, *s.* [*ridicule*, Fr.] Wit of that species that provokes contemptuous laughter.

Sacred to *ridicule* his whole life long,
And the sad burthen of some merry song. *Pope.*

Those, who aim at *ridicule*,
Should fix upon some certain rule,
Which fairly hints they are in jest. *Swift.*

Folly; ridiculousness.—It does not want any great measure of sense to see the *ridicule* of this practice. *Addison.*

RI'DICULE, *adj.* [*ridicule*, Fr.] Ridiculous. *Not in use.*—This action—was brought to court, and became so *ridicule*, that Sylvanus Scory was so laughed at and jeered, that he never delivered the letter to the queen. *Aubery.*

To RI'DICULE, *v. a.* To expose to laughter; to treat with contemptuous merriment.—I wish the vein of *ridiculing* all that is serious and good may have no worse effect upon our state, than knight errantry had on theirs. *Temple.*

RI'DICULER, *s.* One that ridicules.—They are generally *ridiculers* of all that is truly excellent. *Clarke.*—The *riduculer* shall make only himself ridiculous. *Chesterfield.*

RIDICULI ÆDICULA, or, THE CHAPEL OF LAUGHTER, in Roman Antiquity, was a building erected at Rome, about two thousand paces beyond the gate Capena, in memory of the flight of Hannibal from the siege of the city, on account of the ruin and tempest that befel him on that occasion. The Romans, in ridicule of his flight, built and consecrated this chapel.

RIDI'CULOUS, *adj.* [*ridiculus*, Lat.] Worthy of laughter; exciting contemptuous merriment.—He that sacrificeth of a thing wrongfully gotten, his offering is *ridiculous*. *Ecclus.* xxxiv. 18.

Thus was the building left
Ridiculous; and the work confusion nam'd. *Milton.*

It was not in Titus's power not to be derided; but it was in his power not to be *ridiculous*. *South.*

RIDI'CULOUSLY. *adv.* In a manner worthy of laughter or contempt.—Epicurus's discourse concerning the original of the world is so *ridiculously* merry, that the design of his philosophy was pleasure and not instruction. *South.*

RIDI'CULOUSNESS, *s.* The quality of being ridiculous.—What sport do Tertullian, Minucius and Arnobius make with the images consecrated to divine worship! from the meanness of the matter they are made of, the casualties of fire, and rottenness they are subject to, on purpose to represent the *ridiculousness* of worshipping such things. *Stillingfleet.*

RI'DING, *particip. adj.* Employed to travel on any occasion.—It is provided by another provincial constitution, that no suffragan bishop shall have more than one *riding* apparitor, and that archdeacons shall not have so much as one *riding* apparitor, but only a foot messenger. *Ayliffe.*—For the Art of Riding, see HORSE, p. 378.

RI'DING, *s.* A road cut in a wood, or through grounds, for the purpose of using the diversion of riding therein.—Beyond the garden *ridings* were cut out, each answering the angles of the lodge. *Sidney.*—A district visited by an officer.—One of the three divisions of Yorkshire; corrupted from *trithing*. *Ray.*

RIDING, a village of England, in Durham, between Ribblesworth and Urpeth.

RIDING-BITTS, in Ship Building, are the largest bitts in a ship, and those to which the cable is fitted when she rides at anchor.

RIDING CAST, in Husbandry, a term used by the farmers for a particular method of sowing their grounds, by making two casts upon the ground at the same time. This is not much used, but it is a quicker way than the double cast, which is the method now most used. *Plot's Oxfordshire.*

RIDING-CLERK, one of the six clerks in chancery, who in his turn, for one year, keeps the controlment-books of all grants that pass the great seal that year. *Blount.*

RI'DINGCOAT, *s.* A coat made to keep out weather.—When you carry your master's *ridingcoat* in a journey, wrap your own in it. *Swift.*

RI'DINGHABIT, *s.* A dress worn by women, when they ride on horseback.—There is another kind of occasional dress in use among the ladies; I mean the *ridinghabit*, which some have not injudiciously styled the hermaphroditical, by reason of its masculine and feminine composition. *Guardian.*

RI'DINGHOOD, *s.* A hood used by women, when they travel, to bear off the rain.—The palliolum was like our *ridinghoods*, and served both for a tunick and a coat. *Arbuthnot.*

Good housewives all the winter's rage despise,
Defended by the *ridinghood's* disguise. *Gay.*

RI'DINGHOUSE, or RI'DINGSCHOOL, *s.* A place in which the art of riding is taught.—I hope you apply the time you have saved from the *ridinghouse* to useful more than to learned purposes. *Chesterfield.*

RIDLEY (Nicholas), an eminent English prelate and martyr in the cause of the reformation, was descended from an ancient family, and born at Wilmotswyc in Tynedale, Northumberland, at the beginning of the 16th century. As he afforded early evidence of excellent natural abilities, and an inclination for learning, he was placed in a grammar school at Newcastle-upon-Tyne, where he made such proficiency, that his uncle Dr. Robert Ridley, entered him of Pembroke-hall in that university, about the year 1518. His disposition was open and ingenuous; by the care which had been taken of him, his mind was strongly impressed with principles of piety; and he possessed an uncommon spirit of constancy and resolution, which made him indefatigable in his studies. With respect to his religious principles, he appears to have been educated a zealous Papist. He studied Greek under Richard Crook, who was the first professor of that language at Cambridge; and in memorial of his diligence in acquiring it, a walk under Pembroke garden-wall still retains the name of *Ridley's Walk*, where he used to learn and repeat, without book, St. Paul's Epistles in the original tongue. Having been ordained priest, for his further improvement in theological knowledge his uncle sent him to the Sorbonne at Paris, then the most celebrated seminary in Europe for that study; and from thence he went to Louvain, continuing abroad till the year 1529. After his

his return to Cambridge, he was chosen junior treasurer of Pembroke-hall, in 1530; and he now applied with great diligence to the reading of the Scriptures, as the safest guides in his theological studies. Two years afterwards, his superior qualifications as a disputant were triumphantly displayed, in the character of one of the opponents to two Oxford scholars, who had challenged all the University of Cambridge to a disputation on two questions in which they had prepared themselves. On this occasion the vain-glorious challengers soon met with a complete defeat, and were obliged to quit the field in disgrace. In 1533, Mr. Ridley was chosen senior proctor of the University; and while he continued in office, the point of the pope's supremacy was brought before the University, to be examined upon the authority of Scripture. After public disputations had been held, in which the question was thoroughly discussed, the University at length came to a resolution, "That the Bishop of Rome had no more authority and jurisdiction derived to him from God, in this kingdom of England, than any other foreign bishop;" and this was officially signed by Mr. Ridley, as well as by the vice-chancellor and the other proctor. Upon the expiration of his office, in 1534, he proceeded bachelor of divinity, and was appointed chaplain to the University, as well as public orator, having established his character as an excellent preacher, and the best disputant of his time.

Mr. Ridley lost his generous uncle in the year 1536; but his now well known learning and talents soon procured him another and more powerful patron in Dr. Cranmer, Archbishop of Canterbury, who, in the course of the year following, took him into his family, and made him his chaplain. As a testimony of his approbation, and an earnest of future favour, in 1538 the Archbishop presented him to the vicarage of Hearne in East Kent. Here he preached the principles of the Reformation, excepting that he still adhered to the doctrine of the corporal presence in the eucharist; and among other converts which he made to them, was the Lady Fiennes, who proved a distinguished ornament to the cause which she adopted. To enliven the devotion of his parishioners, he also had the *Te Deum* sung at church in English; which was afterwards made the subject of an accusation against him. When, in 1539, the act of the six articles was passed, he bore his testimony against the imposition of them. In the year 1540, he went to Cambridge, and proceeded doctor of divinity; probably by the persuasion of Archbishop Cranmer. Soon after he had taken his degree, a vacancy happening in the mastership of Pembroke-hall, the Fellows, who were well acquainted with his learning and abilities, chose him to fill that post. About the same time, through Cranmer's influence, he was nominated chaplain to the King; and this honour was speedily followed by his collation to a prebendal stall in the cathedral church of Canterbury. In this city, when his duty called him to fill the pulpit, he discovered so much integrity and zeal in endeavouring to expose to the people the abuses of popery, that he provoked against him the rage of some of the prebendaries and preachers of what was called the old learning, who at the Archbishop's visitation in 1541, exhibited charges against him for preaching contrary to the statute of the six articles. On this occasion Dr. Ridley, though he feared not to bear his testimony against any tenet or practice which he discovered to be erroneous, yet, from respect to the authority by which the six articles were enjoined, when called upon for his defence delivered his opinions with so much caution, that the malicious views of his accusers were completely disappointed. Notwithstanding this, a new attempt to ruin him was privately projected by Dr. Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, and some of his popish associates, who contrived that articles should be exhibited against him before the justices of the peace in Kent, and afterwards before the King and council, which charged him with preaching against auricular confession, calling the ceremonies of the church beggarly ceremonies, and directing *Te Deum* to be sung in English at Hearne. The cognizance of this accusation being referred by the King to Cranmer, he detected the true authors of the persecution, and discovered their malicious design to the King, by whose authority it was immediately crushed.

Hitherto Dr. Ridley had been an unsuspecting believer in the doctrine of transubstantiation; but in the year 1545, while spending a considerable time in retirement at Hearne, he employed himself in carefully and dispassionately examining into its truth and evidence. As he proceeded, he honestly communicated his discoveries and his scruples to his friend and patron Cranmer, who, knowing the sincerity of the man, and his cool judgment, was prevailed upon to examine this doctrine himself with the utmost care. The result was, that both Dr. Ridley and the Archbishop became fully convinced, that the doctrine in question was not a doctrine of Scripture. The setting aside of this absurd tenet was a very important article of reformation; for, as Cranmer expressed himself, "the taking away of beads, pilgrimages, pardons, and such like popery, was but the lopping a few branches, which would soon spring up again, unless the roots of the tree, which were transubstantiation and the sacrifice of the mass, were pulled up." And this he acknowledged was owing to conference with Dr. Ridley, "who, by sundry persuasions and authorities of doctors, drew him quite from his old opinion." Towards the close of the year 1545, Cranmer procured for his friend the eighth stall in the church of St. Peter at Westminster. Upon the accession of Edward VI. in 1547, Dr. Ridley, being appointed to preach before the King on Ash Wednesday, took that opportunity, after confuting the Bishop of Rome's pretended claims to authority and power, to discourse concerning the abuses of images in churches, and ceremonies, particularly the use of holy water for driving away devils; which Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, who was among his auditors, made an unsuccessful attempt to defend in a letter which he sent to him on the following Monday. A few days afterwards he was united in a commission with the Archbishop of Canterbury, the Bishops of Durham and Rochester, and six others, for the purpose of examining the cause of the Earl of Northampton, whose Countess had been guilty of adultery, and to pass such a sentence as should be warranted by Scripture, and the judgment of the primitive Christians.

In September 1547, a vacancy having taken place in the bishopric of Rochester, Dr. Ridley was promoted to that dignity, and consecrated with the yet-unaltered rites and forms usual on such occasions in the Roman church, after he had taken an oath by which he renounced the usurped jurisdiction of the Roman pontiff. During the following year, he appears to have been employed in reforming the liturgy, conjointly with Archbishop Cranmer, five other prelates, and some learned divines; and in 1549, he was appointed one of the commissioners empowered to search after all Anabaptists, heretics, and contemners of the book of common prayer. In consequence of being put into this commission, he was involved in the indelible reproach of having contributed to bring to the stake Joan Bocher and George Van Paris. Soon afterwards he repaired to Cambridge to hold, as he then imagined, a visitation for abolishing statutes and ordinances which maintained popery and superstition, and to preside at a public dispute on the subject of the corporal presence in the eucharist. But when his fellow-commissioners made him fully acquainted with their instructions, which they had concealed from him for some days, he found that the principal object of their appointment was the suppression of Clare-Hall, under the pretence of uniting it to Trinity-Hall, and of erecting there a new college of civilians; though the real motive of the courtiers in urging that measure was, that they might seize upon the revenues of Clare-Hall. The Master and Fellows, however, could not be prevailed upon voluntarily to surrender their college into the King's hands; and when the majority of the commissioners determined that they might proceed to the execution of their scheme, under the sole sanction of the royal authority, Ridley modestly opposed their determination, and with great calmness entered his dissent. Not venturing to act in opposition to his protest, the commissioners complained to the Protector of the interruption in promoting

promoting the King's service which they met with from the Bishop of Rochester. Upon this the Protector wrote a chiding letter to Ridley, which was followed by an interchange of several other letters between them upon the subject. But notwithstanding all the means which were made use of to influence our prelate, he resolutely persisted in refusing his countenance to a proceeding which he considered to be unjust; and, owing to his firmness, the affair dropped. His next business was to preside at a public disputation in the University on the subject of the Lord's Supper. On this occasion, the advocates both for the popish and protestant doctrines had a fair hearing, and after their debates were ended, Bishop Ridley determined, in a very learned, solid, and satisfactory manner, against transubstantiation, and the oblation of Christ in that sacrament.

The Bishop of Rochester was one of the commissioners appointed to sit in judgment on the cause of Bonner, Bishop of London, and by whom sentence of deprivation was pronounced against him. After this sentence had been confirmed, Bishop Ridley was thought to be the most proper person to fill that important see, on account of his great learning, and zeal for the Reformation. His translation from Rochester to London was accordingly declared in February, 1549-50, though he was not installed before the month of April, when the bishopric of Westminster was suppressed, as a distinct sec, and united to that of London. It was an honourable mark of distinction that his patent to his bishopric was granted for the term of his natural life, while several other prelates in this reign held their titles to their sees only during their good behaviour. Ridley's conduct towards his predecessor Bonner and his family, after taking possession of the episcopal palace, bears very creditable testimony to his integrity and benevolence. He took particular care to preserve from injury the goods and moveables belonging to Bonner, giving him free leave to remove the smallest article to which he had any claim, and sacredly keeping for his use what he knew to be his, though not taken away. Such materials as Bonner had purchased for the repair of his house and church, Ridley employed to the uses designed; but he scrupulously repaid him the money which he had advanced for them. He took upon himself the discharge of the sums which were due to Bonner's servants for liveries and wages; and that the mother and sister of that prelate, who lived near the palace, at Fulham, and had their board there, might not be losers in consequence of his promotion, he always sent for them to dinner and supper, constantly placing Mrs. Bonner at the head of the table, even when persons of high rank were his guests. Soon after his translation to London, Bishop Ridley was nominated one of the commissioners for examining Gardiner, Bishop of Winchester, and concurred in his deprivation. About the same time commenced his dispute with Hooper, Bishop-elect of Gloucester on the subject of the vestments appointed to be used in the church, of which we have given an account in the life of that prelate. In the summer of the year 1550, Bishop Ridley visited his diocese, and among other injunctions set forth one which very properly directed that the altars should be taken down in the churches, and tables substituted in the room of them for the celebration of the Lord's Supper. By so doing he agreed with Hooper, who, in a sermon lately preached before the King, recommended that measure, "thereby," said he, "to take away the false persuasion of the people, which they have of sacrifices to be done upon altars. Because, as long as altars remain, both the ignorant people, and the ignorant and even-persuaded priests, will dream always of sacrifices." In 1551, the famous *sweating sickness* prevailed in England, and proved fatal to great numbers of people. However, while this malignant and pestilential disorder was raging, Bishop Ridley continued to reside in the midst of his flock, assiduous in the discharge of his pastoral functions, and endeavouring to improve the public calamity to the reformation of the manners of the people. To promote more generally a reformation in the doctrine of the church, the council this year appointed Archbishop Cranmer and Bishop Ridley to prepare a book of articles of faith. With this view they drew up forty-two articles, and sent copies of them to the other bishops and learned divines, for their corrections and amendments; after which the Archbishop reviewed them a second time, and then presented them to the council, where they received the royal sanction, and were then published by the King's authority, as an act of the supremacy.

In the year 1552, Bishop Ridley visited his old college at Cambridge, and upon his return called at Hundsdon, to pay his respects to the Princess Mary. The reception which he met with from her was civil, till he offered to preach before her on the following Sunday, if she would permit him. Upon this her countenance changed, and, after continuing for some time silent, said, "I pray you, my Lord, make the answer to yourself." The Bishop proceeding to tell her that his office and duty obliged him to make the offer, she replied, that if the answer must come from her, she had to say that the doors of the parish-church should be open for him, if he came, and that he might preach if he pleased; but that neither would she hear him, nor allow any of her servants to do it. "Madam," says the Bishop, "I trust you will not refuse God's word." "I cannot tell," said she, "what you call God's word; that is not God's word now, that was God's word in my father's days." Upon the Bishop's observing, that God's word was the same at all times, but had been better undersood and practised in some ages than others, she could restrain her anger no longer; but told him, "You durst not for your ears have avouched that for God's word in my father's days, that you now do." She then broke out into many bitter expressions against the established form of religion, the administration of government, and the laws made during her brother's minority, and parted from the Bishop with these words: "My Lord, for your civility in coming to see me, I thank you; but for your offer to preach before me, I thank you not a whit." His honest freedom on this occasion, was never forgotten or forgiven by the bigotted Mary. When the parliament assembled in 1553, the King, who was now languishing under the decline which soon terminated his life, being unable to go to Westminster, ordered the two Houses to attend him at Whitehall; where Bishop Ridley preached before him, and took the opportunity of expatiating with great force on the duties of beneficence and charity, as particularly obligatory on persons of the highest rank and station, both on account of their greater ability, and of the influence which their examples of goodness might have upon others. On the same day the King sent for the Bishop, thanked him for his discourse, discovering by a recapitulation of the principal points in it the strong impression which it had made upon him, and then entreated his direction by what particular actions he might in the best manner discharge his duty towards the poor and the miserable. As soon as he had recovered from the surprize occasioned by such an unexpected question, the Bishop told his Majesty, that before he gave his answer he wished to consult with some persons experienced in civil government; and especially the magistrates of London, who, from the multitudes of the poorer classes within their jurisdiction, must be acquainted with their condition, and competent to point out the most proper means for their relief and improvement. Upon this the King ordered letters on the subject to be immediately drawn up, which he confirmed by his hand and seal and delivered to our prelate, desiring him to be his messenger to the citizens on that occasion, and to use all possible expedition in the business. With these letters the Bishop hastened to the Lord Mayor, who summoned a committee of aldermen and commoners, by whom the subject recommended in them was taken into serious consideration. The result was such a representation of the different classes of objects which called for the attention of humanity, as determined the King to found, or incorporate anew, and endow with ample revenues those noble charitable institutions, Christ's, Bartholomew's, Bridewell, and St. Thomas's hospitals.

When, after the death of King Edward VI., an attempt was

was made to raise Lady Jane Grey to the throne, Bishop Ridley was induced heartily to concur in it by his attachment to the principles of the Reformation. Being commanded by the council to preach at St. Paul's, and to recommend Queen Jane to the people, he obeyed the order with great zeal and earnestness, pointing out the dangerous and ruinous consequences which must follow should the Princess Mary succeed, who was a rigid Papist, determined to subvert the true religion as already established, and to betray the kingdom again into slavery under a foreign power. After the design in favour of Lady Jane had miscarried, and the Princess Mary had been acknowledged and proclaimed Queen, Ridley went to Framingham, where Mary now was, to do her homage and to submit to her clemency. His reception, however, was such as he might have expected after what had passed at Hundsdon. By the command of that bigotted Princess he was sent back from Framingham on a lame horse, and committed to the Tower on the 26th of July, 1553, to be proceeded against for heresy. Notwithstanding this treatment, the Bishop might have delivered himself from the danger which threatened him, and recovered the Queen's favour, if he would have brought the weight of his learning and authority to countenance her proceedings in religion. When he had been about eight months in the Tower, he was conveyed from thence to Oxford, together with Cranmer and Latimer, to be present at a disputation, when it was pretended that the controversy between the Papists and Protestants would be determined by a fair debate between the most eminent divines of both parties. Of the manner in which this disputation was conducted, and of the treatment which our prelate met with till his final condemnation for heresy, on the 1st of October, 1555, an account has been already given in our lives of Cranmer and Latimer. During the fortnight which he continued in prison after his condemnation, the Popish party, as though they were ashamed to sacrifice a man of such acknowledged piety and learning, tried all their means of persuasion to gain him to their cause. Brookes, Bishop of Gloucester, in great simplicity pointed out to him the only method of being reclaimed to the church of Rome, which was, to "captivate his senses, and subdue his reason;" and then, "he doubted not but that he might be easily induced to acknowledge one church with them." About the same time Lord Dacres, who was kinsman to Ridley, offered ten thousand pounds to the Queen, if she would preserve so valuable a life. But to this proposal she would not agree, on any other condition than that of the Bishop's recantation; and Ridley, with the spirit of a primitive martyr, nobly refused life on such terms.

On the 15th of October, he was degraded from priest's orders by the Bishop of Gloucester, and executed with Latimer, as related under the article LATIMER. By some mismanagement of the fire on Ridley's side of the stake, the flames were prevented from reaching the upper part of his body, and his legs were consumed before the fire approached the vital parts, which made him endure dreadful torments for a long time. At length his sufferings were terminated by the explosion of a bag of gunpowder which had been suspended from his neck, after which he did not discover any remaining signs of life. Such was the end of Ridley, a prelate of great learning and distinguished abilities, who, in his private character, was a pattern of piety, humility, temperance, and regularity, to all around him. His temper was cheerful and agreeable; his manners courteous and affable; and of the benevolence of his heart he gave abundant proofs, in his extraordinary generosity and liberality to the poor. Anthony Wood says of him, that "he was a person small in stature, but great in learning, and profoundly read in divinity." Among many other pieces, he was the author of "A Treatise concerning Images, not to be set up nor worshipped, in Churches," written in the time of King Edward VI.; "Brief Declaration of the Lord's Supper," written during his confinement at Oxford; "Certain godly and comfortable Conferences" between him and Latimer, during the time of their imprisonment; "A friendly Farewell unto all his true Lovers," written during his imprisonment; "A Letter of Reconciliation written to Bishop Hooper," &c.—*Gloucester Ridley's Life of Bishop Ridley. Biog. Brit. Brit. Biog. Wood's Athen.* Vol. I. *Neal's Hist. Purit.* Vol. I. chap. i—iii. *passim.*

RIDLEY (Gloster, Dr.), a man of some eminence as a writer, was of the same family as the preceding Ridley. He was born in 1702, on board the Gloucester East Indiaman, whence he got his name, and received the early part of his education at Winchester. He then removed to New College, Oxford, of which he became a fellow and bachelor of laws; and here he laid the foundation of more acquirements, by which he afterwards distinguished himself as a poet, historian, and divine. In 1763 he published the Life of Bishop Ridley, in 4to. In 1765 he published his Review of Philips's Life of Cardinal Pole; and, in 1761, in reward for his labours in this controversy and in another which the Confessional produced, he was presented by Archbishop Secker to a golden prebend at Salisbury. Two poems by Dr. Ridley, one styled "Jovi Eleutherio, or an Offering to Liberty," and the other called "Psyche," were printed in Dodsley's collection. Melampus, the sequel of the latter, has since been published by subscription. His transcript of the Syriac gospels was published, with a literal Latin translation, by Professor White, in 2 vols. 4to., at Oxford.—*Nichols's Collection of Poems.*

RIDLEY (Humphrey), a physician and anatomist, who flourished about the beginning of the 18th century, was a Fellow of the Royal College of Physicians in London, in which city he was a practitioner. He published in 1695, "The Anatomy of the Brain, containing its Mechanism and Physiology, &c., to which is annexed a particular Account of Animal Functions and Muscular Motion," 8vo. The anatomical part of this work, though not without omissions and errors, has some improvements upon former descriptions: in particular, he discovered, or at least clearly made out, the circular sinus of the dura mater. His physiological explanation of muscular motion is nearly the same as that of Boerhaave. The figures in this work were drawn by the eminent anatomist Cowper, and are repeated in the Supplement to his Anatomy. Ridley's second work, entitled "Observationes quædam Medico Practicæ et Physiologicæ," 8vo., 1703, contains cases in a variety of disorders, which shew him to have been an attentive practitioner. There are subjoined ten dissections of morbid bodies, and a dissertation concerning the foramen ovale, accompanied with a figure.—*Halleri Bibl. Anat.*

RIDLEY, a small river in England, in Northumberland.

RIDLEY, a village of England, in Northumberland, near Haltwhistle.

RIDLEY, a township of the United States, in Delaware county, Pennsylvania. Population 991.

RIDLINGTON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4 miles east of North Walsham.

RIDLINGTON, a parish of England, in Rutlandshire; 3 miles north-west of Uppingham.

RIDOTTO, *s.* [Italian; "a company, a crew or assembly of good fellows; also, a gaming or tabling house, or other place where good companie doth meete." *Florio*, 1598.] A sort of public assembly.—In the mornings, if you are high-bred enough, you are to go to White's, where whist may engage you, till the masquerade, *ridotto*, or some other polite amusement calls you away.

RIDWARE HAMPSTALL, a village of England, in Staffordshire, situated on the Blythe, between Rudgeley and Yoxall.

RIE, *s.* An esculent grain. This differs from wheat in having a flatter spike, the corn larger and more naked. *Miller.* See RYE.

RIEBECK'S CASTEEL, a division of the district of Drakenstein, in the territory of the Cape of Good Hope, about 60 miles east of Cape Town

RIED, or RIEDT, a tolerably well built market town of Upper Austria, in the quarter of the Inn. It has 3000 inhabitants, who manufacture and trade in linen and woollen. A sharp action took place here in the end of October, 1805, between

between the French and Austrians, to the disadvantage of the latter; 18 miles east of Braunau, and 18 south of Passau.

RIED, a village of the Austrian states, in Tyrol, on the Inn; 9 miles south of Landeck.

RIEDER, a village of the interior of Germany, in the duchy of Anhalt-Bernburg, near Ballenstedt. Population 1000.

RIEDESEL, a small principality of Germany, in the grand duchy of Hesse, mediatised or deprived of its sovereignty, in 1806. It lies chiefly in the mountainous district of the Vogelsberg, has an area of 70 square miles, a population of 9200, and is shared among three branches of the ancient family of Riedesel.

RIEDLINGEN, a town of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, on the Danube; 28 miles west-south-west of Ulm, and 44 south-south-east of Stutgard. Population 1500.

RIEDSELZ, a village of France, in Alsace, arrondissement of Weissembourg. Population 1000.

RIEGEL, a town of Germany, in Baden, on the river Elz, with 1700 inhabitants; 14 miles north-north-west of Freyburg.

RIEHEN, a small town of Switzerland, in the canton of Bale, on the Rhine; 3 miles east of Bale.

RIELA, a small town of Spain, in Arragon, on the Xiloca; 14 miles north-east of Calatayud.

RIEMLING, in Ichthyology, a name given by several to the small fresh-water fish, called by the Latins *poxinus*, and vulgarly the *pink*.

RIENS ARREAR, in Law, a kind of plea used to an action of debt upon arrears of accounts; by which the defendant alleges, that there is nothing in arrear.

RIENS *passe par le fait*, nothing passes by the deed, is the form of an exception taken in some cases to an action.

RIENS *par descent*, nothing by descent, is the plea of an heir, when sued for his ancestor's debt, though he had no lands from it by descent, nor has assets in hand.

RIENZI. See GABRINI.

RIER, or REER-COUNTY, *Retro-comitatus*, in Law, is used in the statute of Westm. 2. c. 39. 2 Edw. III. cap. 5. and in our law-books, in opposition to *open county*.

This appears to be some public place, which the sheriff appoints for the receipt of the king's money, after the end of the county-court. Fleta says it is *dies crastinus post comitatum*.

RIESA, a town of Germany, in Saxony, on the Elbe; 24 miles north-west of Dresden. Population 1100.

RIESENBURG, or PRABUDKA, a town of West Prussia, in the govenment of Marienwerder. Population 2400; 12 miles east of Marienwerder.

RIESENGEBIRGE, i. e. *the Giants' Mountains*, a name under which is frequently comprehended all that part of the great Sudetic chain which begins on the borders of Lusatia, and separates Bohemia and Moravia from Silesia, till it joins the Carpathians. But the term Riesengebirge is properly confined to that part of this range which lies between the sources of the Neisse and the Rober; a track of no great length, but containing the loftiest mountains of the north or central part of Germany, being almost every where about 3000 feet in height, and having a few peaks which attain a much greater elevation. Of these, the Schneeberge has a height of 5270 English feet; the great Sturmhaube of 5030, and the lesser Sturmhaube nearly as much. From the top of the Schneeberge, Breslau, distant 70 miles to the north-east, and Prague, at nearly the same distance to the south-west, are both visible. The geological structure of these mountains does not differ materially from that of the other Sudetes. The valleys are picturesque, and produce the finest Alpine plants, but are not well adapted to the growth of corn, and the inhabitants, particularly in the higher parts, are miserably poor.

RIETBERG. See RITTBERG.

RIETI, a town of Italy, in the States of the Church, the capital of a delegation of the same name, and situated on the Velino. It is old, and not well built, but contains 6500 inhabitants, is the see of a bishop, and has, besides its cathedral, a number of churches and convents. It has some petty manufactures of woollens, and in the environs the culture of woad (a plant used in dyeing), is much followed. The air is reckoned unhealthy. In 1785 this town was much damaged by an earthquake; 25 miles south-south-east of Spoleto, and 37 north-north-east of Rome.

RIETI, a delegation or district of the States of the Church, situated in the interior, to the north-east of Rome, and containing 66,000 inhabitants.

RIEUMES, a town of France, department of the Upper Garonne, with 1100 inhabitants, and some manufactures of linen; 23 miles south-west of Toulouse.

RIEUPEIROUX, a town in the south of France, department of the Aveyron. Population 1800: 12 miles east-by-south of Villefranche.

RIEUX, a town in the south of France, department of the Upper Garonne, on the small river Reze, with a castle and an old cathedral. It has 1700 inhabitants, and is 28 miles south-by-west of Toulouse.

RIEUX, a town of France, department of the Morbihan, on the Vilaine. Population 2200.

RIEUX, a town of France, department of the Aude. Population 1300; 14 miles east of Carcassonne.

RIEXINGEN, UPPER, a small town of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, on the Enz; 12 miles north-north-west of Stutgard. Population 1000.

RIEZ, a town of France, department of the Lower Alps, on the river Colostre, with 2900 inhabitants. It has some manufactures of woollen stuffs and leather, but is one of the most gloomy and disagreeable towns of Provence, offering nothing interesting to the traveller but its antiquities. Of these, the principal are four magnificent columns, some mosaics, and a rotunda, whose modern walls are supported by pillars of granite; 23 miles south-by-west of Digne, and 40 north-east of Aix.

RIF DYKE, one of the smaller Orkney islands, east of North Ronaldsha. Lat. 59. 13. N. long. 2. 17. W.

RIFE, *adj.* [ȝŷfe, Saxon; *riif*, Dutch.] Prevalent; prevailing; abounding. It is now only used of epidemical distempers.

Guyon closely did await
Avantage; whilst his foe did rage most *rife*,
Sometimes athwart, sometimes he strook him straight,
And falsed oft his blows. *Spenser.*

RI'FELY, *adv.* Prevalently; abundantly.—It was *rifely* reported, that the Turks were coming in a great fleet. *Knolles.*

RI'FENESS, *s.* Prevalence; abundance.—The *rifeness* of their familiar excommunications may have taught them to seek for a spotlessness above. *Bp. Hall.*

RI'FFRAFF, *s.* [il ne luy lairra *rif* ne *raf*. Cotgrave, in V. RIF. Where *rif* is defined *rien*, nothing.] The refuse of any thing.—Thwick-thwack, and *riff-raff*, roars he out aloud! *Bp. Hall.*

To RI'FLE, *v. a.* [*riffer*, *rifler*, Fr. *rijffelen*, Teut.] To rob; to pillage; to plunder.—Stand, Sir, and throw us what you have about you; if not, we'll make you, Sir, and *rifle* you. *Shakspeare.*—A commander in the parliament's rebel army *rifled* and defaced the cathedral at Lichfield. *South.*—To take away; to seize as pillage.

Mine is thy daughter, priest, and shall remain,
And pray'rs, and tears, and bribes shall plead in vain,
Till time shall *rifle* every youthful grace *Pope.*

RI'FLE, *s.* [*rijffelen*, Teut. radere, scalpere. Kilian.] A kind of whetstone.—All our sports and recreations, if we use them well, must be to our body, or mind, as the mower's whetstone or *rifle* is to his scythe, to sharpen it when it grows dull. *Whately.*—A sort of gun, having, within its barrel, indented lines.

The nature and properties of Rifle-guns have received our notice in this work, under the word GUN, vol. ix. pp. 105, 106.

It

It is necessary, however, to notice in this place, that the principle of the rifle-musket has been applied to the formation of cannon.

The first attempt of this kind was made by Dr. Lind, and Capt. Alexander Blair, of the 69th regiment, in 1774. The pieces are of cast iron, and are not bored like the common cannon, but have the rifles moulded on their core, after which they are cleaned out, and furnished with the proper instruments.

Guns of this description, which are intended for the field, ought never to be made to carry a ball of above one or two pounds weight at most; a leaden bullet of that weight being sufficient to destroy either man or horse. A pound gun of this description, of good metal, need not weigh above an hundred weight, and its carriage about another hundred, and may therefore be easily transported from place to place by a few men, and a couple of good horses may transport six of these guns and their carriages, if put into a cart. But for other purposes, in which a greater momentum is necessary, there is nothing to prevent them being made of the usual calibre.

The following are the dimensions that have been recommended for these kinds of cannon. The length of the gun being divided into seven equal parts, the length of the first reinforce is two of these parts; the second reinforce $1\frac{15}{16}$ of the diameter of the calibre; the chase $3\frac{1}{16}$ diameter of the calibre. The distance of the hind part of the base ring to the beginning of the bore is $\frac{3}{16}$ calibre. The trunnions are each one calibre in length, and the same in breadth; their centres are placed $\frac{3}{7}$ths of the length of the gun from the hind part of the base ring, in such a manner, that the axis of the trunnions pass through the centre line of the bore, which prevents the gun from kicking, and breaking its carriage. The length of the cascable is $1\frac{13}{16}$ of a calibre.

The calibre of the gun being divided into 16 equal parts; then

The thickness of metal from the base ring to the bore, is	18.5
At the end of the first reinforce	17
At the same place for the beginning of the second reinforce	17
At the end of the second reinforce	15
At the same place for the beginning of the chase	13.75
At the end of the chase, or muzzle, the mouldings excluded	9
At the swelling of the muzzle	12
At the muzzle fillet	9.5
At the extreme moulding	8
Base ring	5.5
Ogee next the base ring	5.5
The astragal, or half round	4.75
Its fillet	1
Total astragal and fillets at the vent-field	4
First reinforce ring	4.5
Second reinforce ring	3.5
Its ogee	3
Its astragal	1.5
And its fillet	1
The muzzle, astragal and fillet	4
Breadth of the fillet at the base ring	1
Distance of the fillet at the button from the fillet at the base ring	5
Breadth of the fillet at the button	1
Diameter of the fillet at the button	18
Distance of the centre of the button from its fillet	12
Diameter of the button	18
Diameter of its neck	10.5

The vent should be placed about half an inch from the bottom of the chamber or bore, that the cartridge may be pricked, lest some of the bottom of the cartridges should be left when the gun is sponged, which might retard the firing till the ball be again drawn, which is very difficult in pieces of this kind.

The rifles in this gun make one spiral turn in the length of the bore, but go no nearer to the breech, in their full size, than two calibres, and terminate in a gentle slope in half a calibre more, so as not to prevent the cartridge, with the powder, from being easily sent home to the bottom of the gun, which would otherwise constantly happen with the flannel cartridges, and even sometimes with paper ones, if not made to enter very loosely. The shape of the rifles is semicircular, their breadth being equal to the diameter, which is $\frac{3}{16}$ths of the calibre, and their depth $\frac{6}{16}$ths of a calibre. The bullets are of lead, having six nobs cast on them, to fit the rifles of the gun; and being thus made of soft metal, they do do not injure the rifles.

Rifle ordnance, however, of any calibre, might be made to carry iron shot for battering, or for other purposes; provided holes, that are a little wider at their bottoms than at their upper parts, be cast in a zone round the ball, for receiving afterwards leaden knobs to fit the rifles of the cannon; by which means the iron shot will have its intended line of direction preserved without injuring the rifles more than if the whole ball was of lead, the rotatory motion round its axis, or the line of its direction, which corrects the aberration, being communicated to it by the leaden knobs following the spiral turn of the rifles in their progress out of the gun. It is particularly to be observed, that the balls must be made to go easily down into the piece, so that the cartridge with the powder, and the bullet, may be both sent home together with a single push of the hand, without any wadding above either the powder or the ball, by which means the gun is quickly loaded, and the ball flies farther than when it is forcibly driven into the gun, as was found from many experiments. The only reason why, in common rifle muskets, the bullets are forcibly rammed in, is, that the zone of the ball which is contiguous to the inside of the bore, may have the figure of the rifles impressed upon it, in such a manner, as to become part of a male screw, exactly fitting the indents of the rifle, which is not at all necessary in the present case, the figure of the rifles being, in the first instance, cast upon the ball. These knobs retard the flight of the ball in some degree, but this small disadvantage is fully counterbalanced by the ease with which the gun is loaded, its service being nearly as quick as that of a common field-piece, and the retardation and quantity of the whirling motion which is communicated to the bullet being constantly the same, it will not in the least affect the experiments made with them, in order to determine the resistance of the air.

The French, during the last war, made experiments on rifle ordnance of a different kind to that above explained; in which, in fact, the gun is of the usual form, the principal difference being in the nature and form of the ball, which M. Guyton (who has given an account of these experiments in vol. vii. of the National Institute of France) calls *bullets a bague de plomb*. In form they are cylindrico-spherical, the cylindric part being next the charge. A rim of lead is fixed round the centre of the ball, rather exceeding the bore of the gun, which is cut off by the edge of the muzzle, in introducing the ball into the piece, whereby all the advantages of the rifle are obtained, although the rotatory motion above described, and which is supposed to have so great an influence on the direction, has not place in the present instance. According to M. Guyton's report, the accuracy in the rectilinear motion of these balls exceeded any thing before known in artillery practice; besides, that although the weight of the bullet was nearly double that of a common shot of a piece of the same calibre, the range in very few instances fell short of the common range, and in some even considerably exceeded it. The difficulty and time requisite in loading a gun with a ball of this kind, however, are so great, as, in our opinion, to render it useless, although it seems to have been recommended for adoption, in a few particular

particular situations, by a committee of French artillery officers. In the course of the memoir in which the above experiments are detailed, M. Guyton mentions another kind of rifle cannon, invented by an Italian officer, which was found remarkably correct in projecting the ball in a right line. The bore of this gun is slightly conical, being greatest at the breech, where the piece is loaded by unscrewing the breech, as in some rifle muskets and pistols: the ball is of lead, which must necessarily, from the construction of the gun, change its form in passing through the bore. But this, as well as the one above-mentioned, requires so much time in loading, that it will probably never come into general use.

RI'FLEMAN, *s.* One armed with a rifle.

RI'FLER, *s.* Robber; plunderer; pillager. *Prompt. Parv.*—Parting both with cloak and coat, if any please to be the *rifler*. *Milton.*

RIFT, *s.* [from *To rive; riven, rived, rift.* Chaucer writes this word *reft.* "If thou maiest finden any shore, or hole, or *refte.*" The Icel. *rifa* is a chink.] A cleft; a breach; an opening.

Either tropick now
'Gan thunder, and both ends of heaven; the clouds,
From many a horrid *rift* abortive pour'd
Fierce rain with lightning mixt. *Milton.*

To RIFT, *v. a.* To cleave, to split. To *rive* is perhaps more proper.

To the dread rattling thunder
Have I giv'n fire, and *rifted* Jove's stout oak
With his own bolt. *Shakspeare.*

To RIFT, *v. n.* To burst; to open.

I'd shriek, that even your ears
Should *rift* to hear me. *Shakspeare.*

To belch; to break wind. [*ræver*, Danish, the same; perhaps from the Sax. ᵽᵢᵽ, alvus, venter.] A northern word.

RIFTS, in Farriery, are small cracks, clefts, chaps, or any other similar fissures or openings in the hoofs of horses' feet.

RIG, *s.* [from the Saxon, hᵽᵹᵹ, and the Icelandick, *hriggr*, both signifying a back. *Rig* is still our northern word, used in opposition: as *rig* and *furrow.*] A furrow.

RIG, *s.* [perhaps from the Icel. *riga*, citare in gyrum.] "Bluster," *Todd;* rather, turbulence.—This sanguine little king's fisher (not prescient of the storm, as by his instinct he ought to be) appearing at that uncertain season before the *riggs* of old Michaelmas were yet well composed, and when the unclement storms of winter were approaching, began to flicker over the seas, and was busy in building its halcyon nest, as if the angry ocean had been soothed by the genial breath of May. *Burke.*

RIG, *s.* [perhaps from the old French, *rigoler*, to mock; to laugh at; "se *rigoler* de, to make merry, or wanton with." *Cotgrave.*] A wanton; an impudent woman; a strumpet.—Fie on thee thou rampe, thou *rig!* *Com. of Gamm. Gurton's Needle.*

The most voluptuous, over-wanton *rigge*,
Proud penalty, scorns meek piety's womanhood. *Davies.*

To run a RIG. To play a trick; to jest; to banter. Cowper uses it of one *suffering* a laughable mishap. *A vulgarism.*

Away went Gilpin, neck or nought,
Away went hat and wig;
He little dreamt, when he set out,
Of *running such a rig.* *Cowper.*

To RIG, *v. n.* To play the wanton. *Unused.*

To RIG, *v. a.* [the past participle of the Sax. ᵽᵽᵹᵹan, to cover. *Mr. H. Tooke.*] To dress; to accoutre.

All occupations opening like a mart,
That serve to *rig* the body out with bravery. *Beaum. and Fl.*

Keep —
The body of your strength, your noble heart,
From ever yielding to dishonest ends,
Rigg'd round about with virtue. *Beaum. and Fl.*

To fit with tackling.

My mind for Egypt stoode;
When nine faire ships, I *rigg'd* forth for the flood.
Chapman.

RIGA, [Ital.] A line of the staff in music; and speaking of music in general, the whole five lines, or staff, are called *una riga.*

RIGA, Government of. See Livonia.

RIGA, a city of European Russia, and the capital of Livonia, is situated in a large plain on the Dwina or Duna, about nine miles from the sea. It has 36,000 inhabitants, and was, in a commercial sense, the second city of Russia, until the rapid increase of Odessa. The width of its river, and its distance from the sea, renders its port both spacious and safe. The town stands on the right, the suburbs on the left bank of the river. Without being a regular fortress, Riga has considerable strength, being surrounded with an earthen mound and moat, and having, moreover, a citadel. The entrance of the river is guarded from maritime attacks by the forest of Dunamunde. Though the houses are in general of stone, and a number of them neat, the town on the whole is unhandsome, the streets being narrow and crooked. Of the public buildings, the principal are the town-house, the exchange, the house of assembly for the states or representatives of Livonia, the arsenal, the hospital of St. George, and the Catharinenhof. The church of St. Peter is remarkable for its fine tower, commanding a magnificent view of the harbour. The Baltic being frozen during winter, vessels in Riga are necessarily laid up in dock during several months. The Dwina, far too wide for a bridge of stone or iron, is crossed by a bridge of pontoons, which rise and fall with the tide, and are loosely attached to piles. This bridge is 40 feet, broad but its length is 2600 feet, forming a fashionable walk in summer. At the beginning of winter the pontoons are removed, and the piles being soon raised by the frost, are drawn on shore, where they remain till spring, the river being, during this long interval, passed on the ice.

Of the inhabitants of Riga, the majority are Germans and Livonians, the Russians being comparatively few. The shipping in the river, the bustle in the streets, the stock of merchandise in the shops and warehouses, all indicate commercial activity. The export trade is chiefly managed by English and Scotch houses; the principal articles are timber, flax, hemp, and corn, all brought from a great distance, by a tedious but not expensive water conveyance. Part of these articles are brought from the south-east of Poland, being floated up the Dnieper, and conveyed by land carriage from that river to the Dwina. The course of the latter is south-east, in the direction of Vitepsk, and at one part it comes within 20 miles of the Dnieper. Canals are the grand desiderata of Russian seaports, and a new one is now excavating, for the communication of Riga with the interior. The magistrates of this town, anxious to maintain the reputation of their timber, send annually persons into the interior, to mark the trees which they purchase. The average number of vessels arriving yearly at Riga is between 700 and 800; the computed value of the exports a million sterling, of which fully the half are sent to England and Scotland. The manufactures of Riga are insignificant, being confined to starch, a sugar refinery, and other small articles; but the rye and barley of the neighbouring country form articles of export. The imports, if not equal in value to the exports, are more varied, comprising groceries of all kinds, printed cottons, woollens, silks, and wine; also bay salt and fish. Bay salt, imported chiefly from Spain, forms an article of transit, being sent up the Dwina for the supply of the countries to the right and left.

As to religion, few of the inhabitants of Riga are Catholics; the majority are Lutherans, or members of the Greek church. There is here a lyceum or academy, and a high school, with a provision for maintaining and educating poor children. There is also a public library, a cabinet of natural history, and a literary society, all formed in the present century.

Riga

Riga has at different times suffered both by fire and sieges. Of the latter, the most remarkable were those sustained from the Russians in 1656; from the Saxons and Poles in 1700; from the Russians in 1701; and from the French in 1812, when its suburbs were burned. Its situation on a plain exposes it to frequent inundations; and after the intense winter of 1814, it suffered greatly from the breaking up of the ice on the Dwina; 285 miles west-south-west of St. Petersburg, and 235 south-south-east of Stockholm. Lat. 56. 5. 1. N. long. 24. 7. 45. E.

RIGA, Gulf of, a considerable bay of the Baltic, between the coasts of Courland, Livonia, and Esthonia. It takes its name from the town of Riga on the Dwina, and is sometimes called the gulf of Livonia.

RIGADOO'N, *s.* [*rigadon*, Fr.] A kind of brisk dance, performed by one couple, said to be brought from Provence. —I led him by the hand into the next room, where we danced a *rigadoon* together. *Guardian.*

Rousseau affirms, that he has been told by an old dancing-master, that it had its name from its inventor, Rigaud.

At the beginning of the last century, there were three dances which every eminent master taught, and every nobleman's and gentleman's child learned, in the course of their education: these were the minuet, rigaudon, and l'ouvre, all natives of France, during the reign of Louis XIV.

RIGA'TION, *s.* [*rigatio*, Lat.] The act of watering. —In dry years, every field that has not some spring, or aqueduct, to furnish it with repeated *rigations*, is sure to fail in its crop. *Swinburne.*

RIGAUD (Hyacinth), a very eminent portrait-painter, was born in 1663 at Perpignan. His grandfather and father were both painters, and although when the latter died, he was very young, he had imbibed so much of the family taste, that it was thought proper to bring him up to the same profession. He first studied under two indifferent masters at Montpellier, but afterwards received instructions from Ranc, a painter who approached the manner of Vandyke. This manner was the principal object of Rigaud's imitation; and by attentive study and assiduous practice he acquired a freedom of hand, a truth of colouring, and force of expression, which raised him to the summit of reputation. He visited Paris in 1681, and obtained the first prize from the Academy of Painting. It was his wish to improve himself by a journey to Italy; but Le Brun, who had seen and admired some of his productions, advised him to remain at Paris and cultivate his talent for portrait-painting, as the surest road to distinction and fortune. This advice, which perhaps might be given through jealousy, he followed with a success that placed him among the most conspicuous in that branch of the art; for he is recorded as having painted five monarchs, and all the princes of the blood royal of France, besides a great number of illustrious and eminent persons of his own and foreign countries. His likenesses were extremely striking and characteristic, and his portraits often approached the historical style by appropriate accompaniments. Nature was his great study, and he carried his accuracy of imitation to the material of his draperies, and all the subordinate parts; judging, perhaps rightly, though contrary to the opinion and practice of some other eminent painters, that where the appeal is made to common observation, it is advantageous that the truth of resemblance should be as manifest in one part as in another. He is, however, justly blamed for attracting the attention too much to his draperies by an artificial disposition, and a kind of flutter that makes them look as if agitated by the wind.

Rigaud, though a man of gallantry towards the fair sex, did not love to paint women, saying, that if he represented them as they were, they would not think their portraits handsome enough, and if he flattered them, they would not be resembling. He was once painting a lady whom he observed taking great pains to screw up her mouth, which was one of the widest: "Do not take all that trouble with your mouth Madam (said he); if you choose, I will give you none at all." To another, who was highly rouged, and who complained to him that his colours were not bright enough, and asked him where he bought them; "I believe, Madam, (he answered) we are both supplied at the same shop." His native city, Perpignan, thought itself so much honoured by him, that, enjoying the privilege of yearly nominating a person to be ennobled, it conferred upon him this distinction in 1709, and the nomination was confirmed by the king. He was again ennobled, and was created knight of the order of St. Michael in 1727, with a pension. He was successively made a professor, rector and director of the Academy; and was frequently consulted by sovereigns in furnishing their cabinets with pictures, in the choice of which he displayed great judgment. His private character was highly estimable: he was punctual in the performance of his duties; generous, charitable, and pious. He lived in great harmony with his wife, by whom he had no children; but he had numerous relations to whom he acted as a parent. He died in 1743, at the age of 80. The works of this master are dispersed in the family-galleries of France and several other countries. A great number of his portraits have been engraved by the best masters of the time: many of them were greatly improved by touches of his own hand. *D'Argenville.*

RIGAUD, a seigniory of Lower Canada, on the south side of the Utawas river, in the county of York.

RIGAULT (Nicholas), a French man of letters, the son of a physician at Paris, was born in 1577. He was educated at the Jesuits' college, where attempts were in vain made to induce him to enter into the society. He first made himself known by a satirical work entitled "Funus Parasiticum," published in 1596, with which the President de Thou was so well pleased, that he made him the associate of his studies, and confided to him the education of his son. Rigault embraced the profession of an advocate, but his predilection for polite literature caused him to neglect the bar, for which he was little calculated. When the learned Casaubon, who had the care of the royal library, removed to England, Rigault succeeded him in that employment. His services were so well approved, that he was created attorney-general of the sovereign chamber of Nanci, counsellor to the parliament of Metz, and, finally, intendant of that province. He died at Toul in 1654, at the age of 77, with a character for generosity, modesty, and benevolence, that contributed as much to his reputation as his numerous writings. It was chiefly as an editor of Greek and Latin authors that he made himself known to the learned world. Of these were, "Minutius Felix," 1643; "St. Cyprian," 1648; and "Tertullian," 1664, enriched with useful notes, corrections, and observations. He displayed many sentiments not very favourable to the doctrines of the Roman Catholic church, and marked with care every thing in the ancients which appeared adverse to them. He gave translations of the Greek writers "Onosander," "Artemidorus," and others; but these versions are judged by the learned Huet to be negligent and inaccurate; and he edited with notes "Phædrus;" "Martial;" "Accipitrariæ Rei Scriptores;" "Rei Agrariæ Scriptores;" and "Barathier de Feudis." He also wrote and edited some works on juridical subjects; and he was appointed, together with Peter Dupui, by the will of the President de Thou, to give a complete edition of his history, which appeared at Geneva in 1620. To this, Rigault wrote a Latin preface, which remained in MS. till 1734, when it was given in French with a French translation of the history; and he added three books to that work, containing the affairs of France to the death of Henry IV., but in a style inferior to that of the rest. He likewise published in Latin a life of Peter Dupui. *Moreri.*

RIGG, or Hunter's Bay, a small bay of Scotland, on the coast of Wigtonshire.

RIGGEN-TREE, the piece of timber laid along the ridge of a roof, to support the heads of the spars or rafters, but which in modern buildings, is found unnecessary.

RI'GGER, *s.* [from *rig.*] One that rigs or dresses.

RI'GGING, *s.* [foom ꝑꝑꝛꝛꝛen; that with which a ship, or any thing else is ꝑꝑꝛꝛꝛeꝺ, or covered. *H. Tooke.*] The sails or tackling of a ship.

His

His batter'd *rigging* their whole war receives;
All bare, like some old oak with tempests beat,
He stands, and sees below his scatter'd leaves. *Dryden.*

See, for the arrangement and use of rigging, the article SHIP-BUILDING.

RI'GGISH, *adj.* [from *rig*, a strumpet.] Wanton.

Vilest things
Become themselves in her, that the holy priests
Bless her, when she is *riggish*. *Shakspeare.*

To RI'GGLE, *v. n.* To agitate the body backward and forward, in a writhing manner: properly *wriggle*. Writhing implies such motion with pain, *wriggle* the reverse.—Truth, by the information of her own light, points out the straight road to her abode; and forbids us to *riggle* into her presence through by-paths, and the cloudy medium of falsehood. *Warburton.*

RIGHT, *adj.* [from *recht*, Germ. and Teut. *ritto*, Ital. *rectus*, Lat. "The application of the same word to denote a *straight line*, and *moral rectitude of conduct*, has obtained in every language I know." *Dugald Stewart.*] Fit; proper; becoming; suitable.—A time there will be, when all these unequal distributions of good and evil shall be set *right*, and the wisdom of all his transactions made as clear as the noon-day. *Atterbury.*—Rightful; justly claiming.—There being no law of nature, nor positive law of God, that determines which is the *right* heir in all cases, the right of succession could not have been certainly determined. *Locke.*—True; not erroneous; not wrong.—If there be no prospect beyond the grave, the inference is certainly *right*, Let us eat and drink, for to-morrow we die. *Locke.*—If my present and past experience do exactly coincide, I shall then be disposed to think them both *right*. *Beattie.*—Not mistaken; passing a true judgment; passing judgment according to the truth of things.

You are *right*, Justice, and you weigh this well;
Therefore still bear the balance and the sword. *Shakspeare.*

Just; honest; equitable; not criminal.—Their heart was not *right* with him, neither were they stedfast in his covenant. *Ps.* lxxviii. 37.—Happy; convenient.—The lady has been disappointed on the *right* side, and found nothing more disagreeable in the husband, than she discovered in the lover. *Addison.*—Not left.—It is not with certainty to be received, concerning the *right* and left hand, that men naturally make use of the *right*, and that the use of the other is a digression. *Brown.*

The left foot naked, when they march to fight,
But in a bull's raw hide they sheathe the *right*. *Dryden.*

Straight; not crooked.—The idea of a *right* lined triangle necessarily carries with it an equality of its angles to two right ones. *Locke.*—Perpendicular; direct.

RIGHT, *interject.* An expression of approbation.

Right, cries his lordship, for a rogue in need,
To have a taste, is insolence indeed:
In me 'tis noble, suits my birth and state. *Pope.*

RIGHT, *adv.* Properly; justly; exactly; according to truth, or justice.—To understand political power *right*, and derive it from its original, we must consider what state all men are naturally in, and that is a state of perfect freedom to order their actions, and dispose of their possessions and persons. *Locke.*—According to art or rule.

Take heed you steer your vessel *right*, my son,
This calm of heaven, this mermaid's melody,
Into an unseen whirlpool draws you fast,
And in a moment sinks you. *Dryden.*

In a direct line; in a straight line.—Let thine eyes look *right* on, and let thine eyelids look straight before thee. *Prov.* iv. 25.—This way, *right* down to Paradise descend. *Milton.*—In a great degree; very. *Now obsolete.*

Right many a widow his keen blade,
And many fatherless, had made. *Hudibras.*

It is still used in titles: as right *honourable*; right *reverend*.—Just.—Came he *right* now to sing a raven's note? *Shakspeare.*—Immediately; at the instant.

I do see the cruel pangs of death
Right in thine eye. *Shakspeare.*

RIGHT, *s.* Not wrong.

One rising, eminent
In wise deport, spake much of *right* and wrong,
Of justice, of religion, truth, and peace,
And judgment from above. *Milton.*

Justice; not injury.

Long love to her has borne the faithful knight,
And well deserv'd, had fortune done him *right*. *Dryden.*

He that would do *right* to religion, cannot take a more effectual course, than by reconciling it with the happiness of mankind. *Tillotson.*—Freedom from guilt; goodness.

His faith perhaps in some nice tenets might
Be wrong, his life I 'm sure was in the *right*. *Cowley.*

Freedom from error.

Seldom your opinions err;
Your eyes are always in the *right*. *Prior.*

Just claim.—The Roman citizens were, by the sword, taught to acknowledge the pope their lord, though they knew not by what *right*. *Ralegh.*—Descriptions, figures, and fables must be in all heroic poems; every poet hath as much *right* to them, as every man hath to air. *Dryden.*—That which justly belongs to one.—To thee doth the *right* of her appertain, seeing thou only art of her kindred. *Tob.* vi. 11.

The prisoner freed himself by nature's laws,
Born free, he sought his *right*. *Dryden.*

Property; interest.

A subject in his prince may claim a *right*,
Nor suffer him with strength impair'd to fight. *Dryden.*

Power; prerogative.—God hath a sovereign *right* over us, as we are his creatures, and by virtue of this *right*, he might, without injustice, have imposed difficult tasks: but in making laws, he hath not made use of this *right*. *Tillotson.*—Immunity; privilege.

The citizens,
Let them but have their *rights*, and ever forward
In celebration of this day with shews. *Shakspeare.*

The side not left.

On his *right*
The radiant image of his glory sat,
His only Son. *Milton.*

To RIGHTS. In a direct line; straight. *Unused.*—These strata failing, the whole tract sinks down *to rights* into the abyss, and is swallowed up by it. *Woodward.*—With deliverance from error; in order.—Several have gone about to inform them, and set them *to rights*; but for want of that knowledge of the present system of nature, have not given the satisfaction expected. *Woodward.*

To RIGHT, *v. a.* To do justice to; to establish in possessions justly claimed; to relieve from wrong.

How will this grieve you,
When you shall come to clearer knowledge, that
You thus have published me? gentle my lord,
You scarce can *right* me throughly. *Shakspeare.*

If the injured person be not *righted*, every one of them is wholly guilty of the injustice, and bound to restitution. *Bp. Taylor.*—[In naval language.] To restore a ship to her upright position, after she has been laid on a careen; to put any thing in its proper position: as, to *right* the helm.

To RIGHT, *v. n.* A ship is said to *right* at sea, when she rises with her masts erected, after having been pressed down on one side by the effort of her sails, or a heavy squall of wind. *Falconer.*

RIGHTS, BILL OF, in Law, is a declaration, delivered by the

the lords and commons to the prince and princess of Orange, February 13, 1688; and afterwards enacted in parliament, when they became king and queen. This declaration sets forth, that king James II. did, by the assistance of divers evil counsellors, endeavour to subvert the laws and liberties of this kingdom, by exercising a power of dispensing with and suspending of laws; by levying money for the use of the crown, by pretence of prerogative, without consent of parliament; by prosecuting those who petitioned the king, and discouraging petitions; by raising and keeping a standing army, in time of peace; by violating the freedom of election of members to serve in parliament; by violent prosecutions in the court of king's bench; and causing partial and corrupt jurors to be returned on trials, excessive bail to be taken, excessive fines to be imposed, and cruel punishments inflicted; all which were declared to be illegal. And the declaration concludes in these remarkable words, "And they do claim, demand, and insist upon, all and singular the premises, as their undoubted rights and liberties." And the act of parliament itself (1 W. & M. stat. 2. cap. 2.) recognizes "all and singular the rights and liberties asserted and claimed in the said declaration to be the true, ancient, and indubitable rights of the people of this kingdom."

To RI'GHTEN, *v. a.* [ꝓhtan, ꝓhtan, Saxon.] To do justice to.—Seek judgment; relieve [in the margin *righten*] the oppressed. *Isaiah*, i. 17.

RI'GHTEOUS, *adj.* [ꝓhtꝑꝓ, Saxon; whence *rightwise*, in our old authors; *rightwisness*, in Wicliffe; and *rightwisely*, in Bishop Fisher: so much, as Dr. Johnson remarks, are words corrupted by pronunciation.]—Just; honest; virtuous; uncorrupt.—That far be from thee, to slay the *righteous* with the wicked; and that the *righteous* should be as the wicked. *Genesis.*—Equitable; agreeing with right.

Kill my rival too; for he no less
Deserves; and I thy *righteous* doom will bless. *Dryden.*

RI'GHTEOUSED, *adj.* Made righteous; justified. *Not in use, and inelegant.*—Can we meryte grace with synne? or deserve to be *ryghtoused* by folye? *Bale.*

RI'GHTEOUSLY, *adv.* Honestly; virtuously.

Athens did *righteously* decide,
When Phocion and when Socrates were try'd;
As *righteously* they did those dooms repent,
Still they were wise, whatever way they went. *Dryden.*

According to desert.—Turn from us all those evils, that we most *righteously* have deserved. *Litany.*

RI'GHTEOUSNESS, *s.* Justice; honesty; virtue; goodness; integrity.

Here wretched Phlegias warns the world with cries,
Cou'd warning make the world more just or wise;
Learn *righteousness*, and dread th' avenging deities.
Dryden.

RI'GHTER, *s.* [from ꝓhtere, Sax. rector, gubernator.] A redresser; one who relieves from wrong; one who does justice to.—I will pay thee what I owe thee, as that *righter* of wrongs hath left me commanded. *Shelton.*

RI'GHTFUL, *adj.* Having the right; having the just claim.

As in this haughty great attempt,
They laboured to supplant the *rightful* heir;
I lost my liberty, and they their lives. *Shakspeare.*

Some will mourn in ashes, some coal black,
For the deposing of a *rightful* king. *Shakspeare.*

Honest; just; agreeable to justice.—Grant to us, Lord, we beseech thee, the spirit to think and do always such things as be *rightful*. *Collect.*

Gather all the smiling hours;
Such as with friendly care have guarded
Patriots and kings in *rightful* wars. *Prior.*

RI'GHTFULLY, *adv.* According to right; according to justice.—Henry, who claimed by succession, was sensible that his title was not sound; but was *rightfully* in Mortimer' who had married the heir of York. *Dryden.*

RIGHT-HAND, *s.* Not the left.

The rank of osiers, by the murmuring stream,
Left on your *right-hand* brings you to the place.
Shakspeare.

RI'GHTFULNESS, *s.* Moral rectitude.

But still although we fail of perfect *rightfulness*,
Seek we to tame these superfluities,
Nor wholly wink though void of purest sightfulness.
Sidney.

RI'GHTLY, *adv.* According to truth or justice; properly; suitably; not erroneously.

Each of his reign allotted, *rightlier* call'd
Powers of fire, air, water, and earth beneath. *Milton.*

Descend from heaven, Urania! by that name
If *rightly* thou art call'd. *Milton.*

For glory done
Of triumph, to be styl'd great conquerors,
Patrons of mankind, gods, and sons of gods;
Destroyers *rightlier* call'd, and plagues of men. *Milton.*

Honestly; uprightly.

Let not my jealousies be your dishonour;
You may be *rightly* just, whatever I shall think.
Shakspeare.

Exactly.

Should I grant, thou didst not *rightly* see;
Then thou wert first deceiv'd. *Dryden.*

Straightly; directly.—We wish one end; but differ in order and way, that leadeth *rightly* to that end. *Ascham.*

RI'GHTNESS, *s.* Conformity to truth; exemption from being wrong; rectitude; not error.—Like brute beasts we travel with the herd, and are never so solicitous for the *rightness* of the way, as for the number or figure of our company. *Rogers.*—Straitness.—Sounds move strongest in a right line, which nevertheless is not caused by the *rightness* of the line, but by the shortness of the distance. *Bacon.*

RIGI, a great mountain in the interior of Switzerland, between the lakes of Zug, Lucerne, and Lowerz, by which it is almost insulated from the other Alps. Height 6000 feet.

RI'GID, *adj.* [*rigidus*, Lat.] Stiff; not to be bent; unpliant.—A body, that is hollow, may be demonstrated to be more *rigid* and inflexible, than a solid one of the same substance and weight. *Ray.*—Severe; inflexible.

His severe judgment giving law,
His modest fancy kept in awe;
As *rigid* husbands jealous are,
When they believe their wives too fair. *Denham.*

Unremitted; unmitigated.

Queen of this universe! do not believe
Those *rigid* threats of death; ye shall not die. *Milton.*

Sharp; cruel.

Cressy plains
And Agincourt, deep ting'd with blood, confess
What the Silures vigour unwithstood
Could do in *rigid* fight. *Philips.*

RIGI'DITY, *s.* [*rigidité*, Fr.] Stiffness.—Stiffness of appearance; want of easy or airy elegance.—This severe observation of nature, by the one in her commonest, and by the other in her absolute forms, must needs produce in both a kind of *rigidity*, and consequently more naturalness than gracefulness. *Wotton.*—Severity; inflexibility.—Not to mollify a transcendence of literal *rigidity*. *Milton.*—Till the Lutherans abate of their *rigidity*. *Burnet.*

RI'GIDLY, *adv.* Stiffly; unpliantly. Severely; inflexibly; without remission; without mitigation.—It is a greater fault *rigidly* to censure, than to commit a small oversight. *Fuller.*

RI'GIDNESS, *s.* Stiffness; severity; inflexibility.—Giving themselves over to meditation, to prayer, to fasting, to all severity and *rigidness* of life. *Hales.*

RI'GLET, *s.* [*regulet*, Fr.] A flat, thin, square piece of wood.—The pieces that are intended to make the frames for pictures, before they are moulded, are called *riglets*. *Moxon.*

RI'GMAROLE, *s.* A repetition of idle words; a succession of long stories. A corruption of an old expression, namely, of the famous "*ragman's roll*," as a collection of deeds was called, in which the nobility and gentry were compelled to subscribe allegiance to K. Edward I. of England; recorded in *four large rolls of parchment, consisting of thirty-five pieces bound together.* But it may be referred to the old English word *ragman*, which is used in P. Ploughman's strains (as Dr. Jamieson has shewn), both as a brief, and as a herald or recorder, one who recites a long list. The pardoner, with his brief, recital, or list of indulgences, is thus described:

"He — blered their eyes,
And raughte, with his *ragman*, both ringes and broches."
P. Pl. Vision.

The herald, thus:

"There is none heraude hath half swich a *rolle*
Right as a *rageman* hath rekned them newe." *P. Pl. Crede.*

Dr. Jamieson thinks that the Teut. *reghe*, ordo, series, is connected with that word. *Ragman-rolls* became a familiar term, as is evident by Skelton's usage of it.

I dyd what I coulde to scarpe out the scrolles,
Apollo to rase out of her *ragman rolles*. *Skelton.*

Mr. *Rigmarole*, believe me, a woman with a butt of sack at her elbow is never long-lived! *Goldsmith.*

RIGNAC, a town of France, department of the Aveyron. Population 2000; 14 miles west-by-north of Rhodez.

RIGNAC, a town of France, department of the Charente. Population 1200; 3 miles south of Barbesieux.

RIGNANO, a town of Naples, in the Capitanata, at the foot of Monte Gargano. It gives name to one of the peaks of Monte Gargano. Population 2000; 18 miles west-north-west of Manfredonia.

RIGNY LE FERON, a town of France, department of the Aube. It manufactures some paper: also coarse woollens. Population 1000; 24 miles south-west of Troyes.

RIGO, a small island near the north-west part of the island of Porto Rico, in the West Indies.

RIGODUNUM, *s.* The Roman name of RIBCHESTER.

RI'GOL, *s.* A circle. Perhaps peculiar to Shakspeare.

This sleep is sound; this is a sleep,
That, from this golden *rigol*, hath divorc'd
So many English kings. *Shakspeare.*

About the mourning and congealed face
Of that black blood a watery *rigol* goes,
Which seems to weep upon the tainted place. *Shakspeare.*

RIGOLET DE BON DIEU, a river of the United States, in Louisiana, which is formed by the junction of the Sabine and Black Lake river, and unites with the Red river, about 25 miles north-west of Alexandria.

RIGOLETS, or REGOLETS, the name of the passage from the north part of the gulf of Mexico into Lake Pontchartrain, which has communication, through Maurepas lake and the gut of Ibberville, with Mississippi river; or the general name of the isles in the inner part of the channel into that lake. The distance from Lake Pontchartrain through the Rigolets is 10 miles, and between 300 and 400 yards broad, and lined with marshes on each side. On the south side of the Rigolets, and near to the entrance from the gulf, there is a large passage into Lake Borgne, or Blind Lake; and by some creeks that fall into it, small craft may go as far as the plantations on the Mississippi, and there is a passage between the Lakes Borgne and Pontchartrain; but either by this, or that of the Rigolets, six, and sometimes seven feet is the deepest water through. Near the entrance, at the east end of the Rigolets, and on the north side, are the principal mouths of Pearl river. From the Rigolets to the bay of St. Louis is 18 miles. The Rigolets, after the Mississippi, is the most important inlet into Louisiana.

RI'GOUR, or RIGOR, *s.* [*rigor*, Lat. *rigucur*, Fr.] Cold; stiffness.

Haste, hapless sighs; and let your burning breath
Dissolve the ice of her indurate heart,
Whose frozen *rigor*, like forgetful death,
Feels never any touch of my desert. *Dowland.*

The rest his look
Bound with Gorgonian *rigour*, not to move. *Milton.*

A convulsive shuddering with sense of cold.—*Rigors*, chillness, and a fever attend every such new suppuration. *Blackmore.*—Severity; sternness; want of condescension to others.—Nature has got the victory over passion, all his *rigour* is turned to grief and pity. *Denham.*—Severity of life; voluntary pain; austerity.—He resumed his *rigors*, esteeming this calamity such a one that it should not be outlived, but that it became men to be martyrs to. *Fell.*—Strictness; unabated exactness.—It may not seem hard, if, in cases of necessity, certain profitable ordinances sometimes be released, rather than all men always strictly bound to the general *rigor* thereof. *Hooker.*—Heat and cold are not, according to philosophical *rigour*, the efficients; but are names expressing our passions. *Glanville.*

The base degenerate age requires
Severity and justice in its *rigour*:
This awes an impious bold offending world. *Addison.*

Rage; cruelty; fury.

He at his foe with furious *rigour* smites,
That strongest oak might seem to overthrow;
The stroke upon his shield so heavy lights,
That to the ground it doubleth him full low. *Spenser.*

Hardness; not flexibility; solidity; not softness.

The stones the *rigor* of their kind expel,
And supple into softness as they fell. *Dryden.*

RI'GOROUS, *adj.* [*rigoureux*, Fr.] Severe; allowing no abatement.

He shall be thrown down the Tarpeian rock,
With *rigorous* hands; he hath resisted law,
And therefore law shall scorn him further trial,
Than the severity of public power. *Shakspeare.*

Exact; scrupulously nice: as, a *rigorous* demonstration; a *rigorous* definition.

RI'GOROUSLY, *adv.* Severely; without tenderness or mitigation.

Lest they faint
At the sad sentence *rigorously* urg'd,
For I behold them soften'd, and with tears
Bewailing their excess, all terrour hide. *Milton.*

Exactly; scrupulously; nicely.—A man of strict honour, because he is punctual to his promises; because he is scrupulous in paying his debts, and *rigorously* just in discharging the duties of his station. *The Student.*—The rules of the three unities are indeed *rigorously* and scrupulously observed. *Dr. Warton.*

RI'GOROUSNESS, *s.* Severity, without tenderness or mitigation.

RIGTON, a village of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 6 miles north-east of Otley.

RIHA, a village of Upper Egypt, four or five leagues from which there is a very remarkable pyramid.

RIHALL, a village of England, in Rutlandshire, on the banks of the river Gwash, near Casterton.

RIK, a village of Irak, in Persia; 12 miles north of Ispahan.

RIL, a town of Darfur, in Central Africa. It abounds with water and provisions, and was at one time the royal residence. It forms the key of the southern and eastern roads into Darfur; 60 miles south-south-east of Cobbe.

RILL,

RILL, *s.* [*ryll.* Icel. rivulus, in the Edda, q. d. *rinnel*, from the Su. Goth. *rinna*, to flow. Serenius. Rather, an abbreviation of the Lat. *rivulus*, viz. *rillus*. The old French language has *riller*, glisser, couler. Roq.] A small brook; a little streamlet.

May thy brimmed waves from this
Their full tribute never miss,
From a thousand petty *rills*,
That tumble down the snowy hills. *Milton.*

To RILL, *v. n.* To run in small streams.

Io! Apollo, mighty king, let envy,
Ill-judging and verbose, from Lethe's lake,
Draw tuns unmeasurable; while thy favour
Administers to my ambitious thirst
The wholesome draught from Aganippe's spring
Genuine, and with soft murmurs gently *rilling*
Adown the mountains where thy daughters haunt. *Prior.*

RILLE, a river of France, in Normandy, which falls into the Seine, between Quillebœuf and Honfleur.

RI'LLET, *s.* [corrupted from *rivulet.*] A small stream. —A creeke of Ose, between two hills, delivering a little fresh *rillet* into the sea. *Carew.*

RILLINGTON, a village of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles north-east of New Malton.

RIM, *s.* [ȝim, Sax.] A border; a margin.—It keeps of the same thickness near its centre; while its figure is capable of variation towards the *rim*. *Grew.*—That which encircles something else.—We may not affirm, that ruptures are not confinable unto one side, as the peritoneum or *rim* of the belly may be broke; or its perforations relaxed in either. *Brown.*—The drum-maker uses it for *rimbs*. *Mortimer.*

RIMS, in Ship Building, compass-pieces of timber, which form the quarter-galleries between the stools.

Rims, a skirting of elm-board round the upper side of ships' tops.

Rim, a cast-iron frame, in which the dropping-palls of the capstan traverses, and palls, or counteracts the efforts of the capstan.

RIMA, [Lat.] a fissure, or opening: a term used only in anatomy; as, *rima glottidis*, the opening of the glottis, &c.

RIMAC, a river of Peru, in the province of Guarochiri, which rises among the ridges of the Andes, runs west, and waters a delightful plain, in which is situated on its shore the city of Lima. It flows into the Pacific ocean, in Lat. 12. 2. S.

RIMACHUMA, a large lake of Quito, in the province of Mainas, and in the woods to the west of the river Pastaza. It is 19 miles long from north to south, and 6 wide from east to west, and has a channel 10 miles long, by which it empties itself on the west side, into the river Pastaza, in Lat. 4. 11. S. It receives on the south the river Apischi, and by the north-west the river Chillay.

RIMA-SZECS, a market town of Hungary; 17 miles south of Gomer. Lat. 48. 18. N. long. 20. 14. E.

RIMA-SZOMBATH, or Gross-Steffelsdorf, a small town of the north-west of Hungary, 14 miles east-south-east of Altsohl, on the Rima, over which there is a very neat bridge. The inhabitants, above 3000 in number, are of mixed extraction, partly Magyars, partly Germans, and Slowacs. They tan leather, and make a number of petty articles, such as tobacco-pipe heads, turners' wares, &c. Lat. 48. 23. 16. N. long. 20. 2. 17. E.

RIME, *s.* [hȝim, ȝim, Sax ȝim-ȝorȝt, rime-frost.] Hoar frost.—Breathing upon a glass giveth a dew; and in *rime* frosts you shall find drops of dew upon the inside of glass windows. *Bacon.*—In a hoar frost, a *rime* is a multitude of quadrangular prisms piled without any order one over another. *Grew.*—[*Rima*, Lat.] A hole; a chink. *Not used.* —Though birds have no epiglottis, yet can they contract the *rime* or chink of their larynx, so as to prevent the admission of wet or dry indigested. *Brown.*—A step of a ladder. North. *Grose.*

To RIME, *v. n.* To freeze with hoar frost.

RIME. See Rhyme.

RIMERS are moveable bars to support the sluices and over-falls in opening-weirs.

RIMINGTON, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 14½ miles west-south-west of Skipton. Population 596.

RIMINI, a considerable town of Italy, in the Ecclesiastical states, situated on the river Marecchia, near its influx into the Adriatic. It had formerly a good harbour; but the sea has now retired to the distance of a mile and a half; and Rimini is at present surrounded by a plain, opening on the one side to the Adriatic, and bounded on the other by a range of hills, which rise gradually until they terminate in the great chain of the Appennines. The town is extensive, but dull and deserted, its population being reduced to 8000. Its streets are straight, and contain several churches and family mansions of Istrian marble. It has several squares, in the principal of which there is a marble fountain, with a statue of pope Paul V. In the middle of the market-place is a pedestal, from which it is said in tradition, that Cæsar harangued his army, after the passage of the Rubicon.

The cathedral, and several of the churches of Rimini, are ornamented with beautiful marble, procured from the ruins of the old harbour, which was constructed of that material. The church of St. Francis, a fine edifice of the 15th century, has a profusion of sculptures, statues, and bas reliefs, and is remarkable as being one of the first buildings in which the Gothic architecture gave place to the modern Roman. Of the old Roman, Rimini contains several valuable remains. At the entrance, on the side of Pesaro, stands a triumphal arch of Augustus, adorned with Corinthian columns, and said to be the best preserved of any extant. From this arch, a broad street extends to an elegant bridge over the Marecchia, begun by Augustus, and completed by Tiberius. It is 220 feet in length, consists of five arches, and is built of a white stone, or marble, found in the neighbouring Appennines. Its execution joins the most perfect solidity to symmetry and elegance.

Rimini, called formerly Ariminum, from the river Arminus, which washed its walls, is very ancient, and formed at one time a small independent republic. At present it communicates with the Adriatic by a canal; but the entrance is so choaked up with mud and sand, as hardly to admit even small barks. This accumulation, occasioned by the mud deposited by the river, has increased visibly during the present century. The chief trade of the place consists in supplying the interior with fish. It is the see of a bishop; 28 miles south-south-east of Ravenna, 50 north-west of Ancona, and 150 north of Rome. Lat. 44. 3. 43. N. long. 12. 32. 51. E.

RIMNIK. See Ribnik.

RIMONT, a town of France, department of the Arriege. Population 1800; 7 miles north-east of St. Girons, and 18 west of Foix.

RIMOUSKI, a seigniory of Lower Canada, which lies along the St. Lawrence, and is 6 miles in length, and as many in breadth.

RIMPAR, a town of Bavarian Franconia; 4 miles north of Wurzburg. Population 1000.

RI'MPLE, *s.* [hȝýmpelle, Sax.] A wrinkle; a fold. *Prompt. Parv.*

To RI'MPLE, *v. a.* [" *rympyled*, rugatus." *Prompt. Parv.*] To pucker; to wrinkle.—A *rimpled* vecke fare ronne in age. *Chaucer.*—The skin was tense, also *rimpled* and blistered. *Wiseman.*

RI'MPLING, *s.* Uneven motion; undulation.

Throughout the lanes she glides at evening's close,
And softly lulls her infant to repose;
Then sits and gazes, but with viewless look,
As gilds the moon the *rimpling* of the brook. *Crabbe.*

RIMPTON, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 5 miles north-east of Yeovil.

RIMSWELL,

RIMSWELL, a hamlet of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 16½ miles east of Kingston-upon-Hull.

RI'MY, *adj.* Steamy; foggy; full of frozen mist.—The air is now cold, hot, dry, or moist; and then thin, thick, foggy, *rimy*, or poisonous. *Harvey.*

RIN, *s.* A provincial term for brine.

RINALDI (Oderic,) a learned Italian ecclesiastical historian in the 17th century, concerning whose personal history we are furnished with no other particulars, than that he was a native of Treviso, and entered an establishment, belonging to the priests of the congregation of the oratory at Rome, of which Baronius had been a member. After the death of that cardinal, Rinaldi undertook the laborious task of continuing his "Ecclesiastical Annals," from the year 1198, with which the work of Baronius terminated, to the year 1564, when the council of Trent had been dissolved. This continuation, which is written in the same spirit and with the same design as the original work, reflects credit on the author's industry and application, and certainly abounds with many curious and valuable documents taken from the archives at the Vatican and other collections. It consists of ten large volumes in folio, which made their appearance in Rome at different periods from 1646 to 1677. Rinaldi published a sufficiently copious abridgment, in Italian, of the whole annals compiled both by Baronius and himself, which is said to be a masterly performance. *Landi's Hist. de la Lit. de l'Italie.*

RINALDO DI CAPUA, an eminent Neapolitan composer, who flourished in the middle of the last century, and whose story is somewhat singular.

He was the natural son of a person of very high rank in that country, and at first only learned music as an accomplishment; but being left by his father with only a small fortune, which was soon dissipated, he was forced to make it his profession. He was but seventeen when he composed his first opera at Vienna.

In the course of a long life, Rinaldo experienced various vicissitudes of fortune, sometimes in vogue, sometimes neglected. However, finding old age coming on, he collected together his principal works, such as had been produced in the zenith of his fortune and fancy, thinking these would be a resource in distressful times; those times arrived; various misfortunes had happened to him and his family; when this *sole* resource, the accumulated produce of his pen, had by a graceless son been sold for waste paper! so that this composer, whose productions were, during many years, the delight of all Europe, in 1770 was reduced at Rome to the utmost indigence.

Rinaldo had the reputation at Rome of being the inventor of accompanied recitatives; but Scarlatti preceded him. He seems to have been a composer from 1737 to 1758. His first serious opera at Rome was "Il Ciro Riconosciuto," in 1737; and "Adriano in Siria," the last, in 1758.

A very fine air from "Vologeso," was printed by Walsh among the favourite songs in the opera of Gianguir,—"Nell' orror di notte oscura,"—to which we refer as a specimen of his serious style. Indeed the whole scene in that opera is admirable, and a proof to what perfection dramatic music was brought in Italy fifty or sixty years ago.

It has been said, with some truth, that the science of this composer was not equal to his genius; for, being educated as a dilettante, he did not submit to the necessary toil.

RINAR, an old term with chemists for filings.

RINARY, a small island of Scotland, on the south coast of the isle of Islay.

RINCADROLEAN POINT, a cape on the west coast of Ireland, in the county of Kerry. Lat. 52. 44. N. long. 10. 13. W.

RINCAN, an Indian settlement of Mexico, in the intendancy of Valladolid.—It is also the name of several other Spanish settlements, all of them inconsiderable.

RIND, *s.* [ȝinð, Sax.; *rinde*, Dutch.] Bark; husk.

Thou can'st not touch the freedom of this mind
With all thy charms, although this corporal *rind*
Thou hast immanacled. *Milton.*

This monument, thy maiden beauty's due,
High on a plane-tree shall be hung to view;
On the smooth *rind* the passenger shall see
Thy name engrav'd, and worship Helen's tree. *Dryden.*

To RIND, *v. a.* To decorticate; to bark; to husk.

RINDERA, in Botany. See CYNOGLOSSUM.

RIND-GALL, a disease a tree receives when young, so that the bark or rind seems to grow to its inner substance.

RINDGE, or RINGE, a township of the United States, in Cheshire county, New Hampshire, on the west side of New Ipswich. Population 1226; 55 miles north-west of Boston.

RINEUS MARINUS, a name given by some botanical writers to the crithmum, or samphire. See CRITHMUM.

RING, *s.* [hring, ȝinȝ, Sax. *hring*, Icel. circus: "vox antiquiss. et in lingu. septentr. usitatissima." Serenius.] A circle; an orbicular line.—Bubbles of water, before they began to exhibit their colours to the naked eye, have appeared through a prism girded about with many parallel and horizontal *rings*. *Newton.*—A circle of gold or some other matter worn as an ornament.

A quarrel.
—About a hoop of gold, a paltry *ring*. *Shakspeare.*

I have seen old Roman *rings* so very thick about, and with such large stones in them, that 'tis no wonder a fop should reckon them a little cumbersome in the summer. *Addison.*—A circle of metal to be held by.

The *rings* of iron, that on the doors were hung,
Sent out a jarring sound, and harshly rung. *Dryden.*

Some eagle got the *ring* of my box in his beak, with an intent to let it fall, and devour it. *Swift.*—A circular course.

Chaste Diana,
Goddess presiding o'er the rapid race,
Place me, O place me in the dusty *ring*,
Where youthful charioteers contend for glory. *Smith.*

A circle made by persons standing round.

Make a *ring* about the corps of Cæsar,
And let me shew you him that made the will. *Shakspeare.*

A number of bells harmonically tuned.

A squirrel spends his little rage,
In jumping round a rolling cage;
The cage as either side turn up,
Striking a *ring* of bells a-top. *Prior.*

The sound of bells, or any other sonorous body.—Hawks' bells, that have holes, give a greater *ring*, than if the pellet did strike upon brass in the open air. *Bacon.*

Sullen Moloch, fled,
Hath left in shadows dread
His burning idol all of blackest hue;
In vain with cymbals *ring*,
They call the grisly king. *Milton.*

A sound of any kind.—The king, full of confidence, as he had been victorious in battle, and had prevailed with his parliament, and had the *ring* of acclamations fresh in his ears, thought the rest of his reign should be but play. *Bacon.*

Pliny observes, that we are in the dark as to the person who first invented, or wore the ring; because what is said of Prometheus, as also of Midas's ring, are fables. The first people among whom we find the ring in use, are the Hebrews, (Gen. xxxviii.) where Judah, Jacob's son, gives Tamar his ring, or signet, as a pledge of his promise; but the ring appears to have been in use at the same time among the Egyptians, from Gen. xli. where Pharoah puts his ring upon Joseph's hand, as a mark of the power he gave him. And in the first book of Kings, chap. xxii. Jezebel seals the warrant she sends for the killing of Naboth, with the king's ring.

The ancient Chaldeans, Babylonians, Persians, and Greeks, had likewise the use of the ring; as appears from several

several passages in Scripture, and from Quintus Curtius, who tells us, that Alexander sealed the letters he wrote into Europe with his own seal; and those in Asia, with Darius's ring.

The Persians will have Guiamschild, the fourth king of the first race, to have first introduced the ring, for sealing his letters and other acts. The Greeks, Pliny thinks, knew nothing of the ring in the time of the Trojan war; the reason he gives is, that we find no mention of it in Homer, but that when letters, &c. were to be sent away, they were tied up, and the strings knotted.

The Sabines had rings in Romulus's time; and it is to them, probably, the practice first came from the Greeks; and from them that it passed to the Romans; though it was some time before it got footing there. Pliny cannot learn which of the kings of Rome first adopted it; but there are no signs of it in any of their statutes, before those of Numa and Servius Tullius. He adds, that it was also in use among the ancient Gauls and Britons.

The composition of the ancient rings was various. There were some of one single metal, and others of a mixture, or two. For the iron and silver were frequently gilt; or at least the gold part was fixed within the iron, as appears from Artemidorus, lib. ii. cap. 5. The Romans were contented with iron rings a long time; and Pliny assures us, that Marius first wore a gold one in his third consulate, which was in the year of Rome 650. Sometimes the ring was iron, and the seal gold; sometimes it was hollow, and sometimes solid; sometimes the stone was engraven, and sometimes plain; and the graving sometimes was in relievo, and sometimes in creux; the last were called *gemmæ ectypæ;* the former *gemmæ scülptura prominente.*

From Jeremiah, chap. xxii. it appears, that the Hebrews wore the ring on their right hand. Among the Romans, before they came to be adorned with stones, and while the graving was yet on the metal itself, every one wore them at pleasure, on what hand and finger he pleased. When stones came to be added, they wore them altogether on the left hand; and it would have been held an excessive foppery to have put them on the right.

Pliny says, they were at first worn on the fourth finger; then on the second or index; then on the little finger; and at last on all the fingers, excepting the middle one.

The Greeks wore them altogether on the fourth finger of the left hand, as we are informed by Aul. Gellius, lib. x. and the reason he gives for it is, that having found from anatomy, that this finger had a little nerve that went straight to the heart, they esteemed it the most honourable, by reason of this communication with that noble part. Pliny says, the Gauls and ancient Britons wore the ring on the middle finger.

At first they only wore a single ring, then one on each finger, and at length several on each finger. (Martial lib. xi. epig. 60.) At last one on each joint of each finger. (Aristop. in Nub. &c.) This foppery at length arose to that pitch, that they had their weekly rings.

Juvenal, Sat. vii. speaks of *annuli semestres;* as also of winter and summer rings. But of all others, Lampridius, cap. 32. observes, that Heliogabalus carried the point farthest, who never wore the same ring, or the same shoe, twice.

Rings have been also worn in the nose, and as pendants in the ears. Bartholin has an express treatise, "De Annulis Narium," Of Rings of the Nostrils. St. Augustine assures us, it was in his time the fashion of the Moors; and Pietro della Valle observes the same of the modern orientals.

In effect, there is no part of the body where rings have not been worn. Several East India travellers affirm, that the natives now commonly wear them on their nose, lips, cheeks, and chin. Ramusio tells us, that the ladies of Narsingüay, in the Levant, and Diodorus Siculus, lib. iii. that those of Ethiopia used to adorn their lips with iron rings.

As to the ears, the custom still obtains of wearing rings in them, both of men and women, almost all over the world.

The Indians, particularly the Guzzarats, have worn rings on their feet. And when Peter Alvarez had his first audience of the king of Calicut, he found him all covered with stones set in rings, having bracelets and rings both on the hands and fingers, and even on the feet and toes.

Louis Bartome, represents a king of Pegu as still more extravagant, having rings set with precious stones on every toe.

The ancients had three kinds of rings which served to distinguish conditions or quality. Pliny assures us, that the senators at first were not allowed to wear the gold ring, unless they had been ambassadors at some foreign court. Nor was it even allowed them to wear the gold ring which was given them in public, except on public occasions; at other times they wore an iron one. And those who had a triumph observed the same rules.

At length the senators and knights were allowed the common use of the gold ring; but Acron on Horace, lib. ii. sat. vii. observes, they could not do it unless it were given them by the prætor.

In after days the gold ring became the badge of the knights, the people wearing silver rings, and the slaves iron ones; though the gold ring was sometimes also allowed the people, and Severus granted it to his common soldiers. Augustus allowed it to the liberti or freedmen; and though Nero made a regulation to the contrary, yet it was soon set aside.

Another kind of rings comprehended the *annuli sponsalitii,* wedding-rings. Some carry the origin of this custom as far back as the Hebrews, on the authority of a text in Exodus, xxxv. 22. Leo of Modena, however, maintains, that the ancient Hebrews did not use any nuptial ring. Selden, in his Uxor. Ebraica, lib. ii. chap. xiv. owns, that they gave a ring in the marriage, but that it was only in lieu of a piece of money of the same value which had used to have been given before. The Greeks and Romans did the same, and from them the Christians took it up very early, as appears from Tertullian, and in some ancient liturgies, where we find the form of blessing the nuptial ring.

The third kind of rings included those used as seals, called *cerographi* or *cirographi;* an account of which, see under the article SEAL.

Richard, bishop of Salisbury, in his Constitutions, anno 1217, forbids the putting of rush rings, or any the like matter on women's fingers, in order to the debauching them more readily; and he insinuates the reason of his prohibition, that there were some people weak enough to believe, that what was thus done in jest was a real marriage.

De Breveil, in his Antiquities of Paris, says, it was an ancient custom to use a rush-ring in the nuptials of such as had cohabited before their marriage.

RING, in Astronomy. The ring of Saturn is a thin, broad, opaque, circular arch, encompassing the body of that planet, like the horizon of an artificial globe, without touching it, and appearing double, when seen through a good telescope. See ASTRONOMY, vol. ii. 387.

To RING, *v. a.* pret. and part. pass. *rung.* [hpinzan, Saxon.] To strike bells or any other sonorous body, so as to make it sound.—*Ring* the alarum bell. *Shakspeare.*—[From *ring.*] To encircle.

Talbot,
Who, *ring'd* about with bold adversity,
Cries out for noble York and Somerset. *Shakspeare.*

To fit with rings.

Death, death; oh amiable lovely death!
Thou odoriferous stench, sound rottenness,
Arise forth from thy couch of everlasting night,
Thou hate and terrour to prosperity,
And I will kiss thy detestable bones,
And put my eye-balls in thy vaulty brows,
And *ring* these fingers with thy houshold worms.
Shakspeare.

To restrain a hog by a ring in his nose.

But then some pence 'twould cost the clowne,
To yoke and eke to *ring* them. *W. Browne.*

To RING, *v. n.* To form a circle.

From the ocean all rivers spring,
And tribute back repay as to their king:
Right so from you all goodly virtues well
Into the rest, which round about you *ring*. *Spenser.*

To sound as a bell or sonorous metal.

Ring out, ye crystal spheres,
And let your silver chime
Move in melodious time;
And let the base of heaven's deep organ blow. *Milton.*

No funeral rites nor man in mournful weeds,
Nor mournful bell shall *ring* her burial. *Shakspeare.*

To practise the art of making music with bells.—Signs for communication may be contrived at pleasure: four bells admit twenty-four changes in *ringing*; each change may, by agreement, have a certain signification. *Holder.* —To sound; to resound.—Hercules, missing his page, called him by his name aloud, that all the shore *rang* of it. *Bacon.*—The particular *ringing* sound in gold, distinct from the sound of other bodies, has no particular name. *Locke.*

With sweeter notes each rising temple *rung*,
A Raphael painted! and a Vida sung!
Immortal Vida! *Pope.*

To utter as a bell.

Ere to black Hecat's summons
The shard-born beetle, with his drowsy hums,
Hath *rung* night's yawning peal, there shall be done
A deed of dreadful note. *Shakspeare.*

To tinkle.

My ears still *ring* with noise; I'm vext to death:
Tongue-kill'd, and have not yet recover'd breath. *Dryden.*

To be filled with a bruit or report.—That profane, atheistical, epicurean rabble, whom the whole nation so *rings* of, are not indeed what they vote themselves, the wisest men in the world. *South.*

RING-BOLT, in a Ship, is an iron bolt with an eye at one end, in which is fitted a circular ring, and used for various purposes; particularly for hooking the tackles, by which the cannon of a ship is managed and secured. They are driven by the sides of the gun-ports in ships for securing the guns; and in the deck for stopping the cable, and are therefore called stopper-bolts. The rings are sometimes made angular, to receive many turns of lashing; such are the ring-bolts driven through the ship's side along the waist for lashing the booms and spare anchors.

RING-BONE, *s.* *Ring-bone* is a hard callous substance growing in the hollow circle of the little pastern of a horse, just above the coronet: it sometimes grows quite round like a ring, and thence it is called the *ring-bone*. *Farrier's Dict.*

RI'NGDOVE, *s.* [*rhingelduijve*, German.] Pigeons are of several sorts, wild and tame; as wood pigeons, dovecot pigeons, and *ringdoves*. *Mortimer.*—See COLUMBA.

RING-HEAD, an engine used in stretching of cloth.

RING ISLAND, a small island of the United States, near the coast of Massachusetts, a little to the east of Newbury Port.

RINGAY a small river of England, in Cheshire.

RINGELBERGIUS (Joachim-Fortius), vernacularly Sterck, an eminent Flemish philosopher and mathematician, who flourished in the 16th century, was born at Antwerp, but in what year is not known. He was patronized by the Emperor Maximilian I., in whose palace he had an apartment, and he there received his first instructions in the rudiments of learning. When he was about 17 years of age he was sent to the University of Louvain, where he studied the learned languages, philosophy, and the mathematical sciences, with the greatest assiduity and success. He also discovered a genius for the fine arts, particularly painting and engraving. In course of time he became a public professor in that University, and taught rhetoric, cosmography, the mathematics, and the Greek language, with very high reputation. So numerous were the classes which attended his lectures, that they frequently occupied his attention twelve hours every day for a month together. In the year 1528 he went into Germany, and taught the mathematical sciences and the Greek tongue in various seminaries of that country. From Germany he went to France, where he filled the professor's chair at Paris, Orleans, Bordeaux, and other places. Such was his assiduity, that he often lectured from sun-rise to sun-set, except during the short space of half an hour, when he sat down to dinner. To the closeness of his application, however, he fell a victim at a premature age, about the year 1536. He lived in habits of intimacy and friendship with Erasmus, Beraldus, Oporinus, Hyperius, and others of the most learned men of his time, and wrote a number of esteemed works. Their titles are, "De Ratione Studii;" "De Usu et Differentiis vocum quarundam apud Latinos;" "De Usu Vocum quæ non flectuntur;" "Grammaticæ Græcæ Elementa;" "Dialectica, et Tabulæ Dialecticæ;" "De conscribendis Epistolis Lib.;" "Rhetorica, et quæ ad eam Spectant;" "Sententiæ;" "De Formis dicendi Lib.;" "De Periodis;" "Synonyma;" "Sphæra, sive Institutionum Astronomicarum, Lib III.;" "Cosmographia;" "Optica;" "Chaos Mathematicum;" "Arithmetica;" "De Horoscopo;" "Astrologia cum Geomanteia;" "Physiognomia, de Urina non visa, et Interpretatione Somniorum;" and "De Homine Lib. cum Epistole quibusdam." The whole of them were collected together, and published in one large volume at Leyden, in 1531. *Moreri.*

RINGENT, *adj.* [*ringes*, Lat.] Patulous or spreading open: it is chiefly used of the corolla of plants.

RI'NGER, *s.* He who rings.

RINGES, in Rural Economy, a provincial term, signifying rows of hay, mown corn, quicks, &c.

RINGFIELD, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 2 miles south-west of Beccles.

RI'NGING, *s.* Art or act of making music with bells. —Many other sports there be, as *ringing*, bowling, &c. *Burton.*

RINGKIOPING, or RINKOPING, a small town of Denmark, in North Jutland, situated on a gulf of the same name. It has a deep and secure harbour, but the entrance is difficult, on account of sand-banks thrown up by the sea. The principal occupation of the inhabitants consists in fishing, and in trading to Norway and Holland; 52 miles north-by-west of Ripen, and 45 south-west of Wiborg. Lat. 56. 6. N. long. 8. 18. E.

RINGLAND, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 7 miles north-west of Norwich.

RI'NGLEADER, *s.* One who leads the ring in a dance. —St. Peter had a primacy of order, such an one as the *ringleader* hath in a dance, as the primipilar centurion had in the legion. *Barrow.*—The head of a riotous body.—The nobility escaped; the poor people, who had been deluded by these *ringleaders*, were executed. *Addison.*

RINGLEBEN, a small town of Germany, belonging to Saxe-Weimar; 6 miles north of Erfurt, and 26 east-north-east of Eisenach. Lat. 51. 6. N. long. 11. 2. E.

RINGLEBEN, a town of the interior of Germany, in the lower county of Schwarzburg-Sondershausen. Population 1000.

RI'NGLET, *s.* [*ring*, with a diminutive termination.] A small ring.

Silver the lintels, deep projecting o'er;
And gold the *ringlets* that command the door. *Pope.*

A circle.

A circle.

You demy puppets, that
By moon-shine do the green *ringlets* make,
Whereof the ewe not bites. *Shakspeare.*

Never met we,
Upon the beached margent of the sea,
To dance our *ringlets* to the whistling wind,
But with thy brawls thou hast disturb'd our sport. *Shakspeare.*

A curl.—With *ringlets* quaint, and wanton windings wove. *Milton.*

Her golden tresses — in wanton *ringlets* wav'd,
As the vine curls her tendrils. *Milton.*

RINGMER, a parish of England in Sussex; 2½ miles east-north-east of Lewes. Population 1055.

RINGMERE PIT, a remarkable pool in the county of Norfolk, England, in the form of an amphitheatre, and six or seven acres in extent.

RINGMORE, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 4 miles south-by-west of Modbury.

RINGO'S TOWN, a post village of the United States, in Hunterdon county, New Jersey.

RING OUZEL, or AMSEL. See TURDUS TORQUATUS.

RINGSHALL, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 4 miles west-south-west of Needham.

RINGSHEIM, a neat village of the west of Germany, in Baden; 2 miles west-by-south of Ettenheim. Population 1100.

RING-SCALPEL. We have a description and a figure of a ring-scalpel, for assisting the delivery of women in child-birth, by Dr. Thomas Simson, in the Medical Essays of Edinburgh, vol. v. art. 39.

RINGSTEAD, a village of England, in Norfolk; 8½ miles west-by-south of Burnham Westgate.

RINGSTEAD, a village of England, on the coast of Dorsetshire; 2 miles south of Ormington.

RINGSTEAD, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 2½ miles south-by-west of Thrapston. Population 445.

RINGSTEDT, a petty town of Denmark, in the island of Zealand, of great antiquity. The surrounding country, though bare and uninviting in appearance, is tolerably fertile. Population 700; 30 miles south-west of Copenhagen.

RI'NGSTREAKED, *adj.* Circularly streaked. — He removed the he-goats that were *ringstreaked* and spotted, and all the she-goats that were speckled. *Gen.* xxx. 35.

RI'NGTAIL, *s.* A kind of kite with a whitish tail. *Bailey.*

Thou royal *ring-tail*, fit to fly at nothing,
But poor men's poultry. *Beaum. and Fl.*

The FALCO PYGARGUS, which see.

RING-TAIL, in a Ship, is a quadrilateral sail, occasionally hoisted abaft the after-leech of the boom-mainsails, to which the fore-leech is made to correspond. The head is bent to a small yard at the outer end of the gaff, and the foot is spread on the boom, which is prolonged by a piece lashed to the outer end. A triangular sail of this sort is used in light favourable winds, extended on a small mast, occasionally erected for that purpose on the taffarel of small vessels.

RINGWOLD, a parish of England, in Kent; 3 miles south-south-west of Deal.

RINGWOOD, a town of America, in Hunterden county; 25 miles north of Morristown, containing 2605 inhabitants.

RINGWOOD, a market town and parish in the hundred of Ringwood, New Forest, west division, county of Southampton, England, is situated on the eastern bank of the river Avon, at the distance of 14 miles west-by-south from Southampton, and 90 miles south-west-by-west from London. This town is of great antiquity, and is supposed by Camden to have been the Regnum of the Romans, which others, however, have fixed, with greater probability, at Chichester, in Sussex. But whatever it may have been during the Roman government it unquestionably attained considerable importance in the time of the Saxons; and in Domesday book, it is estimated at a higher value than Thuinam, or Christchurch.

Ringwood is noted for its breweries of strong beer and ale. A market is held here on Wednesday, weekly; and there are fairs on the 10th of July, and 11th of December. The petty sessions for New Forest, west division, are holden in this town. According to the parliamentary returns of 1811, the town and parish contained 658 houses, and a population of 3269 persons.

North from Ringwood is the village of Ellingham, where formerly was a religious house, founded by William de Salariis, in the reign of Henry II., and appropriated as a cell to the abbey of St. Saviour le Vicompte, in Normandy. When the alien priories in this country were dissolved, Henry VI. granted Ellingham and its possessions to the college at Eton. Some remains of the buildings of this establishment are supposed to form the nave of the present church, and the opinion is certainly not improbable, as it is more ancient than the rest of the fabric. The altar-piece here is a painting of the Day of Judgment, presented to the parish by the late Lord Windsor, whose ancestor, brigadier Windsor, brought it from Port St. Mary, in the bay of Cadiz, among the trophies of an expedition against that city in the year 1702. In the church-yard is a plain stone, to the memory of dame Alicia Lisle, whom the blood-thirsty Jeffreys condemned to be executed in her old age, on a charge of harbouring known rebels in her mansion at Moyles-Court. This mansion is still standing, surrounded by a very pleasant, but small, park. Its former possessors, the Lisles, were originally settled in the Isle of Wight, where they had large estates, and whence they derived their name. Colonel John Lisle, husband to the above-mentioned Alicia, was one of the judges who passed sentence on king Charles I. and also one of the lords commissioners of the great seal during the protectorate of Cromwell. On the eve of the restoration he fled to the continent, was proscribed by the parliament of Charles II., and assassinated at Lausanne, in Switzerland, by three villains, hired for that purpose by some of the royal family, or their friends. Beauties of England and Wales, vol. vi. by John Britton, F. S. A. and E. W. Brayley, Lond. 1805.

RINGWOOD. See RAMAPO.

RI'NGWORM, *s.* A circular tetter.—It began with serpigo, making many round spots, such as are generally called *ringworms*. *Wiseman.*—See PATHOLOGY, p. 357, 359.

RINOREA, [a name, but probably bestowed on this genus by Aublet, from its native appellation in Guiana.]—in botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order berberides, *(Juss.)* Generic Character.—Calyx: perianth inferior, of one leaf, villous, cloven into five oblong, acute segments. Corolla: petals ten, concave, ovate, oblong; the five inner ones smaller; all inserted below the germen. Stamina: filaments five, short, inserted at the base of the outer petals; anthers oblong, two-celled, with two valves bursting from the base to the top. Pistil: germen superior, roundish, villous; style oblong, villous; stigma obtuse. Jussieu describes rinorea as having five longer petals, each furnished with an inner one at its claw or base. *Essential Character.*—Calyx five-cleft. Petals ten, the five inner ones smaller. Style one. Stigma one.

1. Rinorea guianensis.—Native of cultivated ground in Guiana, where it flowered in January.—A tree six or seven feet high, whose trunk is branched very thickly, to the very summit, in a straight alternate manner. Leaves alternate, stalked, ovate-oblong, acute, toothed. Stipulas short, deciduous. Flowers white, in axillary, terminal clusters, each placed on a short stalk, which is furnished with two scales at its base.

To RINSE, *v. a.* [from *rein*, Germ. pure, clear.] To wash; to cleanse by washing.

This last costly treaty
Swallow'd so much treasure, and like a glass
Did break i' the *rinsing*. *Shakspeare.*

To

To wash the soap out of clothes.

They cannot boil, nor wash, nor *rinse*, they say,
With water sometimes ink, and sometimes whey,
According as you meet with mud or clay. *King.*

RI'NSER, *s.* One that washes or rinses; a washer.

RINTELN, a town of Germany, and the capital of that part of the county of Schaumberg which belongs to Hesse-Cassel. It is situated on the Weser, over which there is a bridge of boats. It had formerly a small university, the place of which is now supplied by a gymnasium or high school, erected in 1816. The population is 2700, all Protestants; 30 miles west-south-west of Hanover, and 10 south-east of Minden.

RINTIMFORE See RANTAMPORE.

RINUCCINI (Ottavio), an Italian poet, and native of Florence, is entitled to commemoration as the inventor of the musical drama termed opera. Some attempts had been made before his time to introduce music into dramatic action, but Rinuccini was the first who gave a proper form to compositions of this kind. His "Dafne," set to music by Jacopo Peri, was represented in the house of Jacopo or Giacomo Corsi, a gentleman of Florence skilled in music and polite literature, and who had been consulted in the plan of this new species of composition. According to Peri, this representation took place in 1594; and it was so well received that it was followed by our author's "Euridice," exhibited at Florence in 1600 at the nuptials of Henry IV. with Mary de Medicis, and his "Arianna," performed in 1608, at Florence and Mantua, on occasion of the marriages of Francesco Gonzaga, son of Duke Vincenzo, and Cosmo de' Medici, son of the Grand Duke Ferdinand. Rinuccini, who was a handsome, polite, and eloquent man, was a great admirer, and even presumed to be a lover, of Queen Mary de Medicis, whom he accompanied to France, where he was appointed gentleman of the bed-chamber to King Henry. On returning to Italy, he became serious, and passed his latter years in pious exercises. He died at Florence in 1621, and in the following year his Poems, dedicated by himself to Louis XIII., were published by his son Pier-Francesco. He was one of the most elegant writers of poems for music; and especially in his Anacreontic songs, he was one of the first who approached the grace and amenity of the Greek bard. *Tiraboschi.*

RINVILL POINT, a cape of Ireland, on the west coast of the county of Galway. Lat. 53. 36. N. long. 9. 58. E.

RIO, a town of Tuscany, in the island of Elba, near Porto Longone. It contains 1800 inhabitants.

RIO DE LOS ANZUELOS, a river of Mexico, which runs into the Spanish Main, north lat. 11° 10'.—Rio dos Apostolos, a river of North America, which runs into the northern part of the gulf of California.

RIO DE BOGOTA, a river of New Granada, which collects all the waters of the valley of Bogota, the bottom of which valley, according to Humboldt, is no less than 7460 feet above the level of the sea, and finds its way through the mountains to the south-west of the town of Santa Fé. The perfect level of the plain, its geological structure, and the form of the rocks, which resemble small islands in the middle of the Savannahs, appeared to M. Humboldt to indicate the existence of an ancient lake. If the single outlet of the river were to be stopt, the valley would again be converted into a lake. The river, where it leaves the valley, is about 144 feet wide, half the breadth nearly of the Seine at Paris, between the Louvre and the Palace of the Arts. It then enters into a narrow rocky channel, not more than 40 feet wide, which appears, says the same intelligent and instructive traveller, to have been formed by an earthquake. After running for a little way in this crevice, the river precipitates itself, at two bounds, to the depth of 574 feet. After this tremendous fall, it pursues its way to the Magdalena, about 50 miles, still descending with great rapidity, and at the rate of 150 feet to a mile. Although this is not the greatest fall in the globe, there is not probably any which from so great a height, precipitates so large a body of water. Bouguer makes the height between 1500 and 2000 feet; but he speaks only from the information of others who had seen the fall, and pointed out to him such heights as they thought might be nearly equal to it. The accompaniments of this waterfall, upon which the effect so much depends, are an assemblage of every thing that is sublime, beautiful, and picturesque. Independent, says M. Humboldt, of the height and the size of the column of water, the figure of the landscape, and the aspect of the rocks; the peculiar character stamped on these great scenes of nature is owing to the luxuriant form of the trees and herbaceous plants, their distribution into groups, or into scattered thickets, the extent of the craggy precipice, and the freshness of vegetation. Another feature in the character of this extraordinary cataract is probably quite peculiar to it:—the water descends from a cold region to a warm one. The plain of Bogota, especially near the fall, is extremely fertile, and is supposed to owe some of its fruitfulness to the irrigation occasioned by the great quantity of water from the fall, which is dissolved in the air, and afterwards precipitated. The fine crops of wheat, the oak, the elm, and other plants, recall to mind the vegetation of Europe. Looking down from this terrace, one sees, with surprise, at the bottom, a country producing the palm, the banana, and the sugar-cane. This cannot arise from the difference of height; as it is known, that no very great change of temperature can be produced by a difference of level of 570 feet. Mr. Humboldt suggests, that it is probably owing to the shelter which the high country affords to the low. It is one of the circumstances that has added much to the marvellous height of the cataract; as the height is naturally supposed to be great, that carries one at once from the temperature of Europe, and one where the theremometer is sometimes at the freezing point, to that of the torrid zone. Although the river loses a great part of its water in falling, which is reduced into vapour, the rapidity of the lower current forces the observer to keep at the distance of 150 yards from the basin dug out by the fall. The solitude of the place, the richness of the vegetation, and the dreadful roar that strikes the ear, contribute to render the foot of the cataract of Tequendama one of the wildest scenes that can be found in the Cordilleras. (Humboldt's Researches, &c. translated by Helen Williams, Lond. 1814.)

RIO DE JANEIRO, a jurisdiction or independent government of Brasil, so called by the Portuguese when they became masters of the country, from the river Janeiro, which runs through the middle of it; and the river probably derived its name from its having been discovered on the day of the feast of St. Januarius, or on the 1st day of January, in 1516, by Solis. At the mouth of the river, on the east side, is the fort of Santa Cruz, and on the west, that of St. Jago, together with the capital. The rivers in this government are few and none of them large, except the Janeiro, which is rather a salt bay or gulf than a river, and two rivers that discharge themselves into this bay. At the mouth of it are several small islands, that render its entrance somewhat difficult and dangerous. Although the soil of this province is for the greatest part rich and fertile, the inhabitants manifest little industry either in the cultivation of the soil or the improvement of the country. It is used chiefly, at least near the capital, in raising garden vegetables for the whites, and rice and manioc for the blacks. Wheat is found to grow in other parts of the Brasils, beyond what is known in Europe. A corn-mill, distinguished by the simplicity of its structure, attracted the notice of Sir George Staunton; and he has thought it worthy of being described. A wheel, a few feet only in diameter, was placed horizontally, much below the current of a stream, as it fell from a steep bank, and was received in hollows, ten or twelve in number, so obliquely scolloped into the upper rim of the wheel, as to impel it to a quick rotatory motion, while its upright shaft, passing through an opening in the centre of an immovable mill-stone above the wheel, but of a narrower diameter, was fixed to a smaller

smaller mill-stone, which, forced round with the motion of the wheel and dependent shaft, crushed between it and the larger stone beneath, the grain insinuated between them from a hopper. Thus that effect was produced by one wheel only, which is generally the result of a much more expensive and complicated machinery. A similar mill, it is said, is in use in the Crimea. A forest, not far from the capital, was found, by Sir George and his associates, to abound in palms and mastic wood; also the mango and gouyava are found growing to the size of trees, besides many other vegetables, never observed before by those who had travelled through it. The ipecacuanha plant is said to grow at St. Catharine's within the government of Rio. The size and vivid hue of many of the flowers throughout the forest, and the gaudy plumage of the birds, which came occasionally in sight, were very striking. The woods, it is said, abound in snakes, some of which are extremely large and formidable. But their hissing noise puts those who hear it on their guard, and they seldom, without provocation, advance to an attack. The forest now mentioned led to the cultivated valley of "Tijouca," situated, as it were, in the bottom of a funnel, being surrounded on all sides by mountains, excepting to the southward, where a small opening admitted an arm of the sea. The valley was watered by a clear stream, which, upon first entering it, was precipitated down a steep and broad rock of granite, forming a magnificent cascade. Very little labour appeared necessary in the plantations of Tijouca. Indigo, manioc, coffee, cacao, and chocolate-trees, sugar-canes, plantains, and orange and lime-trees, were commonly seen all growing promiscuously, and some spontaneously, in the space of twenty square yards. Coffee and indigo were the principal objects of attention. The temperature of the valley was excessively hot, on account of its confined situation, and the reflection of the sun's rays from the sides of the mountains, which in many places were very rocky. Fahrenheit's thermometer, about four in the afternoon, stood, in the shade, at 88°. Several districts of the government of Rio produced cotton, sugar, coffee, and cacao or chocolate, rice, pepper, and tobacco, in great abundance. That of Rio Grandé yielded plenty of excellent wheat. The vine grew in great perfection. For the history of several historical events concerning Rio de Janeiro, we refer to Portugal. In that article we partly promised a continuation of the Brazilian history in this place. But for several reasons we shall prefer treating the subject under *South America*.

RIO DE JANEIRO, a city of Brasil, and capital of the above-mentioned government, and also of the whole country, and the Portuguese dominions in America, situated on a river, or rather an arm of the sea, of the same name. Formerly Bahia dos Todos, or Santos, was the principal seat of government, and chief mart for commerce in the Brasils; but the discovery and improvement of the gold and diamond mines, within about 100 leagues of Rio de Janeiro, and communicating immediately with it, gave a decided preponderancy to the latter. The city stands on a plain, close to the shore, on the west side of the bay, at the foot of several high mountains which rise behind it. It is neither ill-designed nor ill-built; the houses in general are of stone, and two stories high; every house having, after the manner of the Portuguese, a little balcony before its windows, and a lattice of wood before the balcony. The streets are straight, and conveniently broad, intersecting each other at right angles; most of them, however, lie in a line with the citadel, called St. Sebastian, which stands on the top of a hill, that commands the town. The harbour is safe and capacious, and very convenient for commerce. Captain Mackintosh, from experience, recommends to ships bound for this harbour, after getting in with cape Frio, instead of steering along shore, to shape their course between south-west and south-west by west for twelve or fourteen leagues. To this distance the land wind extends. The forenoons in general are calm, but almost every afternoon a fresh sea-breeze sets in from the south-west. It is proper to steer, in a direct course, from hence to the small islands lying under the great inclining Sugar-loaf on the western side of the entrance into Rio harbour. From these small islands the wind will carry the ship to the opposite side of the harbour's mouth, where the fort of Santa Cruz is situated, and which may be approached within fifty yards, and from thence, safely and quickly, into harbour. The entrance of the harbour, as Sir Erasmus Gower observes, will shew itself by discovering the castle or fort of Santa Cruz, and a small fortified island, called Fort Lucia, nearly abreast of it. Between these is the channel into the harbour, near a mile wide; both shores are steep; that of Santa Cruz is perpendicular, there being six fathoms in the wash of the sea. The narrowness of the channel causes strong tides; but as the sea-breeze blows fresh, they do not impede entering into the harbour. In going in it is best to keep mid channel, or even nearer to Santa Cruz. About four miles outside the harbour's mouth, the depth of water is eighteen and nineteen fathoms, which will decrease gradually to eight or seven; and this, being the shallowest part, may be called the bar, which is about two miles outside the fort. The water again deepens, on approaching to Santa Cruz, to seventeen or eighteen fathoms, nor will less be found in the fair way of the great road. Large ships may moor in shoaler water, but that depth, or thereabouts, is more adviseable, as such a situation affords the full advantage of the sea-breeze, as well as that of avoiding the insects, which are very troublesome when nearer to the shore. In the inner harbour, formed by an island called "Ilheo dos Cobras," or Serpent island, are proper wharfs for heaving ships down by; but the mode of doing it alongside hulks is now preferred. In the same harbour will ships anchor, which are loading or unloading goods, or want repairing; the outer is the more healthy situation. Rio is situated in south lat. 22° 54′, and west long. 42° 44′. The variation of the compass is 4° 55′ west of the pole. The tide flows 7½ hours, and rises about 5½ feet perpendicular. Fahrenheit's thermometer, during Sir G. Staunton's stay, was between 77° and 82°.

The entrance into the harbour, from the sea, is bounded, on one side, by the leaning cone already mentioned, measuring 700 feet in height, and by the huge mass of granite, supporting the castle of Santa Cruz, on the other; and is interrupted, near the middle, by the little island on which Fort Lucia is erected. On entering into the harbour it was found to enlarge to a width of three or four miles, and to penetrate, in several branches, farther than the eye could reach. It is interrupted with many islands, some entirely green, and some covered with batteries or habitations. The shores of the harbour were diversified and embellished with villages, farms, and plantations, separated by rivulets, ridges of the rocks, indentures of little sandy bays, or the skirtings of a forest; the whole terminated, in distant prospect, by an amphitheatre or screen of mountains, rising in a vast variety of rude and fantastic forms, but covered with trees to their very summits.

Within four miles of the harbour's mouth is situated, on the west, the city of St. Sebastian, usually called Rio, built on a projecting tongue of land; but all the ground behind it is broken into hills and rocks, with woods, houses, convents, and churches on their tops. A convent of Benedictines, and also a fort commanding the town, are situated upon the extreme point jetting into the harbour; opposite to this point is Serpent island, between which and the town is a narrow channel, sufficiently deep, however, for the passage of the largest ships. Upon the island are, a dock-yard, magazines, and naval store-houses; and round its shores are the usual anchoring places for the shipping which frequent this port. Beyond the town the harbour begins to widen considerably, and resembles a large lake with many islands upon its surface. In the late improved state of the town, the streets are paved, with the addition of foot-paths, and though some of them are narrow, they are convenient in a hot climate by the shade which they afford. In the squares are refreshing fountains, which supply the water conveyed to them by an aqueduct of considerable length; a circumstance of moment, as Rio has no river close to it of any note. This aqueduct is carried over vallies by a double row of

of arches, one placed above another; and thus presents a structure that adds great ornament to the town. A guard constantly attends at the fountains throughout Rio, to regulate the distribution of the water, which is probably scanty, as there are people who wait a long time with buckets for their share. A sufficient proportion of the water from the fountain upon the quay opposite to the palace, is allotted for the use of the shipping, and is conveyed to the casks, remaining in the boat, by means of a woollen or canvas tube, called a hose, stretching from the fountain to the cask. Captain Cook complained that the water was not good; but this circumstance Sir Erasmus Gower ascribes to some accidental impurities that must have remained in the casks which he filled with it.

The shops of Rio, says Staunton, were full of Manchester manufactures, and other British goods, even to English prints, both serious and caricature. A Portuguese merchant adverting to these supplies of goods, and the advantages gained by the country that furnished them, observed that the prosperity both of Portugal and its dependencies redounded chiefly to the benefit of England. The benefit has probably been reciprocal; and, it is hoped, will thus continue. The exterior appearance of the inhabitants indicated ease and comfort; their dwellings were generally in good condition, many of them large, and well adapted to the climate; the magazines and markets well stored with merchandize; new buildings, private and public, erected; tradesmen busily employed; and besides the aqueduct and fountains which adorned the city, it had some public walks, and a spacious quay of granite, of which material, found upon the spot, many of the chief edifices were constructed. The place, however, is said to be unhealthy; and instances of longevity are rare. This insalubrity may be owing, perhaps, to local and temporary circumstances, more than to the necessary influence of the climate. The situation of the town upon a plain, almost wholly surrounded by hills thickly covered with forest trees, deprives it of a free circulation of air, and exposes it to the morning and evening damps of humid nights, preceded by scorching days, and of course putrid and intermitting fevers must often be the consequence. Water is also suffered to stagnate in marshes near the town; and to these disadvantages we may add the tormenting influence of infinite swarms of musquitoes, or large gnats, which attack strangers for some time after their arrival. But none of these real, or any imaginary evils restrain the propensity of all classes of society towards gaiety and pleasures.

The inhabitants of Rio are very numerous, and consist of Portuguese, Negroes, and Indians, the original natives of the country. This township, which is but a small part of the capitanea, or province, is said, according to Cook, to contain 37,000 white persons, and 629,000 blacks, many of whom are free, amounting together to 666,000, in the proportion of 17 to 1. The Indians, who are employed to do the king's work in this neighbourhood, can scarcely be considered as inhabitants; their residence is at a distance, from whence they come by turns to their task, which they are obliged to perform for a small pay. The guard-boat was constantly rowed by these people, who are of a light copper-colour, and have long black hair.

When walking abroad, men of the lower classes generally wear cloaks; and those of the middling and higher ranks never appear without swords. The ladies wear their hair hanging down in tresses, tied with ribbands and adorned with flowers; their heads being uncovered. In their visits to the churches, both at matins and vespers, they are regular; at other times they are generally seated at their windows or balconies. Many of them have fine dark eyes, with animated countenances. In the evenings they amuse themselves by playing on some kind of musical instrument, chiefly the harpsichord or guitar. At this time the doors and windows are thrown open for the admission of cool air. If a stranger should happen to stop to hear the music, it often happens that the father, husband, or brother of the lady that is playing, steps out and politely invites him into the house; and the ladies, not unfrequently, having bunches of flowers in their hands, exchange them with gentlemen as they pass by. This practice may perhaps be an imitation of that of the ladies of Lisbon, who on particular days, called "days of intrusion," throw nosegays from their balconies upon persons walking under them.

Among the pleasures of Rio de Janeiro, are operas, plays, and masquerades. Company often assembles at a garden, situated near the sea, at one extremity of the town, and laid out in grass plats, shrubberies, and parterres, ornamented in various ways. In these recesses the gay society of Rio, after taking the exercise of walking in the evening, and after hearing songs and music, sit down to partake of banquets, occasionally accompanied by music and fire-works. On the side of this garden next the sea is a terrace, and at the extremities of the terrace there are two neat square buildings, like English summer-houses. In one the walls are decorated with paintings, representing views of the harbour, and particularly of the whale fishery, which was formerly carried on in it; until the large black whale, which formerly frequented it, was disturbed and driven away, in consequence of the increased concourse of shipping. The cieling of this and the other summer-house are covered with various appropriate devices, in shell or feather-work; and the walls of the latter are decorated with eight large paintings, descriptive of the principal productions to which the country is indebted for its opulence, including views of the diamond and gold mines, with the operations performed in them; of the cultivation of the sugar-cane, and the processes by which its juice is extracted and granulated into sugar; of the manner of collecting the small animals which produce the cochineal, and preparing the rich dye from them; of the culture of the manioc, with the process of making cassada and tapioca; and of the culture and preparation of coffee, rice, and indigo. Near the town is another garden, originally intended for promoting the progress of botany, but now chiefly curious for a small manufacture of cochineal; but the garden at Rio does not produce annually above thirty pounds of this commodity. The preparation of cochineal, however, is now encouraged by the trade being laid open, which was formerly a monopoly to the crown. Another species of manufacture is carried on in the vicinity of Rio; an exclusive privilege having been given to a company, upon paying one-fifth of its profits to the crown. To this harbour was brought, for the purpose of converting it into oil, the blubber or firm fat of the black whales. The whalebone or cartilages of the jaw were also properly separated and cleansed here, before they were sent to Europe. In another part of the harbour of Rio, called Val Lengo, are warehouses for the reception and sale of slaves.

The high conical rocks at the entrance of the harbour of Rio, and the surrounding hills, are all of granite, in which the only remarkable circumstance is the large proportion of feld-spath contained in it. About two miles within the harbour, on the south-west side, is one high rock, entirely composed of columnar masses, bearing the resemblance of basaltes: it rests upon clay. In all the quarries of granite, it is found incumbent upon clay and sand. Here are three species of granite: the first red-coloured, soft, and shining; the second deep blue coloured, harder, and of a closer texture; and the third of a whitish shining colour, containing much mica, and little feld-spath; its texture soft, and incapable of a good polish.

The riches of this place consist chiefly in the mines, that lie at a considerable distance in the country, from which much gold is brought, at the expence of many lives. Precious stones are also found here in such plenty, that a certain quantity only is allowed to be collected in a year: they are diamonds, topazes of several kinds, and amethysts.

Upon the whole, Rio de Janeiro is a very good place for ships to put in at that want refreshment: the harbour is safe and commodious; and provisions, except wheaten bread and flour, may be easily procured: as a succedaneum for bread, here are yams and cassada in plenty: beef both fresh and pickled, may be bought, says Cook in 1768, at about 2½d. a pound, but it is very lean. The people here pickle their beef by taking

ing out the bones, cutting it into large but thin slices, then curing it with salt, and drying it in the shade: it eats very well, and if kept dry, will remain good a long time at sea. Mutton is scarcely to be procured; and hogs and poultry are dear. Of vegetables and fruit there is abundance; but none can be kept at sea except the pumpkin: rum, sugar, and molasses, all excellent in their kind, may be had at a reasonable price; tobacco is also cheap, but not good. *Cook's Voyages by Hawkesworth*, vol. ii. *Staunton's Embassy*, vol. i.

There are a multitude of rivers, which are termed Rio. Of these it may be sufficient to mention, 1.—Rio Real, a river of Brasil, which divides the captainship of Sergippe from that of All Saints. This river, if it were not for the bar at the entrance, on which there is but ten feet of water, would be an inlet to the most fertile and pleasant part of the Brasils. Over the bar there is room enough, and depth of water sufficient for the whole navy of England to ride in safety. About four leagues above the mouth, this river divides itself into four large branches, one running north-north-west, called Rio Fundo, another north-west, navigable for any vessel that can get near the bar, as far as the towns of St. Lucia and St. Eustatia, from the latter of which it takes its name, a third, called Rio de Paõ Grand, or Great Timber River, which runs west-north-west. The main branch, which runs west-south-west, is also navigable as far as the town of Bahia, about 20 leagues from its mouth. On the banks of these branches there are many fine plantations, and small villages, which send great quantities of sugar, tobacco, and mandioc to Bahia or Fernambuco, as the wind permits. This river runs into the sea through four channels, formed by three small sandy islands, lying in the mouth of it. About 12 leagues to the south of Rio Real is a small harbour, called Torre Garcia de Avilla, defended by four pieces of cannon; the town lies about a mile above the port, on the highest land on this coast; and it is the best for a ship to make, that is bound to Bahia, while the north-east wind blows. 2.—Rio del Rey, a river of Africa, which runs into the Atlantic, north latitude, 4° 30′ east longitude, 8° 5′. This river may be distinguished by the extreme high lands of Amboyes, between it and the river Camarones, situated south-east from the mouth. It appears like a deep large bay running north, 21 or 24 miles wide at the entrance, where the ground is oozy; the channel being exactly in the middle, free from shoals and sands, except near the east side which is foul; the shore on both sides is low and marshy. The river which comes far from the north, is wide for a long interval into the country, and receives several considerable rivers in its course: the adjacent lands are populous and full of villages. The principal trade consists in slaves and large elephants' teeth, and akkori or blue coral. The inhabitants are called *Calbongas*. 3.—Rio de Sal, a river of Mexico, which rises in the province of Culiacan, on the borders of New Biscay, and runs into the Pacific Ocean, north latitude 23° 40′. 4.—Rio Salado, a river of South America, in the province of Tucuman, which rises about 60 miles west of Salta, and first bears the name of "Rio del Passage," but being joined by several smaller streams, it changes its name to Salado, and runs into the Parana at Santa Fé, in the province of Buenos Ayres; its whole course being about 500 miles. 5.—Rio de los Sauces, a river of South America, which rises in Patagonia, and runs into the Atlantic by two streams, forming between them a considerable island, and the southern mouth of the bay of Anegada, south latitude 39° 45′.

RIO DE LA PLATA. See Plata la.

RIOBAMBA, a jurisdiction of South America, in the province of Quito; situated to the south of Latacunga. The productions and manufactures of the province of Riobamba excel all the rest of the provinces of Peru. In various parts it has rich mines of gold and silver, and by means of the warehouses at Yaguache and Noranjel, carries on a considerable trade with Guayaquil. This trade, in the manufactures of the country, which consist only of three sorts, cloth, bags, and linen, is attended with considerable profit to the dealers, and advantage to the country, as all the poor people, who are remarkably numerous, and persons of substance, except those of the capital, wear the goods manufactured in the country. Part of the wheat produced in the jurisdiction of Riobamba and Chimbo is sent to Guayaquil.

RIOBAMBA, the capital of the jurisdiction above-mentioned. This elegant town, by the devastation occasioned by the terrible earthquake on the 4th of February 1797, became a heap of ruins, and soon totally disappeared; for the peak of Sicalpa falling on the town, and stopping the two rivers which pass by it, formed a lake, so that even the ruins were not visible. Of 9000 inhabitants, only about 400 escaped. Although Quito sustained little damage, Latacunga, and all the hamlets in its corregiamento, were utterly destroyed. Many persons perished, and the survivors were infected by the putridity of the dead bodies. Near Hambato many mountains split, and by their sudden fall, occasioned still more awful destruction among the human race. Quero, with all its people, were buried in an instant, under a cliff which fell on the town. Pelileo was overwhelmed by a stream of water and mud; the circumjacent lands were all transposed; and a deadly silence indicated the general ruin. Alausi and Guaranda also suffered greatly. The fate of Cuença, Coja, Jaen, and Guayaquil, was at that time unknown; but the shocks do not seem to have extended so far. The cause of this desolation seems to have proceeded from the volcano Tangarunga or Tangurugua, between Latacunga and Riobamba; as the tremendous subterraneous thunders all proceeded from that quarter, and the greatest ruin was in its vicinity; towards the north the earthquake was faintly perceived at Pasto. Riobamba is distant 90 miles south from Quito. South latitude 1° 20′. West longitude 78° 30′.

RIOLAN (John), the younger, an eminent physician and anatomist, son of a physician of the same name, who was a very learned member of the faculty at Paris, was born at Paris, in 1577. His father took care to give him an education that might render him a worthy successor to himself in medical erudition, and in attachment to the ancient founders of the science. He was likewise well exercised in dissection, and, during four years, acted as dissector to the medical school. He took the degree of doctor at Paris, in 1604, and soon after began to make himself known by writings, principally anatomical. In 1613, he was nominated professor royal of anatomy and botany, in which last capacity he presented a request to Lewis XIII. for the establishment of a botanical garden in the University of Paris. He afterwards accompanied the Queen-mother, Mary de Medicis, in her banishment from court, and was with her when she died at Cologne, in 1642. He then returned to Paris, where he passed the remainder of his days in great professional reputation. He appears to have been unhappy in his family, probably in consequence of his harsh and querulous temper, which was perpetually displaying itself in angry controversies. His friend Guy Patin speaks of him as one who would never spare or forgive any person. He was twice cut for the stone, and died with calculous symptoms in 1657, at the age of 80, or, according to Patin, of 77.

The principal works of Riolan were "Schola Anatomica novis et raris Observationibus illustrata," 1608, 8vo.; "Osteologia," 1614, 8vo.; "Anthropographia," first printed in 1618, 8vo., and published in a third edition by Guy Patin in 1649, fol., under the title of "Opera Anatomica;" this last contains all that the author had then written on anatomy, and exhibits him in the light of a considerable discoverer or improver. Several particulars of the new observations in this work are mentioned by Haller. His "Enchiridion Anatomicum et Pathologicum," 1648, 12mo., is a compendium of his discoveries in anatomy and physiology, and contains many things not in the preceding work. To nearly the same purpose is his "Opuscula Anatomica varia et nova," 1652, 12mo. Most of his other writings are controversial. He wrote against the lymphatics of Bartholine, and the lacteals of Pecquet; and was one of the most pertinacious antagonists of the immortal Harvey's doctrine of the circulation of the blood. Harvey thought it due to Riolan's reputation

reputation to reply to his objections, but upon their being repeated with no new arguments, he was suffered to have the last word. He had a peculiar system of his own on the subject, yet Haller believes that he was really a convert to the true system, but could not bear to minister to the glory of Harvey. In his own opinion, he was himself the first anatomist of the age. His works were replete with erudition, and in an eloquent style, though somewhat diffuse. He had a contempt for anatomical plates, and never employed them in his works. He wrote upon some other medical topics, and defended the Hippocratic mode of practice against the chemical sect. He also published in French, "Recherches curieuses sur les Ecoles de Paris et de Montpellier," in which he exercised his usual severity against the Montpellier school of physic. *Halleri Bibl. Med. & Anatom. Eloy Dict. Hist.*

RIOLI, a town of Naples, in Capitanata; 11 miles south of Manfredonia.

RIOLO, a town of Italy, in the department of the Amone; 9 miles west of Faenza.

RIOM, a considerable town in the central part of France, in the department of the Puy de Dome, situated on a declivity, and enjoying a delightful view of the fertile plain called the Limagne d'Auvergne. It contains 13,500 inhabitants, and though not the capital of the department, has a *cour royale*, or provincial court of appeal. The town is regularly built, being traversed diametrically by two principal streets, which cross each other in the central part. These and the other streets are all paved with basalt, and the whole town is built of this sort of stone, the dark colour of which gives it a dull and gloomy appearance. Riom was formerly a place of some strength, and has still a small arsenal, but its earthen mound is now planted with trees, and serves as a promenade. Its chief structures are its theatre and public fountains. Its trade is inconsiderable, being confined to a little hardware, linen, groceries, and the products of the surrounding country. 50 miles south-by-west of Moulins. Lat. 45. 51. 30. N. long. 3. 6. 5. E.

RION, a small island of the north-west coast of France, department of the Cotes du Nord.

RIONDO, in Ichthology, a name used by some for the fish more commonly called *aper*, a small fish, of the shape of the faber or doree, caught in the Mediterranean.

RIONERO, a town of Italy, in the north part of the kingdom of Naples, province of Molise. Population 1400.

RIONS, a town in the south-west of France, department of the Gironde. Population 1500; 17 miles south-east of Bourdeaux.

RIOPAR, a town of the interior of Spain, in the province of La Mancha, among the mountains of Alcaraz. In the neighbourhood are very rich mines of calamine, not far from the source of the Mundo. Population 4600; 17 miles south-by-west of Alcaraz.

RI'OT, *s.* [*riote*, Fr. Dr. Johnson.—Serenius deduces the word from the Goth. *hriota*, subsultare, Sueth. *ruta*, grassari, dissolutè vivere; Callander, from the Goth. *reta*, Icel. *reita*, ad iram excitare.] Wild and loose festivity.

When his headstrong *riot* hath no curb,
When rage and hot blood are his counsellors,
When means and lavish manners meet together,
Oh! with what wings shall his affection fly
Tow'rd fronting peril and oppos'd decay. *Shakspeare.*

A sedition; an uproar.

Transform'd to serpents all, as accessories
To his bold *riot*. *Milton.*

The punishment of riots and routs, where a number of persons from three to eleven are concerned, is, by the common law, fine and imprisonment only; to which, in very enormous cases, the pillory has been sometimes superadded. (1 Hawk. P. C. 159.) And by the stat. 13 Hen. IV. c. 7. any two justices, together with the sheriff or under-sheriff of the county, may come with the posse comitatus, if need be, and suppress any such riot, assembly, or rout, arrest the rioters, and record upon the spot the nature and circumstances of the whole transaction; which record alone shall be a sufficient conviction of the offenders: and it is held that any battery, wounding, or killing the rioters, that may happen in suppressing the riot, is justifiable. The riotous assembling of twelve persons or more, and not dispersing upon proclamation, was first made high treason by stat. 3 and 4 Edward VI. c. 5. but repealed by stat. 1 Mary, c. 1. Nevertheless, the offence was made a single felony by 1 Mar. stat. 2. c. 12. and by 1 Eliz. c. 16. with whom the law expired. However, it was revived, in order to support the execution of the act of settlement, and made perpetual by 1 Geo. I. c. 5. which enacts, that if any twelve persons are unlawfully assembled to the disturbance of the peace, and any one justice of the peace, sheriff, under-sheriff, or mayor of a town, shall think proper to command them by proclamation to disperse, if they contemn his orders, and continue together for one hour afterwards, such contempt shall be felony, without benefit of clergy. And farther, if the reading of the proclamation be by force opposed, or in any manner wilfully hindered, such opposers and hinderers are felons, without benefit of clergy; and all persons concerned, knowing of such hindrance, and not dispersing, are felons, without benefit of clergy. And the act indemnifies the peace officers, and their assistants, if they kill any of the mob in endeavouring to disperse them. Moreover, if any persons, so riotously assembled, begin, even before proclamation, to pull down any church, chapel, meeting-house, dwelling-house, or out-houses, they shall be felons, without benefit of clergy. *Blackst. Comm.* book iv. ch. xi.

To run RIOT. To move or act without control or restraint.—One man's head *runs riot* upon hawks and dice. *L'Estrange.*

You never can defend his breeding,
Who, in his satire's *running riot*,
Could never leave the world in quiet. *Swift.*

To RIOT, *v. n.* [*rioter*, old Fr.] To revel; to be dissipated in luxurious enjoyments.—Let us walk honestly as in the day; not in *rioting* and drunkenness. *Rom.* xiii. 13.

Now he exacts of all, wastes in delight,
Riots in pleasure, and neglects the law. *Daniel.*

To luxuriate; to be tumultuous.

Thy life a long dead calm of fix'd repose;
No pulse that *riots*, and no blood that glows. *Pope.*

To banquet luxuriously.—To raise a sedition or uproar.

RI'OTER, *s.* One who is dissipated in luxury.—Even the *rioters* of the world have stings and torments from it: If a man live in sensuality and fulness of pleasure, what a cutting thought it is to consider, that in a little time he must bid adieu to this and to all felicity for ever! *Glanville.*—One who raises an uproar or sedition.—Any two justices may come with the posse comitatus, if need be, and suppress any such riot, assembly, or rout, and arrest the *rioters*. *Blackstone.*

RI'OTISE, *s.* Dissoluteness; luxury. *Obsolete.*

From every work he challenged essoign
For contemplation sake; yet otherwise
His life he led in lawless *riotise*. *Spenser.*

RI'OTOUS, *adj.* [*rioteux*, Fr.] Luxurious; wanton; licentiously festive.

When all our offices have been opprest
With *riotous* feeders,
I have retir'd me to a wasteful cock,
And set mine eyes at flow. *Shakspeare.*

With them no *riotous* pomp nor Asian train,
T' infect a navy with their gaudy fears;
But war severely like itself appears. *Dryden.*

Seditious; turbulent.—The *riotous* assembling of twelve persons, or more, and not dispersing upon proclamation, was first made high treason by statute. *Blackstone.*

RI'OTOUSLY,

RI'OTOUSLY, *adv.* Luxuriously; with licentious luxury.—He that gathereth by defrauding his own soul, gathereth for others that shall spend his goods *riotously.* *Ecclus.* xiv. 4.—Seditiously; turbulently.—If any person so *riotously* assembled begin even before proclamation to pull down any church, chapel, meeting-house, or out-houses, they shall be felons without benefit of clergy. *Blackstone.*

RI'OTOUSNESS, *s.* The state of being riotous.—Excess includeth *riotousness*, expence of money, prodigal house-keeping. *Ralegh.*

RIOU, a small island of France, in the Mediterranean, on the coast of the department of the Mouths of the Rhone.

RIOU'S ISLAND, or ROOAHOOGA, an island in the Pacific ocean, about 24 miles in circumference, discovered in the year 1792, by lieutenant Hergest, commander of the Dædalus store-ship. It is of a naked aspect, with steep and rugged rocks rising to a considerable height, and forming a lofty mountain in the middle. It is most fruitful on the western side. Lat. 8. 54. S. long. 139. 9. W.

To RIP, *v. a.* [hṗypan, ṗypan, ṗyppan, Sax.] To tear; to lacerate; to cut asunder by a continued act of the knife or of other force.

You bloody Neros, *ripping* up the womb
Of your dear mother England, blush for shame.
Shakspeare.

To take away by laceration or cutting.

Macduff was from his mother's womb
Untimely *ripp'd.* *Shakspeare.*

Rip this heart of mine
Out of my breast, and shew it for a coward's. *Otway.*

To disclose; to search out; to tear up; to bring to view: usually, but not always, with *up.*—You *rip* up the original of Scotland. *Spenser.*

Know, I do scorn to stoop
To *rip* your lives. *Marston.*

They *ripped* up all that had been done from the beginning of the rebellion. *Clarendon.*

RIP, *s.* A laceration.—He [the lion] once gave him a *rip* in his flesh-coloured doublet. *Addison.*—A wicker basket to carry fish in. *Cowel.*—Refuse. [perhaps a corruption of *riff.*] A low word; as, a *rip* of a horse.

RIPA LIMOSANI, a town of Italy, in the north of the kingdom of Naples; 9 miles east of Molise. Population 3100.

RIPA TRANSONE, a small town of Italy, in the States of the Church. It is the see of a bishop, and is 12 miles north-east of Ascoli.

RIPABATTONI, a town of Italy, in the north of the kingdom of Naples, in the province of Molise. Population 2500.

RIPE, a village of England, in Sussex; 5 miles west-by-south of Haylsham.

RIPE, *adj.* [ṗipe, Saxon; *rijp*, Dutch.] Brought to perfection in growth; mature.

Macbeth
Is *ripe* for shaking; and the powers above
Put on their instruments. *Shakspeare.*

So may'st thou live, till, like *ripe* fruit, thou drop
Into thy mother's lap, or be with ease
Gather'd, not harshly pluck'd, for death mature. *Milton.*

Resembling the ripeness of fruit.

Those happiest smiles,
That play'd on her *ripe* lip, seem'd not to know
What guests were in her eyes, which parted thence,
As pearls from diamonds dropt. *Shakspeare.*

Complete; proper for use.

I by letters shall direct your course,
When time is *ripe.* *Shakspeare.*

Advanced to the perfection of any quality.

There was a pretty redness in his lips,
A little *riper* and more lusty red
Than that mix'd in his cheeks. *Shakspeare.*

O early *ripe!* to thy abundant store,
What could advancing age have added more? *Dryden.*

Finished; consummate.—Beasts are in sensible capacity as *ripe*, even as men themselves, perhaps more *ripe.* *Hooker.*—Brought to the point of taking effect; fully matured.

He thence shall come,
When this world's dissolution shall be *ripe.* *Milton.*

Ripe for heaven, when fate Æneas calls,
Then shalt thou bear him up, sublime, to me. *Dryden.*

To RIPE, *v. n.* To ripen; to grow ripe; to be matured. *Ripen* is now used.

From hour to hour we *ripe* and *ripe*,
And then from hour to hour we rot and rot. *Shakspeare.*

To RIPE, *v. a.* To mature; to make ripe.

He is retired, to *ripe* his growing fortunes,
To Scotland. *Shakspeare.*

RI'PELY, *adv.* Maturely; at the fit time.

It fits us therefore *ripely;*
Our chariots and our horsemen be in readiness. *Shakspeare.*

To RI'PEN, *v. n.* [ṗipian, Sax.] To grow ripe; to be matured.

This is the state of man; to-day he puts forth
The tender leaves of hope, to-morrow blossoms,
And bears his blushing honours thick upon him;
The third day comes a frost, a killing frost;
And when he thinks, good easy man, full surely
His greatness is a *ripening*, nips his root;
And then he falls as I do. *Shakspeare.*

Melons on beds of ice are taught to bear,
And strangers to the sun yet *ripen* here. *Granville.*

To RI'PEN, *v. a.* To mature; to make ripe.

That I settled
Your father in his throne, was for your sake,
I left th' acknowledgment for time to *ripen.* *Dryden.*

The genial sun
Has daily, since his course begun,
Rejoiced the metal to refine,
And *ripen'd* the Peruvian mine. *Addison.*

RI'PENESS, *s.* [ṗipeneȝȝe, Sax.] The state of being ripe; maturity.—They have compared it to the *ripeness* of fruits. *Wiseman.*—Little matter is deposited in the abscess, before it arrives towards its *ripeness.* *Sharp.*—Full growth.

Time, which made them their fame out-live,
To Cowley scarce did *ripeness* give. *Denham.*

Perfection; completion.

This royal infant promises
Upon this land a thousand thousand blessings,
Which time shall bring to *ripeness.* *Shakspeare.*

I to manhood am arriv'd so near,
And inward *ripeness* doth much less appear,
That some more timely happy spirits indu'th. *Milton.*

Fitness; qualification.

Men must endure
Their going hence, ev'n as their coming hither:
Ripeness is all. *Shakspeare.*

RIPIENO, [Ital.] in Music, implies full, in opposition to solo. In Corelli's concertos, the solo parts are said to be *del concertino*, the little concert; and the *tutti* parts, or *ripieno, del concerto grosso*, of the great concert. The first eight of Corelli's concertos were composed for the church, *a due cori*, for two bands or choirs, which are often in dialogue. By ripieno is always meant a subordinate part, to which

which few difficulties are entrusted; being what the French call *complissage*, or parts to fill up and complete the harmony.

RI'PIER, *s.* [*riparius*, low Lat. from the old Eng. *rip*, a basket. *Cowel.*] One who brings fish from the sea-coast to the inner parts of the land. *Cowel.*—I can send you speedier advertisement of her constancy by the next *ripier*, that rides that way with macekrel. *Chapman.*

RIPLEY, a market-town and parish, partly in the lower, and partly in the upper division of the wapentake of Claro, West-riding of Yorkshire, five miles north-west from Knaresborough, and 214 miles north-north-west from London. The town had formerly a castle attached to it, some part of which is yet standing. The market here is held on Monday, weekly; and there are annual fairs on Easter Monday, and the 25th, 26th, and 27th days of August, for horses, horned cattle, and sheep. A free-school at this place, as appears from an inscription over its entrance, was built and endowed in the year 1702, by Mary and Catharine Ingilby, daughters of Sir William Ingilby, then lord of the manor. The church is ancient, and contains many monumental erections in memory of that family. In the church-yard stands the pedestal of an ancient cross, which contains eight niches curiously ornamented, but the effigies are gone, as likewise the shaft of the cross. This parish, according to the parliamentary returns of 1811, contains 222 houses, and 1053 inhabitants.

Ripley-castle, the seat of Sir John Ingilby, baronet, adjoins the town. The chief part of it was built by Sir William Ingilby, in the reign of Philip and Mary, but the great tower is far more ancient, having belonged to a former structure. It has been much enlarged of late years; and is now a stately and commodious family mansion. Some of the apartments are finished with great elegance; and the staircase displays a large Venetian window of stained glass, on which is represented a series of shields, shewing the quarterings and inter-marriages of the Ingilby family, since their settlement at Ripley, towards the close of the fourteenth century.

Eastward from Ripley is Copgrove, an elegant mansion belonging to H. Duncombe, Esq. which contains an excellent collection of paintings, busts, and prints from the most celebrated masters. The pleasure-grounds are extensive, and are ornamented with a fine lake. Near this seat is that of Allerton-Mauleverer, the property of Lord Stourton. The house is a modern edifice, built by his royal highness the Duke of York. It is surrounded by a park, containing 400 acres of land, chequered by hills and dales. At this place was formerly a priory of Benedictines, subject to the abbey of Marmontier in France. It was founded by Robert Mauleverer, in the reign of Henry II., and was dissolved by Henry VI. who settled its revenues on King's college, Cambridge. *Beauties of England and Wales.*

RIPLEY, a township of England, in Derbyshire; $3\frac{1}{2}$ miles south-south-west of Alfreton. Population 1439.

RIPLEY, a village of England in Kent; $4\frac{1}{2}$ miles south of Sandwich.

RIPOGONUM, in Botany, so called by Forster, from ριψ, ριπος, *a slender twig*, and γονυ, *a joint*, because of its slender, jointed, twining habit, was referred by the younger Linnæus, to SMILAX: see that article.

RIPOLL, a town of Spain, in Catalonia, on the river Ter. Population 2400; 52 miles north-by-east of Barcelona, and 15 north of Vique.

RIPON, or RIPPON, a market-town and borough of England, in the West Riding of Yorkshire. It is situated on a rising ground, between the river Ure and the small river Skell, not far from their confluence. Over the former is a handsome stone bridge of 17 arches, near the town; and within little more than a mile there are five other bridges over these rivers. The town consists almost entirely of narrow and crooked lanes, the street leading from the market-place to the church, being the only one which exhibits any degree of regularity. The church here is collegiate: it has a dean and chapter, and sends a proctor to the convocation of the province of York. It is also in some respects parochial, as the inhabitants have the benefit of its use, without the charge of a church rate. It is dedicated to St. Peter and St. Wilfred, and has attached to it a peculiar jurisdiction, under the archbishop of York. The king is patron of the deanery, and the subdean is nominated by the dean from among the predendaries. When a vacancy happens among the latter, the dean and chapter present three persons to the archbishop, who collates one of them. The building is a large and venerable Gothic structure, and possesses many claims to the attention of the antiquary, although its appearance has been much injured by additions and alterations, made at different periods, and in different styles of architecture. Its general form is that of a cross, having at the west end two uniform square towers, each 110 feet high; and in the centre of the transept, a third of the same height, called St. Winifred's Great Tower. From the last, there formerly arose a very noble spire, which was blown down on the 8th December 1660, demolishing in its fall the arched roof of the choir. A few years afterwards, the two spires at the west end were taken down, to prevent such accidents, and preserve the uniformity of the fabric. The whole length of the church within is 270 feet. It contains a great number of sepulchral monuments, some of which are deserving of attention. Of the other buildings in the town, the market-place is a handsome and spacious square, surrounded with well built houses, and ornamented with a beautiful obelisk, 90 feet high, erected in the year 1781, by William Aislabie, Esq. of Studley, who represented this borough in parliament during 60 years. An elegant town-hall was built in 1801, from designs by Mr. Wyatt. Here is also a free grammar school, endowed in 1553, by king Philip and Mary; a public dispensary, Sunday school, and a school of industry, besides four hospitals, three of which are of very ancient foundation, viz. St. Mary Magdalen, inhabited by six poor women; St. John, a small building, appropriated to two poor women; St. Anne, for eight poor women; and Jepsom hospital, for twelve poor boys. Here is also a theatre, opened in the year 1792, and which has generally a respectable company of performers. The town is well supplied with water from an excellent stream, which is conveyed into every house by means of an engine. Ripon was once celebrated for its manufacture of spurs, and "as true steel as Ripon rowels" became a proverbial expression for a man of fidelity and intrepidity. The manufacture of woollens likewise flourished here at one time; and some attempts to revive it have lately been made, but without success. The town, however, is still a staple for wool, which is brought up here every week by the clothiers from Leeds, Wakefield, Halifax, &c. A navigable canal comes up near to the town, which communicates with York, Hull, London, &c. Ripon may be ranked among the most ancient boroughs of England, as it sent members to parliament in the 23d of Edward I. The privilege was soon after discontinued, but was restored in the time of Edward VI. The borough is the property of Miss Laurence of Studley Royal, who possesses the burgage tenures, in which the right of election is vested. The number of voters is about 146, and the mayor is the returning officer. The corporation consists of a mayor, recorder, 12 aldermen, and 24 assistants. The archbishop of York has his court and prison here for the liberty of Ripon. The dean and chapter have also a prison, and hold a court for the decision of causes arising within their manor. Whether Ripon be of British, Roman, or Saxon origin, is wholly uncertain. The first historical notice of it occurs in 661, when Eata, abbot of Melrose, in Scotland, founded a monastery here, the town then consisting of 30 houses. During the wars and devastation to which the kingdom was exposed in subsequent ages, Ripon suffered severely, and its history presents a series of alternate renovation and disaster. The monastery appears to have attained considerable celebrity. After the destruction of the original buildings, in the reign of Alfred, king

king of Northumbria, it was re-erected in a style of more magnificence than was usual in that age, by the famous Wilfrid, archbishop of York. The great king Athelstane granted to it many immunities, and particularly the privilege of sanctuary. After its destruction by the Scots in the reign of Edward II. it ceased to be a monastic foundation. The church, however, was rebuilt, and made collegiate by archbishop Melton, from whose time, till the reign of Henry VIII. it had 7 prebends, with distinct revenues attached to it, besides 9 chantries, which were dissolved by Edward VI. King James I. renewed the collegiate privileges of the church, and completed it as it still exists. Population of the parish, exclusive of the borough, 2346; number of houses, 452. Population of the borough not returned.

RIPOSTE, in the Manege, is the vindictive motion of a horse that answers the spur with the kick of his foot.

RI'PPER, *s.* One who rips; one who tears; one who lacerates.

RIPPERDA (John-William), Baron of, a remarkable political adventurer, was born in 1680, of a noble family, in the province of Groningen. He was educated a catholic under the Jesuits of Cologne; but having married a protestant heiress, he conformed to her religion. He was for some time in the service of the states-general, in the post of colonel of infantry, which he occupied when, in 1715, he was sent from the States to the court of Spain, to negociate a commercial treaty. Having ingratiated himself with the king, Philip V., he returned to the catholic religion, and took up his abode at Madrid. It was one of his projects to send for weavers from Holland, with whom he founded a cloth manufactory, conducted at the royal expence, and with great loss. His first wife being dead, he married, in 1721, a Castilian lady of high birth, by whom he had two sons. He rapidly rose in the confidence of the king, and in 1725 was sent to Vienna to negociate an accommodation with the imperial court. In the same year he signed a treaty at Luxemburg with the emperor's plenipotentiaries; and on his return to Madrid was rewarded for his services by being created a grandee of the third class, and Duke of Ripperda. He was also appointed secretary of state for foreign affairs; and the management of the war, marine, and financial departments, was entrusted to him, so that he had all the power, without the name of prime minister. To these high charges he, however, proved unequal; and in May 1726, he was dismissed from his employments. Having then taken refuge in the house of the English ambassador, Lord Stanhope, he was taken thence by force, and confined in the castle of Segovia. There he remained upwards of two years; when having found means to make his escape into Portugal, he thence passed into England, where he continued till 1730. He then went to the Hague, resumed the Protestant religion, and seemed disposed to pass the rest of his days in tranquility. His restless and ambitious temper, however, induced him to form a connexion with an envoy from Morocco, in consequence of which, about the close of 1731, he embarked for that country, then governed by Muley Abdallah. He was favourably received by that Prince, to whom he opened the project of uniting the Barbary states against Spain, reducing the fortresses held in Africa by that country, and finally invading Spain itself. He had influence enough to engage the Moors to undertake the seige of Ceuta; and having declared himself a convert to the Mahometan religion, and assumed the name of Osman, he was nominated to the chief command of the army employed for that purpose. In the meantime the King of Spain, informed of his proceedings, revoked his patents of grandee and duke.

Ripperda, by his military talents, inspired the Moors with confident hopes of success in their enterprize, when the arrival of a Spanish army in Africa, which laid siege to Oran, disconcerted his plans. He, however, persisted in the siege of Ceuta, and gave a considerable defeat to its garrison, which with some reinforcements had marched out into the field. But a nocturnal surprize of the Moors in the trenches soon after entirely broke up the siege; and Ripperda, who had fled in his shirt to Tetuan, was received so coldly at the court of Morocco, that he meditated an escape to some other country. His design was discovered, and he was brought before the emperor, from whose cruel character nothing less than death could be expected for the unfortunate adventurer. He, however, pleaded his cause so effectually, that he was only committed to custody for a short time, and then set at liberty. He afterwards lived in quiet at his house and in his harem at Morocco, affecting a great zeal for the Mussulman faith, but at the same time forming a new project which was to restore him to consequence. This was a consolidation of different religions, especially the Mahometan and Jewish, which he endeavoured to render compatible by admitting the prophetic character of Mahomet, but inculcating the expectation of a future Messiah. It is said that he made converts to his opinions, and that even the emperor took pleasure in conversing with him on the subject: it is probable, however, that he at length excited suspicion, since he found it expedient to retire to Tetuan, where he lived on the interest of monies which he had vested in different European banks, and which he had probably gained not by the most honest means; for it is said that he profited largely by an adulterated coinage which he issued when in power at Morocco. His projecting spirit continued to the last, for he advanced considerable sums to Theodore for his attempts on the crown of Corsica. He was somewhat insane towards the close of his life, which terminated at Tetuan in 1737. *Moreri. Moore's Life of Ripperda.*

RIPPERS, in the wire-works, are the people who attend in the mills, take the prepared small rods of iron, and work at the barrels where they are drawn into wire.

RIPPIN TOR, a mountain of England, in Devonshire; 1549 feet high.

RI'PPING, *s.* Discovery.—This *ripping* of ancestors is very pleasing unto me, and indeed savoureth of good conceipt and some reading withall. *Spenser.*

RIPPINGALE, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 4 miles north-by-west of Bourne. Population 509.

RIPPLE, a parish of England, county of Worcester; 3 miles south-east-by east of Upton-upon-Severn. Population 733.

To RI'PPLE, *v. n.* To fret on the surface, as water swiftly running.—Eamont runs rapidly on near the way, *rippling* over the stones. *Gray.*

To RIPPLE *flax.* To wipe or draw off its seed-vessels; to clean flax. North. Ray, and Grose. [*repa*, Su. Goth. to pluck; *repa lin*, linum vellere. *Dr. Jamieson.*]

RI'PPLE, *s.* Agitation of water fretting on the surface, or laving the banks. A large comb, through which flax is dressed. It is constructed with several upright triangular prongs, set near together in a strong piece of wood, for the purpose of rippling flax and hemp.

RI'PPLING, *s.* The ripple dashing on the shore.—Reached shore through a most turbulent *rippling*, occasioned by the fierce current of the tides between the islands and the coast. *Pennant.*—Method of cleaning flax.

RIPPON, in geography. See RIPON.

RIPRAPPS, a narrow shoal in the English channel, between Folkstone and Boulogne, south-west and north-east about ten miles; with a strong bottom, and at a low spring-tide not covered above fourteen feet with the sea.

RIPRESA, [Ital.] the same as *reprise* in French, and repeat in English.

RIPTON, ABBOT'S, a parish of England, in Huntingdonshire; 4 miles north of Huntingdon.

RIPTON, KING'S, a parish about 2 miles distant from the foregoing.

RI'PTOWELL, *s.* A gratuity, or reward given to tenants, after they had reaped their lord's corn. *Bailey.*

RIQUEURIA, in botany, a name in the Flora Peruviana, destined to commemorate Lewis Riqueur, apothecary to king Philip V. of Spain. *De Theis.*

RIS, a town of France, department of the Puy de Dome. Population 1400; 9 miles north of Thiers.

RISARD

RISANO, a town of Austrian Dalmatia, at the bottom of the gulf of Cattaro; 8 miles north of Cattaro. Population 1800. The inhabitants of this petty place and its district profess to have preserved the ancient Roman habits, and are certainly remarkable for their intrepidity in the naval, as in the military service.

RISARD (Francis). See RIVARA.

RISBOROUGH, PRINCE'S, a parish of England, in Buckinghamshire, so named from Edward the Black Prince, who, according to the tradition of the inhabitants, had large possessions, and a palace here. Population 1684.

RISBOROUGH, MONK'S, a market town of England, in the county of Buckingham, so named from its being assigned to the monks of Canterbury, by Eschevine, bishop of Dorchester, about the year 995, and afterwards granted as a portion to the monks of that place. Population 899; 7 miles south of Aylesbury.

RISBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire, near Burton-upon-Trent.

RISBY, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 4 miles north-west of Bury St. Edmund's.

RISCA, a parish of England, in Monmouthshire; 5 miles north-west of Newport.

RISCLE, a town of France, department of the Gers, on the Adour. Population 1200; 35 miles west of Auch.

RISCUS, among the Romans, sometimes signifies a chest or trunk covered with skins; sometimes it is used for a hamper, made of twigs or rushes to hold lint; and sometimes for a hollow place in the wall of a house, used likewise for holding lint, or the like.

To RISE, *v. n.* pret. *rose;* part. *risen.* Cowley has *ris,* for *rose;* so has Jonson. [*reisan,* Goth. ȝrȳan, Sax.] To change a jacent or recumbent, to an erect posture.—I have seen her *rise* from her bed, and throw her night-gown upon her. *Shakspeare.*—To get up from rest.—Never a wife leads a better life than she does; do what she will; go to bed when she list; *rise* when she list. *Shakspeare.*—To get up from a fall.

True in our fall,
False in our promis'd *rising.* *Milton.*

To spring; to grow up.

They imagine
For one forbidden tree a multitude,
New *ris'n* to work them farther woe. *Milton.*

To gain elevation of rank or fortune.—Some *rise* by sin, and some by virtue fall. *Shakspeare.*—Those that have been raised by some great minister, trample upon the steps by which they *rise,* to rival him. *South.*—To swell.—If the bright spot stay in his place, it is a *rising* of the burning. *Lev.* xiii. 21.—To ascend; to move upwards.—The sap in old trees is not so frank as to *rise* all to the boughs, but tireth by the way, and putteth out moss. *Bacon.*—To break out from below the horizon, as the sun.—He maketh his sun to *rise* on the evil and on the good. *St. Matt.* v. 45.

Whether the sun
Rise on the earth, or earth *rise* on the sun. *Milton.*

To take beginning; to come into existence, or notice.

Only he spoke, and every thing that is,
Out to the fruitful womb of nothing *ris.* *Cowley.*

To begin to act.—High winds began to *rise.* *Milton.*

With Vulcan's rage the *rising* winds conspire,
And near our palace rolls the flood of fire. *Dryden.*

To appear in view.—The poet must lay out all his strength, that his words may be glowing, and that every thing he describes may immediately present itself, and *rise* up to the reader's view. *Addison.*—To change a station; to quit a siege.—He, *rising* with small honour from Gunza, and fearing the power of the Christians, was gone. *Knolles.*—To be excited; to be produced.

Indeed you thank'd me; but a nobler gratitude
Rose in her soul; for from that hour she lov'd me. *Otway.*

To break into military commotions; to make insurrections.

At our heels all hell should *rise,*
With blackest insurrection. *Milton.*

Numidia's spacious kingdom lies
Ready to *rise* at its young prince's call. *Addison.*

To be roused; to be excited to action.—Who will *rise* up for me against evil-doers? or who will stand up for me against the workers of iniquity? *Ps.* xciv.—To make hostile attack.—If any man hate his neighbour, lie in wait, and *rise* up against him, and smite him mortally, and fleeth into one of these cities, the elders of his city shall fetch him thence. *Deuteronomy.*—To grow more or greater in any respect.

A hideous gabble *rises* loud
Among the builders. *Milton.*

The great duke *rises* on them in his demands, and will not be satisfied with less than a hundred thousand crowns, and a solemn embassy to beg pardon. *Addison.*—To increase in price.—Bullion is *risen* to six shillings and fivepence the ounce; i. e. that an ounce of uncoined silver will exchange for an ounce and a quarter of coined silver. *Locke.* To be improved.—From such an untainted couple, we can hope to have our family *rise* to its ancient splendour of face, air, countenance, and shape. *Tatler.*—To elevate the style.

Your author always will the best advise,
Fall when he falls, and when he *rises, rise.* *Roscommon.*

To be revived from death.—After I am *risen* again, I will go before you. *St. Matt.* xxvi. 32.

The stars of morn shall see him *rise*
Out of his grave. *Milton.*

To come by chance.

As they gan his library to view,
And antique registers for to avise,
There chanced to the prince's hand to *rise*
An ancient book. *Spenser.*

To be elevated in situation.

He bar'd an ancient oak of all her boughs;
Then on a *rising* ground the trunk he plac'd,
Which with the spoils of his dead foe he grac'd. *Dryden.*

RISE, *s.* The act of rising, locally or figuratively.

Thy *rise* of fortune did I only wed,
From its decline determin'd to recede? *Prior.*

The act of mounting from the ground.—In leaping with weights, the arms are first cast backwards and then forwards, with so much the greater force; for the hands go backwards before they take their *rise.* *Bacon.*—Eruption; ascent.

The hill submits itself
In small descents, which do its height beguile;
And sometimes mounts, but so as billows play,
Whose *rise* not hinders, but makes short our way. *Dryden.*

Place that favours the act of mounting aloft.

Raised so high, from that convenient *rise*
She took her flight, and quickly reach'd the skies. *Creech.*

Elevated place.

Such a *rise,* as doth at once invite
A pleasure, and a reverence from the sight. *Denham.*

Appearance as of the sun in the East.

Phœbus! stay;
The world to which you fly so fast,
From us to them can pay your haste
With no such object, and salute your *rise*
With no such wonder as De Mornay's eyes. *Waller.*

Increase in any respect. Increase of price.—Upon a breach with Spain, must be considered the present state of the king's treasure, the *rise* or fall that may happen in his constant revenue by a Spanish war. *Temple.*—The bishops have had share in the gradual *rise* of lands. *Swift.*—Beginning; original.

ginal.—It has its *rise* from the lazy admonitions of those who give rules, and propose examples, without joining practice with their instructions. *Locke.*—Elevation; increase of sound.—In the ordinary *rises* and falls of the voice, there fall out to be two beemolls between the unison and the diapason. *Bacon.*—[*hrys*, Icel. *rys*, Teut. a twig.] A bough; a branch. In Lancashire a *rizen* or *ryzen* hedge is a fence of boughs and stakes; and in the west of England a *ryce* or *rise* fence is one of twigs or wattles.—As white as lilie or rose on *rise*. *Chaucer.*

RISEN, *part.* of to *rise*.

RISENTITO, in the Italian Music, a brisk, lively, or expressive manner of playing.

RISER, *s.* One that rises.

The isle of Ææa, where the palace stands
Of th' early *riser*, with the rosy hands,
Active Aurora; where she loves to dance. *Chapman.*

RISHANGLES, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 4 miles south-by-east of Eye.

RISHI, in Hindoo Mythology, is a general name for ancient sages or saints. Considerable difficulty occurs in determining, with any exactitude, who they were, whether they had any historical existence, or are merely the creatures of the imagination. Seven of them are most frequently spoken of; by some said to be the first rational beings created by Brahma. Each has a wife, and a numerous offspring. The wives of these patriarchs have been transferred to the heavens, and are the stars called by western astronomers the Pleiades; by the Hindoos, Kritika. The Rishis are said to be the bright stars in the great bear.

RISHTON, a township of England, in Lancashire; 4 miles north-east-by east of Blackburn. Population 1084.

RISHWORTH, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 1½ mile from Halifax. Population 1211.

RISIBI'LITY, *s.* The quality of laughing.—How comes lowness of style to be so much the propriety of satyre, that without it a poet can be no more a satyrist, than without *risibility* he can be a man. *Dryden.*

RI'SIBLE, *adj.* [*risibilis* Lat.] Having the faculty or power of laughing.—We are in a merry world, laughing is our business; as if because it has been made the definition of a man, that he is *risible*, his manhood consisteth in nothing else. *Gov. of the Tongue.*—Ridiculous; exciting laughter.

RI'SING, *s.* Act of getting up from a fall.—This child is set for the fall and *rising* again of many. *St. Luke*, ii. 34. —Appearance of the sun, of a star, or other luminary, above the horizon, which before was hid beneath it.—From the *rising* of the sun unto the going down thereof. *Ps.* l. 1.—A tumour.—This is the law—for a *rising*, and for a scab, and for a bright spot. *Lev.* xiv. 56.—Tumult; insurrection.

He's follow'd both with body and with mind,
And doth enlarge his *rising* with the blood
Of fair king Richard scrap'd from Pomfret stones.
Shakspeare.

Resurrection.—They kept that saying within themselves, questioning one with another what the *rising* from the dead should mean. *St. Mark*, xi. 10.

RISING, in ship-building, a term derived from the figure of a ship's bottom in general, which gradually narrows or becomes sharper towards the stem and stern-post. On this account it is that the floors, towards the extremities of the ship, are raised or lifted above the keel; otherwise the shape would be so very acute, as not to be obtained from timber with sufficient strength in the middle or cutting-down. The floor-timbers forward and abaft are therefore gradually lifted or raised upon a solid body of wood, called the dead or rising-wood, which must of course have more or less rising as the body of ship assumes more or less fullness or capacity. Thus we have Rising-floors, the foremost and aftermost floors.—Rising-line, an elliptical line drawn in the plan of elevation, by which line, with its corresponding half-breadth or narrowing line, the figure of the bottom near the floor-heads is determined.—Rising-square, a square upon which is marked the height of the rising-line above the upper edge of the keel.—Rising-straight, a curve line used in whole moulding drawn in the sheer plan, at the intersection of the straight part of the bend mould, when continued to the middle line at each timber.—Rising-wood, that part of the basis of a ship's body, forward and abaft, which is formed by solid pieces of timber scarfed together lengthwise on the keel.

RISK, *s.* [*risque*, Fr. *rischio*, Ital. *riesgo riezgo*, Spanish. The origin of this word is very obscure.] Hazard; danger; chance of harm.—Some run the *risk* of an absolute ruin for the gaining of a present supply. *L'Estrange.*—An innocent man ought not to run an equal *risk* with a guilty one. *Richardson.*

To RISK, *v. a.* [*risquer*, Fr.] To hazard; to put to chance; to endanger.

Who would hope new fame to raise,
Or *risk* his well-established praise,
That, his high genius to approve,
Had drawn a George or carv'd a Jove. *Addison.*

RI'SKER, *s.* He who risks.

He thither came, t' observe and smoak
What course other *riskers* took. *Butler.*

RISLEY, a parish of England, in Bedfordshire; 10 miles from Bedford. Population 650.

RISLEY, a hamlet of England, in Derbyshire; 7½ miles east-by-south of Derby.

RISLIP, a village of England, in Middlesex, between Uxbridge and Pinner.

RISOLUTIONE, [Ital.] in Music, the resolution of a discord. See Music.

RISOLUTIO, [Ital.] resolved solution, as of a close canon by putting it in score, or by signs.

RISORIUS NOVUS, in Anatomy, a name given by Santorini to a muscle, formed of that part of the quadratus genæ which arises from the cheek.

RISPOSTA, or Riposta, [Ital.] an answer, whether in a dialogue or to a regular fugue.

RISSE. The obsolete preterite of *rise*.

Risse not the consular men and left their places,
So soon as thou sat'st down; and fled thy side? *B. Jonson.*

RISSINGTON, Great, Little, and Wick, three adjoining parishes of England, in Gloucestershire, near Stow on the Wold.

RISTON, a village of England, in Somersetshire, near Taunton.

RISVIGLIATO, [Ital.] in Music, when applied to a gay and lively movement succeeding one that is sorrowful, implies vivacity and spirit.

RISUM, a large village of Honover, in east Friesland; 8 miles west of Embden.

RISUS SARDONICUS, [Lat.] Sardonic Laughter, a convulsive affection of the muscles of the face, characterized by unnatural laughter.

The phrase is by some said to be founded on this, that in Sardinia there is a venomous plant, which occasions such a contraction of the muscles of the face in persons it kills, that they seem to die laughing in this manner.

RITE, *s.* [*ritus*, Lat.] Solemn act of religion; external observance.—The ceremonies, we have taken from such as were before us, are not things that belong to this or that sect, but they are the ancient *rites* and customs of the church. *Hooker.*

When the prince her fun'ral *rites* had paid,
He plow'd the Tyrrhene seas. *Dryden.*

RITORNE'LLO, *s.* [Ital.] The repeat, or burden of an air or song.—Confine the organist to a slightly ornamented refraine, or *ritornello*, at the end of each stave or stanza. *Mason.*

RITRO (corrupted, as it seems, from the ρυτρον of Theophrastus), as far as can be conjectured, appears to have been some plant of the thistle kind. The name is now used as the specific appellation of a kind of ECHINOPS: see that article.

RITSON (Tristram), born about the year 1580, at Winscott, in Devon, was educated at Great Torrington, and by his rapid progress in learning he very soon became fitted for the higher improvements of the University of Oxford, of which he was admitted a member, being entered probably of Exeter or Pembroke College, about the latter end of the reign of Queen Elizabeth. At Oxford he was much distinguished for his learning, and his accomplishments as a gentleman. He, however, appears to have left college without taking any scholastic degree, and retired into his own country, which, according to his biographer, was probably owing to the death of a sister, upon which he became possessed of the estate of Winscott. Here he drew up a large volume, entitled "The Chorographical Description or Survey of the County of Devon, with the City and County of Exeter, containing Matter of History, Antiquity, Chronology, the Nature of the Country," &c. It was begun in 1605, and finished in 1630.

The author did not print this Description, but a great many manuscript copies were long in circulation in the county. A mutilated edition of it was printed in 2 vols. 8vo. in 1714: it was afterwards printed from the original in 1 vol. 4to. in 1735. But the most perfect and valuable edition was published in 1811, from a manuscript edition in the possession of John Coles, Esq. of Stonehenge; to which the editors made some important additions, and prefixed, as an introduction, which renders the volume much more interesting, "Remarks on the present State of the County of Devon," the object of which was to compare the present and past conditions of the county in those particulars to which the author directed his attention, and to add a brief account of such subjects as either escaped his notice, or have acquired their existence or importance since his time.

Mr. Ritson lived to a great age, dying in the year 1640; he was interred at St. Giles Winscott, without tomb or monument. "He," says Prince in the Worthies of Devon, "that with great expence of money, time, and labour, sought to perpetuate the memory of many persons and families, hath no monument to continue his own; unless that lasting one, his "Survey of the County of Devon." See Chorographical Description, ed. 1811.

RITSON (Joseph), was born in 1752, at Stockton-on-Tees, in the county of Durham, and was brought up to the profession of the law. As a consulting barrister and conveyancer he was very much distinguished; but his literary inquiries were by no means confined within the limits of his profession; he very successfully investigated the Old English literature, particularly of the seventeenth century. He died in the year 1803. His works are, "Observations on Johnson's and Stevens's edition of Shakspeare;" "Cursory Criticisms on Malone's edition of Shakspeare;" "Observations on Warton's History of English Poetry;" "Descent of the Crown of England;" "Collection of English Songs, 3 vols. and of Scotch Songs," in 2 vols.; "English Anthology;" "Metrical Romances," 3 vols.; "Bibliographia Poetica;" "A Treatise on Abstinence from Animal Food;" and other pieces. As an historian, he was rigidly accurate; as a critic, he was uncharitable and severe. The language of his writings is harsh, rugged, and barren; and all his publications are disfigured by the affected singularity of their orthography. Nevertheless, Ritson was learned, industrious, and acute, and his collections of Songs and Romances are highly entertaining.

RITTANGEL (John-Joseph), a learned professor of the Oriental languages at Konigsberg in the 17th century, concerning the date of whose birth or death we have no information. He devoted his principal labours to the illustration of the antiquities of the Jews, and the production of evidence from their writings in support of the truth of Christianity, or of doctrines commonly reputed orthodox. His writings contain severe criticisms on the productions of Kircher, Scaliger, Schickard, Vorstius, the Buxtorfs, and other learned men, whose proficiency in the Hebrew tongue he affected to hold in low estimation. He published "*Liber Jezira*, qui Abrahamo Patriarchæ adscribitur, una cum Comment. R. Abr. F. Dioz, Super xxxii. Semitis Sapientiæ, &c. Translatus et Notis illustratus," 1642, 4to.; "Libra Veritatis, &c." intended to prove that the ancient Jewish church believed the mystery of the Trinity, and the eternal divinity of the Messiah; "Liber Rituum Paschalium, Heb. et Lat." 1644, 4to.; a German Translation of the Prayers, &c. in the Jewish Church on the First Day of the New Year, 1652, 4to.; "Veritas Religionis Christianæ in Articulis de Trinitate et Christo, ex Scriptura, Rabbinis, et Cabbala Probata," published after the author's death, in 1699, 8vo. &c. *Bayle. Moreri.*

RITTBERG, a small principality of the Prussian states, in the government of Minden, belonging to count Kaunitz. It lies on the Ems, contains an area of 65 square miles, and has about 12,000 inhabitants, chiefly Catholics. A number of these are spinners and weavers; and the district being unproductive, an annual import of provisions is necessary.

RITTBERG, or RIETBERG, the chief town of the above principality, is surrounded on the north and east by the Ems, and on the other sides by a wall. Population only 1400; 38 miles south-south-west of Minden, and 9 north-by-east of Lippestadt.

RITTENHOUSE (David), a distinguished American philosopher and mathematician in the 18th century, was a native of Pennsylvania, and born in the year 1732. He appears to have been descended from parents not in opulent circumstances, and to have enjoyed few of the benefits of a liberal education. By the dint of genius and application, however, he triumphed over these disadvantages, and was enabled to mingle the pursuits of science with the active employments of a farmer and watch-maker. The latter of these occupations he filled with unrivalled eminence among his countrymen. Some of its nicer operations continued to be his favourite mode of relaxation during all the subsequent periods of his life, of which many of his friends possessed valuable testimonials. In the year 1769, he was invited by the American Philosophical Society to join a number of gentlemen who undertook to observe the transit of Venus; when he particularly distinguished himself by the comprehension and correct powers of mind displayed in his observations and calculations. On this occasion the philosophers of Europe were liberal in the applause which they conferred upon him. He afterwards constructed an observatory, which he superintended himself, and where he made such valuable observations and discoveries as tended to the general diffusion of science in the Western world. During the American war, which produced the firmest alliance between freedom and science, from a sense of common danger, the philosopher did not claim an exemption from the duties of patriotism. Accustomed to kindle with enthusiasm in contemplating the sublimities of science, he could not behold the magnificent spectacle of a nation asserting its rights without blending the feelings of a humane heart, and the thoughts of an enlightened head, with the actions of the patriot and the statesman. During the arduous contest, he thought, spoke, and acted like a freeman. After the conclusion of peace, he successively filled the offices of treasurer of the state of Pennsylvania, and director of the national mint: in the first of which he manifested incorruptible integrity, and in the last, the rare talent of combining theories in such a way as to produce correct practical effects. He succeeded the illustrious Franklin in the office of President of the American Philosophical Society: a situation which the bent of his mind, and the course of his studies, had rendered him eminently calculated to fill. Towards the close of his days he withdrew from public life, and spent his time in philosophical retirement. "There," says one of his eulogists, "we behold him the object of love, admiration, and reverence. The amiable graces of domestic virtue shed, perhaps,

perhaps, a milder and more constant lustre over his character, than the vivid flashes of science and the fine energies of intellect. Here he felt content, nor seemed to wish for more. In his intercourses of friendship, sincerity and simplicity went hand in hand. A stranger to the too common arrogance of high pretensions, he met every man on the ground of friendly reciprocity. Feeling a superior attachment to those who propagated science, he did not conceal the estimation in which he held them. He was among the first to welcome to America the persecuted Priestley, and formed with him an intimacy which only required time to be cemented into a lasting friendship." After a very severe illness of a few days continuance, he died on the 10th of July 1796, about the age of 64. He had the degree of LL. D. conferred upon him. To the "Transactions" of the American Philosophical Society, he contributed several excellent papers, chiefly on astronomical subjects. *Gentleman's Magaz. Sept.* 1796. *Monthly Magaz. Oct.* 1796.

RITTERA, [so named by Schreber, in honour of Ritter, a physician in Silesia,] in botany, a genus of the class polyandria, order monogynia, natural order of leguminosæ. Generic Character.—Calyx: perianth four-leaved; leaflets ovate, rounded, concave, deciduous. Corolla: petal one, wide, roundish, upright, fringed, lateral, with a very short claw. Stamina: filaments many, longer than the corolla, inserted into the receptacle, of which some opposite to the petal are shorter and barren. Anthers oblong, incumbent. Pistil: germ pedicelled, oblong, compressed, curved inwards. Style short. Stigma blunt. Pericarp: legume oblong, ventricose, compressed, one-celled, two-valved. Seeds three or four, compressed, angular. It is referred by Aublet to order monoecia, of class polygamia. *Essential Character.*—Calyx four-leaved. Petal one, lateral. Legume one-celled, two-valved.

1. Rittera simplex.—Leaves simple, petal roundish, obovate, larger than the calyx, many-stamened.—Native of the Caribbee islands.—2. Rittera grandiflora.—Leaves simple, oblong-ovate, peduncles subtriflorous, petal roundish kidney-form, very large, legumes oblong.—Native of Trinidad.—3. Rittera dodecandra.—Leaves simple, petal oblong, the length of the calyx, flowers twelve-stamened.

4. Rittera triphylla.—This is a middle-sized tree, with a trunk from seven to eight feet in height, and seven or eight inches in diameter, with a smooth, thin, gray bark, and a yellowish, hard, compact wood. It divides at top into twisted branches that extend themselves on all sides. Leaves alternate, composed of three sessile leaflets, which are entire, smooth, thin but firm, ovate, acuminate; the middle leaflet much larger than those on the sides. Stipules two, small, deciduous at the base of the midrib. Flowers axillary, in corymbs. Corolla yellow. Stamens twenty-five or twenty-six, six or seven of which are shorter and abortive. Seeds from one to four, of a disagreeable taste, and very acrid, inflaming and swelling the lips of those who bite them.—Native of the forests of Guiana, near the source of the creek of the Galibis; flowering and fruiting in the month of May. The French call it Bois dard or Bois a fleche, because the natives arm their arrows at the point with a piece of the wood cut very sharp.

5. Rittera pinnata.—Leaves pinnate.

RITTERSHUYS (Conrad), a learned jurist and philologist, was born at Brunswick in 1560. After having made a great progress in the learned languages, he went to Helmstadt for the study of theology, but his inclination led him to prefer jurisprudence. He removed to Altdorff for the further pursuit of this study, and thence accompanied Gifanius, one of his preceptors, to Ingoldstadt. At the same time he continued to pay attention to classical literature, which was always his favourite recreation. He took the degree of doctor of law at Basil in 1591, and was soon after nominated professor in that science at Altdorff, where he died in 1613. This learned man was the author of several works in his own profession, and gave editions with notes of various antient writers. Of the former, the principal was "Jus Justineaneum, sive Novellarum methodica explicatio," 1616, 4to. His philological labours were notes on "Petronius" and "Phædrus;" commentaries on "Salvianus;" on "Oppian de Venatione et Piscatione," with a Latin version; "Guntheri Ligurinus;" "Sacrarum Lectionum, Lib. VIII." He is much esteemed as a critic. *Moreri.*

RITTON, a hamlet of England, in Northumberland; 8 miles north-west of Morpeth.

RITTON-UPON-DUNSMORE, a village of England, near Stonely-Abbey, with a bridge over the Avon.

RI'TUAL, *adj.* [*rituel*, Fr.] Solemnly ceremonious: done according to some religious institution.

Instant I bade the priests prepare
The *ritual* sacrifice, and solemn pray'r. *Prior.*

RI'TUAL, *s.* A book in which the rites and observances of religion are set down.—An heathen *ritual* could not instruct a man better than these several pieces of antiquity in the particular ceremonies, that attended different sacrifices. *Addison.*

RI'TUALIST, *s.* One skilled in the ritual.—Of this there are two notable instances taken notice of by Cassalion, and several other *ritualists.* *Bourne.*

RI'TUALLY, *adv.* With some particular ceremony.—In some parts of this kingdom is joined also the solemnity of drinking out of a cup, *ritually* composed, decked, and filled with country liquor. *Selden.*

RITZEBUTTEL, a bailiwic belonging to the city of Hamburgh, and lying near the north sea, between the mouths of the Elbe and the Weser. Its area, without including the small island of Neuwerk at the mouth of the river, is 20 square miles, and its population 4000. It is very fertile, but is chiefly valuable to Hamburgh, from containing the harbour of Cuxhaven.

RITZEBUTTEL, the chief place of the above bailiwic, is a neat small town, with 1500 inhabitants. Travellers from Hamburgh commonly remain here till they find an opportunity of embarking at Cuxhaven, a village too small to afford convenient lodgings; 54 miles west-north-west of Hamburgh, and 1 south of Cuxhaven.

RITZLIHORN, a very lofty mountain of the Swiss canton of Berne, 10,500 feet in height.

RIVA, a small town of Austrian Italy, on the lake of Como. It is here that the goods sent across the lake to Milan are embarked; 6 miles south of Chiavenna.

RIVA, or Reiff, a town in the south of Tyrol, principality of Trent, on the lake of Garda, with 3100 inhabitants. It has a good harbour, and a brisk carrying business on the lake. The manufacture of an apparently trifling article, Jews' harps, is carried on here to a surprising extent. The environs are pleasant and fertile, producing olives, lemons, and oranges; 17 miles south-west of Trent.

RIVA DI CHIERI, a town in the north-west of Italy, in the Sardinian states, situated in a pleasant district. Population 2300; 10 miles east-by-south of Turin.

RI'VAGE, *s.* [French.] A bank; a coast; the shore. *Not in use.*

Think
You stand upon the *rivage*, and behold
A city on th' inconstant billows dancing;
For so appears this fleet. *Shakspeare.*

Rivage, Rivagium, a toll anciently paid to the king on some rivers, for the passage of boats or vessels therein.

RI'VAL, *s.* [*rivalis*, Lat. from *rivus*, a river; the word *rivalis*, in Latin, being originally applied, according to Sir T. Hammer, to proprietors of neighbouring lands parted only by a brook, which belonged equally to both; and so signified *partners*, or those concerned in the same affair. Morin more fully illustrates this derivation from *rivus*: "*Rivalis* désigne proprement ceux qui ont droit d'usage dans un même ruisseau; et comme cet usage est souvent pour eux *un sujet de contestations, on a transporté cette signification de rivalis à ceux qui ont les mêmes prétentions à une chose.*" Dict. Etym. Fr. and Gr.]—One who is in

in pursuit of the same thing which another man pursues; a competitor.

Oh love! thou sternly dost thy pow'r maintain,
And wilt not bear a *rival* in thy reign;
Tyrants and thou all fellowish disdain. *Dryden.*

A competitor in love.

France and Burgundy,
Great *rivals* in our younger daughter's love. *Shakspeare.*

Your *rival's* image in your worth I view;
And what I lov'd in him, esteem in you. *Granville.*

RI'VAL, *adj.* Standing in competition; making the same claim; emulous.

Equal in years, and *rival* in renown
With Epaphus, the youthful Phaeton,
Like honour claims. *Dryden.*

To RI'VAL, *v. a.* To stand in competition with another; to oppose.—Those, that have been raised by the interest of some great minister, trample upon the steps by which they rise, to *rival* him in his greatness, and at length step into his place. *South.*—To emulate; to endeavour to equal or excel.

Ambitious fool! with horny hoofs to pass
O'er hollow arches of resounding brass;
To *rival* thunder in its rapid course,
And imitate inimitable force. *Dryden.*

O thou, too great to *rival* or to praise,
Forgive, lamented shade, these duteous lays.
Lee had thy fire, and Congreve had thy wit;
And copyists, here and there, some likeness hit;
But none possess'd thy graces, and thy ease;
In thee alone 'twas natural to please! *Harte.*

To RI'VAL, *v. n.* To be competitors. *Out of use.*

Burgundy,
We first address towards you, who with this king
Hath *rivall'd* for our daughter. *Shakspeare.*

RIVALBA, a town of the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont. Population 1000; 10 miles north-north-east of Turin.

RIVA'LITY, *s.* [*rivalitas*, Lat.] Equal rank. *Obsolete.*—Cæsar, having made use of him in the wars 'gainst Pompey, presently denied him *rivality*; would not let him partake in the glory of the action. *Shakspeare.*

RI'VALRY, *s.* Competition; emulation.—It is the privilege of posterity to set matters right between those antagonists, who, by their *rivalry* for greatness, divided a whole age. *Addison.*

RI'VALSHIP, *s.* The state or character of a rival.

He hath confess'd
To me in private that he loves another,
My lady's woman, Mrs. Pleasance; therefore
Secure you of *rivalship*. *B. Jonson.*

RIVALTA, a town in the central part of Austrian Italy, situated at the influx of the Mincio into the lake of Mantua. Population 1500; 5 miles west of Mantua.

RIVALTA, a town of Italy, in the Sardinian states, province of Acqui. Population 1400.

RIVARA, a town of Italy, in Piedmont, with 1200 inhabitants; 14 miles west-by-north of Chivasso.

RIVARD, or RISARD (Francis), a French mathematical writer in the 18th century, who published several esteemed elementary works for the instruction of young students in the sciences. With respect to his personal history, we are only informed, that he was a native of Neufchateau in Lorrain; that he was made professor of philosophy in the college of Beauvais; and that he died at Paris in the year 1778. His productions, though not possessing any claims to originality, and sometimes drawn up on too large a scale for elementary treatises, are said to be sufficiently methodical and perspicuous. They consist of "Elements of the Mathematics," in 4to., of which the author published an abridgment, in 8vo.; "A Treatise on the Sphere," in 8vo.; "A Treatise on Gnomonics," in 8vo.; "Tables of Sines," in 8vo.; "Rectilinear Trigonometry," in 8vo.; "Elements of Geometry," in 4to.; and "Institutiones Philosophicæ," published in 1778, in 2 vols. 12mo. *Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

RIVAROLO, a town of Italy, in Piedmont, on the river Orco. It is well built, and contains 5200 inhabitants. Its chief public building is a magnificent convent of Minorites; 18 miles north-north-east of Turin.

RIVAULT (David), a French man of letters and various writer, called also M. DE FLURANCE, from a lordship of that name belonging to his family, was born at Laval, in the province of Perche, about the year 1751. He was brought up in the family of the Count de Laval, and for some time followed the military profession, serving in Italy about the close of the 16th century, and in Holland in the year 1602. During the following year, Henry IV. appointed him one of the gentlemen of his bed-chamber. In 1605, he accompanied the young Count de Laval into Hungary, and entered into the service of the Emperor against the Turks. Here he had soon the unhappiness to see that young nobleman fall in a skirmish with the enemy, and he was severely wounded himself on the same occasion. These events obliged him to return to his native country, where he devoted his time to literary and scientific studies, in which he had before made considerable progress. In 1611, he was appointed sub-preceptor to the young King, Lewis XIII., as well as his reader, or tutor, in the mathematics, and had a pension of 3000 livres settled upon him. The office of principal preceptor becoming vacant during the next year, he received that appointment, and was honoured with the title of counsellor of state. In 1614, the King conferred on him letters of nobility. Soon afterwards his connection with his royal pupil was for a time suspended, owing to the following circumstances. Being one day busily engaged at lecture, he found himself so much annoyed by a favourite dog of His Majesty's, which was perpetually leaping up upon him, that he kicked the animal, to drive him away, at which action the King was so exasperated, that he struck his preceptor; and Rivault, indignant at such treatment, resigned his place. However, Rivault was afterwards reconciled to the King, who, as a mark of gratitude for his services, promised to nominate him to a bishopric. Our author had the honour of being appointed by the King one of the attendants on Madame Elizabeth of France, and he accompanied her as far as Bayonne, upon her marriage with the King of Spain. He died on his return from this journey at Tours, in 1616, about the age of 45. He is spoken of with expressions of esteem and commendation by several of the most celebrated writers of his time, particularly by Casaubon, Scaliger, Vossius, Erpenius, and Menage. His productions consist of "The States, or a Discourse concerning the Privileges of the Prince, the Nobles, and the third Estate, as admitted in modern times, addressed to Henry IV.;" "The true Art of acquiring Beauty, founded on that sacred Maxim, the Wisdom of her Mind beautifies her Countenance," &c.; "Elements of Gunnery, both theoretical and practical," &c. which is a curious and very scarce work; "Archimedis Opera quæ extant," and other pieces which are enumerated in *Moreri. Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

RIVAROSSA, a town in the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont, province of Turin, between the river Malone and the forest of Cice. Population 1400.

RIVAULX, a village of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 3 miles west-by-north of Helmsley.

To RIVE, *v. a.* preter. *rived*, part. *riven.* [ȝýrc broken; Saxon; *rijven*, Dutch; *river*, Fr. to drive.] To split; to cleave; to divide by a blunt instrument; to force in disruption.

At his haughty helmet
So hugely struck, that it the steel did *rive*,
And cleft his head. *Spenser.*

O Cicero!
I have seen tempests, when the scolding winds
Have *riv'd* the knotty oaks; but ne'er till now
Did I go through a tempest dropping fire. *Shakspeare.*

To

To RIVE, *v. n.* [*rifwa*, Su. Goth.] To be split; to be divided by violence.—His hearte asonder *riveth*. *Chaucer.* —Oh that our hearts could but *rive* in sunder at but the dangers of those public judgments. *Bp. Hall.*

RIVE, a town of Italy, in Piedmont, province of Vercelli. Population 800.

RIVE DE GIER, a town of France, department of the Loire, on the Gier. It has manufactures of iron, steel, and glass; and in the neighbourhood are extensive coal-pits, the produce of which is, for the most part, sent to Lyons by the canal of Givors. Population 4300; 12 miles north-east of St. Etienne, and 23 south-south-west of Lyons.

To RI'VEL, *v. a.* [ȝeþrleb, Saxon, corrugated, rumpled; *ruyffelen*, Teut.] To contract into wrinkles and corrugations.

Then droop'd the fading flowers, their beauty fled
And clos'd their sickly eyes and hung the head,
And *rivell'd* up with heat, lay dying in their bed. *Dryden.*

RI'VEL, or RI'VELING, *s.* [from the verb; *ruyffel*, Teut.] Wrinkle. *Huloet, and Sherwood.*—It hadde no wem, ne *ryveling*, or ony such thing. *Wicliffe.*

RIVEL, a mountain of Wales, in Caernarvonshire, 1866 feet in height.

RIVEL DE LASSEMALS, a town of France, department of the Aude, with 1000 inhabitants; 9 miles west-north-west of Quillan.

RIVELLO, a town of Italy, in the south-west of the kingdom of Naples, province of Basilicata, containing, with the adjacent village of Bosco, a population of 5400; 10 miles east-by-south of Policastro.

RI'VEN, part. of *rive*.

RIVENHALL, a parish of England, in Essex; 2 miles north-by-east of Witham. Population 536.

RI'VER, *s.* [*rivus*, Lat.] A land current of water bigger than a brook.—Springs make rivulets; and these united form brooks; which coming forward in streams, compose great *rivers*, that run into the sea. *Locke.*—It is a most beautiful country, being stored throughout with many goodly *rivers*, replenished with all sorts of fish. *Spenser.*

A river is one of the fairest as well as most useful of nature's works. Pliny has (too fancifully perhaps) but with so much beauty described the striking analogy that exists between human life and the course of a river, that we cannot resist transcribing his poetical portrait, before we launch into the dryer speculations connected with the subject.

"The river," says he, "springs from the earth; but its origin is in heaven. Its beginnings are insignificant, and its infancy is frivolous; it plays among the flowers of a meadow; it waters a garden, or turns a little mill. Gathering strength in its youth, it becomes wild and impetuous. Impatient of the restraints which it still meets with in the hollows among the mountains, it is restless and fretful; quick in its turnings, and unsteady in its course. Now it is a roaring cataract, tearing up and overturning whatever opposes its progress, and it shoots headlong down from a rock; then it becomes a sullen and gloomy pool, buried in the bottom of a glen. Recovering breath by repose, it again dashes along, till tired of the uproar and mischief, it quits all that it has swept along, and leaves the opening of the valley strewed with the rejected waste. Now, quitting its retirement, it comes abroad into the world, journeying with more prudence and discretion, through cultivated fields, yielding to circumstances, and winding round what would trouble it to overwhelm or remove. It passes through the populous cities and all the busy haunts of man, tendering its services on every side, and becomes the support and ornament of the country. Now increased by numerous alliances, and advanced in its course of existence, it becomes grave and stately in its motions, loves peace and quiet; and in majestic silence rolls on its mighty waters, till it is laid to rest in the vast abyss."

The courses of rivers give us the best general method for judging of the elevation of a country. Thus it appears that Savoy and Switzerland are the highest grounds of Europe, from whence the ground slopes in every direction. From the Alps proceed the Danube and the Rhine, whose course mark the two great valleys, into which many lateral streams descend. The Po also and the Rhone come from the same head, and with a steeper and shorter course find their way to the sea through valleys of less breadth and length. On the west side of the valleys of the Rhine and the Rhone the ground rises pretty fast, so that few tributary streams come into them from that side; and from this gentle elevation France slopes to the westward. If a line, nearly straight, but bending a little to the northward, be drawn from the head of Savoy and Switzerland all the way to Solikamskoy in Siberia, it will nearly pass through the most elevated part of Europe; for in this tract most of the rivers have their rise. On the left go off the various feeders of the Elbe, the Oder, the Wesel, the Niemen, the Dura, the Neva, the Dwina, the Petzora. On the right, after passing the feeders of the Danube, we see the sources of the Sereth and Pruth, the Dniester, the Bog, the Dnieper, the Don, and the mighty Volga. The elevation of the latter, however, is extremely moderate: and it appears from the levels taken with the barometer by the Abbé Chappe d'Auteroche, that the head of the Volga is not more than 470 feet above the surface of the ocean. And we may observe here, by the bye, that its mouth, where it discharges its waters into the Caspian sea, is undoubtedly lower by many feet, than the surface of the ocean. Spain and Finland, with Lapland, Norway, and Sweden, form two detached parts, which have little symmetry with the rest of Europe.

A chain of mountains begins in Nova Zembla, and stretches due south to near the Caspian sea, dividing Europe from Asia. About three or four degrees north of the Caspian sea it bends to the south-east, traverses western Tartary, and passing between the Tengis and Zaizan lakes, it then branches to the east and south. The eastern branch runs to the shores of Korea and Kamtschatka. The southern branch traverses Turkestan and Thibet, separating them from India, and at the head of the kingdom of Ava joins an arm stretching from the great eastern branch, and here forms the centre of a very singular radiation. Chains of mountains issue from it in every direction. Three or four of them keep very close together, dividing the continent into narrow slips, which have each a great river flowing in the middle, and reaching to the extreme points of Malacca, Cambodia, and Cochin-China. From the same central point proceeds another great ridge due east, and passes a little north of Canton in China. We called this a singular centre; for though it sends off so many branches, it is by no means the most elevated part of the continent. In the triangle which is included between the first southern ridge (which comes from between the lakes Tanges and Zaizan), the great eastern ridge, and its branch which almost unites with the southern ridge, lies the Boutan, and part of Thibet, and the many little rivers which occupy its surface flow southward and eastward, uniting a little to the north of the centre often mentioned, and then pass through a gorge eastward into China. And it is farther to be observed, that these great ridges do not appear to be seated on the highest parts of the country; for the rivers which correspond to them are at no great distance from them, and receive their chief supplies from the other sides. This is remarkably the case with the great Oby, which runs almost parallel to the ridge from the lakes to Nova Zembla. It receives its supplies from the east, and indeed it has its source far east. The highest grounds (if we except the ridges of mountains which are boundaries) of the continent seem to be in the country of the Calmucs, about 95° east from London, and latitude 43° or 45° north. It is represented as a fine though sandy country, having many little rivers which lose themselves in the sand, or end in little salt lakes. This elevation stretches north-east to a great distance; and in this tract we find the heads of the Irtish, Selenga, and Tunguskaia (the great feeders of the Oby), the Olenitz, the Lena, the Yana, and some other rivers, which all go off to the north. On the other side we have the great river Amur, and many smaller rivers, whose names are

are not familiar. The Hoangho, the great river of China, rises on the south side of the great eastern ridge we have so often mentioned. This elevation, which is a continuation of the former, is somewhat of the same complexion, being very sandy, and at present is a desert of prodigious extent. It is described, however, as interspersed with vast tracts of rich pasture; and we know that it was formerly the residence of a great nation, who came south, by the name of *Turks*, and possessed themselves of most of the richest kingdoms of Asia. In the south-western extremity of this country are found remains not only of barbaric magnificence, but even of cultivation and elegance. It was a profitable privilege granted by Peter the Great to some adventurers to search these sandy deserts for remains of former opulence, and many pieces of delicate workmanship (though not in a style which *we* should admire) in gold and silver were found. Vaults were found buried in the sand filled with written papers, in a character wholly unknown; and a wall was discovered extending several miles, built with hewn stone, and ornamented with corniche and battlements. But we are forgetting ourselves, and return to the consideration of the distribution of the rivers on the surface of the earth. A great ridge of mountains begins at the south-east corner of the Euxine sea, and proceeds eastward, ranging along the south side of the Caspian, and still advancing unites with the mountains first mentioned in Thibet, sending off some branches to the south, which divide Persia, India and Thibet. From the south side of this ridge flow the Euphrates, Tigris, Indus, Ganges, &c. and from the north the ancient Oxus and many unknown streams.

There is a remarkable circumstance in this quarter of the globe. Although it seems to be nearest to the greatest elevations, it seems also to have places of the greatest depression. We have already said that the Caspian sea is lower than the ocean. There is in its neighbourhood another great bason of salt water, the lake Aral, which receives the waters of the Oxus or Gihon, which were said to have formerly run into the Caspian sea. There cannot, therefore, be a great difference in the level of these two basons; neither have they any outlet, though they receive great rivers. There is another great lake in the very middle of Persia, the Zare or Zara, which receives the river Hindemend, of near 250 miles in length, besides other streams. There is another such in Asia Minor. The sea of Sodom and Gomorrah is another instance. And in the high countries we mentioned, there are many small salt lakes, which receive little rivers, and have no outlet. The lake Zara in Persia, however, is the only one which indicates a considerable hollow of the country. It is now ascertained, by actual survey, that the sea of Sodom is considerably higher than the Mediterranean. This feature is not, however, peculiar to Asia; it obtains also in Africa.

In America, a chain of mountains begins, or at least is found, in longitude 110° west of London, and latitude 40° north, on the northern confines of the kingdom of Mexico, and stretching southward through that kingdom, forms the ridge of the neck of land which separates North from South America, and keeping almost close to the shore, ranges along the whole western coast of South America, terminating at Cape Horn. In its course it sends off branches, which after separating from it for a few leagues, rejoin it again, inclosing valleys of great extent from north to south, and of prodigious elevation. In one of these, under the equatorial sun, stands the city of Quito, in the midst of extensive fields of barley, oats, wheat, and gardens, containing apples, pears, and gooseberries, and in short, all the grains and fruits of the cooler parts of Europe; and although the vine is also there in perfection, the olive is wanting. Not a dozen miles from it, in the low countries, the sugar-cane, the indigo, and all the fruits of the torrid zone, find their congenial heat, and the inhabitants swelter under a burning sun. At a small distance on the other hand tower aloft the pinnacles of Pichincha, Corambourou, and Chimboracao, crowned with never-melting snows.

The individual mountains of this stupendous range not only exceed in height all others in the world (if we except the Peak of Teneriffe, Mount Ætna, and Mont Blanc); but they are set down on a base incomparably more elevated than any other country. They cut off therefore all communication between the Pacific ocean and the inland continent; and no rivers are to be found on the west coast of South America which have any considerable length of course or body of waters. The country is drained, like Africa, in the opposite direction. Not 100 miles from the city of Lima, the capital of Peru, which lies almost on the sea shore, and just at the foot of the high Cordilleras, arises out of a small lake, the Maragnon, or Amazon's river, which, after running northward for about 100 miles, takes an easterly direction, and crosses nearly the broadest part of South America, and falls into the great western ocean at Para, after a course of not less than 3500 miles. In the first half of its descent, it receives a few middle-sized rivers from the north, and from the south it receives the great river Combos, springing from another little lake, not 50 miles distant from the head of the Maragnon, and inclosing between them a wide extent of country. Then it receives the Yuta, the Yuerva, the Cuchivara, and Parana Mire, each of which is equal to the Rhine; and then the Madeira, which has flowed above 1300 miles. At their junction the breadth is so great, that neither shore can be seen by a person standing up in a canoe; so that the united stream must be about 20 miles broad. In this majestic form it rolls along at a prodigious rate, through a flat country, covered with impenetrable forests, and most of it as yet untrodden by human feet. Mr. Condamine, who came down the stream, says, that all is silent as the desert, and the wild beasts and numberless birds crowd round the boat, eyeing it as some animal of which they did not seem afraid. The bed was cut deep through an equal and yielding soil, which seemed rich in every part, if he could judge by the vegetation, which was rank in the extreme: and although the velocity in the main stream was great, he observed that it was extremely moderate, nay, almost still, at the sides; so that in those parts where the country was inhabited by men, the Indians paddled up the river with perfect ease. Boats could go from Para to near the mouth of the Madeira in 38 days, which is near 1200 miles.

The origin of rivers appears to be in all cases the springs of the earth, and as springs are most abundant in the highest lands, we accordingly find the heads of rivers appearing in mountains. The melting of snows, and the collection of rains from declivities, augment the rivulet by slow, but manifold degrees, until it assumes the form of a river.

The laws that govern the flowing of rivers are among the most important in the science of hydraulics: for in civilized countries, where every stream is a channel of communication, and an assistant to traffic, all circumstances connected with embankments, bridges, &c. are highly interesting. Hence, in this country, the theory of currents has been investigated with much attention and correspondent success: but we are indebted to Italy for the first information on this subject. Among several contradictions and absurdities, Guglielmini developed a mode of considering the phenomena of currents that has been of the utmost use to all subsequent inquirers.

When it was discovered experimentally (as we have shewn in the article MECHANICS), that the velocities of water issuing from orifices at various depths under the surface were as the square roots of those depths, and the fact was verified by repeated experiments, this principle was immediately and without modification applied to every motion of water. Guglielmini made it the basis of a complete system of hydraulics.

He considers every point P (fig. 1.) in a mass of fluid as an orifice in the side of a vessel, and conceives the particle as having a tendency to move with the same velocity with which it would issue from the orifice. Therefore, if a vertical line A P C be drawn through that point, and if this be made the axis of a parabolic A D E, of which A at the surface of the fluid is the vertex, and A B (four times the height

height through which a heavy body would fall in a second) is the parameter, the velocity of this particle will be represented by the ordinate P D of this parabola; that is, P D is the space which it would uniformly describe in a second.

From this principle is derived the following theory of running waters.

Let D C (fig. 2.) be the horizontal bottom of a reservoir, to which is joined a sloping channel C K of uniform breadth, and let A B be the surface of the standing water in the reservoir. Suppose the vertical plane B C pierced with an infinity of holes, through each of which the water issues. The velocity of each filament will be that which is acquired by falling from the surface A B. The filament C, issuing with this velocity, will then glide down the inclined plane like any other heavy body; and (by the common doctrine of the motion down an inclined plane) when it has arrived at F, it will have the same velocity which it would have acquired by falling through the height O F, the point O being in the horizontal plane A B produced. The same may be said of its velocity when it arrives at H or K. The filament immediately above C will also issue with a velocity which is in the subduplicate ratio of its depth, and will then glide down above the first filament. The same may be affirmed of all the filaments; and of the superficial filament, which will occupy the surface of the descending stream.

From this account of the genesis of a running stream of water, we may fairly draw the following consequences.

1. The velocity of any particle R, in any part of the stream, is that acquired by falling from the horizontal plane A N.

2. The velocity at the bottom of the stream is every where greater than any where above it, and is least of all at the surface.

3. The velocity of the stream increases continually as the stream recedes from its source.

4. The depths E F, G H, &c. in different parts of the stream, will be nearly in the inverse subduplicate ratio of the depths under the surface A N: for since the same quantity of water is running through every section E F and G H, and the channel is supposed of uniform breadth, the depth of each section must be inversely as the velocity of the water passing through it. This velocity is indeed different in different filaments of the section; but the mean velocity in each section is in the subduplicate ratio of the depth of the filament under the surface A B. Therefore the stream becomes more shallow as it recedes from the source; and in consequence of this the difference between L H and M G continually diminishes, and the velocities at the bottom and surface of the stream continually approach to equality, and at a great distance from the source they differ insensibly.

5. If the breadth of the stream be contracted in any part, the depth of the running water will be increased in that part, because the same quantity must still pass through; but the velocity at the bottom will remain the same, and that at the surface will be less than it was before; and the area of the section will be increased on the whole.

6. Should a sluice be put across the stream, dipping a little into the water, the water must immediately rise on the upper side of the sluice till it rises above the level of the reservoir, and the smallest immersion of the sluice will produce this effect. For by lowering the sluice, the area of the section is diminished, and the velocity cannot be increased till the water heap up to a greater height than the surface of the reservoir, and this acquires a pressure which will produce a greater velocity of efflux through the orifice left below the sluice.

7. An additional quantity of water coming into this channel will increase the depth of the stream, and the quantity of water which it conveys; but it will not increase the velocity of the bottom filaments, unless it comes from a higher source.

All these consequences are contrary to experience, and show the imperfection, at least, of the explanation.

The third consequence is of all the most contrary to experience. If any one will but take the trouble of following a single brook from its source to the sea, he will find it most rapid in its beginnings among the mountains, gradually slackening its pace as it winds among the hills and gentler declivities, and at last creeping slowly along through the flat grounds, till it is checked and brought to rest by the tides of the ocean.

Nor is the second consequence more agreeable to observation. It is universally found, that the velocity of the surface in the middle of the stream is the greatest of all, and that it gradually diminishes from thence to the bottom and sides.

And the first consequence, if true, would render the running waters on the surface of this earth the instruments of immediate ruin and devastation. If the waters of our rivers, in the cultivated parts of a country, which are two, three, and four hundred feet lower than their sources, ran with the velocity due to that height, they would in a few minutes tear up the most tenacious earth.

The velocities of our rivers, brooks, and rills, being so greatly inferior to what this theory assigns to them, the other consequences are equally contrary to experience. When a stream has its section diminished by narrowing the channel, the current increases in depth, and this is always accompanied by an increase of velocity through the whole of the section, and most of all at the surface; and the area of the section does not increase, but diminishes, all the phenomena, thus contradicting, in every circumstance, the deduction from the theory; and when the section has been diminished by a sluice let down into the stream, the water gradually heaps up on the upper side of the sluice, and, by its pressure, produces an acceleration of the stream below the sluice, in the same way as if it were the beginning of a stream, as explained in the theory. The velocity now is composed of the velocity preserved from the source and the velocity produced by this subordinate accumulation; and this accumulation and velocity continually increase, till they become such that the whole supply is again discharged through this contracted section: any additional water not only increases the quantity carried along the stream, but also increases the velocity, and therefore the section does not increase in the proportion of the quantity.

The next authors whose labours we shall notice, are Professor Michelotti at Turin, and Abbé Bossut at Paris. The first made a prodigious number of experiments both on the motion of water through pipes and in open canals. They were performed at the expense of the sovereign, and no expense was spared. A tower was built of the finest masonry, to serve as a vessel from which the water was to issue through holes of various sizes, under pressures from 5 to 22 feet. The water was received into basons constructed of masonry and nicely lined with stucco, from whence it was conveyed in canals of brick-work lined with stucco, and of various forms and declivities. The experiments on the expence of water through pipes are of all that have yet been made the most numerous and exact, and may be appealed to on every occasion. Those made in open canals are still more numerous, and are no doubt equally accurate; but they have not been so contrived as to be so generally useful, being in general very unlike the important cases which will occur in practice, and they seem to have been contrived chiefly with the view of establishing or overturning certain points of hydraulic doctrine which were probably prevalent at the time among the practical hydraulists.

The experiments of Bossut are also of both kinds; and, though on a much smaller scale than those of Michelotti, seem to deserve equal confidence. As far as they follow the same track, they perfectly coincide in their results, which should procure confidence in the other; and they are made in situations much more analogous to the usual practical cases. This makes them doubly valuable. They are to be found in his two volumes entitled *Hydrodynamique*. He has opened this path of procedure in a manner so new and so judicious, that he has in some measure the merit of such as shall follow him in the same path.

This has been most candidly and liberally allowed him by the Chevalier de Buat, who took up this matter where the Abbé Bossut left it, and has prosecuted his experiments with great

great assiduity; and we must now add with singular success. By a very judicious consideration of the subject, he hit on a particular view of it, which saved him the trouble of a minute consideration of the small internal motions, and enabled him to proceed from a very general and evident proposition, which may be received as the key to a complete system of practical hydraulics.

M. Buat assumes this leading and self-evident proposition, viz.:

1. "When water flows uniformly in any channel or bed, the accelerating force, which obliges it to move, is equal to the sum of all the resistances which it meets with, whether arising from its own viscidity, or from the friction of its bed."

From this proposition, ingeniously combined with the result of his own and Bossut's experiments, he then draws these fundamental propositions, viz.:

2. "The motion of rivers depends entirely on the slope of their surfaces.

3. "Since the velocity of the water depends wholly upon the slope of the surface, or of the pipe through which it is conveyed, it follows that the same pipe will be susceptible of different velocities, which it will preserve uniform to any distance, according as it has different degrees of inclination; and each inclination of a pipe, of given diameter, has a certain velocity peculiar to itself, which will be maintained uniform to any distance whatever. But this velocity changes continually, according to a certain function of its inclination for all degrees between its vertical and horizontal positions."

It is obvious that, considering the number of causes that may give rise to inequalities in the motion of water, whether in pipes or canals, it would have been vain to attempt the determination of the function above-mentioned from theory only: the results of the several experiments were, therefore, examined with the most scrupulous attention, and penetrating ingenuity, and from which at length the author derived the following theorems, viz.:

Let V be the velocity of the stream, measured by the inches it moves over in a second; R a constant quantity, viz.: the quotient obtained by dividing the area of the transverse section of the stream, expressed in square inches, by the boundary or periphery of that section, *minus* the breadth of the stream, expressed also in inches, viz.: $R = \frac{w\,h}{b + 2\,h}$; where w is the mean width of the section, h the mean height or depth, and b the breadth at bottom.

The line R is called by Du Buat the *radius*, and by Dr. Robison the *hydraulic mean depth*.

Lastly, let S be the denominator of a fraction, which expresses the slope, the numerator being unity; that is, let it be the quotient obtained by dividing the length of the stream, supposing it extended in a straight line, by the difference of level of its two extremities; or, which is nearly the same, let it be the co-tangent of the inclination or slope.

Then the general formula expressing the velocity V, supposed uniform, is,

$$V = \frac{307\,\sqrt{R - \frac{1}{10}}}{\sqrt{S - \frac{1}{2}h.\log.(S + \frac{16}{10})}} - \frac{3}{10}\sqrt{R - \frac{1}{10}}, \text{ or}$$

$$V = \sqrt{R - \tfrac{1}{10}} \times \left(\frac{307}{\sqrt{S - \frac{1}{2}h.\log.(S + \frac{16}{10})}} - \tfrac{3}{10}\right).$$

But when R and S are both great, then

$$V = \sqrt{R}\left(\frac{307}{\sqrt{S - \frac{1}{2}h.\log.S}} - \tfrac{2}{10}\right) \text{ nearly.}$$

Hence it follows, that the slope remaining the same, the velocities are as R, or as the area of the section divided by its perimeter, *minus* the breadth of the river at the surface, *very nearly*; for they are as $\sqrt{R - \frac{1}{10}}$; and when the river is large, the $\sqrt{R}$ may be used without any sensible error.

Again, if R is so small, that $\sqrt{R - \frac{1}{10}} = 0$, or $R = \frac{1}{10}$, the velocity will be nothing, which agrees very well with experiments; for in a cylindric tube $R = \frac{1}{2}$ the radius: th radius, therefore, is only two-tenths, so that the tube is nearly capillary, and the fluid will not flow through it. The velocity may also become nothing, by the slope becoming so small, that

$$\frac{307}{\sqrt{S - \frac{1}{2}h.\log.(S + \frac{16}{10})}} - \tfrac{3}{10} = 0;$$

but if $\frac{1}{S}$ is less than $\frac{1}{300000}$, or than $\frac{1}{10}$th of an inch to an English mile, the water will have sensible motion.

In a river, the greatest velocity is at the surface, and in the middle of the stream; from which it diminishes towards the bottom, and the sides, where it is the least. It has been found, from experiment, that if, from the square root of the velocity in the middle of the stream, expressed in inches *per* second, unity be subtracted, the square of the remainder is the velocity of the bottom.

Hence, if v be the velocity in the middle of the stream, the velocity of the bottom will be expressed by $(\sqrt{v} - 1)^2 = v - 2\sqrt{v} + 1$.

The mean velocity, or that with which, were the whole stream to move, the discharge would be the same as the real discharge, is equal to half the sum of the greatest and least velocities, as computed in the last proposition. Therefore, if v represents the greatest velocity, then will the mean velocity $= v - \sqrt{v} + \frac{1}{2}$.

Suppose that a river, having a rectangular bed, is increased by the junction of another river equal to itself, the declivity remaining the same; required the increase of depth and velocity. Let the breadth of the river $= b$, the depth before the junction d, and after it x; and in like manner, v and v' the mean velocities before and after; then $\frac{b\,d}{b + 2\,d} = R$ *before*, and $\frac{b\,x}{b + 2\,x} = R'$ *after*, so $v = \frac{307\sqrt{R}}{\sqrt{S}}$, supposing the breadth of the river to be such, that we may reject the small quantity subtracted from R; and, in like manner, $v' = \frac{307\sqrt{R'}}{\sqrt{S}}$; then substituting for R and R', we have

$$v = \frac{307}{\sqrt{S}} \times \sqrt{\frac{b\,d}{2\,d + b}}, \text{ and}$$

$$v' = \frac{307}{\sqrt{S}} \times \sqrt{\frac{b\,x}{b + 2\,x}}.$$

Multiplying these into the area of the sections $b\,d$, $b\,x$, we have the discharges, viz.

$$b\,d\,v = \frac{307}{\sqrt{S}} \times \frac{b\,d\sqrt{b\,d}}{\sqrt{(b + 2\,d)}}, \text{ and}$$

$$b\,x\,v' = \frac{307}{\sqrt{S}} \times \frac{b\,x\sqrt{b\,x}}{\sqrt{(b + 2\,x)}}.$$

And since the last of these is double the former, we obtain

$$\frac{b\,x\sqrt{b\,x}}{\sqrt{(b + 2\,x)}} = \frac{2\,b\,d\sqrt{b\,d}}{\sqrt{(b + 2\,d)}}, \text{ or } \frac{x^3}{b + 2\,x} = \frac{4\,d^3}{b + 2\,d},$$

whence $$x^3 - \left(\frac{8\,d^3}{b + 2\,d}\right)x = \frac{4\,b\,d^3}{b + 2\,d},$$

a cubic equation solvable by the formula of Cardan. As an example, let $b = 10$ feet, $d = 1$, then $x^3 - \frac{2}{3}x = \frac{10}{3}$, where $x = 1.4882$, which is the depth of the increased river. Hence we have $1.4882 \times v' = 2\,v$, and $1.4882 : 2 :: v : v'$; or v is to v' as 37 to 50 nearly.

When the water in a river receives a permanent increase, the depth and the velocity, as in the example above, are the first that are augmented. The increase of the velocity increases the action on the sides and bottom, in consequence of which the width is augmented, and sometimes also, but more rarely, the depth. The velocity is thus diminished, till the tenacity of the soil, or the hardness of the rock, affords a sufficient resistance to the force of the water; the bed of the

the river then changes only by insensible degrees, and, in the ordinary language of hydraulics, is said to be permanent, though, in strictness, this epithet is not applicable to the course of any river.

It must be remarked, that the preceding formula of Du Buat, though sufficiently accurate for practical purposes, is found to fail when applied to tubes of very small diameter. Dr. Young, in a very excellent paper in the Philosophical Transactions for 1808, has propounded a much more satisfactory consideration of the subject. "He found," he observes, "that the friction could not be represented by any single power of the velocity, although it frequently approached," for the same pipe, "to the proportion of that power, of which the exponent is 1.8; but that it appeared to consist of two parts, the one varying simply as the velocity, the other as its square. The proportion of these parts to each other must, however, be considered as different, in pipes of different diameters, the first part being less perceptible in very large pipes, or in rivers, but becoming greater than the second in very minute tubes, while the second also becomes greater, for each given portion of the internal surface of the pipe, as the diameter is diminished."

As this does not apply very closely to the subject of rivers, we shall not enter further into it here; but refer our readers to Dr. Young's paper for fuller information on the motion of fluids in very minute tubes.

By the statute of Westm. 2. cap. 47, the king may grant commissions for persons to take care of rivers, and the fishery in them; and the lord mayor of London is to have the conservation in breaches and ground overflown as far as the water ebbs and flows in the river Thames. (4 Hen. VII. cap. 15.) Persons annoying the river Thames, making shelves there, casting dung in it, or taking away stakes, boards, timber-work, &c. of the banks, incur a forfeiture of 5*l.* by stat. 27 Hen. VIII. cap. 18. Commissioners were appointed to prevent exactions of the occupiers of locks, weirs, &c. upon the river Thames, westward from the city of London, to Cricklade, in the county of Wilts, and for ascertaining the rates of water-carriage on the said river, by stat. 6 & 7 W. III., and this statute is revived, with authority from the commissioners to make orders and constitutions to be observed, under penalties, &c. by 3 Geo. II. cap. 11.

By statutes 8 Geo. II. cap. 20, and 4 Geo. III. cap. 12, it is made felony, without benefit of clergy, maliciously to cut down any river or sea-bank, by which lands may be destroyed, and to destroy sluices or locks upon navigable rivers.

RI'VER, *s.* One who splits or cleaves.—An honest block-*river*, with his beetle, heartily calling. *Echard.*

RIVER, a parish of England, in Kent; 2 miles north-west of Dover. Population 650.

RIVER-DRAGON, *s.* A crocodile. A name given by Milton to the king of Egypt.

Thus with ten wounds
The *river-dragon* tam'd at length, submits
To let his sojourners depart. *Milton.*

RI'VERET, *s.* A small stream; a rill.

Calls down each *riveret* from her spring,
Their queen upon her way to bring. *Drayton.*

RIVER-GOD, *s.* Tutelary deity of a river.—His wig hung as strait as the hair of a *river-god* rising from the water. *Arbuthnot.*

RIVER, HAUTE, a town of the Sardinian states, in Savoy, near Chamberry, said to contain 5000 inhabitants.

RIVERHEAD, a village of England, in the county of Kent, so named from the head of the Darent, which is in the neighbourhood. Near it is the noble villa of Lord Amherst, called Montreal; half a mile from Seven Oaks.

RIVER-HORSE, *s.* The Hippopotamus.

Rose,
As plants ambiguous between sea and land,
The *river-horse* and scaly crocodile. *Milton.*

RIVERS, a town in the south-east of France, department of the Isere, on the small river Fune. It has a traffic in linen, hardware, and paper. Population 1400; 8 miles north-west of Grenoble.

RIVESALTES, a town of France, department of the Eastern Pyrenees, on the small river Cali. It is walled, contains about 1800 inhabitants; and is 6 miles north-by-west of Perpignan.

RI'VET, *s.* [*river*, Fr. to break the point of a thing; to drive.] A fastening pin clenched at both ends.

The armourers accomplishing the knights,
With busy hammers closing *rivets* up,
Give dreadful note of preparation. *Shakspeare.*

Though Valeria's fair, and though she loves me too,
'Gainst her my soul is arm'd on every part;
Yet there are secret *rivets* to my heart,
Where Berenice's charms have found the way,
Subtile as lightnings. *Dryden.*

To RI'VET, *v. a.* To fasten with rivets.

This man,
If all our fire were out, would fetch down new,
Out of the hand of Jove; and *rivet* him
To Caucasus, should he but frown. *B. Jonson.*

To fasten strongly; to make immoveable.

Why should I write this down, that's *rivetted*,
Screw'd to my memory? *Shakspeare.*

Rivet and nail me where I stand, ye pow'rs. *Congreve.*

They provoke him to the rage
Of fangs and claws, and, stooping from your horse,
Rivet the panting savage to the ground. *Addison.*

To drive or clench a rivet.—In *rivetting*, the pin you *rivet* in should stand upright to the plate you *rivet* it upon; for if it do not stand upright, you will be forced to set it upright, after it is *rivetted*. *Moxon.*

RIVET (Andrew), a learned and eminent French protestant divine, who flourished in the seventeenth century, was born in Poitou, in the year 1572. He was successively pastor in the church at Thouars, chaplain to the duke of Thouars, who frequently consulted and employed him in matters of consequence, and a representative of the protestant churches in Poitou at different national conventions, which were held by royal permission, and professor of divinity at the university of Leyden. In 1621, he made a voyage to England, and was enrolled among the honorary members of the university of Oxford. After his return to Holland, he was nominated preacher to the Prince of Orange, and curator of the Orange-college at Breda. He died in 1651, when he was about 79 years of age. He was the author of several commentaries on different parts of the bible, and a number of controversial works chiefly against the papists. A collection of the whole was published at Rotterdam in 1651, in three large vols. folio. Our author had a brother named William Rivet, who published "Vindiciæ Evangelicæ de Justificatione," and a "Treatise on Ecclesiastical Liberty, in opposition to the authority of the Pope." *Moreri.*

RIVET DE LA GRANGE (Anthony), a French Benedictine monk, and esteemed writer in the eighteenth century, descended from a catholic branch of the same family with the preceding, was born at Confolens, a small town belonging to the diocese of Poitiers, in the year 1683. He exhibited early indications of an ardour for learning, and a readiness in acquiring it at a school in his native place, till the death of his father, when he was about thirteen years of age, from which time his education was neglected for some years. Afterwards he was sent to study philosophy under the Jacobins, or Dominican monks at Poitiers, where he gave the greatest satisfaction to his tutors by his application and proficiency. While he continued under their instructions, he one day narrowly escaped with his life, in consequence of being thrown from his horse when on a hunting party, and dragged to a considerable distance by one of his feet becoming entangled in the stirrup. This accident made such an impression

impression on his mind, that he determined to renounce the world and enter the monastic state. Accordingly, at the age of twenty-one, he became a noviciate in the abbey of Marmoutier, belonging to the Benedictines of the congregation of St. Maur, and took the vows in the year 1705. After completing his courses of philosophy and divinity, he was transferred to the abbey of St. Florence at Saumur, where his order was establishing a kind of academy, consisting of such members as were most distinguished by their talents and literature, for the purpose of studying the Scriptures in their original languages, the councils, the fathers, and the historians of the church, without being shackled by the trammels of the schools. To the objects of this society he devoted his attention with laborious diligence for several years, and acquired those stores of knowledge, and that judicious critical discrimination, which are discoverable in his subsequent works. In the year 1716, he was removed to the monastery of St. Cyprian at Poitiers, where he formed the plans of a history of the bishops of that diocese, and of a *bibliotheque* of the authors of Poitou; but the other labours in which he was engaged prevented him from carrying them into execution. During the following year, his superiors called him to Paris, and assigned him the task, conjointly with other members, of drawing up a history of illustrious men of the Benedictine order. The collections which he made for such an undertaking were very considerable; but the design miscarried, by a fatality not uncommon to works confided to a diversity of hands. Being now at liberty to select his own subject, he undertook to write "A Literary History of France," the plan of which he had already conceived. However, before he became wholly occupied on this work, he gave to the public, through the medium of the Dutch press, another favourite production, entitled, "The Necrology of Port-Royal in the Fields, &c., containing historical Eulogies; with the Epitaphs of the Founders and Benefactors of that Monastery, &c.," 1723, 4to., preceded by a long historical preface. In this work he discovered so strong an attachment to the memory and cause of Arnauld and Quesnel, while he distinguished himself by his zealous support of the appellants against the bull *Unigenitus*, that he incurred the displeasure of his superiors, who in the same year compelled him to retire to the abbey of St. Vincent, at Mans. Here he spent the remainder of his life laboriously employed on his great design, in which he was assisted by some learned members of that community. In the year 1773, he gratified the high-raised expectations of the learned world, by publishing the first volume under the title of "The Literary History of France: treating of the Origin and Progress, of the Decline and the Revival of Learning among the Gauls and among the French; of their respective Taste and Genius for Literature in each Age; of their ancient Schools, and the Establishment of Universities in France; of the principal Colleges; of the Academies of Sciences and Belles-lettres," &c. in 4to. This was followed at different periods by other volumes, till the author had printed the ninth, which includes the first years of the twelfth century, when, owing to the intenseness of his application, and his strict observance at the same time of the austerities enjoined by the rule of his order, he brought on an incurable flux, which carried him off towards the beginning of 1749, in the sixty-sixth year of his age. This work was afterwards extended to twelve volumes. It has been compared, and not undeservedly, with the "Memoirs" of the learned Tillemont, for accuracy of citation, and depth of research; and it will be found to furnish the reader with much interesting matter, not only on the subjects already mentioned in our abridgment of the title, but also relating to the lives of the learned men who flourished in the ages of which it treats, their genius and talents, their works, and the different editions of them, and the merit of the latter as weighed in the scales of judicious and liberal criticism. *Moreri. Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

RIVIERE, or Riverius (Lazare), a celebrated physician, was born at Montpellier in 1589. He studied physic in the university of his native city, and was admitted to the degree of doctor in 1611. He obtained a medical professorship at Montpellier in 1622, which he occupied during life with great reputation. This professor was the first who succeeded in establishing the use of chemical remedies in the Montpellier school. He was the author of several works, chiefly relative to practice, in which he was a considerable improver. In the theoretical part of medicine he copied much from Sennertus, and often without acknowledgment. The following are the principal works of Riverius: "Praxis Medica cum Theoria," very frequently reprinted: in this work he treats of the diseases of the human body, from the head to the feet, with brief descriptions, but a fuller method of cure. "Observationes Medicæ et Curationes insignes," containing many valuable cases and observations; "Methodus Curandarum Febrium;" "Institutiones Medicæ." He died in 1655. *Halleri Bibl. Med.*

RIVIERE AU BŒUF, a river of North America, which falls into the Mississippi, in the lower end of Lake Pepin. It is 30 yards wide.

RIVIERE DES HURONS, a river of Lower Canada, which, after a winding course, falls into the Richlieu, at Fort Chambly.

RIVIERE DES PRAIRIES, a river of Lower Canada, which issues from the Lake of the Mountains, and running along the northern shore of the island of Montreal, divides it from Isle Jesus; after which it joins the St. Lawrence.

RIVIERE MAHAUT, La, a town of the island of Guadaloupe, situated in a bay to which it gives name. Lat. 16. 27. N. long. 61. 46. W.

RIVIERE PILOTE, a town on the south coast of the island of Martinico.

RIVIERE ROUGE, a river of the United States, in the North-western Territory, which falls into Lake Michigan, in Green bay.

RIVIERE SALEE, a town on the south coast of the island of Martinico.

RIVINA, (so named by Plumier, in honour of Rivinus, Professor of Medicine at Leipsic.) in botany, a genus of the class tetrandria, order monogynia, natural order of holoraceæ, atriplices, *(Juss.)* Generic Character.—Calyx: perianth four-leaved, coloured, permanent; leaflets oblong-ovate, blunt. Corolla none, unless the calyx be taken for it. Stamina: filaments four or eight, shorter than the calyx, approaching by pairs, permanent. Anthers small. Pistil: germ large, roundish. Style very short. Stigma simple, blunt. Pericarp: berry globular, placed on the green reflex calyx, one-celled, with a point curved in. Seed one, roundish, lens-shaped, rugged. *Essential Character.*—Calyx: four-leaved (or, corolla four-petalled) permanent. Berry containing one lens-shaped seed.

1. Rivina humilis, or downy rivina, a shrub from eight to twelve feet high.—Racemes simple, flowers four-stamened, leaves pubescent.—Native of the West Indies.

2. Rivina lævis, or smooth rivina, a shrub from six to eight feet high,—Racemes simple, flowers four-stamened, leaves ovate acuminate, smooth, flat, stem round.—Native of the West Indies.

3. Rivina Brasiliensis, or wave-leaved rivina.—Racemes simple, flowers four-stamened, leaves ovate, waved and wrinkled, stem grooved.

4. Rivina octandra, or climbing rivina.—Racemes simple, flowers eight-stamened or twelve-stamened, leaves elliptic, smooth. This rises with a climbing woody stalk to the height of twenty feet, covered with a dark gray bark. Leaves oval-lanceolate, near three inches long, and an inch and half broad, smooth, entire, on short foot-stalks. The flowers come out in long bunches from the side of the branches, shaped like those of the second sort. The berries are blue, of the same size with those of the other.

Browne says, it stretches a great way among the neighbouring shrubs and bushes, the main stalk being seldom under an inch or two in diameter, and throwing out a few slender branches towards the top, which are generally adorned with flowers at their extremities. The berries make the principal part of the food of the American thrush or nightingale; they contain a very oily seed, and after the bird has swallowed many of them, he frequently flies to the next bird-

bird-pepper bush (capsicum), and picks a few of those warm berries; nature doubtless having taught it what was necessary to promote the digestion of that oleaginous heavy food.

The stalk is very tough and flexible, and often made into hoops in Jamaica, when there is a scarcity of those imported from Europe or North America, but they are not so strong and durable. Hence the name of hoop-withe, given to this plant in Jamaica.

Propagation and Culture.—These shrubs are propagated by seeds, which remain long (sometimes two years) in the ground before they vegetate. They should be sown in pots filled with fresh earth, and plunged into a moderate hot-bed. If this happens late in the autumn or winter, the pots must be plunged into the tan-bed of the stove; but if in the spring, they may be plunged into a common hot-bed under a frame. The earth must be moistened frequently in summer, to promote the vegetation of the seeds, but as they will not come up the same year, the pots should be removed into the stove before winter, and plunged into the tan-bed; during the winter season, the earth must be sometimes refreshed, but must not be too moist. In the spring the pots may be taken out of the stove, and plunged into a fresh hot-bed to bring up the plants; but if they should not then rise, the earth must not be disturbed, because the plants may come up the following season.

RIVINGTON, a village of England, in the county of Lancaster, noted for a peak on a high adjoining hill, which commands a prospect of vast extent; 5 miles from Bolton.

RIVINUS (Andrew), a learned physician and critic, was born at Hall in Saxony, in 1600. He took the degree of doctor of physic at Leipzig, and was nominated to the chair of poetry in that university; and in 1655 to that of physiology, which he only occupied till the next year, when he died. Rivinus was chiefly known by his philological labours, a considerable share of which related to the ancient Christian poets, many of whom he edited. One of his works entitled "Kirani Kiranides," under the name of Rhyakinus, involved him in a controversy with Reinesius. It was published after his death, with the title of "Mysteria Physico-Medica." He also gave an edition, with notes, of the "Pervigilium Veneris;" and published "Florilegium Epigrammatum veterum Græcorum;" "Columella de cultu hortorum;" and "Veterum quorundam bonorum Scriptorum libri de Re et Materia Medica." Two curious dissertations of his are inserted by Grævius, who had been his auditor, in his "Dissertationes rariores." *Moreri. Eloy Dict.*

RIVINUS (Augustus Quirinus), a physician and botanist, son of the preceding, was born at Leipzig, in 1652, of which place he obtained the professorship of physiology and botany. He was a man of great industry, who made himself known by a variety of publications. Of his numerous medical writings the following are the most worthy of notice: "De Peste Lipsiensi;" of this pestilence he was an eye-witness, and he has described its circumstances with many remarkable particulars; "De Dyspepsia;" "De Febribus intermittentibus;" "Medicus superstitiosus;" "De Situ Ægrorum commodo;" "Censura Medicamentorum officinalium;" in this work he undertakes the laudable task of expunging from the Materia Medica the numerous articles then in use that fall under the heads of sordid, disgusting, inert, superstitious, ill-prepared, and compounded, &c. He was not an anatomist, but the discovery of a new salivary duct has been attributed to him. It is, however, as a botanist that he has obtained the greatest celebrity, for he undertook a vast work, called "Introductio generalis in rem Herbariam." In this he endeavoured to found a very simple method of arrangement upon the flower, as being of one or more petals, and as being regular or irregular in its form. At the same time he began to publish plates, executed at his own expence, of which he gave three orders of the plants with irregular flowers, and a fourth which he had prepared was edited by Ludwig after his death. The figures are very fine; but as his object was to represent the flowers solely, they often are confined to the upper parts of the plants. In his introduction he made some animadversions on Ray and Morison, which involved him in controversy; and an epistle of his to Ray is printed in the second edition of that great botanist's "Synopsis." Rivinus objected to the separation of trees and shrubs from other plants. *Halleri Bibl. Med. & Botan. Eloy Dict. Hist.*

RIVOGLIOMENTO, [Ital.] in Music, changing the place of the parts of a composition. It is placing the treble or other upper part in the tenor or base, and *vice versâ.* This frequently happens in double counterpoint, when the treble serves for the base, or the base for the treble; and in such a manner, as that the harmony, though different, shall remain equally correct and pleasing as in the first arrangement of the parts.

RIVOLI, a town in the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont, situated at the foot of the Alps, on the great road which leads over Mount Cenis into Savoy. It has some manufactures of linen, woollens, and silk, and a population of 5100. On an eminence near it stands a castle, in which Victor Amadeus II. of Sardinia, after having abdicated his throne in favour of his son, and endeavoured to resume it, died a state prisoner, in 1732. The prospect from this, in particular the view of Turin, through the spacious alley of trees leading to that city, is almost unrivalled; 9 miles west of Turin.

RIVOLI, a small place in the north-east of Lombardy, on the Adige; 12 miles north-west of Verona. Near this town the Austrians were defeated by the French, in a battle fought on the 14th and 15th January 1797. This was one of the most remarkable of Buonaparte's victories. At Arcole, in the preceding November, his bold combinations had been repeatedly baffled; but here they had complete success, both on the field of battle, and in the pursuit.

RIVOLO, a small town of Italy, in the duchy of Modena, province of Reggio.

RIVOLO. See ROLO.

RIUT, a Russian settlement on the west coast of America. Lat. 65. 25. N. long. 209. 36. E.

RIVULARIA, in botany, so called by Dr. Roth from its growing generally in rivulets, is a cryptogamic genus, separated, by that able botanist, from the Linnæan genera ULVA and CONFERVA; which see.

RI'VULET, *s.* [*rivulus*, Lat.] A small river; a brook; a streamlet.

By fountain or by shady *rivulet*,
He sought them. *Milton.*

RIXA'TION, *s.* [*rixatio*, Lat.] A brawl; a quarrel. *Cockeram.*

RIXDO'LLAR, *s.* A German coin, worth about four shillings and six-pence sterling.

RIXE, a small river of France, in the department of the Lower Pyrenees, which falls into the Adour.

RIXTON, a township of England, in Lancashire; 5 miles east-by-north of Warrington. Population 886.

RIZEA, in Ancient Geography, a town of Asia, in that part of the Colchide, which lay to the left of the Phasis. Procopius says, that it was situated on the frontiers of the empire, and that it was very populous.

RIZEH, a town of Asiatic Turkey, in the government of Trebisond, on the Black sea; 45 miles east-north-east of Trebisond.

RIZIUM, in botany, a name given by the ancients to a particular kind of red root brought from Syria, and used by the Grecian women to paint their cheeks red. It is probable, that the rizium was no other than the anchusa, or alkanet root, which grows very plentifully in the countries from whence the Greeks had their rizium, and which will answer all the purposes for which they used it.

RIZZIO (David), born at Turin, but brought up in France, was a good musician, and sung agreeably. His father was a dancing-master. The count de Merezza took him to Scotland when he went thither ambassador from Savoy. Rizzio charmed Mary Stewart by his talents, which were not confined to music, and there were rumours that she

she favoured him too much. Henry Stewart Darnley, the queen's husband, had him arrested in the music-room of this princess. But it is said, in some accounts, that he was actually at supper with her majesty and the countess of Argyle in her cabinet. Some say he was massacred in her presence; others assert, that the duke of Rothsay dragged him out of the room and murdered him at the door. There is no doubt but that the queen made useless efforts to save his life. However, it is added, that she revenged his death afterwards on several of his assassins. *Laborde.*

His instrument seems to have been the lute, the general favourite at that time all over Europe.

Sir John Melvil, in his Memoirs, tells us that "the queen had three valets of her chamber, who sung in three parts, and wanted a base to sing the fourth part; therefore, telling her majesty of this man, Rizzio, as one fit to make the fourth in concert, he was drawn in sometimes to sing with the rest." This was about the year 1564.

He quickly crept into the queen's favour; and her French secretary happening at that time to return to his own country, he (Rizzio) was preferred by her majesty to that office. He began to make a figure at court, and to appear as a man of weight and consequence. Nor was he careful to abate that envy which always attends such an extraordinary and rapid change of fortune. On the contrary, he seems to have done every thing to increase it; yet it was not his exorbitant power alone which exasperated the Scots; they considered him as a dangerous enemy to the protestant religion, and held for this purpose a constant correspondence with the court of Rome. His prevalence, however, was very short lived; for, in 1566, certain nobles, with lord Darnley at their head, conspired against him, and dispatched him in the queen's presence with fifty-six wounds. *Biog. Dict.*

RIZZUTO, Cape, a promontory of the south of Italy, on the coast of Calabria. Lat. 38. 57. N. long. 17. 25. E.

RJASK, a town of the interior of European Russia, in the government of Riazan, on the river Riazan. Population 900; 70 miles south-south-east of Riazan.

RO, or Rho, a small town of Austrian Italy, in the delegation of Milan, remarkable for its elegant church; 7 miles north-west of Milan.

ROA, a town of Spain, province of Burgos, on the north side of the Douro. It is defended by a castle, and has 2500 inhabitants, with a splendid mansion belonging to the counts of Sizuela, who are, in a great measure, proprietors of the town. Cardinal Ximines died here in 1517; 25 miles north of Segovia.

ROACH, a parish of England, in Cornwall; 5 miles from St. Austle. Population 1164.

ROACH, *s.* [peohcbe, Sax.] A fish.—A *roach* is a fish of no great reputation for his dainty taste: his spawn is accounted much better than any other part of him: he is accounted the water sheep, for his simplicity and foolishness; and it is noted, that *roaches* recover strength, and grow in a fortnight after spawning. *Walton.*

If a gudgeon meet a *roach,*
He dare not venture to approach;
Yet still he leaps at flies. *Swift.*

As sound as a Roach, [*roche,* Fr. a rock.] Firm; stout.—Ray has the expression, as sound as a trout; but sometimes people will express it, *as sound as a roach,* which is by no means a firm fish, but rather otherwise; and on that account Mr. Thomas surmises it should rather be *sound as a roche,* or *rock:* and it is certain, the abbey of De Rupe, in Yorkshire, was called *Roche-abbey,* implying that *roche* was formerly the pronunciation of *rock* here, in some places at least. *Pegge.*

ROACHING of Alum, one of the last processes used in the alum making, and is what renders it fit for the market.

After the alum liquor has been left four days in the cooler, and is sufficiently shot, they drain it out; and taking out the alum, they wash it in a cistern of alum water so strong, that it can scarcely take up any more of that salt, but only cleanses it of its accidental foulnesses. After this washing the alum is put into large pans, and a quantity of water added to it. It is set over the fire to melt in this water and boil a little; then it is scooped into a great cask, where it is suffered to stand about ten days; and it is then fit for the market under the name of *roach alum* or *roached alum;* the liquor let out of the cooler is boiled up again, and shoots more alum. See Alum.

ROAD, *s.* [*rade,* Fr. What is *ridden* over.] Large way; path.—Would you not think him a madman, who, whilst he might easily ride on the beaten *road* way, should trouble himself with breaking up of gaps? *Suckling.*—There is but one *road* by which to climb up. *Addison.* [*Rade,* Fr. This also, according to Skinner, is from *ride;* ships *riding* at anchor.] Ground where ships may anchor.

I should be still
Peering in maps for ports and *roads;*
And every object that might make me fear
Misfortune to my veutures. *Shakspeare.*

Inroad; incursion.

The Volscians stand
Ready, when time shall prompt them, to make *road*
Upon's again. *Shakspeare*

He mote travel for worship,
And make many hasty *rodes,*
Sometime in Pruis, sometime in Rhodes. *Gower*

With easy *roads* he came to Leicester,
And lodg'd in the abbey. *Shakspeare.*

The act or state of travelling.—Some taken from their shops and farms, others from their sports and pleasures, these at suits at law, those at gaming tables, some on the *road,* others at their own fire-sides. *Law.*

The great value of roads is evident to all. Previous to their establishment, no regular traffic could exist between different parts of a country, in the important articles of food and clothing. The occupants of lands, even a few miles distant, would be unable to interchange commodities, and even the due cultivation of extensive farms must be prevented. Of course, the like disadvantages follow, in a minor degree, badly formed roads, and, at the present day, inattention to this very obvious fact, destroys, especially on the continent, much of the comfort and prosperity of mankind. Of all the effects that the great Roman dominion produced in Europe, none are so permanent and useful as the roads which has in every direction marked its progress. In this country especially, they seem to have been no slight assistance to the combination of the distant countries into one kingdom, and they performed for internal traffic that which our fortunate maritime position has secured to us in respect to foreign commerce.

In the observations we have to make on roads, it will be proper to consider, firstly, common roads, and secondly, railroads.

I. Of Common Roads.

These may be divided into paved and unpaved. As to the former, the theory of pavement appears to be extremely simple; the stones, however, may be either small or large; the former being understood to be employed without previous preparation of their shape, as in the inferior kind of work which is called "pitching" in the west of England; the latter being more or less cut to fit each other whether in the form of thick rough blocks, not very remote from cubes, or of flat and smooth flagstones. In the cities of Great Britain the former are commonly used for horse pavements, and the latter for foot passengers; but in Florence the whole breadth of the street is paved with flag-stones placed diagonally, and in Naples the surfaces are nearly as smooth; in both these cases it is necessary to roughen the stones frequently with chisels wherever there is a hill or a bridge, in order to prevent the horses slipping, but in both cities the horses from habit are sufficiently sure-

sure-footed, even when running with some rapidity. In Milan both kinds of pavements are mixed in the same streets; the smooth in two double lines, for the wheels of carriages coming and going, and the rougher in the intermediate parts, for the feet of the horses, as in the British rail-roads. But in none of these cities is there much heavy traffic to wear these well-arranged surfaces into such inequalities, as would probably soon be observed in the streets of London, if they were so delicately formed; although, when this deterioration actually took place, the locomotion would be luxurious both for the horses and for the passengers, and only ruinous to the coachmakers. The Romans used large and heavy blocks for their roads, cutting them on the spot into such forms as enabled them to be best adjusted to those of the neighbouring stones, though seldom exactly rectangular in their surfaces; and even at Pompeii, where the ruts are worn half through the depth of the blocks, the bottom remains tolerably even, in a longitudinal direction, at least as much so as would be required for carts and other carriages of business.

We shall now proceed to consider the unpaved or gravelled roads. Though many excellent old roads of this kind are to be found in various parts of England, it does not appear that they were constructed on any rational principles until the present day. They seem, on the contrary, to owe their excellence to fortuitous circumstances, or to rules derived from very irregular and confined experiments. We shall pass over the several authors who have written largely on the subject before Mr. M'Adam; because the opinions of that gentleman seem to have superseded, with competent judges, all those of his predecessors; and indeed his principles answer as completely in practice, as in theory they are simple and obvious. We shall accordingly confine ourselves to a brief abstract of his plan. His leading principle is, that a road ought to be considered as an artificial flooring, forming a strong, smooth, solid surface, at once capable of carrying great weights, and over which carriages may pass without meeting any impediment.

He proceeds to give directions for repairing an old road, and for making a new one, in the form of a communication to a committee appointed by the House of Commons, in the year 1819, with some subsequent corrections.

No additional materials, he observes, are to be brought upon a road, unless in any part of it there be not a quantity of clean stone equal to ten inches in thickness.

The stone already in the road, supposing it to have been made in the usual manner, is to be loosened and broken, so that no piece may exceed six ounces in weight; the road is then to be laid as flat as possible, leaving only a fall of three inches from the middle to the sides, when the road is thirty feet wide. The stones, thus loosened, are to be dragged to the side by a strong heavy rake, with teeth two inches and a half in length, and there broken; but the stones are never to be broken on the road itself.

When the great stones have been removed, and none are left exceeding six ounces in weight, the surface is to be made smooth by a rake, which will also settle the remaining materials into a better consistence, bringing up the stone, and letting the dirt fall down into its place.

The road being so prepared, the stone that has been broken by the side is then to be carefully spread over it; this operation requires very particular attention, and the future quality of the road will greatly depend on the manner in which it is performed; the stone must not be laid on in shovels full, but scattered over the surface, one shovel-full following another, and being spread over a considerable space.

Only a small part of the length of the road should be *lifted* in this manner at once; that is, about two or three yards; five men in a gang should be employed to *lift* it all across, two continually digging up and raking off the large stones, and preparing the road for receiving them again, and the other three breaking them at the side of the road. It may, however, happen, that the surveyor may see cause to distribute the labour in a proportion somewhat different.

The only proper method of breaking stones, in general, both for effect and for economy, is in a sitting posture. The stones are to be placed in small heaps, and women, boys, and old men, past hard labour, may sit down and break them with small hammers into pieces not exceeding six ounces in weight. When the heavy work of a quarry can be performed by men, and the lighter by their wives and children, the stone can be obtained by contract for two-thirds of the former prices, although the stones were then left four times as large. It has also been recommended by Mr. M'Adam and others (p. 35) that the largest stone employed should not exceed the measure of an inch in its greatest dimensions, or in other words, that it it should be capable of being contained in a sphere about an inch in diameter, which would seldom weigh more than a single ounce.

In some cases it would be unprofitable to lift and relay a road, even if the materials should have been originally too large; for example, the road betwixt Bath and Cirencester was made of large stones, but so friable, that in lifting they would have fallen into sand; in this case, Mr. M'Adam merely had the higher parts cut down, and replaced when sifted, and the surface kept smooth, until those materials were gradually worn out; and they were afterwards replaced by stones of a better quality, properly prepared. At Egham, it was necessary to remove the whole road, in order to separate the small portion of valuable materials from the mass of soft matter in which they were enveloped, and which was carried away, at a considerable expense, before a good road could be made. But although freestone is by no means calculated to make a durable road, yet, by judicious management, it may be made to form a very good road as long as it lasts.

Whenever new stone is to be laid on a road already consolidated, the hardened surface is to be loosened with a pick, in order to enable the fresh materials to unite with the old.

A new road, however well it may have been made, will always receive the impressions of the carriage wheels until it is hardened; a careful person must, therefore, attend the road for some time, in order to rake in the tracks made by the wheels; that is, as long as any loose materials are left that can be so employed.

It is always superfluous, and generally injurious, to add to the broken stone any mixture of earth, clay, chalk, or any other matter that will imbibe water, and be affected by frost; or to lay any thing whatever on the clean stone for the purpose of binding it; *for good stone, well broken, will always combine by its own roughness into a solid substance*, with a smooth surface, that will not be affected by the vicissitudes of weather, or disfigured by the action of wheels, which as they pass over it without a jolt, will consequently be incapable of doing it any considerable injury.

The experience of the year 1820 strongly confirmed the inutility and inconvenience of employing chalk with the stone. In January, when a hard frost was succeeded by a sudden thaw, a great number of roads broke up, and the wheels of carriages penetrated into the original soil; in particular it was observed, that all the roads, of which chalk was a component part, became nearly impassable; and even roads made over chalky soils gave way in most places. But not one of the roads, that had been thoroughly made after these directions, was observed to give way. (pp. 44. 46.)

The tools required for lifting roads, are 1. Strong picks, but short from the handle to the point. 2. Small hammers, weighing about a pound, with the face the size of a shilling, well steeled and with a short handle. 3. Rakes, with wooden heads, ten inches in length, and with iron teeth, about two and a half inches long, and very strong, for raking out large stones when the road is broken up, and for keeping it smooth after it has been finished, and while it is consolidating. 4. Very light broad-mouthed shovels, to spread the broken stones, and to form the road.

The whole expense of lifting and newly forming a rough road, to the depth of four inches, has generally been from a penny to twopence per square yard, being more or less, according to the quantity of stone to be broken. With proper tools, and by proper arrangements, stone may be broken for tenpence or a shilling per ton, including, in some cases, the value of the stone itself. A very material advantage of

Mr. M'Adam's method is the introduction of a greater proportion of human labour, instead of the work of horses: formerly one-fourth of the whole expense was paid, in the district of Bristol, for men's labour, and three-fourths for that of horses: now, on the contrary, one-fourth only is paid for horses' labour, and the other three to men, women, and children.

Mr. M'Adam argues very strongly against the old opinion of the necessity of placing a quantity of large stones, as a foundation, to carry the road over a wet subsoil. He says, that whatever be the nature of the soil, if it be previously "made quite dry," and a covering impenetrable to rain placed over it, the thickness of the covering needs only to depend on its own capability of becoming impervious. Large stones, he says, will constantly work up by the agitation of the traffic on the road, and leave vacuities for the reception of water; and the only way of keeping the stones in their places, is to have them of a uniform size. A rocky bottom causes a road to wear out much the faster [acting, probably, as a lower millstone in facilitating the operation of grinding]. "It is a known fact, that a road lasts much longer over a morass, than when made over rock. In the neighbourhood of Bridgewater, for example, the materials consumed on a rocky road, when compared with those which are required for a similar road made over the naked surface of the soil, are in proportion of seven to five."

In the summer of 1819, upon some new roads made in Scotland, more than three feet of materials, of various dimensions, were laid down; and more than two-thirds of them, according to our author, were worse than wasted. In such an arrangement, the water generally penetrates to the bottom of the trench made to receive the road, and remains there to do mischief upon every change of weather.

To prevent such inconveniences, it is necessary in wet soils, either to make drains, to lower ground, or to raise the road above the general level, instead of making a trench to receive the stones; and from the penetration of rain the solidity of the road itself must protect it. A well-made road, not quite four inches in thickness, was found to have kept the earth below it dry in the parish of Ashton near Bristol: but six, eight, or ten inches of materials are generally required to make a firm road, being laid on in successive layers of about two inches in thickness, all well broken, well cleaned, and well sized. Sometimes, indeed, a much greater depth of stone than this is required: in a road, for example, which was made from Lewes to East Bourn, entirely upon Mr. M'Adam's principles, as much as three feet of materials was required in many parts before the road could be sufficiently consolidated; it has however, ultimately, been made excellent, though at an expense of not much less than a thousand pounds a mile.

Mr. M'Adam maintains that the quantity of stone required for paving is fully sufficient to make an excellent gravel road in any part of the world; and in almost every case, materials equally good can be obtained for roads at a still cheaper rate; commonly, indeed, at one-tenth of the expense of pavements. It is, however, in steep ascents that pavements are most objectionable. At the north end of Blackfriars Bridge, previous to the taking up of the pavement, more horses are said to have fallen and received injury than at any other place in the kingdom; and frequent accidents of the same kind occur at present on Holborn Hill. Otherwise Mr. M'Adam's plan seems far more conducive to the comfort of quadrupeds than bipeds. In all those places where it has been tried on flat surfaces, and roads of much traffic, the mud has been found to accumulate exceedingly fast in wet weather; while in the summer season almost continual watering has been required to keep down the dust. These, it must be confessed, are minor inconveniences, and may probably be made to disappear by some further improvements.

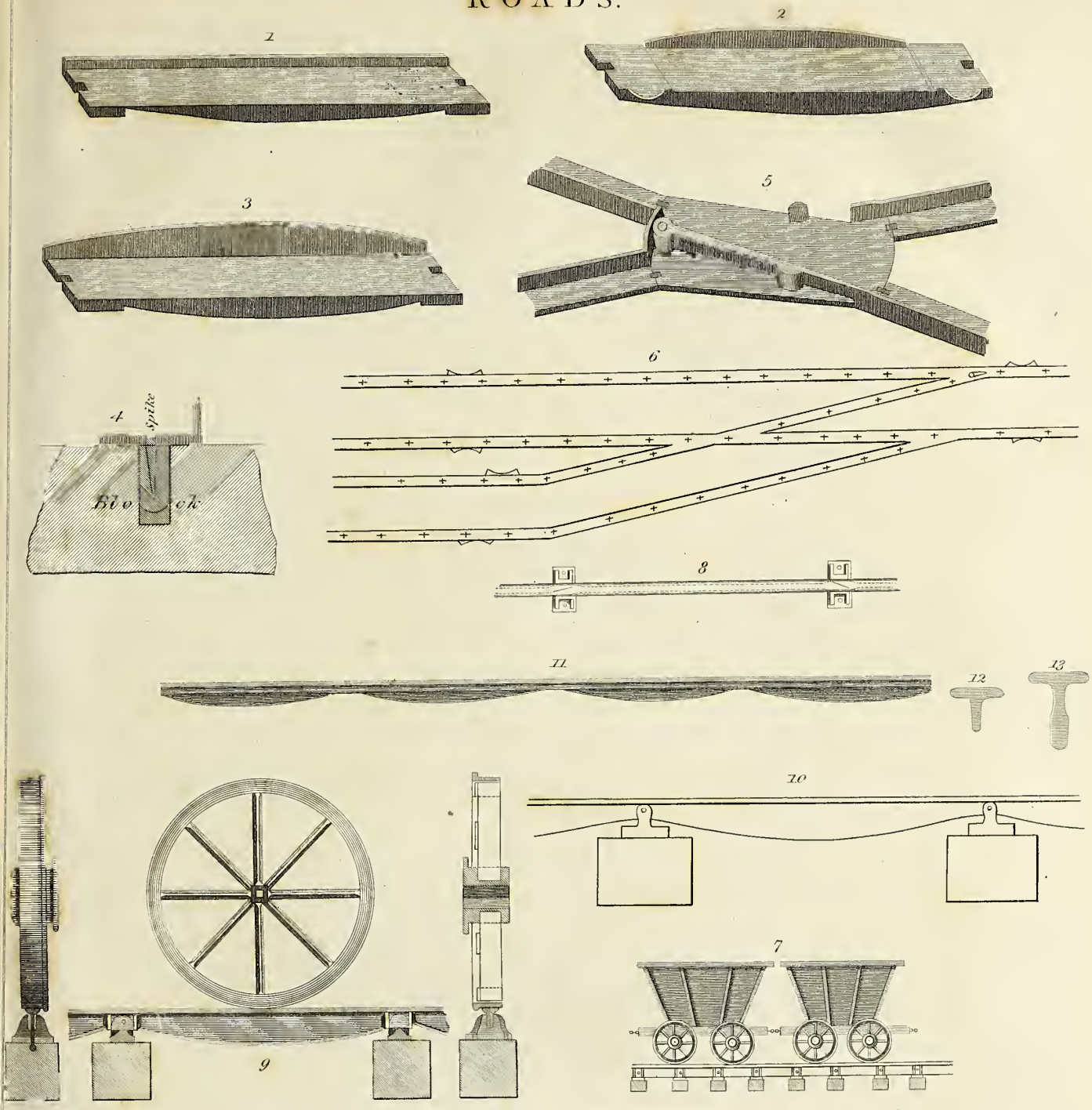
II. Of Rail-Roads.

A rail-road is a contrivance whereby the surfaces of wheels are secured from devious course, and are relieved from the friction of irregular ruts, stones, &c. It may either be formed into a perfect level, or it may have such a gentle fall as will facilitate (in one direction) the passage of loads placed upon it. From the accuracy with which its resistance may be calculated, it is very proper for steam-engines or other mechanical locomotive powers, but it is of incalculable benefit even to draught horses.

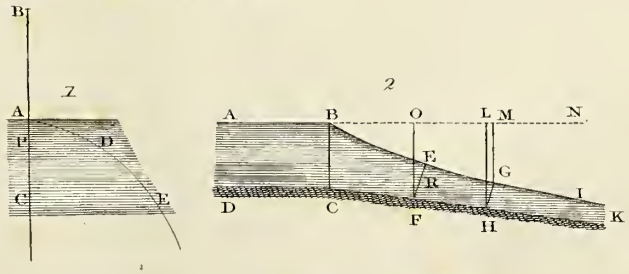
In the construction of the iron rails, two very different plans have been adopted. The first is termed the flat rail, or tram-road; the rails being lain on their side and the waggon-wheels travelling over their broad and flat surface. The second is termed the edge-rail; the rail being laid edgeways, and the wheels rolling on its upper surface. The flat rail, or tram-plate, consists of a plate of cast-iron, about three feet long, from three to five inches broad, and from half an inch to an inch thick; extending from sleeper to sleeper, and having a flaunche turn up or crest on the inside, from two and a half to four inches high. This rail bears on the sleepers at each end at least three inches, where the rails are cast about half an inch thicker than in the middle. As there is no intermediate bearing for the rail between the sleepers, except the surface of the road, the use of the flaunche is not merely to prevent the waggon from being drawn off the road; it resists the transverse strain arising from the weight of the waggon: on this account it is often, and with great propriety, raised higher in the middle than at the sides, forming an arch of a circle; and, to strengthen the rail still farther, a similar flaunche, arched inversely, is added below, as represented in the annexed Plate, figs. 1, 2, 3. The weight of each rail is from forty to fifty pounds. To unite these rails into one continued line, they are merely laid to each other, end to end, all along each side of the road; being kept in their places, and at the same time made fast to the sleepers, by an iron spike driven through the extremity of each rail into a plug of oak fitted into a hole in the centre of each sleeper. This spike is about six inches long; it has no head, but the upper end of it forms an oblong square, about one inch broad, half an inch thick; and the hole in the rails, through which it passes, is formed by a rectangular notch, half an inch square, in the middle of the extremity of each rail; the opposite notches of each rail forming, when laid together, the complete oblong square of one inch by half an inch and slightly dove-tailed from top to bottom, so as to fit exactly the tapering head of the spike, which is driven clear below the upper surface of the rail. Fig. 4, represents a section of a rail, with its sleeper and fastening. Wherever the rails cross any road, the space between them and on each side must be paved or causewayed to the level of the top of the flaunches, that the carriages on the road may be enabled to pass clear over the rails. In single railways it is necessary to have places at certain intervals where the empty waggons, in returning, may get off the road to allow the loaded ones to pass. A place of this kind is termed a turn-out; and the waggons are directed into it by a movement rail termed a pointer, fixed at the intersection between the principal rail and the turn-out, and turning on its extremity, so as to open the way into the turn-out, and shut that along the road. This contrivance is also used whenever one line of railway crosses another. It is represented at the annexed Plate, fig. 5, where, also, fig. 6 is a plan of the railway and of the turn-out.

The tram-roads have been universally adopted in Wales, where they are preferred to any other species. They are also used in most parts of England. The Surrey railway is of this description, and was designed by Mr. Jessop. In Scotland the Duke of Portland's railway, which, we believe, was planned by the same engineer, is of the same kind, and the rails nearly of the same dimensions. These flat railways have one advantage, in admitting waggons or carts of the ordinary construction, and this is particularly exemplified in the Troon railway. According to an account which has been given by Mr. Wilson, of Troon, "there are several kinds of waggons used upon the railway under certain restrictions; such as four-wheeled waggons with flat bottom and low shelmets for carrying stone, limestone, grain, timber, slates, &c. from the harbour to Kilmarnock, the mills,

ROADS.



RIVERS.



J. Pass sc.

Mechanism of rail-roads. Theory of rivers.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1826.

mills," &c. "The common make of a cart is allowed to use the railway if the wheels are cylindrical, and there be no greater load on each pair than 28 cwt. A great deal is done with these carts in carrying timber, barks, grain, &c., as, with the same cart, they can carry these articles into and through the streets of the town."

The other railways in Scotland, however, are chiefly of the edge kind. In the principal collieries of the north of England, also, the flat rail has been almost entirely superseded by the edge rails, and the latter are now generally admitted to be decidedly superior in the ease of draught which they occasion; the edge of the bar presenting less friction, and being less liable to clog up with dust and mud, or to be obstructed with stones driven off the road upon the surface of the rails. The edge rail consists merely of a rectangular bar of cast-iron, three feet long, three or four inches broad; and from one-half inch to one thick; set in its edge between sleeper and sleeper, and bearing on the sleepers at its extremities. The upper side of the rail is flaunched out to present a broader bearing surface for the wheels, and the under side is also cast thicker than the middle, for the sake of strength. But the greatest strength is evidently attained by casting the rail not rectangular, but deeper in the middle than at the ends, to resist better the transverse strain. The ends may be safely reduced nearly to one-third of the depth in the middle, and still be equally strong. To unite the rails together, and at the same time preserve them in their places, and in their upright position, and to bind them also to the sleepers, they are set in a cast-iron socket or chair, which is attached firmly to the sleeper. This socket embracing the extremities of the adjacent rails, which are here made to overlap a little; a pin is driven at once through the rails and through the socket, and binds the whole together. This is the general method of uniting the edge rails, but the shape and dimensions of the metal chair and of the overlap of the rails are varied according to the judgment and taste of the engineer. Fig. 7, represents a section of an edge railway with the sleepers and waggons, &c.; and figs. 8, 9, 10, is an enlarged section of a rail and sleepers with a plan. Since edge railways have come into more general use, an essential improvement has been made in their construction by the use of malleable iron, in place of cast-iron, in forming the rails. The advantage of malleable iron rails is, that they are less subject to breakage than cast-iron; a circumstance of importance in this case, where it is not easy to avoid those jolts and sudden shocks which cast-iron is least of all capable of withstanding, and though they should happen to give way, they are easily repaired. They can also be laid in greater lengths, and requiring therefore fewer joints, they can be bent with ease to the curvature of the road; when worn out they are of greater value; and lastly, their first cost is very little, if at all, greater than that of cast-iron rails. Malleable iron is, no doubt, less able to withstand exposure, decaying more readily under the influence of air and moisture; but hitherto this inconvenience has not been felt, and, on the whole, the malleable iron is now decidedly preferred. These rails are laid and joined in the same manner as the cast-iron, only in greater lengths. Malleable iron, we believe, was first introduced in railways by Mr. George Grieve, at Sir John Hope's collieries, near Edinburgh, where it was first tried on the lighter work which is done under ground. The rails consisted of square bars one inch or one and one-fourth inch square, nine feet long, resting on one or two sleepers in the middle, and resting and made fast to sleepers at the extremities; a simple knee being formed on each end of the bar, and the two knees of each two adjacent rails jammed into one socket in the sleeper. The use of these rails was found so beneficial, that they have since entirely superseded the flat cast-iron rail in general use at the time of their invention. For heavier loads the rails are made deeper. The following account of their construction has been given by an engineer (Mr. Neilson, of Glasgow), who has formed several of the kind.

"One of them is on the property of the Earl of Glasgow, commencing at the Hurlet extensive coal and lime-works, and extending to the Paisley canal, a distance of about two miles. It is formed of flat bar iron two and one-fourth inches deep, by nearly three-fourths of an inch thick, and the rail in lengths of nine feet, each rail being supported at every three feet by a sleeper and cast-iron chair. The joinings are formed by a cast-iron dovetailed socket suited to receive the jointed ends of the bar, and a dovetailed glut or key, by which means the several rails are joined as if into one continued bar."

An improvement has lately been made in the construction of malleable iron rails, which promises to be of essential utility. It consists in the use of bars, not rectangular, but of a wedge form, or swelled out on the upper edge. In the rectangular bar there is evidently a waste of metal on the under surface, which, not requiring to be of the same thickness as where the waggon-wheel is to roll, may be evidently reduced with advantage, if it can be done easily. The bar may then be made deeper, and broader at the top than before, so as with the same quantity of metal to be equally strong, and present a much broader bearing surface for the wheel. This has been accomplished by Mr. Birkinshaw, of the Bedlington iron-works, who has obtained a patent for these broad topped rails. The peculiar shape is given them in the rolling of the metal, by means of grooves cut in the rollers, corresponding with the requisite breadth, and depth, and curvature of the proposed rail. Mr. B. recommends his rails to be of 18 feet in length. We have seen one of these patent rails at Sir John Hope's colliery; and it certainly forms the most perfect iron rail which has hitherto been contrived; combining very simply and ingeniously in its form the qualities of lightness, strength, and durability. It is twelve feet long, two inches broad along the top, about half an inch along the bottom, and still thinner between. It rests on sleepers at every three feet, and at those places the rail is two inches deep, while in the middle point between the sleepers it is three inches deep. Fig. 11 is a longitudinal section of this rail, and figs. 12 and 13 are transverse sections at the sleepers, and at the middle point between each sleeper. All these inequalities, we believe, are produced on the metal by means of the rollers; and this circumstance is well deserving of attention, as it may obviously be applied not merely to the formation of railways, but to a variety of other purposes in the arts. The moulding and shaping of the metal in this manner is quite a new attempt in the iron manufacture, and it is not easy to say how far such an invention may yet be carried by the skill of British artists.

The waggons used on railways are of various sizes, but of nearly the same general shape, and all set on four wheels from two to three feet diameter. They are made to carry from 20 to 50 cwt. exclusive of the waggon itself, which weighs from 12 to 15 cwt. The axles of the fore and hind wheel are fixed three feet asunder or more, so that the rail is never loaded with more than one-fourth of the waggon at once. According to Mr. Wilson, "The size of the coal waggons of Kilmarnock colliery are, on an average, mean length 80 inches, mean breadth 45 inches, and depth 30 inches. Each contains 40 bushels, equal to 32 cwt. of fine coal, and 35 cwt. of blind or malting coal. The weight of the waggon, exclusive of the coal, is 13 cwt. Each waggon, including two pair of wheels and axles, costs from about £13 to £15, and are mostly lined with sheet iron." In Sir John Hope's railway the waggons are also nearly of the above dimensions. In the Sirhoway railway each waggon carries two and one-half tons.

No accurate estimate can be made of the expense of a rail-road, as compared with a canal, because both must depend on circumstances constantly varying, and which can seldom be common to either; but it may be stated in general terms, with regard to canals, that the deep cuttings and high embankments to preserve the levels, or, in default thereof, the substitution of numerous bridges and locks; the reservoirs necessary for collecting and preserving water; the repairs required for their locks and banks; the latter of which are constantly subject to injury from floods or frosts; the cost and feed of horses; the building and repairs of boats; these

hese and other incidental charges, occasion a much larger expenditure in a canal than a rail-road, mile for mile, supposing them to run to and from the same places; to say nothing of the excess of length which, in the canal, will be generally about one-third greater than the rail-road. As to the original cost, we are credibly informed, that of the estimates of *seventy-five* canals, including those of the greatest and those of the least expense, the general average is, £7,946 per mile; but as the estimated expense is generally much exceeded, we may fairly set down the real cost as £9,000 per mile. We have also a list of rail-roads (some tram-rails, others edge-rails, some of cast and others of wrought iron,) containing upwards of 500 miles, and the general average (allowing them a double set of tracks) is as near as possible £4000; but, from the imperfections of these old roads, we may extend the average to £5000 per mile. The estimate for the Liverpool and Manchester we have understood to be taken at £12,000 per mile, but that road is meant to be executed on a magnificent scale; to be sixty-six feet wide; the rails to be laid down in the best possible manner; and the purchase of land at the two extremities must be paid for at an enormous price; this estimate also includes the costs of engines, waggons, and warehouses. The Union canal, however, is stated to have cost just as much; the Forth and Clyde twice as much; the Regent's canal we know not how many times as much, and the Caledonian more than four times as much. We observe also that Mr. Jessop, after a minute survey of the proposed Peak Forest railway, patronized by the Duke of Devonshire, states its estimated cost at £149,206; and that a canal, to form the same connection as is proposed by the rail-way, was estimated in October, 1810, by the late Mr. Rennie, at £650,000, being more than four times the cost of the former.

The disadvantages of a canal are numerous. The frost at one season of the year entirely puts a stop to all conveyance of goods; and the drought at another renders it necessary to proceed with half cargoes. A rail-road is exempt from both these serious drawbacks; and even if snow blocked, nothing can be so easy as to send forward a scraper at the front of the steam-carriage to clear it as it proceeds.

The speed, by which goods can be conveyed on a rail-road, can be so regulated as to be certain and constant, while boats are frequently delayed for hours at the lockages of a canal. The speed besides is limited on canals, as we shall presently shew, but unlimited, as far as the power of steam can be made to exceed the power of friction, on rail-roads. To what extent, with safety and convenience, this advantage is capable of being carried, nothing but experience can determine. Rail-roads may be made to branch out *in every direction*, to accommodate the traffic of the country, whatever be the nature of the surface: the possibility of carrying branches from a canal *in any direction*, must depend entirely on the surface, and a supply of water.

In every case with regard to speed and the weight to be moved, the rail-road has the advantage, except when that speed is less 2.82 miles an hour, when it is in favour of the canal, but even this small advantage is lost by the circuitous windings of the one, and the direct line of the other. As this rate of going is about the greatest speed of an ordinary horse, whether drawing on a canal or a rail-way, and as the resistance of the water at that speed is less than the friction to be overcome on a rail-way, we may understand why canals have hitherto been preferred to rail-roads, so long as horse power only has been used. But on these two points of velocity, and the weight to be moved, it may be necessary to enter into a few details, in order to show the vast superiority which rail-roads have over canals.

With regard to the weight which a horse will draw on a rail-road, there are scarcely two accounts that agree, though the principal is reduced to a mathematical calculation; the difference arising from the care, or otherwise, with which the roads are constructed, the form of the rail, the size and structure of the engine and waggon-wheels, and the power of the animal. It has been stated that a horse on a rail-road, with a descent of sixty feet in a mile, will draw twenty tons at the rate of three miles an hour; and that the same horse will draw the same weight with equal speed on a canal. Mr. Telford has said that a horse will draw from twelve to fifteen tons on a railway with a slope of fifty-five feet in a mile, and return with four tons. On Sir John Hope's railway, which is about two miles, there is a descent of 1 in 80 for about 500 yards, and an ascent of 1 in 400 for 500 yards, the rest level, and a horse will drag 12 tons from end to end at the rate of two and half miles in an hour. Mr. Cumming says, that on some of the tram-roads in South Wales, where the inclined plane is about half an inch in the yard, one horse usually takes down from thirty to forty tons over and above the weight of the waggons. Mr. Wilkes, of Measham, has stated, that one horse, value 20*l.* on a railway declining 1 in 115, drew thirty-five tons, which, on a level railway would have been reduced to about six and a quarter tons. But the most extraordinary feat is that stated by Mr. Banks, and to which many persons were witnesses, of a horse which drew sixteen waggons, weighing fifty-five tons, for more that six miles along a level or very slightly inclined part of the Surrey railway. On the whole it appears that, on a well-constructed level rail-road, an ordinary horse will draw with considerable ease a load of seven or eight tons at the rate of two and a half miles an hour, or ten or twelve tons, at that of two miles an hour. This may be considered as the greatest draft on a railway, while the same horse will draw on a canal, at the same speed, about three times the weight. But this advantage is counterbalanced by the greater original cost of the canal than that of the rail-road, and by its greater length.

The application of steam or other mechanical powers to draught-carriages, shews, in a much stronger light, the superior advantages of the rail-road. For while, on canals, the resistance opposed by friction increases in excessive proportion to the velocity of motion, in a rail-road this effect is scarcely perceptible, as may be seen by the following table, drawn up by Mr. Silvester.

Table of the relative advantages of common Turnpike Roads, Rail-roads, and Canals.

	WEIGHTS TO BE MOVED.		
Velocity.	On a Turnpike Road.	On a Rail-road.	On a Canal.
	lbs.	*lbs.*	*lbs.*
2	3024	22,400	44,800
3	——	same.	19,911
4	——	——	11,200
5	——	——	7,168
6	——	——	4,978
7	——	——	3,657
8	——	——	2,800
9	——	——	2,212
10	——	——	1,792

In the article MECHANICS, p. 790, may be seen an account of the application of steam to rail-road carriages, and a plate illustrative of the same.

As to the invention of rail-roads, this seems, though recently much improved, an ancient practice, having been used in the Newcastle coal-mines so early as the year 1680. Slips of ground of the requisite breadth for the railway were marked out between the coal-pits and the river, and were either leased by the coal owners, or purchased of the different proprietors whose ground the proposed line of road intersected in its course. To obtain the most easy and regular descent, this line was varied in its direction to meet the inequalities of the ground; or, where these inequalities were inconsiderable, it was carried straight forward, and the regular slope made up by embankments and cutting. The ground being then smoothed and levelled as for an ordinary road, large logs of wood, or sleepers, cut in lengths equal to the breadth of the road, were laid across it, and firmly imbedded

imbedded into it at short distances, to sustain and hold fast the rails, or slips of wood, on which the waggon-wheels were intended to run. These rails were made of beech, and were laid end to end, so as to form two continued lines of rails or wooden ridges, running parallel to each other, along each side of the road, crossing the large logs at each of their extremities, on which they rested as on so many foundations; and were also nailed, or otherwise secured, to keep each piece in its proper place. The waggons were of the usual construction, but of a large size, so as to contain several tons of coals, and set upon low wheels; the smoothness of the way rendering wheels of the ordinary size unnecessary. On these rails a single horse could readily draw three tons of coals from the pits to the river. Where any steep declivity occurred on the road, this was termed a run, or an inclined plane; and on it the descent of the waggons was retarded, and regulated by a species of brake, or crooked lever, termed a convoy, attached to the waggon and managed by the driver.

In this construction of the original railways, we evidently perceive all the parts and members of the railway as it is formed at the present day; viz. the regular formed road, the rails; the sleepers, the low waggons and the inclined plane. Their only defect consisted in the soft and decaying nature of the wood, the wear and tear which caused such expense for repairs, as greatly limited their application; so that it was only the shortness of the distance, and the great extent of the traffic, which rendered their application at all beneficial. It was only about the year 1738 that they were attempted in the collieries of Whitehaven; and it does not appear that they were adopted in any other part of the kingdom. The use of iron, therefore, in place of wood, was an essential improvement in the construction of railways, and caused, indeed, a complete change in this, as it has done in every other branch of practical mechanics into which it has been introduced. Flat bars of iron were at first fastened on the top of the wooden rails: but after various unsuccessful attempts, the rails themselves were at last wholly composed of iron, cast in short bars, united at their extremities, and resting on sleepers, or square blocks of stone, disposed at short distances along each side of the road; and this construction having been once fairly reduced to practice, was not only adopted universally in place of wood, but soon led to the new and more extensive applications.

The railways in Britain are so numerous, that it would exceed our limits to specify the particular lines. In the Newcastle coal district, on the river Wear, in the coal and mining districts of Yorkshire and Lancashire, as well as of Derbyshire and Staffordshire, there are numerous railways branching off from the navigable rivers and canals to the different mines. In Shropshire also, and in the great mining districts along the vale of the Severn, the use of railways is very general, and it was here that the inclined plane was first brought in aid of inland navigation. In Surrey there is a railway of a considerable extent, termed the Surrey railway, and this presents one of the few attempts that have been made to form public railways for general use. In the great mining districts on the west of the Severn, including South Wales, the rail or tram-roads are very numerous; and here, owing to the steepness and impracticable nature of the ground, they have been of essential utility in supplying the place of canals. In the year 1791, there was scarcely a single railway in all South Wales, and in 1811, the completed rail-roads connected with canals, collieries, iron, and copper-works in the counties of Monmouth, Glamorgan, and Caermarthen, amounted to nearly 150 miles in length, exclusive of a great extent within the mines themselves; of which one company in Merthyr-Tydvil possessed 30 miles under ground. In Monmouthshire, the Sirhoway railway forms one of the first in point of magnitude which has hitherto been constructed. It extends from Pilgwilly, near Newport, to the Sirhoway and Tredagar iron works, distant 23 miles, whence it is continued five miles farther to the Trevil lime works, in Brecknockshire, along with a branch to the west, to the Rumney and union iron-works. This railway was made by the Monmouthshire Canal Company, under the authority of an act of Parliament. From Sirhoway, a branch proceeds eastwards to the Ebbwy works, and from thence down the course of the Ebbwy to Crumlin Bridge, whence it joins the canal from Newport; and from Sirhoway again, the Brinare railway is continued over the Black Mountain to the vale of the Uske at Brecon, and from thence to Hay on the river Wye. In Glamorganshire, the principal railways are the Cardiff and Merthyr-Tydvil, the Aberdare, and the Swansea railways. In Caermarthenshire the principal railway is that which extends from Caermarthen to the lime-works near Llandebie, a distance of 15 miles.

In Scotland there are various railways proceeding from the different mines throughout the kingdom. The principal one in point of magnitude is the duke of Portland's railway, extending from the town of Kilmarnock to the harbour of Troon, a distance of nearly ten miles. Its chief object is the export of coal and lime, in which articles a great trade is carried on by means of the railway. In the coal and mining districts round Glasgow, there are numerous smaller railways, and also in the coal fields of Mid Lothian and Fife. Plans have been proposed for a public railway from Edinburgh to the different coal-works in the neighbourhood. An extensive railway was also at one time projected from Glasgow to Berwick-upon-Tweed; but none of these seem to offer such brilliant advantages as that projected to be carried from Liverpool to Manchester. We copy from the Quarterly Review (No. 62.) a short account of its plan, with some appropriate observations on its utility.

"The distance between Liverpool and Manchester, by the Mersey and Irwell canals, exceeds 50 miles; which cannot be performed in one day, and, as we have seen, requires sometimes many days. By a rail-road the distance is reduced to 33 miles, which would always be performed, whether by horses or engines, within the day; by the latter, the same engine would go and return with ease the same day, and be subject neither to delay nor risk of damage, nor total loss by adverse winds and storms, which on the passage of 18 miles in the tide-way of the Mersey, frequently occur; nor would frost or drought interrupt the conveyance. Instead of 15*s.* per ton, the conveyance on the rail-road will only cost 10*s.* and probably less. By the establishment of a railway the inhabitants of Liverpool, and those parts adjacent to the line of the road, will be enabled to buy their coals several shillings per ton below the price which they now pay. By opening the collieries to the sea, Liverpool will become one of the greatest shipping ports for coal in the kingdom. A rail-road will facilitate the conveyance of this indispensable article, together with the agricultural produce, the iron, lime-stone, &c. throughout the whole manufacturing districts of Lancashire, a concentrated *bee-hive* containing a condensed population of at least 500,000 souls, of which Manchester may be considered the centre. Nor are the advantages of a railway merely of a local nature. By means of it and steam-boats, the passage from Manchester to Dublin will be reduced to 18 or 20 hours; the transit of goods between the two places is considerable, and rapidly increasing; and by this rail-road the rate at which the corn, the flax, the linen, and the butter of Ireland can be distributed in Lancashire and Yorkshire, will be considerably reduced. Among the plans for bettering the condition of Ireland, the Liverpool rail-road must be considered to take a prominent station, and the people of Ireland feel that it will do so. They feel that, whatever shortens the *time* of conveyance practically diminishes the *distance*, and whatever is saved in the cost of carriage is a gain to Ireland."

ROADE, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; $5\frac{1}{2}$ miles south of Northampton.

ROADE, a township of England, in Somersetshire; 4 miles north-east-by-east of Frome. Population 957.

ROADGATE, a village of England, West Riding of Yorkshire, near Helensford.

ROA'DSTEAD, *s.* A place fit for ships to anchor in.—Three large ships of war and a lugger had anchored in a small *roadstead* upon the coast. *London Gaz.*

ROADSTER, *s.* A horse used for travelling. (Provincial).

ROA'DWAY, *s.* Course of the public road; highway. —Never a man's thought in the world keeps the *roadway* better than thine. *Shakspeare.*

To ROAM, *v. n.* [*romigare*, Ital. *Raumen*, Germ. ꝓuman, Sax.

"Though we slepe or wake, or *rome* or ride,
Ay flyeth the time, it wol no man abide." *Chaucer.*]

To wander without any certain purpose; to ramble; to rove; to play the vagrant.

Five summers have I spent in farthest Greece,
Roaming clean through the bounds of Asia. *Shakspeare.*

What were unenlighten'd man,
A savage *roaming* through the woods and wilds,
In quest of prey? *Thomson.*

To ROAM, *v. a.* To range; to wander over.

Now fowls in their clay nests were couch'd,
And now wild beasts came forth the woods to *roam.*
Milton.

ROAM, or ROA'MING, *s.* Act of wandering.

The boundless space, through which these rovers take
Their restless *roam*, suggest the sister-thought
Of endless time. *Young.*

ROA'MER, *s.* A rover; a rambler; a wanderer; a vagrant.—And now is religion a rider, a *romer* by the street. *Vis. of P. Plowman.*

ROAN, *adj.* [*rouen*, Fr.] A *roan* horse is a horse of a bay, sorrel, or black colour, with grey or white spots, interspersed very thick. *Farrier's Dict.*—What horse? a *roan*, a crop-ear, is it not? *Shakspeare.*

ROAN, a small island in the Eastern seas. Lat. 2. 19. N. long. 125. 3. E.

ROAN, a small lake of Scotland, in the stewartry of Kirkcudbright.

ROAN'S CREEK, a post village of the United States, in Carter county, Tennessee.

ROANCARRICK ROCKS, rocks in Bantry bay, on the south coast of Ireland; 3 miles north-east of Bear island.

ROANNE, a considerable town of France, situated on the left bank of the Loire, where that river is only 40 miles north-west of Lyons. In the beginning of the 18th century, this place was a mere village; and it owes its increase to its situation on a navigable river, and to its having consequently become an entrepot for goods sent from the east and south-east of France, to Orleans, Nantes, Paris, &c. Though it has now 7000 inhabitants, it has still, when viewed from a distance, the appearance of a large village. It has no regular limits; its streets stretch out in various directions into the open country, and the most remote houses are intermixed with trees. The interior, however, has more the appearance of a town. It has tolerably straight streets, good houses, and public baths. It has likewise some manufactures of linen, cotton, small iron wares, &c; 30 miles north of Mont Brison. Lat. 46. 2. N. long. 4. 4. E.

ROANOKE, an island in the Atlantic, near the coast of North Carolina, at the entrance into Albemarle sound, with a town of the same name. Lat. 35. 50. N. long. 76. W.

ROANOKE, LITTLE, a river of the United States, in Virginia, which runs into the Staunton. Lat. 36. 46. N. long. 78. 55. W.

ROANOKE INLET, a channel of the United States, on the coast of North Carolina, which leads into Albemarle sound. Lat. 35. 50. N. long. 75. 35. W.

ROANOKE RIVER, a river of the United States, in North Carolina, which is formed by the union of the Staunton and the Dan, the former of which rises in Virginia, and the latter in North Carolina, and flows into Albemarle sound. Lat. 35. 58. N. long. 76. 56. W. It is navigable for vessels of considerable burden 30 or 40 miles, and for boats of 30 or 40 tons to the falls, 70 miles, and for boats of 5 tons for the distance of 200 miles above the falls. The country watered by this river is extremely fertile. Below the falls towards the mouth, vast quantities of Indian corn are raised; and the planters are among the wealthiest in the state. Exertions are now making to improve the navigation of this river, by constructing canals around the falls, and opening a water communication between Norfolk, Virginia, and the interior of North Carolina, and the southern part of Virginia.

To ROAR, *v. n.* [ꝓapan, Sax. *recren*, Teut. *ruir*, old French. The Scottish form of this word is *rare*, or *rair*.] To cry as a lion or other wild beast.

Warwick and Montague,
That in their chains fetter'd the kingly lion,
And made the forest tremble when they *roar'd.* *Shakspeare.*

To cry in distress.

At his nurse's tears
He whin'd and *roar'd* away your victory,
That pages blush'd at him. *Shakspeare.*

Sole on the barren sands the suff'ring chief
Roar'd out for anguish, and indulg'd his grief. *Dryden.*

To sound at the wind or sea.

South, East, and West, with mixt confusion *roar*,
And rowl the foaming billows to the shore. *Dryden.*

Loud as the wolves on Orcas' stormy steep,
Howl to the *roaring* of the northern deep. *Pope.*

To make a loud noise.—The brazen throat of war had ceas'd to *roar.* *Milton.*

ROAR, *s.* The cry of the lion or other beast.

The wonted *roar* is up,
And hiss continual through the tedious night. *Thomson.*

An outcry of distress. A clamour of merriment.—Where be your gibes now? your gambols? your songs? your flashes of merriment, that were wont to set the table in a *roar?* *Shakspeare.*—The sound of the wind or sea.

The *roar*
Of loud Euroclydon. *Philips.*

Any loud noise.

Oft on a plat of rising ground,
I hear the far off curfew sound,
Over some wide-water'd shore,
Swinging slow with sullen *roar.* *Milton.*

The waters, listening to the trumpet's *roar*,
Obey the summons, and forsake the shore. *Dryden.*

ROA'RER, *s.* A noisy brutal man.—Hear this ye godless and swaggering *roarers*, that dare say with Pharaoh, Who is the Lord? You that now bid defiance to fear, shall in spite of you learn the way to fear. *Bp. Hall.*—One who bawls.—The *roarer* has no other qualification for a champion of controversy, than a harden'd front and strong voice. Having seldom so much desire to confute as to silence, he depends rather upon vociferation than argument. *Dr. Johnson.*

ROA'RING, *s.* Cry of the lion or other beast.—The king's wrath is as the *roaring* of a lion. *Prov.*—Outcry of distress.—My sighing cometh before I eat, and my *roarings* are poured out like water. *Job*, iii. 24.—Sound of the wind or sea.—They shall roar against them like the *roaring* of the sea. *Isaiah.*

ROARING RIVER, a river of the United States, in Tennessee, which runs into the Cumberland below Obeds.

ROARING RIVER, a river of the United States, in the North-western Territory, so called from a rumbling noise which it makes during the warm season, and which is occasioned, it is thought, by the vast quantities of copper found near it, which attract the electric fluid to this place.

ROARING WATER, a river of Ireland, which runs into Roaring Water bay; 5 miles west-south-west of Skibbereen.

ROARING WATER BAY, a bay on the south coast of Ireland,

Ireland, with a number of small islands; 6 miles south-west of Skibbereen. Lat. 51. 28. N. long. 9. 22. W.

ROA'RY, *adj.* [*rores*, Lat.] Dewy.

On Lebanon his foot he set,
And shook his wings with *roary* May dews wet. *Fairfax.*

To ROAST, *v. a.* [*rostir*, *rôtir*, Fr. *rosten*, Germ. ȝeporcoð, Sax. roasted.] To dress meat, by turning it round before the fire.—*Roasting* and boiling are below the dignity of your office. *Swift.*—To impart dry heat to flesh.

Here elements have lost their uses,
Air ripens not, nor earth produces;
Fire will not *roast*, nor water boil. *Swift.*

To dress at the fire without water.—In eggs boiled and *roasted*, there is scarce difference to be discerned. *Bacon.* —To heat any thing violently.

Roasted in wrath and fire,
He thus o'ersized with coagulate gore,
Old Priam seeks. *Shakspeare.*

In common conversation, to jeer or banter. *Scott.* —ROAST, for *roasted.*

And if Dan Congreve judges right,
Roast beef and ale make Britons fight. *Prior.*

ROAST, *s.* That which is roasted.—He drave him thence, as Tobias drove away the spirit Asmodeus; for that was done with a *roste*, and this with a spit. *Sir J. Harrington.* —In common conversation, banter.

To rule the ROAST. To govern; to manage; to preside.

Where champions *ruleth the rost*,
Their daily disorder is most. *Tusser.*

ROA'STER, *s.* One who roasts meat. *Sherwood.*—A gridiron. *Ainsworth.*

ROASTING. The most ancient method of roasting, which is still the general practice, is by turning the meat before the fire; and it is still supposed, without any good reason, that meat cannot have its proper flavour when roasted in any other way. It is true that *roasters* or *ovens* of the common construction are apt to give the meat a disagreeable flavour, arising from the empyreumatic oil which is formed by the decomposition of the fat, exposed to the bottom of the oven. This evil has been completely remedied in two ways; first, by providing against the evil of allowing the fat to burn; and secondly, by carrying off by a strong current of heated air the empyreumatic vapours.

The roaster used in the Derby Infirmary, and in many private houses in the neighbourhood, is not on any account objectionable, but it is particularly valuable in an economical point of view. This is principally effected by casting the heat entirely upon the object of roasting, instead of sending three-fourths of the heat up a capacious chimney, and expending the greatest part of the remainder upon the cook, and the walls and furniture of the kitchen.

The roaster above alluded to is made of sheet iron, of the strength of about one pound to the square foot; its form is that of a parallelepipedon, about twenty-five inches high, twenty-two long, and eighteen in breadth. The fire is put under it; but one course of bricks is placed immediately over the fire, and above this a cavity of five inches deep between the brick roof and the oven bottom. The flame of the fire passes a little to the right and left, and rises perpendicularly up the sides of the roaster, freely communicating with the top of the same. By this means the flame and hot vapour will be the hottest at the top of the oven, because of its greater levity, and its not being allowed to escape at this point, according to the common practice. After the hot vapour has bestowed its heat on the superior part, it now descends and enters on each side the cavity under the oven, from whence it passes up the back of the same, which back forms one side of the smoke chimney. This arrangement is sufficient for distributing all the disposable heat equally on every side of the roaster. We shall next point out the contrivance for disposing of the smell above alluded to. The door of the oven is cased with wood, a piece of thick paper, steeped in a solution of alum, and smeared with clay, being placed between the wood and the iron, to prevent the wood from being charred. The door extends below the bottom of the oven about three inches. This, when the door is open, exposes a plate three inches deep, and the width of the oven, and which constitutes the front of the cavity under the oven. At one side of this plate is a hole at the entrance of the tube, which extends to the other end of the cavity, where it is bent, and returns on the other side of the cavity, and opens into another cavity formed by a double plate, which constitutes the iron part of the door. The first entrance of this tube corresponds with an opening at the bottom of the door, so that when the door is shut, cold air can enter the tube. In its passage it becomes heated, and then enters the oven at the top, from the cavity in the door. It now passes over the meat, and escapes through a tube in the back plate, which extends so high as to reach above the smoke damper. By this means the roaster is constantly cleared of any disagreeable vapour, by a force equal to the draft of the chimney.

ROASTING, in Metallurgy, is a process by which the volatile parts of metals and minerals are separated by the application of heat. The minerals are generally mixed with the fuel, and fired in heaps exposed to the open air. When the volatile substance is driven off with difficulty, the reverberatory furnace is sometimes employed.

This process is frequently, though improperly, called *calcining*, since the latter is confined to the oxydation of metals. In expelling the volatile parts from lime-stone and gypsum, the process is termed *burning*, and in the latter sometimes *boiling*. The term roasting is principally confined to iron, and other ores abounding with sulphur and arsenic.

ROATUN. See RUATAN.

ROATH, a parish of Wales, in Glamorganshire, in the vicinity of Cardiff.

ROB, *s.* [Arabic.] Inspissated juices usually boiled up to the consistence of honey.—The infusion, being evaporated to a thicker consistence, passeth into a jelly, *rob*, extract, which contain all the virtues of the infusion. *Arbuthnot.*

There are robs made of quinces, sloes, cherries, mulberries, elderberries, barberries, gooseberries, and other fruits, for various diseases. The juice of grapes thus prepared, is more particularly called rob, or *sapa simplex;* this is almost of the consistence of honey.

The rob is a form now quite out of use in medicine, but it is possible that great improvements might be made, by introducing the use of it among the malt-distillers. The great inconvenience attending that art being, that the malt having a large bulk, in proportion to its saccharine part, and requiring a larger proportion of water to extract that saccharine part, many large vessels, such as mash-tubs, coolers, fermenting backs, &c. are necessary; and the necessary labour on the subject is increased, and the commodity rendered dearer. The remedy of this should seem the introducing a new art subservient to that of the malt-distiller, and confining itself to the boiling down of malt-wort to a rob, so as to supply the malt-stiller with his subject, in the same manner as the fine-stillers are supplied with treacle from the sugar-baker. By this means the business of the malt-stiller would be reduced to a great degree of simplicity, and the spirit produced would be also much finer than at present, because the subject would come tolerably refined to his hands, and purged of its gross, mealy, and husky matter, which yields a disagreeable oil in distillation, and is also apt to burn to the still, and spoil the spirit. It is possible, that a spirit purer and finer than that from treacle might this way be procured from malt, prudently managed.

To ROB, *v. a.* [*rober*, old Fr. *robbare*, Ital. and may be derived even from the Persian.]—To deprive of any thing by unlawful force; to plunder.

It's

Is't not enough to break into my garden,
And, like a thief, to come to *rob* my grounds,
But thou wilt brave me with these sawcy terms.
Shakspeare.

The water-nymphs lament their empty urns,
Bœotia, *rob'd* of silver Dirce, mourns. *Addison.*

To set free; to deprive of something bad. (Ironical.)

Our house is hell, and thou, a merry devil,
Did'st *rob* it of some taste of tediousness. *Shakspeare.*

To take away unlawfully.

Nor will I take from any man his due;
But thus assuming all, he *robs* from you. *Dryden.*

Oh double sacrilege on things divine,
To *rob* the relick, and deface the shrine! *Dryden.*

ROBALI, a village of Abyssinia; 75 miles south of Mine.

ROBARES, rocks near the south coast of Ireland; 3 miles south-east of Galley Head. Lat. 51. 31. N. long. 8. 50. W.

ROBBEN ISLAND, or SEAL ISLAND, a barren island on the coast of Africa, near the Cape of Good Hope, at the entrance into False bay, about 6 miles in circumference. It serves as a place of exile for criminals sent from the Cape or the Indies, who are compelled to labour, and are guarded by 24 soldiers, under the command of a serjeant. No woman is allowed to live on the island. Lat. 33. 40. S. long. 18. 20. E.

RO'BBER, *s.* One that plunders by force, or steals by secret means; a plunderer; a thief.

These hairs, which thou dost ravish from my chin,
Will quicken and accuse thee; I'm your host;
With *robbers* hands my hospitable favour
You should not ruffle thus. *Shakspeare.*

Thou,—like a *robber*, stripp'dst them of their robes. *Milton.*

RO'BBERY, *s.* [*roberie*, old Fr.] Theft perpetrated by force or with privacy.

Thieves for their *robbery* have authority,
When judges steal themselves. *Shakspeare.*

ROBBERY, is defined in Law, a felonious and forcible taking away another man's goods or money, from his person, presence, or estate, by putting him in fear, &c. 1 Hawk. P. C. 95.

A mere attempt to rob was held to be felony, so late as Henry the Fourth's time (1 Hal. P. C. 532.); and afterwards it was only a misdemeanor, and punishable with fine and imprisonment, till the stat. 7 Geo. II. cap. 21. which makes it a felony, transportable for seven years, unlawfully and maliciously to assault another, with any offensive weapon or instrument, or by menaces, or by other forcible or violent manner, to demand any money or goods, with a felonious intent to rob. If the thief, having once taken a purse, returns it, still it is a robbery. The previous putting in fear is the criterion that distinguishes robbery from other larcenies; and yet this putting in fear does not imply any great degree of terror or affright in the party robbed; it is sufficient that so much force, or threatening by word or gesture, be used, as might create an apprehension of danger, or oblige a man to part with his property without or against his consent. (Fost. 128.) Thus, if a man be knocked down without previous warning, and stripped of his property while senseless, though strictly he cannot be said to be *put in fear*, yet this is undoubtedly a robbery; or, if a person with a sword drawn beg an alms, and I give it him through mistrust and apprehension of violence, this is a felonious robbery. 1 Hawk. P. C. 96.

This is sometimes also called *violent theft*, and its punishment, be the value of the thing taken ever so small, is death.

This species of larceny is debarred of the benefit of clergy by 23 Hen. VIII. cap. 1. and other subsequent statutes; not indeed in general, but only when committed in or near the king's highway. A robbery, therefore, in a distant field or foot-path, was not punished with death (1 Hal. P. C. 535), but was open to the benefit of clergy, till the stat. 3 & 4 W. & M. cap. 9. which takes away clergy from robbery wheresoever committed.

RO'BBINS, *s.* [*raaband*, a rope-band.] Small ropes which fasten sails to the yards. Linen which women wear round the wrist.

ROBBINSTON, a township of the United States, in Washington county, Maine; 490 miles north-east of Boston. Population 365.

ROBBSTOWN, a township of the United States, in Westmoreland county, Pennsylvania.

ROBE, a river of Ireland, which runs into Lough Corrib; 12 miles west of Ballinrobe.

ROBE, *s.* [*roobe*, Fr. *robba*, Ital. *rauba*, low Lat.] A gown of state; a dress of dignity.

The last good king, whom willing Rome obey'd,
Was the poor offspring of a captive maid;
Yet he those *robes* of empire justly bore,
Which Romulus, our sacred founder, wore. *Dryden.*

To ROBE, *v. a.* To dress pompously; to invest.

There in long robes the royal magi stand;
The sage Chaldæans *rob'd* in white appear'd,
And Brachmans. *Pope.*

Robed in loose array she came to bathe. *Thomson.*

ROBECQ, a village of France, department of the Pas de Calais, near the small river Clemance. Population 2300; 4 miles south-west of St. Vincent.

ROBEL, a town of Germany, in the grand duchy of Mecklenburg-Strelitz, on the lake of Muritz, Population 1800; 20 miles west of Strelitz, and 28 west-south-west of New Brandenburg.

ROBEN, a market town in the north-west of Hungary, in the palatinate of Neutra, inhabited by the descendants of Germans.

RO'BERDSMAN, or RO'BERTSMAN, *s.* In the old statutes, a sort of bold and stout robbers, or night thieves, said to be so called from Robinhood, the famous robber, but more probably, a corruption of *Robber's-man.*

ROBERGIA (so named in honour of Roberg, Professor of Medicine at Upsal), in botany, a genus of the class decandria, order pentagynia, natural order of terebintaceæ, *(Juss.)* Generic Character.—Calyx: perianth one-leafed, five-parted, permanent; segments roundish, concave. Corolla: petals five, roundish, the length of the calyx. Stamina: filaments ten, inserted into the receptacle, the length of the corolla. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germ roundish, villose, superior. Styles five, capillary. Stigmas thickish, grooved. Pericarp: drupe ovate, more convex on one side, very slightly hollowed on the other. Seed: nut the form of the drupe, one-celled, with a two-valved shell. *Essential Character.*—Calyx five-parted. Petals five. Drupe with a one-seeded nut, and a two-valved shell.

Robergia frutescens.—This is a shrub five feet in height. Leaves alternate, unequally pinnate, four-paired; leaflets petioled, oblong, acuminate, quite entire, veined, smooth above, tomentose underneath; the lower leaflets are smaller. Flowers white. Panicle, corymbed axillary and terminating, much shorter than the leaf.—Native of the woods of Guaina, flowering and fruiting in the month of August. The flowers have a smell sweeter than that of the lilac.

ROBERINDALE, a village of England, in Lancashire; 8½ miles east-north-east of Lancaster.

RO'BERT, *s.* An herb; stork-bill; geranium.

ROBERT THE SHORT, see GERMANY.—ROBERT CAPET, see FRANCE.—ROBERT BRUCE, see SCOTLAND.—ROBERT OF NAPLES, see NAPLES.

ROBERT (Claude), a French ecclesiastic and chronologist of some celebrity, was born at Cheslay, a village between Bar-sur-Seine and Tonnerre, on the borders of Burgundy, in the year 1564. From some seminary in the province just mentioned

mentioned, he went to pursue his academical studies at Paris, where he obtained an exhibition in the college of Cambray. As soon as he had been admitted to the degree of licentiate in canon law, he accompanied a pupil (A. Fremiot,) into Burgundy, where, in 1590, he was presented to a canonry of the Chapel-au-Riche at Dijon. Afterwards he travelled with his pupil through France, Flanders, Germany, and Italy. At Rome he was introduced to persons of the greatest distinction, and received several marks of esteem from the cardinals Bellarmine and Baronius. It was in this city that he first conceived the plan of his "Gallia Christiana." Another of his pupils being nominated bishop of Chalons-sur-Saone, conferred a canonry of his cathedral upon his preceptor, and made him his archdeacon and grand vicar. This bishop was desirous of expressing his regard for our author, by collating him to other benefices; but M. Robert constantly refused any additional preferment. He discharged the duties of his appointments with the strictest fidelity, and died in the episcopal palace at Chalons in 1637, when about 73 years of age. The most considerable of his productions is entitled "Gallia Christiana," &c. published at Paris in 1626, in folio, with an appendix, preface, and chronological tables of the popes and anti-popes, the Eastern and Western emperors, the kings of France and England, the councils of France, the indictions, &c. He left behind him materials for a second edition of this work, which were made use of by M. St. Marthe, whose new collections increased the work to three volumes folio. It was afterwards extended by the Benedictines to twelve volumes folio.

ROBERT DE VAUGONDY, (N.,) an excellent French geographer in the eighteenth century, was born at Paris in the year 1688. He was a diligent student in history as well as geography, and greatly improved the latter science by his knowledge of the former, as is sufficiently demonstrated by his various productions. He was made geographer in ordinary to the king, and died at Paris in 1766, at the age of seventy-eight. He had a son, who was for some time the assiduous companion of his labours, and who deservedly proved the heir both of his appointment and of his reputation. Our author's works consist of "An Introduction to Sanson's Geography," 1743, 8vo.; "An Abridgment of different Systems of the World," 1745, 16mo.; "Sacred Geography," 1746, in 2 vols. 12mo.; "The Use of the Globes," 1752, 12mo.; "A portable Atlas," in 4to.; and that grand performance, entitled, "Atlas Universel," published in 1756, consisting of an hundred and eight maps, upon a very large scale, engraved with the greatest neatness, as well as accuracy. From the title it appears, that his son was jointly concerned with our author in producing this work, to which is prefixed an historical preface, in six chapters, treating of the origin, progress, and present state of geography. *Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

ROBERT DE BRIENNE, harper to Edward I. previous to his ascending the throne. According to the chronicle of Walter Heming, Edward I., about the year 1271, a short time before he ascended the throne, took his harper with him to the Holy Land; who being a close and constant attendant on his master, when Edward was wounded with a poisoned knife at Ptolemais, rushed into the royal apartment, and killed the assassin.

ROBERT BAY, a bay on the east coast of Newfoundland.

ROBERT BAY, a bay in the island of Martinique. It is nearly two leagues deep, and is formed by two points, called that of the east part of La Rosa, and that of the west of Los Galeones. At the mouth or entrance it has two small islands, the one opposite the other, and against which the heavy seas break, thereby rendering the bay secure for vessels. Indeed it is one of the best known, capable of containing a numerous fleet, and with such convenience, that, however large the ships, they can lie close to the land, and may be unladen by a plank.

ROBERT'S ISLAND, a small island in the Florida stream. Lat. 24. 42. N. long. 81. 33. W.

ROBERT'S ISLES, two large islands in the Pacific ocean, with several smaller islets in their neighbourhood, discovered by lieutenant Hergest in 1792. The shores of the largest are rocky, without any cove or landing-places; and though its surface is green, it produces no trees; nor does it seem to be otherwise inhabited than by the tropical oceanic birds, of which it seems a general resort. The north-west side of the island has a more favourable aspect; and although its shores are rocky, a number of trees are produced, as well on the sides of the hills as on the vallies. There are also some coves and bays, which afford good anchorage and shelter. Lat. 7. 53. S. long. 219. 47. E.

ROBERTI (John), a noted professor of divinity among the Jesuits in the seventeenth century, was a native of St. Huberts in the Ardennes, where he was born in the year 1569. He commenced his academical studies at Liege, and continued them at Cologne, where, in the twenty-third year of his age, he entered into the society of Jesus. His proficiency in the various branches of learning is highly commended, particularly in the belles-lettres, divinity, and ecclesiastical history. Being appointed by his superiors professor of divinity, he was created doctor in that faculty at Mentz, and discharged the duties of his post with great reputation during a long succession of years, in that city, at Doway, at Treves, and at Wurtzbourg. He died at Namur in 1651, in the eighty-second year of his age. He was the author of a work which reflects honour on the attention paid by him to the study of scriptural learning and criticism, entitled, "Mysticæ Ezekielis Quadrigæ, hoc est, Evangelia Historiarum et Temporum Serie vinculata, Gr. et Lat.," 1615, folio; "Nathanael Bartholemæus," 1619, 4to., in which his learning is employed on an attempt to prove, that Nathanael and Bartholomew were only different names of the same apostle; "Historia S. Huberti, ultimi Tungrorum et primi Leodiensium Episcopi, cum notis, Paralipomenis, et Quæstionibus Hubertinis," 1621, 4to., which is a very curious work, and comprizes discussions of various interesting topics in ecclesiastical antiquities; "Vita S. Lamberti Tungrensis Episc. et Martyris," 1633, 8vo.; "Tractatus de magnetica Vulnerum Curatione," 1616, 12mo., which explodes the pretensions of Goclenius to cure all diseases by means of the loadstone; several controversial pieces against the protestants; and other pieces, of which a list may be seen in *Sotvelli Bibl. Script. Soc. Jes. Valerii Andreæ Bibl. Belg. Moreri.*

RO'BERTINE, *s.* One of a particular order of monks. —One Robert Flower got institution and confirmation of an order about the yeare 1137, which after his owne name he called *Robertins. Weever.*

ROBERTON, a parish of Scotland, in the counties of Roxburgh and Selkirk, situated at the western extremities of those shires. It is 13 miles in length, and 6 in breadth. Population 647.

ROBERTOUN, a parish of Scotland, in Lanarkshire, united to Wistoun in 1792.

ROBERTOUN, a village of Scotland, in the above parish, on the west bank of the Clyde, containing 160 inhabitants.

ROBERTSON (William), a learned divine, was born at Dublin in 1705, and received his grammar-learning under Dr. Francis Hutchenson, afterwards the celebrated professor of moral philosophy in the university of Glasgow. In the year 1722, young Robertson removed to that university, where he continued till the year 1725, when he was admitted to the degree of M. A. During this year there was a dispute between Mr. Sterling, the principal of the university, and the students, about the right of choosing the rector, in which Mr. Robertson took an active part, being selected by his fellow students to read their protest against the person, and his authority, who had been chosen rector in opposition to their wishes. Thus distinguished, he excited against himself the indignation of the principal, Mr. Sterling, and his rector, and was the only one of more than fourscore petitioners against whom they instituted proceedings. He was cited before the faculty, and after a trial which lasted several days, a sentence

a sentence of expulsion was pronounced. Mr. Robertson was satisfied of the justice of his cause, and presented a memorial on the subject to the duke of Argyle, through whose influence an appeal was made to the king, who appointed a commission to visit the university of Glasgow, with full powers to examine into and rectify all existing abuses. As a result of this inquiry, the right of electing their rector was restored to the students: the visitors on this occasion also, among whom was the Earl of Hay, called the principal to a severe account for the public money which he had embezzled, and ascertained the right of the university to send two gentlemen, upon handsome exhibitions, to Baliol college in Oxford: they moreover annulled the expulsion of Mr. Robertson, and ordered that measure particularly to be recorded in the proceedings of the commission; declared the election of the rector, who had been named by the principal, to be void; and assembled the students, who immediately chose the son of lord Ross to be their rector.

While the visitors were exercising their powers, Mr. Robertson remained at London, and on the return of Lord Hay he introduced Mr. Robertson to Dr. Hoadly, the bishop of Winchester, who made him known to Dr. Wake, archbishop of Canterbury; and he was entertained with much civility by both these prelates. He had, from a thorough conviction of its importance, devoted himself to the clerical profession; but at present being too young to be admitted into orders, he employed himself, while in London, in visiting public libraries, attending lectures, and improving himself as opportunity offered. As soon as he was old enough to receive ordination, he was nominated by Dr. Hoadly to the cure of Tallow, in the county of Carlow. Here he continued till he was of age for priest's orders, to which he was admitted on the 10th of November 1729, and on the next day he was presented by Lord Carteret, then lord lieutenant of Ireland, to the rectory of Ravilly, in the county of Carlow, and to another rectory in the county of Wicklow. In 1728 he married Elizabeth, the daughter of major William Baxter, by whom he had tweny-one children.

Mr. Robertson first appeared as an author about the year 1738, by a pamphlet entitled "A scheme for utterly abolishing the present heavy and vexatious Tax of Tythes:" the object of this work was to pay the clergy and impropriators a tax upon land in lieu of tythes, and it excited so much attention, that several editions of it were called for in a short space of time. In 1739 Mr. Robertson received from Lord Cathcart a deputation to be his chaplain; and in the year 1743, he obtained leave from his diocesan to nominate a curate at Ravilly, and to reside some time in Dublin for the education of his children. Immediately on his settlement in this city he was invited to the cure of St. Luke's parish, which he retained about five years, when he returned to Ravilly. While in that city he formed a scheme, jointly with Mr. Kane Percival, to raise a fund for the support of the widows and children of clergymen, within the diocese of Dublin, which has since produced very happy effects. In 1758 he met with a severe affliction in the death of his wife, to whom he was most tenderly attached, but he sustained the loss with exemplary resignation to the will of God. Soon after this he found a new patron in Dr. Richard Robinson, who had been translated from the see of Killala to that of Ferns, and who presented to Mr. Robertson the first benefice which became vacant in his lordship's presentation. Before, however, he could be collated to it, he, for the first time, had the "Free and Candid Disquisitions relating to the Church of England, &c." put into his hands; and, by the perusal, he was led to entertain such doubts respecting some points to which he would be required to declare his assent, as made him defer his attendance on the bishop. At length he received a letter from his lordship, calling upon him to come immediately for institution. Upon this he wrote a very affecting letter to the prelate, in which he returned the most grateful thanks for his kindness, but said he could no longer conscientiously comply with the terms required by law to qualify him for such preferment. "In debating this matter with myself," says he, "besides the arguments directly to the purpose, several strong collateral considerations came in upon the positive side of the question. The straightness of my circumstances pressed me close; a numerous family, quite unprovided for, pleaded with the most pathetic and moving eloquence. And the infirmities and wants of age now coming fast upon me were urged feelingly. But one single consideration prevailed over all these—that the Creator and Governor of the universe, whom it is my first duty to worship and adore, being the God of truth, it must be disagreeable to him to profess, subscribe, or declare, in any matter relating to his worship and service, what is not believed strictly and simply to be true."

Mr. Robertson, though he refused to subscribe for the sake of preferment, did not feel it necessary to quit the church, and continued to perform the duties of parish priest; but from this time he omitted the reading of the Athanasian creed, and some other parts of the public service which appeared to him to countenance unscriptural tenets. Finding, however, that this mode of conduct gave offence to some persons, he resigned his benefices in 1764, and in 1766 he published, by way of apology to his friends for what he had done, his learned and ingenious little work, entitled "An Attempt to explain the Words, Reason, Substance, Person, Creeds, Orthodox, &c." to which he subjoined the letter written to his bishop, of which an extract has been given above. He now came to London, where he met with a very cordial and liberal reception from many excellent men, who generously contributed to his support. In the following year he presented a copy of his "Attempt, &c." to the university of Glasgow, and, in return, received a most obliging letter, accompanied with a diploma of D. D. In 1768 he was nominated to the mastership of the free grammar-school at Wolverhampton, in Staffordshire, by the company of Merchant Taylors; which, though honourable to the patrons, was not lucrative to the doctor, the salary being only £70 per ann., and this was, for some years, diminished by a pension of £40 to a superannuated predecessor. Dr. Robertson was, however, satisfied, and through the kindness of his friends was prevented from wanting what was necessary to his support. At one time he received from an unknown hand a present of £500, and from various persons stated assistance was sent him. In 1772 he was chosen one of the committee of the society of clergymen, &c. employed to draw up, and present to the House of Commons, a petition, praying for relief from the obligation of subscription to the 39 articles. In the course of a few years, he had the misfortune to lose all his children one after another; and he himself died in May, 1783, in the 79th year of his age. Dr. Robertson was possessed of great learning and an excellent judgment; he had a fine imagination, and a temper regulated by the mild and amiable spirit of Christ; and in his address and manners he was at all times easy and cheerful. When he quitted the church he was probably of the Arian school, but in the latter years of his life he became a firm believer in the simple humanity of Christ. He was mentioned by Mr. Lindsey, a few months before his death, as "the aged and venerable father of Unitarian nonconformity of our own days;" and in another work the same writer says, "the example of an excellent person now living at Wolverhampton, Dr. Robertson, has been a secret reproach to me ever since I heard of it." See Lindsey's Apology for resigning the Vicarage of Catterick, his Historical View of the Unitarian Doctrine, and Dr. Disney's Communications to the Gent. Mag. 1783.

ROBERTSON (William) D. D., a celebrated historian, was born in 1721 at Borthwick in Mid Lothian, of which parish his father was then minister. He received the early part of his education at the school of Dalkeith, under Mr. Leslie, a master of great reputation. In 1733, he accompanied his father on his removal to Edinburgh, as minister to the Old Greyfriars church in that city, and soon after entered there upon his academical studies. Of his progress in this

situation

situation little is known, but it appears from his common-place book, that, whilst still a mere youth, he was pursuing his literary course with singular assiduity. His inquiries were not much directed to physical or mathematical subjects; but he attended closely to topics of moral philosophy, and to the principles of taste and criticism. He also joined a society of his fellow-students, who exercised themselves in elocution and extemporaneous discussion and debate; a practice to which the universities of Scotland have owed much of their credit and utility. After the completion of his course, which was in the theological class, he obtained a license to preach in 1741, and in 1743 was presented by the earl of Hopeton to the living of Gladsmuir in East Lothian. His father and mother both dying about this time, leaving a family of six daughters and a younger son, with a very slender provision, Mr. Robertson, though his income did not exceed one hundred pounds, did not hesitate to give proof of his fraternal affection and the generosity of his disposition, by bringing the whole family to his parsonage, where he educated his sisters under his own roof, till they were respectably settled in life. He also displayed his zealous attachment to the cause of liberty, by his efforts in the year of the rebellion in favour of the reigning family, which he carried so far as to quit for a time his parochial charge, and join the volunteers of Edinburgh.

In 1751, he found himself warranted in prudence to form a matrimonial union, which had long been the object of his warmest wishes, with his cousin, the daughter of Mr. Nisbet, one of the ministers of Edinburgh. He had, in the mean time, rendered himself distinguished by his eloquence and good taste as a preacher, and a sermon which he delivered in 1755, before the society for propagating Christian knowledge, and which was the only composition of that kind that he ever printed, raised him to fame as a pulpit orator. It passed through five editions, and was translated into German. Some years before, he had begun to take a part in the debates of the General Assembly of the Church of Scotland; and as he possessed great talents for business, as well as the powers of a public speaker, he acquired an ascendancy in that body, which, during a long period, gave him the lead in the ecclesiastical politics of that country. He steadily maintained the principles, of the subordination of courts in the presbyterian government, with the supremacy of the General Assembly, and of the regal right of patronage in the presentation to livings. Although the latter of these was highly unpopular in its exercise, and perhaps is an infringement of the spirit of pure presbyterian discipline, yet as it was established by law, and as in many instances opposition to it had produced great disorders, he thought the peace and reputation of his church best consulted in asserting it. When he first spoke, in 1751, to a point of church discipline, he was left in a minority; but by his persuasive manner, his powers of argument, and his skill in management, he gained a victory, and ever after rarely failed to bring the Assembly to concur in his opinions.

In 1754, a *Select Society* was established in Edinburgh, among the first members of which are found names, that have since become highly distinguished in literature and public life. In the number of these was that of Robertson, who was an assiduous attendant on its meetings, and obtained from it an increase of reputation. One of the members was the Rev. John Home, whose publication, in 1757, of the tragedy of Douglas, brought on him a violent attack from the rigorists of the Scotch church. In the debates on this subject, his friend Robertson gave him all the aid of his reasoning and eloquence; and his good offices carried the greater weight, as the decorum and circumspection of his own clerical conduct raised him above all suspicion of wishing to encourage a laxity of which he might avail himself, for he had never entered the doors of a playhouse. In the mean time, he was deeply engaged in the studies necessary for completing the plan of a historical work, which he had formed soon after his first settlement as a minister; and after having taken a journey to London, for the purpose of making arrangements for the publication, his "History of Scotland during the Reigns of Queen Mary and King James VI." appeared early in 1759, in 2 vols. 4to. From the title-page we learn that he had at this time obtained the degree of D. D. There are few examples of a work of this class received with such immediate and general applause. Several of the first literary characters in the kingdom expressed to the author their high sense of its merits, and congratulated him as having attained the first rank among historians. Among these, it is pleasing to find the celebrated Hume, so far from betraying envy at the appearance of a competitor for the historic palm, taking the warmest interest in the success of the work, and bestowing the most liberal praise on the writer. Robertson and Hume were, indeed, rare instances of faithful and intimate friendship maintained through life, notwithstanding religious and political differences, and the still severer trial of rivalry in reputation. The History of Scotland appears to have been the most popular of the author's works, and he saw the fourteenth edition of it before his death. It had, in every view, a favourable influence on his fortune, since the fame he acquired by it was probably the cause of his rapid promotions. He had removed to Edinburgh, in consequence of a presentation to one of the churches of that city, whilst it was in the press: in the same year, 1759, he was nominated chaplain of Stirling Castle; in 1761, one of the king's chaplains in ordinary for Scotland; and in 1762, he was elected principal of the university of Edinburgh. Two years afterwards, the post of historiographer royal for Scotland, with a salary of £200 per annum, was revived in his favour; and thus he became the best beneficed clergyman of his church. His emoluments, however, in the aggregate, were far inferior to those of many private clergymen of the sister-kingdom, obtained by mere family or political interest. But his influence was not to be measured by his income. He was the acknowledged head of the party which held the chief sway in a national church; and the period from his becoming principal of the university of Edinburgh, to his retreat from public life, was usually denominated *Dr. Robertson's administration.* It was peculiarly to his honour that this influence was not, as it had formerly been, derived from a connexion with those who managed the political affairs of Scotland; it was personal and independent, and was preserved through all the intermediate changes in the civil power. As head of a flourishing seat of education, he was minutely attentive to all his duties, and co-operated with the greatest liberality in all the improvements, public and private, that have contributed to raise Edinburgh to its present celebrity.

In the midst of the numerous avocations which his several offices created, Dr. Robertson was so far from neglecting the literary department in which he had acquired so much distinction, that the publication of his first history was immediately followed by considerations upon the choice of a subject for a second. After due deliberation, the period of the Emperor Charles V. seemed to him to afford most scope for a work of general interest. It appears, indeed, that there was a design, and that proceeding from the highest source, of engaging him in writing a new history of England; and that after he had answered to himself the objection of taking a ground pre-occupied by his friend Hume, he was not averse to the task. From some unknown cause, however, it proved abortive; and he proceeded with all his industry to execute the design, which his judgment had suggested. In 1769 his "History of the Reign of the Emperor Charles V., with a View of the Progress of Society in Europe, from the Subversion of the Roman Empire to the beginning of the Sixteenth Century," was published in three quarto volumes. Though high expectations were formed of this work, they were at least equalled by the applause with which it was received. It was generally regarded as raising him a degree higher in the scale of historic merit, both on account of the greater maturity of style which he had attained, and of the more profound and varied research which the weight and copiousness of the theme led him to display. The introductory volume, corresponding to the second clause of the title, was particularly admired,

as presenting a masterly survey of the gradations by which the social institutions of antiquity have passed, through the barbarism of the dark ages, into all that characterizes the state of modern Europe. Though all this author's works were read with distinguished approbation abroad as well as at home, this was best calculated to excite interest on the continent: accordingly, we are informed, that it was the particular favourite of the enlightened Catharine of Russia, who conveyed her acknowledgments to the writer in the present of a rich snuff-box set with diamonds.

Such encouragement was not likely to slacken the vigour of Dr. Robertson's mind; and in 1777 he gave proof of the diligence with which he had employed his intervening leisure, by the publication of his "History of America," in 2 vols. 4to. His first object in undertaking this work was only to complete the account of American affairs commenced in the History of Charles V.; but finding a splendid subject opened to his view, well suited to his talents for description, he extended his plan, and even purposed to dedicate a whole volume to the origin and progress of the British settlements in America; but the supervening disturbances in that quarter deterred him from entering upon this part of his task. His American history, from the new views of man and nature it presents, and the magnificence and variety of its scenery, is perhaps the most entertaining of his productions; and he studied to give it historical value by a diligent research into the most authentic sources of information, with respect to the transactions of the first European discoverers. Either gratitude for the communications obtained from the liberality of the Spanish court, or natural candour carried to an extreme, led him to extenuate the cruelties committed by that nation in their conquests in the New World, to a degree that brought upon him some censure. Later writers have also found that he has neglected consulting some authorities which would have rendered his narrative more accurate. This work, however, on the whole, is worthy of the reputation of its writer. It proved so acceptable to the Spanish nation, that he was unanimously elected a member of the Royal Academy of Madrid; and a translation of the history into Spanish was commenced, but was stopped in its progress by the order of a narrow and jealous government.

Dr. Robertson was now advancing in years, with an easy fortune, and a constitution somewhat impaired by his literary labours. But though he thought proper to withdraw from the contentious scenes of ecclesiastical politics, he was by no means disposed to relinquish the historical field. It appears from a letter of his to a friend, that he seriously thought of composing a history of England from the Revolution to the accession of the house of Hanover; but the difficulty of steering clear of party animosity, probably induced a man, in whose character prudence and caution were prominent features, to decline the arduous attempt. He finally fixed upon India as the object of his latest inquiries, and in 1791 published "An Historical Disquisition concerning the Knowledge which the Ancients had of India, and the Progress of Trade with that Country prior to the Discovery of the Cape of Good Hope," one vol. 4to. This performance exhibits his characteristic excellences of composition undiminished; though the more critical nature of the subject, and the superior lights in Indian history and antiquities since obtained by writers with greater local advantages, have rendered it less popular than his other publications. On a general consideration of Dr. Robertson's qualities as a historian, it may be said that his style is pure, sweet, dignified without stiffness, singularly perspicuous, and often eloquent; that the arrangement of his materials is skilful and luminous, his mode of narration distinct, and his descriptions highly graphical; and that he displays a sagacity in the developement of causes and effects, and in his judgment of public characters and transactions, which is very remarkable in one who was brought up in obscurity and retirement. If there is less glow and ardour in his expression of moral and political feelings, than some eminent writers in a free country have manifested, there is, on the other hand, all the candour and impartiality which belongs to a cool temper, when enlightened by knowledge and directed by principle.

His health began visibly to decline towards the close of 1791, and he removed from Edinburgh to Grange-house, a country situation in its neigbourhod. There, in the bosom of a most affectionate family, with whom he had enjoyed all the domestic happiness his own kind dispositions merited, he died in June 1793, at the age of 72. To his private and social virtues the most liberal testimony has been given even by those who were his opponents in church politics. Of his intellectual character and talents, an estimate has already been attempted; it may be added, that good sense was the quality by which he was most peculiarly marked. He was a member of the Royal Society of Edinburgh from its first foundation; and besides the honour he received from the Royal Academy of Madrid, he had that of being aggregated to the Academy of Sciences at Padua, and the Imperial Academy of Sciences at Petersburgh. *Dugald Stewart's Account of the Life and Writings of Principal Robertson.*

ROBERTSON, a county of the United States, on the north side of West Tennessee. Population 7270, including 1608 slaves. Chief town Springfield.

ROBERTSON, a township of the United States, in Allegany county, Pennsylvania. Population 899.

ROBERTVILLE, a post village of the United States, in Beaufort district, South Carolina.

ROBERVAL (Giles Personne de), an eminent French mathematician and philosopher in the 17th century, was born at Roberval, a seigniory belonging to his family, in the diocese of Beauvais, in the year 1602. While receiving a liberal education, he discovered a predominant bias towards the study of philosophy and the mathematical sciences, with which he became intimately conversant. When he was 30 years of age, he obtained the professorship of mathematics in the college of Master Gervais at Paris; and afterwards he contested with other candidates the succession to the vacant chair of Ramus, which he gained by the decided superiority of his powers in disputation. He cultivated a friendly intercourse with many of the learned men at Paris, and particularly with Gassendi and John Morin, whose favourite studies corresponded with his own. When Morin was near his death, he requested that the Sieur de Roberval should be his successor in the mathematical chair at the college-royal. Accordingly, our author was nominated to that appointment, without being obliged to resign his professorship of philosophy, and he continued to fill it with great reputation as long as he lived. He was chosen a member of the Royal Academy of Sciences in 1666. To this body he communicated some curious experiments on the torricellian vacuum, which he made in the years 1647 and 1648. He invented two new kinds of balances, one of which was adapted to the weighing of air, and may be seen described in the "Journal des Savans" for Feb. 1670, and in the "Memoirs" of the Academy of Sciences for 1666. A dispute in which he was involved with Des Cartes, by contesting with him the honour of his analytical inventions, and depreciating his skill in geometry, is said not to have terminated to the credit of our professor. He died in 1675, about the age of 73. He was the author of "A Treatise on Mechanics," inserted in Mersenne's "Universal Harmony;" "On the Mundane System," a treatise in Latin, attributed by him to Aristarchus of Samos, but generally believed to be his own production; and the following pieces in the "Memoirs" of the Academy of Sciences for 1666: "Experiments concerning the Pressure of the Air;" "Observations on the Composition of Motion, and on the Tangents of curve Lines;" "The Recognition of Equations;" "The Geometrical Resolution of Plane and Cubic Equations;" "A Treatise on Indivisibles;" "On the Trochoid, or Cycloid;" and "A Letter to Father Mersenne." At the end of his "Treatise on Indivisibles" he has explained a new method for the transformation of figures, to which Torricelli

Torricelli gave the name of *Robervallian Lines*. *Moreri. Nouv. Dict. Hist. Hutton's Math. Dict.*

ROBERVALLIAN LINES, a name given to certain lines, used for the transformation of figures: thus called from their inventor M. de Roberval. It is said, that these lines bound spaces infinitely extended in length, which are nevertheless equal to other spaces terminated on all sides, which we consider impossible.

The abbot Gallois, in the Memoirs of the Royal Academy, anno 1693, observes, that the method of transforming figures, explained at the latter end of M. de Roberval's Treatise of Indivisibles, is the same with that since published by Mr. James Gregory, in his Universal Geometry, and afterwards by Barrow, in his Lectiones Geometricæ; and that, by a letter of Torricelli, it appears that Roberval was the inventor of this manner of transforming figures, by means of certain lines, which Torricelli therefore called *Robervallian lines*.

He adds, that it is highly probable, that J. Gregory first learned the method in the journey he made to Padua in 1668; the method itself having been known in Italy from the year 1646, though the book was not published till the year 1692.

This account Dr. David Gregory has endeavoured to refute, in vindication of his brother. His answer is inserted in the Phil. Trans. an. 1694.

ROBES, MASTER OF THE, is an officer of the household, with an appointment of 500*l.* a-year, who has the ordering of all his Majesty's robes.

He has several officers under him, as a clerk of the robes, a yeoman, three grooms, a page, a brusher, furrier, sempstress, laundress, starcher, and standing wardrobe-keepers at St. James's, Windsor-castle, Hampton-court, &c. There is also in the establishment of his Majesty's household a mistress of the robes, with an appointment of 500*l.* a-year, and two keepers of the robes.

ROBESON, a county of the United States, in the south part of North Carolina. Population 7528, including 1340 slaves. Lumberton is the chief town.

ROBESON, a township of the United States, in Berks county, Pennsylvania. Population 1807.

ROBESPIERRE (Maximilian-Isidore), a conspicuous character in the French Revolution, distinguished by the sanguinary ferocity with which he exercised a temporary supremacy, was born in 1759, at Arras. His father was a lawyer of good reputation, but so negligent of his affairs that he left his three children in a state of absolute indigence. The bishop of the city humanely took care of the education of the two sons, and Maximilian obtained, through his means, an exhibition at the college of Louis le Grand, at Paris. He there distinguished himself by his exercises; and his destination being to the profession of the law, he was afterwards entered as a pupil with an advocate of eminence. His progress in legal studies, however, was inconsiderable, and he returned to Arras rather qualified for a declaimer than a practitioner at the bar. Some popular causes, and a prize which he gained by a discourse on a subject proposed by the Academy of Metz, excited an advantageous idea of his abilities; while a gloomy thoughtful air, a disposition to censure, rigid sentiments of morality, and an appearance of ardent patriotism, inspired a confidence in his principles. Such was the opinion of him entertained by the majority of his fellow-citizens, that when the states-general of France were convoked in 1789, he was returned as a representative of the tiers-etat, and intrusted with drawing up the instructions for himself and his fellow-deputies. That he really partook of the enthusiasm of the time, need not be questioned; and his connecting himself with the most violent of the popular party was, at first, probably as much the result of his feelings and convictions, as of a systematic plan to raise himself into consequence. He took pains to improve his style in writing and speaking, and in his oratory copied Mirabeau, though with so much inferiority, that whilst the original was called the torch of Provence, the imitator obtained the appellation of the taper of Arras. By courting the people, and displaying a determined hostility to the royal prerogatives, he laid a foundation for future influence in the democratic party; but upon the whole he was rather regarded as a well-intentioned patriot, than an able politician: it is remarkable that one frequent topic of his declamation was the injustice of capital punishment *in any case*.

After the dissolution of the National or Constituent Assembly, followed by the election of the Legislative Assembly, the members of which were all new, Robespierre's chief theatre of action was the famous Jacobin club, at which he was a principal speaker. He also published a weekly paper entitled "Le Defenseur de la Constitution." He now adopted the republican party, and though he did not appear as an actor in the insurrection of August 10th, or the horrid prison-massacres of September, it is supposed that he favoured them, but declined taking an open part, from that pusillanimity which belonged to his character. In the new assembly, called the National Convention, which met in September 1792, Robespierre was returned as a member for Paris; a proof that he had been gradually gaining in the popular esteem. He soon became the head of the party called the Mountain, which was opposed to that of the Brissotines, who then possessed the ministerial power. He underwent an accusation of aspiring to the dictatorship, from Louvet, one of that party, which he repelled by a long and artful speech; and in the end, the Convention passed to the order of the day. The printing of Robespierre's speech was a means of extending his popularity; and his subsequent exertions to bring the unfortunate Lewis to a trial, and procure his condemnation, greatly augmented his influence with the violent part of the nation. At this time, the war in which the Brissotines had imprudently engaged with England and Spain, joined to the ill success of the French arms in Flanders, the defection of Dumouriez, and the rebellion in La Vendée, brought the public affairs into a very critical state, and filled men's minds with alarm. Suspicions of all public men were readily listened to, and vigorous measures were loudly called for. Scenes of tumult and intrigue succeeded, which terminated in the overthrow of the Brissotines, against whom a decree of arrestation passed in the summer of 1793.

Robespierre, assisted by Danton and Marat, now gained a decided supremacy in the National Convention, and the period which has been emphatically termed the *reign of terror* commenced. It was a period of the most dreadful tyranny that has been exercised in any country in modern times, but also of the most extraordinary energy against the foreign enemies of the state; and though Robespierre deserves the execration of all posterity for the unparalleled atrocities of his domestic administration, it ought to be acknowledged, that to the unrelenting severity with which he exacted the performance of their duty from all who were entrusted with command, France in great measure owed her preservation from the dangers which surrounded her, and her wonderful successes. This administration, however, was conducted upon principles not less subversive of all freedom, law, and justice, than those of any tyranny the world has witnessed. A permanent committee of safety, of which he was the head, engrossed all the public authority, and the terrible revolutionary tribunal devoted to death, at his beck, all who were the objects of his suspicion or hatred. The Girondist deputies, to the number of 21, with their leader Brissot, were among the first victims. The Queen and the Duke of Orleans followed. The scaffold daily streamed with the blood of nobles, priests, and all who by character and condition could but be suspected of being attached to the ancient government. In the provinces, massacres were perpetrated against whole orders of men without distinction, and towns were desolated of the greater part of their inhabitants. The levelling principle was extended to all superiority of science and talent, and it seemed the tyrant's object to bring back an age of barbarism. At length his own confederates were not spared. Danton himself, with Desmoulins, Fabre d'Eglantine, and others, were accused of

of a conspiracy, and fell under the guillotine. In the midst of all these horrors he thought fit to exhibit at Paris a festival, in which the existence of a supreme being was solemnly recognised; and as the restorer of national religion, he appointed decades and other days for public worship.

But the reign of terror was now become too intolerable to be endured, and the principle of fear which had supported it brought it to an end. No man was longer safe from a tyrant whose bloody disposition seemed to grow with the acts of cruelty which it generated, and who had established such a system of domestic treachery, as destroyed all the confidence of society, and subjected every individual to accusation. He lost his popularity; he met with opposers in the Convention itself: and in fine, by a sort of acclamation, a decree against him and his principal associates was passed, and he was arrested. Attempts were made by the Jacobin club to raise the populace of Paris in his favour, and he was for a time rescued and carried to the Hotel de Ville, but his enemies had gone too far to recede. A decree of outlawry was issued against him in the Convention, provided with which, a member at the head of an armed force burst into the Hotel de Ville. Robespierre, who had manifested his constitutional cowardice on this emergency, was found sitting squat against a wall with a knife in his hand. Two pistols were fired at him, one of which wounded him in the head, and the other broke his under jaw. He endured in silence the pain of his wounds and the taunts of his foes, and was carried to prison. On the next day, after being taken, with his accomplices, before the revolutionary tribunal, he was led, July 28, 1794, to instant execution, amidst the acclamations and curses of numerous spectators.

Robespierre perished in the 36th year of his age. Although circumstances enabled him to act so considerable a part in the shifting scenes of the revolutionary period, he was by no means one of the superior figures in point of abilities or force of character. Natural reserve, cunning, habitual dissimulation, and a total want of feeling, carried him through difficulties which might have overwhelmed a greater man; but as he never made a friend, and was unsupported by native courage, he sunk under the first bold opposition. Nevertheless he was incorruptible by pecuniary offers, and never accumulated money, though he permitted peculation in his creatures. He was little addicted to sensuality; and was insensible to the pleasures of love. Yet, with a disgusting person, he had the weakness of wishing to be admired; and he was foppishly attentive to his dress.

ROBIESSOU, a town of Austrian Poland; 22 miles south of Chelm.

ROBILLANTE, a small town in the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont; 8 miles south of Coni.

RO'BIN, or ROBIN-RED-BREAST, *s.* [*rubecula*, Lat.] A bird so named from his red breast; a ruddock.

The *robin-red-breast*, till of late had rest,
And children sacred held a martin's nest. *Pope.*

ROBINAL, a settlement of Mexico, in the province of Vera Paz, which contains 800 inhabitants; 40 miles south-south-west of Vera Paz.

ROBIN-GOODFELLOW, *s.* One of our old domestic goblins. See HOBGOBLIN.—A bigger kind there is of them [fairies] called with us hobgoblins, and *Robin goodfellows*, that would, in those superstitious times, grind corn for a mess of milk. *Burton.*

ROBINHOOD'S BAY, a large and populous village of England, in the North Riding of Yorkshire, situated on a bay of the same name, between Scarborough and Whitby. It is about a mile in length, and is inhabited chiefly by fishermen, who supply the city of York and all the adjacent country with herrings, and all sorts of fish in their season. For this purpose they have commodious boats, wherein are kept large quantities of crabs, lobsters, &c. South-west of the town are two hills, called Robin Hood's Butts; 6 miles south-east of Whitby.

ROBIN HOOD'S BAY, a bay on the east coast of Newfoundland, frequented by small vessels.

ROBINIA, [from Jean Robin, author of "Histoire des Plantes," &c. Par. 1620.] in botany, a genus of the class diadelphia, order decandria, natural order of papilionaceæ or leguminosæ. Generic Character.—Calyx: perianth one-leafed, small, bell-shaped, four-cleft; the three lower toothlets more slender; the upper fourth toothlets wider, scarcely emarginate to the naked eye, all equal in length. Corolla: papilionaceous; standard roundish, larger, spreading, blunt; wings oblong, ovate, free, with a very short blunt appendix; keel almost semiorbicular, compressed, blunt, the length of the wings. Stamina: filaments diadelphous (simple and nine-cleft), ascending at top. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germ cylindrical, oblong. Style filiform, bent upwards. Stigma villose in front at the top of the style. Pericarp: legume large, compressed, gibbous, long. Seeds few, kidney-form. *Essential Character.*—Calyx, four-cleft. Legume gibbous, elongated.

1. Robinia pseud-acacia, false or common acacia.—The common false or bastard acacia, called in America locust tree, grows very fast whilst young, so that in a few years from seed, the plants rise to eight or ten feet high, and it is not uncommon to see shoots of this tree six or eight feet long in one summer. The branches are armed with strong crooked thorns. Leaflets eight or ten pairs, ovate, bright green. The flowers come out from the side of the branches in pretty long bunches, hanging down like those of laburnum: each flower on a slender pedicel, white, and smelling very sweet: they appear in June, and when the trees are full of flower, they make a fine appearance and perfume the air round them; but they seldom continue more than one week. —Native of North America, where it grows to a very large size, and the wood is much valued for its duration. Most of the houses which were built at Boston, in New England, on the first settling of the English, were constructed of this timber.

2. Robinia sepium, or hedge robinia.—This is a thornless tree, growing to the height of thirty feet, very much resembling the preceding in habit, and dividing into round, almost upright, very long branches. Leaves ten inches long. Racemes axillary. Flowers without scent, rose-coloured. Legumes smooth, brownish.—Native of Carthagena, in New Spain, where they use it much for hedges.

3. Robinia violacea, or ash-leaved robinia.—This is an upright tree without thorns, growing to the height of twelve feet. Leaves alternate, numerous, shining; having three leaflets on each side, sometimes two, very seldom five; these are ovate, blunt, emarginate, entire, petioled, opposite, two inches long. Racemes axillary, half a foot in length. Dr. Houston found it growing naturally at Campeachy; Jacquin, about Carthagena.

4. Robinia hispida, rose acacia or robinia.—This rises in Carolina, where it grows naturally, sometimes to the height of twenty feet, but in England it seems to be of low growth; the branches spread out near the ground, and produce their flowers very young. The young branches, and also the peduncles and calyxes are closely armed with small brown prickles, or rather stiff bristly hairs, like raspberries. The flowers are larger, and of a deep rose-colour; but they have no scent: they come up early in June, and make a fine appearance. Legumes flat oblong.

5. Robinia mitis.—Stem shrubby, three feet high, upright, branched. Leaflets ovate-lanceolate, smooth, bright green. Corolla yellow. Legume oblong.—Native of the East Indies, China, and Cochinchina.

6. Robinia Caragana.—Trunks arboreous, commonly branched from the bottom, slender, with a smooth, ash-coloured skin. Calyx drooping a little, bell-shaped, smooth, permanent, five-toothed, but not deeply, the upper tooth wider and more distant. Corolla larger than the calyx, yellow, having wings as long as the standard, and a keel scarcely shorter. Legumes cylindrical, rigid, mucronate. Seeds five to eight, oblong, yellowish-gray powdered with brown, rather large. The germination is made by the first leaves being ternate, and the last of the first year two or three-paired. Leaves five or six-paired.—Native of Siberia.

7. Robinia

7. Robinia spinosa, or thorny robinia.—This resembles the preceding, but is distinguished by its stiff or thorny stipules. It is a shrub above the height of a man. Leaflets six or eight, ovate, even. Common petiole woody, the whole of it perennial, thorny at the end. Stipules awl-shaped, thorny, perennial. The trunk is scarcely an inch and half in diameter, with branches often a fathom in length, subdivided, twisted and diffused, so as to form a hemispherical head, full of branches and thorns. Being covered with flowers during the whole summer, it appears very beautiful. Seeds oval, greenish, dotted with brown.

On account of the length and toughness of the branches, and its large stout thorns, this shrub is admirably adapted to form impenetrable hedges, and is sufficiently hardy to bear our climate. It is a native of Siberia, and also of China; where, about Pekin, they stick the bushes in clay on the tops of their walls, to prevent persons from getting or looking over them.

8. Robinia altagana, or Daurian robinia.—This is a shrub, somewhat thorny, about three feet in height. Root sparingly branched, having somewhat of the smell and taste of liquorice. Stems upright, round, tubercled. Leaves alternate, petioled, two inches long; leaflets commonly opposite. Flowers axillary, solitary, on longer peduncles, spreading, yellow.—Native of Dauria.

9. Robinia chamlagu, or shining robinia.—This is a diffused smooth shrub. Root somewhat branched, thicker than the stems, having a smell approaching to that of liquorice. Stems upright, round, somewhat branched, gray, from a yard to a yard and half in height. Branches alternate, like the stem, at first upright, then decumbent, with a torn cuticle. Shoots angular, with a stipule running down in three lines more raised than in the other species, at first green, afterwards bay-coloured. Leaves alternate, two-paired. Flowers lateral, solitary, seldom two together, obliquely peduncled, pendulous, yellow with the disk of the standard green, becoming afterwards blood-red.—Native of China, as supposed, where it has the name of *chamlagu*. Introduced in 1773, by Mons. Richard.

10. Robinia squamata.—Branches round, smooth, with a purplish-gray bark, leafy only at top, scaly below the leaves; branchlets alternate, four-cornered, with ovate acuminate imbricate scales. Leaves alternate, distant, solitary below, or two or three together, all petioled, nine-paired.—Native of the island of St. Thomas, in America.

11. Robinia florida.—This is a very handsome shrub, leafless in the time of flowering, when it is quite covered with flowers. Branches round, smooth, of a purplish-ash colour, smooth. Calyx goblet-shaped, smooth, with the margin entire, villose when magnified. Corolla large, purplish, with the claws of the petals of the same length with the calyx. Germ smooth.—Native of America, in Krabben Island.

12. Robinia halodendron, or salt-tree robinia.—This is a small tree or shrub, commonly the height of a man, irregular, very much branched, rigid, leafy only at the ends of the branches. Branches subflexuose, alternate, the extreme ones striated; the petioles, when old, become thorns, and are scattered alternately. Branchlets and leaves from the axils of the spines. Leaflets obovate-oblong, hoary with a very fine nap, mucronate with a spinule; the common petiole is spinescent. Flowers on the upper branches copious, in racemes, commonly of three, but sometimes only of two flowers, purplish, smelling sweet. Calyx five-toothed. The whole of this shrub is silky.—Native of Siberia, in dry naked salt fields by the river Irtis.

13. Robinia frutescens, or shrubby robinia.—Trunk branched from the bottom, with a dusky or greenish-ash-coloured bark; there are commonly many lateral shoots or suckers from the root. Branches rod-like, pliant, loaded with leaves and flowers, of a shining yellowish colour, with longitudinal gray nerves, with triple spines. It grows with a shrubby stalk eight or ten feet high, sending out several branches which grow erect, covered with a smooth yellowish bark. The leaves have two pairs of oval pointed leaflets, on short foot-stalks.—Native of Siberia, by the Volga, &c. in temperate situations.

14. Robinia pygmæa, or dwarf robinia.—It is a weak low shrub, seldom rising more than three feet high in England; the branches are slender, and are covered with a light bark. The leaves are composed of four oblong sessile leaflets; the flowers are produced singly upon axillary peduncles; they are yellow, and appear in April, but are rarely succeeded by seeds in England.—Native of Siberia, where this elegant species begins by the Irtis, in the southern, rocky, open parts; becomes more frequent by the Jenisea; and most common in the regions beyond the lake Baikal. It rises commonly with twigs an ell in height, where it is exposed to the firing of the country in spring; but in the mountains it grows with a trunk the height of a man, and the thickness of his wrist. The twigs are very tough and fit for withes; and are of an elegant golden colour.

15. Robinia subdecandra.—This is shrub about a fathom in height. Root branched; stem upright; branches alternate, spreading. Leaves alternate spreading, eight inches long.—Native of Abyssinia.

16. Robinia amara, or bitter-rooted robinia.—This is a shrubby plant, four feet high, without any thorns; branches diffused, of a reddish brown colour. Leaflets about five. Racemes upright, long. Calyx flattish, four-toothed. Corollas violet.—Native of China and Cochinchina.

17. Robinia flava.—This also is a shrubby plant, but only one foot high. Leaves upright. Leaflets seven or eight-paired, oblong, subacute, smooth, pale green. Flowers white, terminating; with peduncles in threes, upright, and three-flowered. Root simple, woody, thick, yellow, bitter. —Native of the northern provinces of China.

Propagation and Culture.—False or bastard acacia or locust-tree, is generally propagated in the English nurseries, by suckers from the roots of the old trees; or by cutting off some of the roots, and planting them upon a gentle hot-bed. But these are not so valuable as plants raised from seeds.

Sow the seeds on a bed of light earth at the end of March or beginning of April. If the bed be well exposed to the sun, the plants will appear in five or six weeks, and will require no farther care but to keep them clear from weeds. The following spring, about the end of March, transplant them into a nursery, in rows three feet distant, and a foot and half asunder in the rows. After two years more they will be fit to transplant where they are designed to grow.

The rose-acacia, as it is commonly called, not producing seeds in England, is propagated by cutting off part of the roots, and planting them upon a gentle hot-bed, where they will put out fibres and shoots. It should have a sheltered situation, and a light moist soil. The Siberian sorts are propagated from seeds sown in a shady situation in autumn; and then the plants will come up the following spring; but if the seeds are sown in the spring, the plants seldom rise the same season. The species being tender, cannot be maintained in England, unless they are placed in a stove in winter.

ROBINS (Benjamin), an eminent English mathematician and philosopher in the 18th century, was born at the city of Bath, in the year 1707. His parents were in low circumstances, and Quakers by religious profession; consequently, they were neither able nor disposed to educate their son in that human learning, which the generality of the sect held in little estimation. His genius, however, strongly urging him to the pursuit of knowledge, with the aid of books he became his own instructor, and made an early and surprising progress in various branches of literature and science, and particularly in the mathematics. Desirous that he might be enabled to continue his pursuits, and that his merits might not be buried in obscurity, some friends expressed a wish that he could be properly recommended to teach the mathematics in London. That they might obtain for him such patronage, they sent to the metropolis a specimen of his abilities, which was laid before Dr. Pemberton, author of the "View of Sir Isaac Newton's Philosophy," who was led from

from it to form a very favourable opinion of the writer, and to make a further trial of his proficiency. With this view the doctor sent him some problems, which Mr. Robins solved very much to his satisfaction, and with a degree of elegance which gave an advantageous idea of his taste as well as invention. The doctor now encouraged him to come to London, where he fully confirmed the good opinion which had been preconceived of his talents and knowledge. But though Mr. Robins already possessed more skill than is usually required in a common teacher; yet, being very young, it was thought proper that he should employ some time in perusing the best writers on the sublimer parts of the mathematics, before he undertook the task of instructing others. During this interval, besides improving himself in the modern languages, he carefully studied the writings of Apollonius, Archimedes, Fermat, Huygens, De Wit, Slusius, James Gregory, Barrow, Newton, Taylor, and Cotes. Of these authors he readily made himself master, without any assistance, as he convinced his friends by repeated proofs; and among others, by a demonstration of the last proposition of Newton's Treatise on Quadratures, when he was only twenty years of age This performance was thought deserving of a place in the the "Philosophical Transactions" for 1727; and towards the close of the same year he was admitted a member of the Royal Society. In the course of the following year, he embraced an opportunity of offering to the public a specimen of his acquaintance with natural philosophy. The Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, among their prize questions in 1724 and 1726, had asked for a demonstration of the laws of motion in bodies impinging on one another. On this occasion the celebrated John Bernouilli appeared in the list of candidates; and, as the judges did not decree the reward in his favour, he thought proper to appeal to the learned world, by publishing his demonstration, in the year 1727. In this piece he endeavoured, in opposition to Newton, to establish Leibnitz's opinion of the force of bodies in motion, from the effects of their striking against elastic bodies; as Signor Poleni had before attempted to evince the same thing, from experiments of bodies falling on soft and yielding substances. The insufficiency of Poleni's arguments had already been demonstrated in the "Philosophical Transactions" for 1722, No. 371.; and in "The present State of the Republic of Letters," for May 1728, Mr. Robins published a confutation of Bernouilli's performance, which was allowed to be unanswerable.

The employment which he professed to follow was that of a teacher of the mathematics only; yet he frequently assisted particular friends with advice and instructions on other subjects, as he was well qualified to do by the rich funds of knowledge with which his mind was stored. After some time, finding the confinement occasioned by his increasing engagements in the line of a teacher unsuitable to his disposition, which was naturally active, he gradually declined that employment, and devoted his attention to other objects, which required more exercise. Among other things, he tried many laborious experiments in gunnery, from a belief that the resistance of the air had a much greater effect on swift projectiles than was generally supposed. He also directed his studies to those mechanic arts which depend upon mathematical principles, in which he might have scope for the exercise of his invention; such as the construction of mills, the building of bridges, draining of fens, rendering rivers navigable, and the making of harbours. The art of fortification, likewise, very much engaged his attention; in which he met with opportunities of perfecting himself, by an inspection of the principal strong places in Flanders, during some journies which he made abroad with persons of distinction. Upon his return to England from one of these excursions, he found that the frequent subject of conversation in the learned world was a treatise by Dr. Berkeley, published in 1734, under the title of "The Analyst;" in which the author examined into the grounds of the doctrine of fluxions, and endeavoured to explode that method. This treatise Mr. Robins was advised to refute, by giving a full and distinct account of Newton's doctrine, in such a manner as to obviate all the objections advanced by Dr. Berkeley, without naming them. Accordingly, in 1735, he published "A Discourse concerning the Nature and Certainty of Sir Isaac Newton's Method of Fluxions, and of prime and ultimate Ratios," which is a very perspicuous, neat, and elegant performance. There were, however, some persons, even among those who had written against "The Analyst," who excepted against Robins's manner of defending Newton's doctrine; on which account he wrote two or three additional pieces in vindication of his discourse, and to shew, that the view of the doctrines of fluxions, and of prime and ultimate ratios contained in it, is agreeable to the meaning of their great inventor. In 1738, he also defended Newton against an objection contained in a note at the end of Baxter's "Matho, sive Cosmotheoria puerilis;" and in the following year, he published "Remarks on Euler's Treatise of Motion, Dr. Smith's System of Optics, and Dr. Jurin's Discourse of distinct and indistinct Vision."

But Mr. Robins's performances were not confined to mathematical and pilosophical subjects. In 1739 he published, without his name, three pamphlets on political affairs; the first entitled, "Observations on the present Convention with Spain;" the second, "A Narrative of what had passed in the Common-hall of the Citizens of London, assembled for the Election of a Lord-Mayor;" and the third, "An Address to the Electors and other free Subjects of Great Britain, occasioned by the late Succession; in which is contained a particular Account of all our Negociations with Spain, and their Treatment of us for above ten Years past." The first and last of these pieces, which were ably written, and on the popular side of the question, were for some time reputed to be the productions of Mr. Pulteney, who was now at the head of the opposition to Sir Robert Walpole. So high did they raise Mr. Robins in the estimation of the patriots, that when a committee of the House of Commons was appointed to examine into the conduct of that minister, he had the honour of being chosen their secretary. After this committee had presented two reports of their proceedings, the compromise which took place between the contending parties put a stop to their further progress. In 1742, our author published a small treatise, entitled, "New Principles of Gunnery;" containing the result of many experiments, by which he discovered the force of gunpowder, and the difference in the resisting power of the air to swift and slow motions. Hence it plainly appeared, that the opposition of that medium to bullets and shells, discharged from cannon and mortars, far exceeded what was generally imagined; and that the track which their motion described, differed from that of a parabolic line to a degree undiscovered by any who had written expressly on the subject from the time of the celebrated Galileo. Prefixed to this treatise is a full and learned account of the progress which modern fortification had made from its first rise, and of what had already been performed in the theory of gunnery. It appears that this publication was undertaken by Mr. Robins, in consequence of his having been disappointed of a situation in the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich, for which he was a candidate. On the new modelling of that academy in 1741, our author and Mr. Muller were competitors for the place of Professor of Fortification and Gunnery. The latter gentleman held at that time some post in the Tower of London, under the Board of Ordnance; and so great was his interest with that board, that, notwithstanding the great knowledge and abilities of our author, the election was carried in favour of Mr. Muller. Upon this Mr. Robins, indignant at the preference which they had given his rival, determined to shew them and the world, by printing this treatise, his superior qualifications for that appointment. Some time after the publication of this work, a paper having been admitted into the "Philosophical Transactions," containing experiments intended to invalidate some of our author's opinions, he thought proper, in an account which he gave of his book in the same Transactions, to take some notice of those experiments. In consequence of this, several of his dissertations

on

on the resistance of the air were read, and experiments to confirm his doctrine were exhibited before the Royal Society, in the years 1746 and 1747; for which he was presented with the annual gold medal by that society. The reputation which he acquired by this performance, occasioned his being invited by the Prince of Orange to assist in the defence of Bergen-op-Zoom, which was besieged by the French in 1747; and he actually crossed the sea with that view: but he had scarcely reached the Dutch camp, before the French, owing either to negligence or treachery in the garrison, unexpectedly became masters of the place.

In 1748, Anson's "Voyage round the World" issued from the press, bearing the name of Walter in the title-page, though it was in reality written by Mr. Robins. The public had been for some time in expectation of an account of this voyage, drawn up under that commander's own inspection, by the Rev. Richard Walter, who had officiated as his chaplain during the greatest part of the expedition. When Walter had nearly finished his task, it was thought proper that some able judge should review and correct the manuscript before it was delivered to the printer, and Robins was selected for that purpose. Upon the report which he made it was resolved, that a new account of the voyage should be written entirely by himself, and that what had been compiled by Walter, being mostly taken verbatim from the journals, should be used as materials only. Hence, the whole of the introduction, and many dissertations in the body of the work, were composed by Robins without receiving the least hint from Walter's manuscript. No production of the kind ever met with a more favourable reception, four large impressions of it having been disposed of within the first year, and repeated editions since that time, in various sizes. It was also translated into most of the European languages. Mr. Robins having now acquired a high character as an elegant and impressive writer, he was requested to draw up an apology for the unfortunate defeat of the King's troops by the rebels, at Prestonpans, in Scotland. This was added as a preface to "The Report of the Proceedings and Opinion of the Board of General Officers, on their Examination into the Conduct of Lieutenant-General Sir John Cope, &c." published in 1749; and it was esteemed a masterpiece in its kind. After this Mr. Robins had opportunities, through the favour of Lord Anson, of making further experiments in gunnery, an account of which was published with his other pieces after his death. Through the interest of the same nobleman he had also the satisfaction of contributing not a little to the improvement of the royal observatory at Greenwich, by procuring for it a second mural quadrant, and other instruments; by which means it became, perhaps, the most perfect observatory in the world. Of the height of our author's reputation we may form some idea from the circumstance, that in the year 1749 he was offered the choice of two very considerable employments. The first was to go to Paris, as one of the commissaries for adjusting our limits in Acadia; and the other, to be Engineer-general to the East-India Company, whose forts were in a ruinous condition, and required an able person to put them into a proper state of defence. He accepted the latter, as best suited to his genius, and because the Company's terms were at the same time advantageous and honourable. With a complete set of astronomical and other instruments for making observations and experiments, he arrived in India during the summer of the year 1750, and immediately set about the business of his office with the utmost diligence. He formed complete plans for Fort St. David and Madras; but he did not live to carry them into execution; for his constitution, which was always delicate, was so much affected by the great difference of the climate from that of England, that he was attacked by a fever in the month of September; and though he recovered from it, he fell into a languishing condition, in which he continued till his death, which took place in July 1751, when he was only 44 years of age. Mr. Robins was one of the most accurate and elegant mathematical writers of whom the English language has to boast; and he made more real improvements in artillery, in the flight and resistance of projectiles, than all the preceding authors on that subject. His "New Principles of Gunnery" were translated into various foreign languages, and commented upon by several eminent mathematicians. The celebrated Euler translated the work into German, and accompanied his version with a large and critical commentary; and this performance was published in England with an English translation of the German comment, and notes, by Mr. Hugh Brown, in 1777, in 4to. From some memorandums which the author left behind him, it appears that he was preparing an enlarged edition of this work, which was to contain the geometrical part; and his attention was also directed to the theory of the moon. All his mathematical and philosophical pieces were collected together, and published in 2 vols. 8vo. 1761, by Dr. Wilson his executor, with an account of the author prefixed, of which we have freely availed ourselves, together with the *Biog. Brit. Martin's Biog. Phil. and Hutton's Math. Dict.*

ROBINSON (Robert), a dissenting minister of considerable note, was born on the 8th of October, 1735, at Swaffham, in Norfolk. His father died when he was young; and his maternal grandfather, Robert Wilkin, of Milden-hall, Suffolk, gent., who had ever been dissatisfied with his daughter's marriage, deprived him of his maternal inheritance. His uncle, however, who was a substantial farmer, in some measure, supplied their loss. He took Mr. Robinson home, and placed him under the Rev. Joseph Brett, at Scarning school, in Norfolk, with a view to the ministry of the church of England; where he had for one of his school-fellows the Lord Chancellor Thurlow. When about the age of fifteen or sixteen, he imbibed the notions of George Whitfield; on which account he was discarded by his uncle, and again exposed to poverty and want. He first directed his thoughts towards the ministry in the year 1754, and commenced preacher in the following year, at the age of twenty; preaching his first sermon to a congregation of poor people at Milden-hall. He continued for a year or two as one of Mr. Whitfield's preachers, and during that period he married. In the year 1758, however, he determined to separate from the Methodists; after which he settled at Norwich, with a small congregation formed chiefly of his methodistic friends, being at that time an Independent. In the year 1759 he was invited to Cambridge, and for two years preached on trial to a congregation consisting of no more than thirty-four people, and so poor that they could only raise 3*l.* 6*s.* a quarter for his subsistence. In June, 1761, he settled as their pastor, and was ordained in the usual manner; at which time we are told he exercised the office of a barber. In 1774, his congregation had so much increased as to consist of 1000 souls, including children and servants.

In Cambridge Mr. Robinson's talents soon attracted notice, and he quickly set up a Sunday evening lecture, which was well attended. His preaching was altogether without notes; a method in which he was peculiarly happy: not by trusting to his memory entirely, nor by working himself up to a degree of warmth and passion, to which the preachers among whom he first appeared commonly owed their ready utterance; but by thoroughly studying and making himself perfectly master of his subject, and a certain faculty of expression which is never at a loss for suitable and proper words. In short, his manner was admirably adapted to enlighten the understanding, and to affect and reform the heart. He had such a plainness of speech, such an easy and apparent method in dividing a discourse, and such a familiar way of reasoning, as discovered an heart filled with the tenderest concern for the meanest of his hearers; and yet there was a decency, propriety, and justness, that the most judicious could not but approve. Several gentlemen of the University, eminent for character and abilities, we are told, were his constant hearers.

The circumstances which lost him his uncle's patronage, paved the way for the future events of his life. The incident which made him discard the common sentiments on the subject of baptism, at once marked the turn of his mind, and shows what apparently slight causes frequently determine the lot

lot and usefulness of our lives. He was invited to the baptism of a child; the minister who was to perform the service keeping the company in long expectation of his appearance, some one suggested, that supposing the child were not baptized at all, he saw not how it could affect his happiness. Though the conversation was not pursued, the hint struck Mr. Robinson's mind; and he immediately determined to read the New Testament with this particular view, to examine what it said concerning the baptism of infants. He accordingly began with the Gospel of Matthew; and, in succession, perused the historical and epistolary books, in expectation that he should find in every following part what he had not met with in the preceding parts of the sacred volume; namely, passages recommending and urging this rite. But observing, on the whole, a total silence about it, he thought it his duty to relinquish the practice, as without foundation in the rule of our faith; which appeared to him to speak only of the baptism of believers.

This change of his sentiments was more unfavourable than the former alterations in his religious judgment to his worldly views; and having married very early in life from pure affection, he was involved in great difficulties for near twelve years after his settlement in Cambridge; as, in that course of time, his family became numerous, and the support of an aged mother, as well as of a wife and ten children, depended upon him. But unexpected supplies, from quarters of which he was ignorant, frequently relieved his necessities, and confirmed his trust in Providence: yet the situation of his family must, it is easy to conceive, have much affected his mind. For he appears to have possessed great tenderness and sensibility, and to have regarded with peculiar endearment his domestic connections.

It may be reckoned a circumstance worthy of mention, that the sphere of Mr. Robinson's ministry was the same in which his great grandfather Mr. Shelly, of Jesus College, and vicar of All-Saints, had, with others, diffused the principles of the Puritans, about the beginning of the 17th century. The reputation of the Dissenters in the University and neighbourhood, had for almost a century been sinking into contempt, when Mr. Robinson settled with the baptist church at Stone Yard. His abilities and assiduity, however, raised their reputation. The place in which his people assembled, which was at first a barn, afterwards a stable and granary, and then a meeting-house, but still a damp, dark, and ruinous place, soon became too small for the audience; and several of the new auditors being men of fortune, they purchased the site, and erected at their own expence a new house in the year 1764.

His labours as a preacher were not limited to the town of Cambridge; but soon after his coming there, he set up several lectures in the adjacent villages. His lectures were either annual or occasional, or stated on fixed days. The usual time was half an hour after six in the evening; and sometimes at five in the morning; and now and then in the summer, at two in the afternoon, for the sake of those who came from a distance.

He died on the 9th of June, 1790, at the house of William Russel, Esq., of Showell Green, near Birmingham. He had laboured under an alarming disorder for some time before; but on the Sunday preceding his death he preached a charity sermon. On Monday he was seized with a fit; on Tuesday he recovered and went to bed tolerably well, but was found dead next morning.

The abilities of Mr. Robinson were very considerable, as appears from his numerous works; and he possessed the quality of expressing his thoughts in an easy and a forcible manner. But he appears to have been of an unsteady temper, and, in our opinion, acquires but little credit either from the frequency with which he changed his religious creed, or from the foolish and undeserved acrimony with which he treated the church of England. His Plan of Lectures on the Principles of Noncomformity, for the Instruction of Catechumens, is a piece of the most unjust and illiberal abuse that we have ever seen, and would have disgraced the most high-flying Puritan of the last century.

Mr. Robinson's largest work, the History of Baptism and of the Baptists, was published since his death, and is written in the same style and with the same confidence as his other works. Yet, as we have heard it remarked by a learned and liberal professor of theology in the church which he opposed, it is not a little remarkable that there is in it no argument or fact against infant baptism which was not answered by Dr. Wall nearly 100 years ago, of whose arguments Mr. Robinson, however, takes no notice.

ROBINSON (Mrs. Anastasia), an amiable and accomplished songstress who flourished from the year 1714 to 1724. This performer, descended from a good family in Leicestershire, was the daughter of a portrait painter, who, having visited Italy for improvement in his art, had made himself master of the Italian language, and acquired a good taste in music. Finding that his daughter Anastasia, during her childhood, had an ear for music, and a promising voice, he had her taught by Dr. Crofts, at first as an accomplishment; but afterwards being afflicted with a disorder in his eyes, which terminated in a total loss of sight; and this misfortune depriving him of the means of supporting himself and family by his pencil, he was under the necessity of availing himself of his daughter's disposition for music, to turn it to account as a profession. She not only prosecuted her musical studies with great diligence, but, by the assistance of her father, had acquired such a knowledge in the Italian tongue as enabled her to converse in that language, and to read the best poets in it with facility. And that her taste in singing might approach nearer to that of the natives of Italy, she had vocal instructions from Sandoni, at that time an eminent Italian singing master resident in London, and likewise from the opera singer called the Baroness.

Her first public exhibition was at the concerts in York-buildings, and at other places, where she usually accompanied herself on the harpsichord. Her general education had been pursued with the utmost care and attention to the improvement of her mind, as well as to ornamental and external accomplishments; and these advantages, seconded by her own disposition and amiable qualities, rendered her conduct strictly prudent and irreproachable. And what still entitled her to general favour, was a behaviour full of timidity and respect to her superiors, and an undissembled gentleness and affability to others, which, with a native cheerfulness that diffused itself to all around her, gained her at all times such a reception from the public, as seemed to ensure her success in whatever she should undertake. Encouraged by the partiality of the public towards his daughter, and particularly by the countenance and patronage of some persons of high rank of her own sex, Mr. Robinson took a house in Golden-square, where he established weekly concerts and assemblies in the manner of *conversazioni*, which were frequented by all such as had any pretensions to politeness and good taste.

Thus qualified and encouraged, she was prevailed upon to accept of an engagement at the Opera, where she made her first appearance in Creso, and her second in the character of Ismina, the principal female part in Arminio. From this period till the year 1724, she continued to perform a principal part at the Opera with increasing favour and applause. Her salary is said to have been 1000*l.*, and her emoluments, by benefits and presents, were estimated at nearly as much more. When she quitted the stage it was supposed to have been in consequence of her marriage with the gallant Earl of Peterborough, the friend of Pope and Swift, who distinguished himself so heroically in Spain during the reign of queen Anne. Though the marriage was not publicly declared till the earl's death in 1735, yet it was then spoken of as an event which had long taken place. And such was the purity of her conduct and character, that she was instantly visited at Fulham as the lady of the mansion, by persons of the highest rank. Here, and at Mount Bevis, the earl's seat near Southampton, she resided in an exalted station till the year of her decease, 1750, surviving her lord fifteen years; who, at the time of the connexion, must

must have been considerably beyond his prime, as he was arrived at his seventy-fifth year when he died.

The following account of this marriage from the pen of a female friend of Mrs. Robinson's, will probably be deemed interesting by our readers.

"Among the number of persons of distinction who frequented Mr. Robinson's house, and seemed to distinguish his daughter in a particular manner, were the Earl of Peterborough and General H——; the latter had shewn a long attachment to her, and his attentions were so remarkable, that they seemed more than the effects of common politeness; and as he was a very agreeable man, and in good circumstances, he was favourably received, not doubting but that his intentions were honourable. A declaration of a very contrary nature was treated with the contempt it deserved, though Mrs. A. Robinson was very much prepossessed in his favour."

"Soon after this, Lord P. endeavoured to convince her of his partial regard for her; but, agreeable and artful as he was, she remained very much upon her guard, which rather increased than diminished his admiration and passion for her. Yet still his pride struggled with his inclination; for all this time she was engaged to sing in public, a circumstance very grievous to her, but urged by the best of motives, she submitted to it, in order to assist her parents, whose fortune was much reduced by Mr. Robinson's loss of sight, which deprived him of the benefit of his profession as a painter."

"At length Lord P. made his declaration to her on honourable terms; he found it would be vain to make proposals on any other; and as he omitted no circumstance that could engage her esteem and gratitude, she accepted them, as she was sincerely attached to him. He earnestly requested her keeping it a secret till it was a more convenient time for him to make it known, to which she readily consented, having a perfect confidence in his honour."

"Lord P. took a house near Fulham, in the neighbourhood of his own villa, at Parson's-Green, where he settled Mrs. Robinson and her mother. They never lived under the same roof, till the earl, being seized with a violent fit of illness, solicited her to attend him at Mount Bevis, near Southampton, which she refused with great firmness, but upon condition that, though still denied to take his name, she might be permitted to wear her wedding ring; to which, finding her inexorable, he at length consented."

"His haughty spirit was still reluctant to the making a declaration, that would have done justice to so worthy a character as the person to whom he was now united. But at last he prevailed on himself to do her justice, instigated, it is supposed, by his bad state of health, which obliged him to seek another climate, and she absolutely refused to go with him unless he declared his marriage; her attendance upon him in his illness nearly cost her her life."

"He appointed a day for all his nearest relations to meet him at the apartment over the gate-way of St. James's palace, belonging to Mr. Pointz, who was married to Lord Peterborough's niece, and at that time preceptor to prince William, afterwards duke of Cumberland. Lord P. also appointed Lady P. to be there at the same time; when they were all assembled he began a most eloquent oration, enumerating all the virtues and perfections of Mrs. A. Robinson, and the rectitude of her conduct during his long acquaintance with her, for which he acknowledged his great obligations and sincere attachment, declaring he was determined to do her that justice which he ought to have done long ago, which was presenting her to all his family as his wife. He spoke this harangue with so much energy, and in parts so pathetically, that Lady P. not being apprised of his intentions, was so affected that she fainted away in the midst of the company."

ROBINSON'S ISLAND, a small island in the Florida stream. Lat. 24. 43. N long. 81. 35. W.

ROBINSONIA [so named from one Robinson], in botany, a genus of the class icosandria, order monogynia. Generic Character.—Calyx: perianth one-leafed, turbinate, five-toothed; teeth acute. Corolla: petals five, roundish, concave, spreading, inserted into the calyx. Stamina: filaments very many, capillary, thickened towards the top, inserted into the calyx below the petals. Anthers two-celled; cells oblong, divaricated at the base. Pistil: germ superior; style none; stigma oblong, striated. Pericarp: berry, globular-depressed, scored longitudinally with many contiguous grooves, crowned with the teeth of the calyx, fleshy, seven-celled; partitions membranaceous. Seeds solitary, oblong, compressed, outwardly convex, villose. *Essential Character.*—Calyx five-toothed; petals five; berry striated, two-celled, cells one-seeded. Seeds villose.

Robinsonia melianthifolia.—This is a large tree. Leaves alternate, almost like those of melianthus major, unequally pinnate, the leaflets lanceolate-acuminate, finely serrate, veined, the upper ones decreasing at the base into the common petiole. Stipules oblong, acute, small. Flowers yellow, minute, in a terminating panicle. Berry eatable, slightly acid, and of a pleasant taste, size of a cherry.—Native of Guiana, in woods.

ROBION, a small river in the south-east of France, department of the Isere. It falls into the Rhone, near Montmelian.

ROBISON (John), a distinguished writer on various branches of natural philosophy, was born at Boghall, in the county of Stirling, in Scotland. His father, a Glasgow merchant, who had amassed a considerable fortune, intended the subject of this memoir for the church; and, therefore, sent him at an early age as student of humanity to the Glasgow University. Here he was instructed in the rudiments of Latin and Greek literature by Dr. Moore, the well known professor of Greek; and he acquired such a knowledge of these languages as served to render him a correct classical scholar. He pursued his studies with so much attention, as to obtain the approbation of his teachers, and the admiration of his contemporaries, and he took the degree of Master of Arts in 1756, having studied mathematics under Dr. Robert Simson, where correct and rigid methods of demonstration must unquestionably have exercised considerable influence on his yet unformed taste in mathematics; but he seems to have had a natural preference, either from the constitution of his mind, or from some previously acquired habits of thinking, for the geometrical method; for we are informed that "he first attracted the regard of Dr. Simson by owning his dislike of algebra, and by returning a neat geometrical solution of a problem which had been given out to the class in an algebraical form; with this mode of solution the professor was delighted, though the pupil candidly acknowledged that it had been adopted only because he could not solve the problem in the manner required of the class."

He had imbibed, in the course of his studies, an insuperable aversion to the pursuit of his original objects in the church; probably from some difficulties that had occurred to him respecting particular points of doctrine. He was therefore compelled to provide himself with some other occupation; and he readily accepted the offers of some of his friends in 1758, to recommend him to Dr. Blair, a prebendary of Westminster; who had formed a scheme for sending Prince Edward, the young duke of York, to complete his professional education at sea, in company with Admiral Knowles; and Mr. Robison was to have instructed his Royal Highness in mathematics and navigation. He was much disappointed, on his arrival in London, to find that the expedition had never been seriously intended; and he readily accepted an engagement to attend young Knowles as a private tutor, when he went as midshipman on board of the Neptune of 99 guns, with Admiral Saunders, who had the command of a force intended to co-operate with General Wolfe in the reduction of Quebec; and upon the appointment of his friend as a lieutenant on board of the Royal William, Robison was himself rated as a midshipman in that ship.

The fleet arrived on the coast of America in April 1759; in May they got up the river, and Mr. Robison was one of a party of 100 seamen, draughted from the Royal William into

into the admiral's ship, under the command of Lieutenant Knowles: in this capacity he had an opportunity of seeing considerable service, and of making some surveys of the river and of the neighbouring country, an employment for which he was perfectly qualified, both as a geometrician and as a draughtsman. He also remarked the effect of the Aurora Borealis on the compass, which had been noticed by Mairan and Wargentin, some years before, but which was then not commonly known. After the battle, which was signalised by the victory and death of the gallant Wolfe, the Royal William sailed with his body to Europe, and arrived at Spithead in November. The next year she was sent to cruise off Cape Finisterre, but in six months she was obliged to return home, from having the greater part of the men disabled by the scurvy.

Robinson considered the two years that he spent on board of the Royal William as the happiest of his life; and no inconsiderable part of his gratification was derived from the study of seamanship, as he saw it practised under the auspices of Captain Hugh Pigot. He did not, however, acquire any firm attachment to the mode of life which he had temporarily adopted; he was rather disposed to resume his academical pursuits, and he had overcome his earlier objections to the ecclesiastical profession. He could not, however, refuse the friendly invitation of Admiral Knowles to come and live with him in the country, and to assist him in some important experiments which he was making upon mechanical and nautical subjects.

In the month of February 1762, Lieutenant Knowles was appointed to the Peregrine sloop, of 20 guns, and Mr Robison accompanied him with the hopes of becoming a purser. He visited Lisbon and several other parts of Portugal; but he found a cruise in a small ship much less convenient and agreeable than in a large one, and, fortunately for himself and for mankind, he finally quitted the Peregrine and the naval service in June, and returned to live with Admiral Knowles; who soon after recommended him as a proper person to take charge of Harrison's timekeeper, which had been completed by the labour of 35 years, after many unsuccessful experiments, and which was now sent out by desire of the Board of Longitude, to the West Indies, under the care of young Harrison and of Mr. Robison. The rate of the chronometer was ascertained at Portsmouth the 6th of November, 1762, and it indicated, at Port Royal in Jamaica, a difference of time amounting to $5^{h}\ 2^{m}\ 47'$, which is only four seconds less than the true longitude. After a few days, the observers had a prompt opportunity of returning home by the Merlin sloop, which was sent to Europe with dispatches. The voyage was most disastrous with respect to wind and weather, and at last the ship took fire; but she arrived safe at Portsmouth in March, and on the 2d of April the watch gave $11^{h}\ 58^{m}\ 6\frac{1}{2}''$, instead of 12^{h}, for the time of mean noon, so that the error, after six months, was only $1\ \ 53\frac{1}{2}''$, amounting to no more than about 20 miles of distance.

Mr. Robinson received, upon his return, the afflicting intelligence of the total loss of the Peregrine, which had foundered at sea with her commander, and the whole of the ship's company. He was also greatly disappointed in the failure of some hopes which had been held out to him from the Admiralty and the Board of Longitude; though in fact there is little reason for the public to regret that he was not gratified with the pursership, whish he claimed as the reward of his services. He was indeed afterwards actually made a purser by Lord Sandwich, in 1763; but he then declined accepting the appointment.

He had now no other resource than to return to Glasgow, and to resume his academical pursuits with renewed energy. It was from this time that he dated his serious application to his studies; he became extremely intimate with Dr. Reid and Dr. Alexander Wilson, and he had the advantage of being a witness of two of the greatest steps in the improvement of physical science, that have been made in modern times, Dr. Black's experimental theory of heat, and Mr. Watt's invention of a new steam-engine. Dr. Black was the first that determined the quantity of heat required for the conversion of ice into water; Mr. Watt, who was settled as a mathematical instrument-maker, at Glasgow, had been employed in repairing a working model of Newcomen's engine for one of the professors of the university, and it was the difficulty of supplying this model with steam that suggested to Mr. Watt the eligibility of having a separate condenser, and that led him, in conjunction with Dr. Black, to a knowledge of the quantity of heat consumed in evaporation.

Amid the enthusiasm which is always inspired by the progress of scientific discovery, and of practical improvement, Mr. Robison found every encouragement and every facility for the pursuit of his favourite objects. He was recommended by Dr. Black, upon his removal to Edinburgh in 1766, as his successor in the lectureship of chemistry, though without the appointment of a professor. He took charge, also, of the education of Macdowal of Garthland, and of Mr. Charles Knowles, afterwards Sir Charles. Admiral Knowles was soon after recommended by the British government to the Empress of Russia, in order to effect a reformation in her navy, having been employed on a similar service in Portugal, almost fifty years before; he had always been a firm friend to Mr. Robison, and now engaged him on this mission, with a salary of 250*l.* a year; and they proceeded together to St. Petersburgh, in December, 1770. Being hospitably entertained on their way by the Prince Bishop of Liege, whom they found to constitute, with his chapter and all his servants, a lodge of freemasons, Mr. Robison was easily persuaded to become one of that fraternity; in a few days he was made an apprentice, and by degrees attained the rank of Scotch master, as he has himself related in his publication upon the subject. He continued nearly two years at St. Petersburg, still acting in the capacity of private secretary to Sir Charles, much to the advantage of the Russian navy, though his improvements were frequently retarded by the prejudices of the native officers. Mr. Robison was then appointed inspector general of the corps of marine cadets at Cronstadt, with a double salary, and with the rank of Lieutenant Colonel. His duty was to receive the report of about forty teachers and professors, respecting the studies of 400 young noblemen, who were their pupils, and to class them according to his judgment of their merits; but he had himself nothing to teach, nor could he have had much occasion for "lecturing fluently in the Russian language," though he was introduced by his friend Kutusoff, to the Grand Duke Paul, as a proficient in that language; but to the Empress he was not personally known. At Petersburg he could have lived without regretting his country, in the society of such men as Euler and Alpinus, admired by the Russians, and beloved by the British; but Cronstadt in winter was deplorably melancholy; and he was induced, without much difficulty, in 1773, to make some little pecuniary sacrifice in accepting the professorship of Natural Philosophy at Edinburgh, which had become vacant by the death of Dr. Russell, and to which he had been recommended by Dr. Robertson, then Principal of the University. His determination was not disapproved by the Russian government, who granted him a pension of about 80*l.* a year for life; but it was only paid as long as three or four young men, who had accompanied him as pupils, continued to reside at Edinburgh; some discontent having been expressed because he did not keep up a correspondence with the Academy on the improvement of maritime education.

He arrived at Edinburgh in September, 1774; he married soon after, and continued to reside in that city for the remaining thirty years of his life, paying only an annual visit to his native place, where he possessed a part of his paternal estate; not being solicitous to extend it, although "he did not diminish it otherwise than as it had been diminished before," that is, in making provision for younger children. His predecessor had been very judicious and successful as a lecturer, though not a mathematician of the highest order; he had himself more practical knowledge and experience in mechanics, and was better acquainted with the foreign mathematicians, who had naturally fallen under his notice during

during his residence on the continent. His lectures were considered by most of his pupils as somewhat too difficult to be followed; a complaint which, if it did not depend on their own want of preparatory information, arose perhaps rather more from the hasty manner of his enunciation, than from the abstruseness of his matter. "The singular facility of his own apprehensions," says Professor Playfair, "made him judge too favourably of the same power in others. To understand his lectures completely was, on account of the rapidity, and the uniform flow of his discourse, not a very easy task, even for men tolerably familiar with the subject. On this account, his lectures were less popular than might have been expected from such a combination of talents as the author of them possessed." This inconvenience was increased "by the small number of experiments he introduced, and a view that he took of natural philosophy, which left but a very subordinate place for them to occupy. An experiment he would very truly observe, does not establish a general proposition, and never can do more than prove a particular fact:" but he seems to have carried this principle to some little excess: it is, in fact, the *illustration*, and not the *proof*, of general principles that is the object of a public exhibition of experiments. With respect, however, to "accuracy of definition, to clearness, brevity, and elegance of demonstration, and even to neatness and precision in experiments," Professor Robison was very successful; his course extended "to every branch of physics and of mixed mathematics," and entered so fully into the detail of each particular division of the subjects, that "a more perfect system of academical instruction is not easily to be imagined:" nothing, in short, was wanting, but so much previous knowledge of mathematics in his pupils, as he thought he had a right to expect, though his expectations were too rarely fulfilled.

The Philosophical Society of Edinburgh had been almost suffered to sink into oblivion after the publication of the third volume of its *Essays*, in 1756. Professor Robison became a member of it soon after his return from Russia, and was chosen secretary of the new society, upon its formation by royal charter in 1783, when it incorporated with itself the whole of the surviving members of the former society. In 1798 he received the compliment of a degree of Doctor of Laws from the university of New Jersey; and a similar honour was paid him at Glasgow the year after. In 1800 he was elected, as successor to Dr. Black, on the list of the foreign members of the Royal Academy of Sciences of St. Petersburgh.

He was attacked, in 1785, by a severe disorder, from which he was never afterwards wholly free, though it produced little inconvenience besides pain, with some depression of spirits, which was, however, attributed rather to the closeness of his application, than to the immediate effect of the disease, which was a glandular induration. He complained of a slight cold, after giving a lecture, on the 28th of January 1805, and died on the 30th.

Robison's works consist of a paper, in 1785, on the "Determination of the Orbit and Motion of the Georgium Sidus," which was published in the Edinburgh Transactions, Vol. I. He had observed the opposition of the planet, with an equatorial telescope only, and he had computed the elements of its orbit with greater accuracy than any other astronomer had then done; although his suspicion of the effect of such a planet on the motions of Jupiter and Saturn, has not been confirmed by later investigations; the irregularities of these planets, on the contrary, having been otherwise explained. A second paper, published in the same collection, Vol. II. p. 82, relates to the "Motion of Light," as affected by refracting or reflecting substances, which are themselves in motion. He communicated various articles to the third edition of the Encyclopædia Britannica and to its supplement; namely, Optics (though he probably only revised and enlarged that article), Philosophy, which he wrote jointly with Dr. Gleig; Physics, Pneumatics, Precession, Projectiles, Pumps, Resistance, Rivers, Roof, Ropemaking, Rotation, Seamanship, Signal, Sound, Specific Gravity, Statics, Steam, Steam-Engine, Steelyard, Strength, Telescope, Tide, Trumpet, Variation, and Waterworks, in the dictionary; and in the supplement, Arch, Astronomy, Boscovich, Carpentry, Centre, Dynamics, Electricity, Impulsion, Involution, Machinery, Magnetism, Mechanics, Percussion, Piano-forte, Position, Temperament, Thunder, Trumpet, Tschirnhaus, and Watchwork. Notwithstanding some degree of prolixity and want of arrangement, which it was difficult to avoid in the preparation of original articles for such a mode of publication, the whole of them, taken together, undeniably exhibit a more complete view of the modern improvements of physical science, than had ever before been in the possession of the British public.

He began a work, on a large scale, that was intended to form a complete system, and was to be, necessarily, an amplification and improvement of his contributions to the Encyclopædia. It was entitled, "Elements of Mechanical Philosophy;" but it was never popular, and never advanced beyond the first volume. After his death, however, Dr. Brewster collected his chief writings into a "System of Mechanical Philosophy," and furnished it with notes. These are valuable, as every thing is which has flowed from Dr. Brewster's pen, but they are very few in number. In his preface to this work, he says of Robison, that although his name "cannot be associated with the great discoveries of the century which he adorned, yet the memory of his talents and his virtues will be long cherished by his country. Imbued with the genuine spirit of the philosophy which he taught, he was one of the warmest patrons of genius wherever it was found. His mind was nobly elevated above the mean jealousies of rival ambition, and his love of science and of justice was too ardent to allow him either to depreciate the labours of others, or to transfer them to himself. To these great qualities as a philosopher, Dr. Robison added all the more estimable endowments of domestic and of social life. His friendship was at all times generous and sincere. His piety was ardent and unostentatious. His patriotism was of the most pure and exalted character; and, like the immortal Newton, whose memory he cherished with a peculiar reverence, he was pre-eminently entitled to the high distinction of a Christian, patriot, and philosopher." His person was handsome, and his physiognomy prepossessing; and he appears to have been endowed with an extraordinary combination of talents, even exclusively of those which were called into immediate activity in his professional pursuits; for he was a good linguist, an excellent draughtsman, and an accomplished musician. This man, so distinguished in natural science, rendered himself ridiculous by marching into the more difficult field of politics. He wrote, in 1797, a work entitled, "Proofs of a Conspiracy against all the Religions and Governments of Europe," which exhibits a simple credulity in the author, only to be equalled by his illiberality.

There appears to have been some slight differences of opinion among Robison's friends, as to the extent of his attainments in the pure mathematics. On this subject Dr. Young remarks, (Supplement to Ency. Brit. Art. Robison), that "Professor Robison seems rarely to have cultivated the higher mathematics for their own sake only, or any farther than as they could be applied to the study of the phenomena of nature, or to the practice of the combinations of art; in fact, without such limitation, there would be no tract to guide us in the pathless regions of quantity and number, and their endless relations and functions. But besides the utility of the pure mathematics, as a branch of early education, in exercising and fortifying the powers of the mind, it is impossible to see with certainty, how much of mathematics may be wanted by the natural philosopher in any given investigation; and Professor Robison, as well as many others of his countrymen, would certainly have been the better for the possession of a little more, as the author of the criticisms in the Imperial Review has already had occasion to remark."

ROBLEDO, a town of the interior of Spain, in New Castile, province of La Mancha. It contains 6400 inhabitants, who are owners of large flocks of Merino sheep, and carry on a brisk traffic in their wool: 33 miles south-by-east of Ciudad Real, and 57 north-by-east of Jaen.

ROBLES, a river of New Granada, in the province of Popayan, which runs north-east, and unites itself with the river Honda, to enter the Cauca by the west part, in Lat. 2. 34. N.

ROBO, a village of Yemen, in Arabia; 12 miles east-north-east of Zebid.

ROBORANTS, *s. pl.* Strengthening medicines.

ROBORA'TION, *s.* [*roboration*, Fr.] A strengthening; a confirmation of strength. *Not in use. Coles.*

ROBO'REOUS, *adj.* [*robur*, Lat.] Made of oak. *Johnson.*

ROBOROUGH, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 6 miles east-south-east of Great Torrington. Population 453.

ROBORTELLO (Francesco), an Italian man of letters, born at Udine in 1516, was the son of a notary and noble of that city. He was educated at the University of Bologna under Romolo Amaseo, and about 1538 was invited to occupy the chair of eloquence at Lucca. In 1543 he removed to Pisa, where he held a similar professorship till 1549, when he received an invitation to Venice to succeed Batista Egnazio, then past his services. About that time he took a wife at his native place; and in 1552 he was called to Padua to fill the chair of Greek and Latin eloquence vacant by the death of Lazzaro Buonamici. He quitted Padua for Bologna in 1557; whence, in 1560, he was recalled by the senate of Venice to his chair at Padua. In that city he died in 1567, in his 51st year. The University gave him a splendid funeral, and the German nation erected a handsome monument to his memory in the church of St. Antonio.

Robortello appears to have been of a contentious disposition, for at most of the places of his residence he was involved in quarrels with his colleagues, and his writings are full of attacks upon his contemporaries. He published numerous works, chiefly on critical and antiquarian topics, among which were, "Annotations on various Authors, Greek and Latin," 1543, republished in 1548 with several small treatises: a corrected edition of "Aristotle's Poetics," together with a paraphrase on "Horace's Art of Poetry;" an edition of the "Tragedies of Æschylus;" of "Ælian's Tactics," with a Latin version; and of "Longinus de Sublimitate," with annotations. He also published a valuable work "De Vita et Victu Populi Romani sub Imperatoribus Cæsaribus Augustis," with ten other dissertations on subjects of Roman antiquity; and a book "De Artificio dicendi."

ROBU'ST, or ROBU'STIOUS, *adj.* [*robustus*, Lat. *robuste*, Fr.] Strong; sinewy; vigorous; forceful.

These redundant locks,
Robustious to no purpose, clustering down,
Vain monument of strength. *Milton.*

Boisterous; violent; unwieldy.—It offends me to hear a *robustious* perriwig-pated fellow tear a passion to tatters, to very rags, to split the ears of the groundlings. *Shakspeare.*—Hardly could one see a man of a more grim aspect; and no less *robust* and rude was his behaviour. *Sir T. Herbert.*—While I was managing this young *robustious* fellow, that old spark, who was nothing but skin and bone, slipt through my fingers. *Dryden.*—Requiring strength.—The tenderness of a sprain remains a good while after, and leaves a lasting caution in the man, not to put the part again to any *robust* employment. *Locke.*—*Robustious* is now only used in low language, and in a sense of contempt.

Admires how modest women can
Be so *robustious* like a man. *Swift.*

ROBUSTI. See TINTORETTO.

ROBU'STIOUSLY, *adv.* With violence; with fury.—The multitude commend writers, as they do fencers or wrestlers, who, if they come in *robustiously*, and put for it with a deal of violence, are received for the braver fellows. *B. Jonson.*

ROBU'STIOUSNESS, *s.* Quality of being vigorous.—That *robustiousness* of body, and puissance of person, which is the only fruit of strength. *Sir. E. Sandys.*

ROBU'STNESS, *s.* Strength; vigour.—Beef may confer a *robustness* on my son's limbs, but will hebetate his intellectuals. *Arbuthnot.*

ROCA, an archipelago of small desert islands on the coast of the province and government of Venezuela, in New Granada. They extend about 23 miles from east to west, and 10 from north to south. The most northern of these islands is the most worthy of note, from a lofty mountain of white stone, which it has at the west extremity. The other islands are low; and that which is nearest to the one just mentioned, is small and flat, and produces nothing but grass. These islands are situated in Lat. 11. 55. N. long. 66. 45. W.

ROCA, a point of land on the south coast of the island of St. Domingo.—There is another on the north coast of the same island.

ROCA, a small river of the island of Martinique, which runs north, and enters the sea.

ROCA DE ILHEOS, a small island on the coast of the province of Venezuela, of a very hot climate, but inhabited. Lat. 11. 51. N.

ROCA PAMPLONA, a dangerous rock in the South Pacific ocean, which lies about 26 leagues off Cape Suckling, on the west coast of North America.

ROCA PARTIDO, a small island in the North Pacific ocean, south-east of La Messa, and west from the isle La Nublada, and in about Lat. 16. 35. N. long. 128. W.

ROCAB, a small seaport of Hadramaunt, in Arabia, on the Indian ocean; 30 miles south-south-west of Sahar.

ROCABERTI (John-Thomas de), a Spanish prelate in the 17th century, noted for the ardour of his zeal in defence of the high claims of the papal see. He was made Archbishop of Valencia in 1676; and inquisitor general in Spain in 1695. He was honoured with the esteem of the Catholic King, who twice appointed him Viceroy of Valencia. He published a treatise "De Romani Pontificis Auctoritate," 1693, in 3 vols. folio. This work was very favourably received in Spain and in Italy; but the sale of it was prohibited in France, by a decree of the parliament of Paris. Not contented with such a proof of his devotedness to the holy see, he spared no pains in procuring all the treatises which had been composed by different authors in defence of the Pope's authority and infallibility, and made provision for their being printed in an uniform edition at Rome. This enormous collection is entitled, "Bibliotheca Maxima Pontificia," &c., and consists of 21 folio volumes. The Archbishop died in 1699, when he was about 75 years of age. *Moreri.*

ROCAIBA, a small town of Hedsjas, in Arabia; 120 miles east-north-east of Mecca.

ROCAIBA, a small town of Nedsjed, in Arabia; 17 miles east of Mecca.

ROCAMA, in botany, an Arabian name, applied by Forskall, in his Fl. Ægypt-Arab. 71, to the Linnæan *Trianthema pentandra*, which he there establishes as a distinct genus. See TRIANTHEMA.

ROCAMADOUR, a town of France, department of the Lot, on the river Alzon. It contains about 1100 inhabitants, and had formerly a celebrated abbey; 22 miles north of Cahors.

RO'CAMBOLE, *s.* *Rocambole* is a sort of wild garlick, otherwise called Spanish garlick; the seed is about the bigness of ordinary pease. *Mortimer.* — Garlick, *rocambole*, and onions abound with a pungent volatile salt. *Arbuthnot.*

ROCAS, a town of Ommon, in Arabia, near the sea.

ROCAS, two small islands in the Pacific ocean, on the coast of Peru. They stand at the mouth of the river Pisagua, in the province of Carangas.

ROCCA (Angelo), a learned Italian monk and titular bishop in the 16th and early part of the 17th century. When very young he took the habit among the hermits of St. Augustine, and pursued his studies at Rome, Venice, Pavia and Padua. Pope Sextus V. placed him in the Vatican in 1585, and confided to his superintendence those editions of the Bible, the councils, and the fathers, which issued

issued from the apostolical press during his pontificate. He collected a very large and excellent library, which he left by his will to the Augustinian monastery at Rome; but upon the express condition, that it should be always open for the benefit of the public. It was called after the name of its founder, the *Angelical Library*. Our author died in 1620, at the age of 75. He published "Bibliotheca Vaticana illustrata," which is held in much esteem, though not always accurate; "Bibliotheca Theologica et Scripturalis;" "Notæ in Novum Testamentum;" "De Patientia;" "De Cometis;" "Observationes in vi Libros Elegantiarum Laur. Vallæ;" "Observationes de Lingua Latina;" and other pieces which were collected together, and printed in 2 vols. folio, in the year 1719. From his manuscripts was also published in 1745, a very curious collection, entitled, "Thesaurus Pontificiarum Antiquitatum, necnon Rituum ac Cœremoniarum," in 2 vols. folio. *Landi's Hist. de la Lit d'Italie. Moreri.*

ROCCA, a village of Italy, in Piedmont, province of Turin. It is situated on a hill near the source of the Malone. Population 2200.

ROCCA, a small town of Austrian Italy, situated on the Lago Maggiore; 30 miles north-west of Milan.

ROCCA, CARBO DA, a cape on the west coast of Portugal, in the province of Estremadura. It is the most westerly point of land in Europe, and is called by English seamen the rock of Lisbon. Lat. 38. 46. 6. N. long. 9. 29. 21. W.

ROCCA, CAPE ST., a promontory on the west coast of the island of Elba. Lat. 42. 45. N. long. 10. 15. E.

ROCCA D'ARRAZZO, a town of the Continental Sardinian states, in Montserrat, near the Tanaro. Population 2000; 6 miles east of Asti.

ROCCA D'ASPIDE, a town of Naples, in the Principato Citra. Population 2900; 15 miles west-south-west of Cangiano.

ROCCA DE BALDI, a town of Italy, in Piedmont, on the river Pesio, with 2200 inhabitants; 6 miles north-west of Mondovi.

ROCCA BIANCA, a town in the north of Italy, in the grand duchy of Parma, situated in an extensive plain, near the Po. Population 1800; 12 miles north-north-west of Parma.

ROCCA-GLORIOSA, a small town of Naples, in the Principato Citra; 7 miles west-north-west of Policastro.

ROCCA IMPERIALE, a small town of Naples, in the Basilicata, on the gulf of Taranto, with a fort for the protection of the coast; 10 miles south of Tursi, and 55 west of Policastro.

ROCCA-LANZONE, a small town of Italy, on an eminence near the river Taro; 9 miles west-south-west of Parma.

ROCCA MANDOLFI, a town of Naples in the province of Molise. Population 3400; 40 miles north of Naples.

ROCCA MONFIORA, a town of Naples, in the Terra di Lavoro. Population 2900; 3 miles north of Sezza.

ROCCA DE NIETO, a small town in the south of the kingdom of Naples, in Calabria Citra, on the Nieto; 40 miles west-by-south of Cosenza.

ROCCA RAMOLA, a small town of Naples, in the Terra di Lavoro; 3 miles north-by-east of Nola.

ROCCA S. CASCIANO, a small town of Italy, in Tuscany; 6 miles south-south-west of Florence.

ROCCA S. FELICE, a town of Naples in the Principato Ultra. Population 2100.

ROCCA SECCA, a small town of Naples, in the Terra di Lavoro. Population 2500; 7 miles south-south-east of Arpino.

ROCCABILIERE, a town in the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont, province of Nice. Population 1100.

ROCCABRUNA, a town in the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont, situated on a hill. Population 1700; 3 miles east-north-east of Monaco.

ROCCACONTRADA, a small town of Italy, in the Ecclesiastical states; 24 miles east-south-east of Urbino.

ROCCAFORTE, a town in the north-west of Italy in Piedmont, province of Mondovi, on the river Ellero. Population 2500.

ROCCAVIONE, a town of Italy, in Piedmont, province of Cuneo, situated on a hill between the rivers Gesso and Germagnano. Population 2700.

ROCCELLA, a small town of Naples, in Calabria Ultra, near the sea. It has a considerable coral fishery, and is 6 miles north-by-west of Mileto, and 45 north-north-east of Reggio.

ROCCHETTA, a town of the Sardinian states, in Savoy, with 800 inhabitants, and petty manufactures of leather and iron; 10 miles south-east of Chamberry.

ROCCHETTA, a town of the Continental Sardinian states, in Montserrat, province of Casale, near the Tanaro. Population 2500.

ROCCLIFFE, a hamlet of England, West Riding of Yorkshire, near Aldborough.

ROCESTER, a parish of England in Stafford; 4 miles north-by-east of Uttoxeter. Population 873.

ROCH, a township of England, county of Worcester; 4½ miles south-west-by-south from Bewdley. Population 835.

ROCH, CAPE, a cape on the east coast of Majorca. Lat. 39. 40. N. long. 3. 5. E.

ROCHA, a town of the province of Buenos Ayres, situate on a small river, a little to the north of a lake of the same name, and about 35 miles north-east of Maldonado. Lat. 34. 22. S. long. 54. 12. W.

ROCHDALE, a considerable market town of England, in the county of Lancaster, situated on the river Roche, at the foot of the Blackstone-Edge hills. The houses are partly of brick and partly of stone, covered with slate. Over the river is a neat sone bridge of three arches. The church, an ancient building, stands on an eminence, to which there is an ascent from the lower part of the town, by a flight of 126 steps. It has a square tower, with eight bells and a set of chimes. The endowment to the vicarage is the largest in the kingdom, arising from glebe lands. Another church is erecting of stone, of the Gothic order, which, when completed, will be an elegant structure. Besides this, the town contains another, called St. Stephen's, on the foundation of Lady Huntingdon; a chapel of ease, called St. Mary's; with meeting-houses for the Presbyterians, Baptists, Methodists, &c.; a free grammar-school, founded by archbishop Parker; an English free school; several Sunday schools, and a national school. Here is also a theatre, and two assembly-rooms. The town is plentifully supplied with excellent water by the Water Work company. Rochdale, both the town and parish, have long been distinguished for trade and manufactures, which of late years have been much improved and extended. A branch of the woollen manufacture is the staple, of which the chief articles are baizes, flannels, kerseys, coatings, and broad cloths. The cotton trade, however, is also carried on here to a considerable extent. The Rochdale canal, which proceeds from Manchester to the Calder navigation at Halifax, has been of great advantage to the town and neighbourhood. The parish of Rochdale is of great extent, and is divided into seven districts or townships. It is rich in the mineral productions of slate, stone and coal. Lord Byron is lord of the manor of Rochdale, and takes his seat as an English peer, under the title of baron Byron of Rochdale. At his court leet, the officers and constables for the civil government of the parish are annually elected. Population of the parish, 29,085; of the town, 10,823. Market on Monday and Saturday; 11 miles north-by-east of Manchester, and 194 north-north-west of London. Lat. 58. 37. N. long. 2. 10, W.

ROCHE (James Fontaine de la), a French priest and periodical writer in the Jansenist connection of Poitiers, but the place and time of his birth are unknown. He obtained a benefice in the diocese of Tours, where it is probable that his principles rendered him obnoxious, since we are informed that he found it expedient to resign his cure, and to withdraw into prudent obscurity at Paris. From the year 1731 till a little before his death, he had a principal share in conducting a popular

popular periodical work among the followers of the Bishop of Ypres, entitled, "Nouvelles Ecclesiastiques;" on which account he claims this brief notice. This was a weekly publication, and at first consitsed chiefly of extracts of letters received from the different provinces; but after the year 1729 it assumed a more methodical form, and, besides ecclesiastical affairs, discussed a variety of topics interesting to theological students. In the year 1767, a table of the contents of these papers, from the year 1728 to 1760, both inclusive, was published at Paris in 2 large 4to. volumes. To render the series complete, he published another 4to. vol. at the same place in 1731, entitled, "Les Nouvelles Ecclesiastiques," relating to the state of things from the arrival of the constitution *Unigenitus* in France, towards the close of the year 1713, till the year 1760.

ROCHE (John de la), a celebrated French preacher in the 17th and at the commencement of the 18th century, was born at Nantes, in the year 1657. He became a member of the congregation of the Oratory, and distinguished himself early in life by the superiority of his pulpit talents. Hence he was frequently called to address respectable audiences, both in provincial cities and at Paris, where he was considered as excelling particularly in funeral eulogies. He died in 1711, in the 55th year of his age. He published eight volumes of sermons in 12mo., consisting of courses of Advent and Lent sermons, discourses on the mysteries of religion, and panegyrics. They are said to be recommended by the solidity of their matter, as well as by the nobleness and elegance of their composition. *Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

ROCHE, a small river of England, in Lancashire, which runs into the Irwell, at Pilkington Park.

ROCHE, or STONY RIVER. See ROCKY RIVER.

ROCHE, LA, a small inland town of the Netherlands, in the province of Liege, on the river Ourthe. It was formerly a strong place, having earthen ramparts, surrounded by the waters of the Ourthe, and a strong castle on a rock, in a commanding situation. Population 1400; 33 miles south of Liege.

ROCHE, a small town in the south-west of Switzerland, canton of Vaud. It has extensive salt-works, of which Haller the celebrated German naturalist, was for several years superintendant. It was here that he composed his great works on physiology and botany. There is a marble quarry in the neighbourhood; 40 miles east-by-north of Geneva, and 3 north-north-west of Aigle.

ROCHE, a town of Savoy, situated on a hill. Population 2300; 12 miles south-by-east of Geneva.

ROCHE L'ABEILLE, a town of France, department of the upper Vienne. It is remarkable for its quarries of serpentine stone; Population 900; 17 miles south of Limoges.

ROCHE-ALUM, *s.* [*roche*, Fr. a rock.] A purer kind of Alum.—*Roche-alum* is also good. *Mortimer.*

ROCHE-BERNARD, a town of France, department of the Morbihan, on the river Vilaine, with 1300 inhabitants; 25 miles south-east of Vannes, and 45 north-west of Nantes.

ROCHE EN BREME, a town of France, department of the Cote d'Or. Population 1700; 6 miles north-west of Saulieu.

ROCHE-CHALAIS, a town of France, department of the Dordogne, on the small river Drome. Population 1000; 34 miles west of Perigueux

ROCHE-CHOUART, a town of France, department of the Upper Vienne. It stands on the declivity of a steep hill. Population 1500; 22 miles west of Limoges, and 34 north-east of Angouleme.

ROCHE-DERRIEN, a walled town of France, department of the Cotes du Nord, on the river Treguier. Population 800; 9 miles east of Lannion.

ROCHE-GUYON, a town of France, on the Seine, with a large castle, and some petty manufactures of leather, stockings, and caps. Population nearly 1000; 8 miles north-by-west of Nantes.

ROCHE MAL-VALAISE, a town of France, department of the Creuse. Population 1200.

ROCHE ST. MICHEL, the name given to the summit of Mount Cenis, a very lofty mountain of the Alps. Elevation 9250 feet.

ROCHE MILLAY, a town of France, department of the Nievre, with 1500 inhabitants. In the vicinity are quarries of black marble; 12 miles south-east of Moulins.

ROCHE LA MOLIERE, a village of France, department of the Loire. Population 1400.

ROCHE EN REIGNIER, a town of France, department of the Upper Loire. Population 1500; 11 miles north-west of Ysseageaux, and 14 north of Le Puy.

ROCHEA, in botany, a genus of Decandolle's, in his *Plantes Grasses*, n. 103, dedicated to the memory of Daniel de la Roche, a physician of Geneva, whose inaugural dissertation, printed at Leyden in 1766, contains descriptions and plates of many plants of the natural order of ensatæ, and is often cited by writers on the genera and species of that tribe. *De Theis.*

ROCHEFORT (William de), a modern French writer, was born in 1730 at Lyons. He had a small employment in the finances; but finding in himself a greater propensity to letters than to business, he went to Paris, and devoted himself to poetry and Greek literature. His taste for antiquity led him to compose three tragedies upon the Greek models, which had too much dryness to please; and a comedy which he brought upon the stage was not more successful. In prose he published a "Refutation of the Systeme de la Nature;" a "Critical History of the Opinions of the Ancients concerning Happiness;" and a "Complete Translation of the Plays of Sophocles;" this last work gained him much credit by the elegance and fidelity of the version, and the judicious notes annexed to it. He then undertook the arduous task of a complete translation of Homer's Iliad and Odyssey (apparently in verse) of which the preliminary discourses and notes seemed to have obtained more applause than the version itself. *Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

ROCHEFORT, a town in the west of France, department of the Lower Charente, situated in a marshy track on the right bank of the Charente, about five miles from its influx into the Atlantic. Though founded only in the latter half of the 17 century, it is a place of size, containing above 15,000 inhabitants. Its form is nearly that of the segment of a circle, of which the walls form the circumference, and the river the chord. The interior of the town is pleasant. The streets are broad, straight, and laid out on a plan of perfect regularity. Nearly in the centre of the town is a spacious square called the *Place d'Armes*. The principal objects of interest are the arsenal, the cannon foundry, the barracks, the extensive magazines of naval stores, and the docks; likewise the civil and marine hospital, and the navigation school. The harbour, one of the great naval stations of the kingdom, is protected by five forts. It is formed by the Charente, which, if not wide, is secure, and capable, from its depth, of admitting vessels of great size. Even at low water the vessels are seldom in less than four fathoms depth. No storms can affect, and no hostile bombs can reach them; but the ground adjacent to the harbour being soft and marshy, is liable to be damaged by floods in the river. The docks for the building and refitting of vessels, and the stores for the equipment both of ships of the line and frigates, are very complete. The trade of Rochefort is limited, and is confined, in a great measure, to the coasting and colonial traffic. Here are, however, several manufactures, viz. cordage, stoneware, and oil; also refining of sugar. The approach to the town up the river is well defended by several forts. The ramparts of Rochefort are planted with trees, and form an agreeable walk; but as a residence this town is far from healthy, fevers being very common in summer and autumn. They are occasioned by bad water, and the extent of marshes that surround the town. Since draining a part of the latter, they have become less frequent and dangerous; 20 miles south-east of La Rochelle, and 100 north of Bourdeaux. Lat. 45. 56. 10. N. long. 0. 57. 34. W.

ROCHEFORT,

ROCHEFORT, a town of France, department of the Puy de Dome, on the river Sicule. Population 1400; 18 miles south-west of Glermont.

ROCHEFORT, a small town of France, department of the Maine and Loire, on the small river Louet. Population 2400; 9 miles south-west of Angers.

ROCHEFORT EN ARDENNES. See ROCHE, LA.

ROCHEFORT SAMSON, a village of France, department of the Drome. Population 1000; 12 miles east-north-east of Valence.

ROCHEFORTIA, [so named by Swartz, in memory of de Rochefort, author of "Histoire naturelle et morale des Isles Antilles de l'Amerique." Rotterdam, 1639], in botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order digynia, natural order of dumosæ, rhamni, *(Juss.)* Generic Character.—Calyx: perianth one-leafed, five-parted; segments ovate, blunt. Corolla: one-petalled, funnel-form; tube short; aperture open; border five-parted; segments ovate-oblong; spreading. Stamina: filaments five, inserted in the throat of the corolla at the openings, awl-shaped. Anthers oblong. Pistil: germ superior, roundish, compressed. Styles two, awl-shaped. Stigmas simple. Pericarp subglobular, two-celled. Seeds a few, angular *Essential Character.*—Calyx five-parted. Corolla one-petalled, funnel-form, inferior, with the aperture open. Fruit two-celled, many-seeded.

1. Rochefortia cuneata.—This is a shrub, three or four feet high, with a branching, upright, unarmed stem. Leaves in bundles, or threes, wedge-shaped. Peduncles commonly terminating axillary, subdichotomous, clustered, cymed, shorter than the leaves. Flowers small, greenish or whitish: segments of the calyx upright, pubescent: tube of the corolla five-cornered.—Native of Jamaica, on dry rocky mountains.

2. Rochefortia ovata.—This is a small tree, with round smooth branches. Leaves ovate, alternate, petioled, entire, somewhat villose, nerved and veined, an inch long. Peduncles five times shorter than the leaves, many-flowered with the flowers in pairs. Calyx divided to the base: segments villose at the edge, upright, incumbent. Tube of the corolla bell-shaped, the length of the calyx: segments blunt, a little longer than the tube. Anthers large, subincumbent. Germ smooth.—Native of Jamaica.

ROCHEFOUCAULT (Francis, Duke of), Prince of Marsillac, a man of wit, and a well known writer in the age of Lewis XIV., was born in 1613. He distinguished himself as one of the most brilliant young noblemen about the court, and formed a connexion with the famous duchess of Longueville, which involved him in the civil war of the Fronde. At the battle of St. Antoine, in Paris, he signalized his courage, and received a musket shot which for some time deprived him of sight. When these troubles were terminated, and he had made his peace with the government, he devoted himself to the pleasures of society and literature. His house was the resort of the best company at Paris in point of talents and understanding, and his conversation was relished by such persons as Boileau, Racine, Sevigné, and La Fayette. Nor did he only shine by his wit and vivacity; he displayed great firmness of mind under domestic losses (having had one son killed, and another wounded at the passage of the Rhine), and under the pain of the gout, with which he was much afflicted in his latter years. Mad. de Sevigné speaks of him as "holding the first rank in courage, merit, tenderness, and good sense." In Mad. Maintenon's Letters is a portrait of the duke, in which there are some features not easily reconciled to each other. "He had a happy physiognomy, a grand air, much wit, and little learning. He was intriguing, supple, and wary: I never knew a friend more solid, more open, or who gave better counsel. He loved to take the lead. Personal bravery appeared to him a folly, and scarcely did he disguise this opinion; yet he was very brave. He preserved till death the vivacity of his disposition, which was always very agreeable, though naturally serious." Huet asserts that he constantly refused to take a seat in the French Academy, because he was timid and feared to speak in public. The Duke de Rochefoucault died with philosophical tranquillity at Paris in 1680, in his 68th year. He made himself famous by a work entitled "Reflexions et Maximes," many times printed, and abundantly both praised and criticised. Voltaire speaks thus of it: "This little collection, written with that delicacy and finesse which render a style so captivating, had the rare merit of accustoming readers to think, and to give a lively and precise expression to their thoughts." The fundamental principle of this work is, that self-love is the motive of all our actions. "It is therefore (says M. Palissot) less the history than the satire of the human race: but it is a satire which pleases, because it flatters malignity, and because it excuses men from the admiration of virtue, by giving it a principle in common with vice, and thereby stripping it of the heroism attached to it." It seems allowed that the writer painted very exactly the world in which he lived, but a lover of mankind will scarcely admit that world to have been a fair example of the species.

A book of unconnected aphorisms or maxims is tedious, and liable, of course, to great irregularities in execution. Nevertheless, there are few French works in our opinion, that betray so deep and original a train of thoughts as the maxims of Rochefoucault. It is said that they were the result of extraordinary labour, the author having spent the greater part of his life, in correcting and re-writing them. The Duke also wrote "Memoires de la Regence d'Anne d'Autriche," 2 vols. 12mo., 1713, an energetic and faithful representation of that stormy period, in which he was himself an actor. *Nouv. Dict. Hist. Voltaire's Siecle du Lewis* XIV.

ROCHEFOUCAULT, a town of France, department of the Charente, on the river Tardoire, with a castle, and 2400 inhabitants. It has some manufactures of leather and linen; its chief traffic is in these articles and in wood. It conferred, before the Revolution, the title of duke; 20 miles north-east of Angouleme, and 58 south of Poitiers.

ROCHELLE, LA, a town of France, the capital of the department of the Lower Charente; situated in a plain at the bottom of a small gulf of the Atlantic. Its population is about 17,500; its form is nearly oval: its length from north to south, exclusive of the suburbs, is above three quarters of a mile; its breadth above half a mile. Its fortifications, the work of the famous Vauban, are in good condition, and consist of 19 large bastions, and eight half moons, inclosed by a moat and covered way. On the side of the sea it has a massy wall, flanked with large antique towers. The town is well built, the streets broad, and in general straight; the houses spacious, and almost all supported in front, as at Chester, by arcades, which, however, by concealing the pedestrians from view, cause a dullness in the streets. La Rochelle has several squares, in particular the one called the *Place d'Armes*, or *Place du Chateau*, which consists of a spacious area planted with trees, and commanding a view of the roadstead and shipping. The principal public buildings of La Rochelle are the cathedral, the hospital, the orphan-house, and the exchange. The town contains a few scientific institutions, along with a navigation school, and a cabinet of natural history.

La Rochelle has long been an interesting place in a commercial view: its port stretches into the interior of the town, like that of Marseilles, and if not large, is secure. It has, all along its sides, a mole, of which the total length is three quarters of a mile: it is capable, at high water, of admitting vessels of great burden. Its entrance is defended by two old Gothic towers of great height, and crossed by a ponderous iron chain. The roadstead, formed by two projecting points of land, is spacious and tolerably secure. The trade of La Rochelle, both to the colonies and to European ports, is considerable. To the former it exports wines, brandy, flour, and linen; taking in return sugar, coffee, cotton, and all kinds of colonial produce. To ports in Europe the chief articles of export are brandy and bay salt; its imports from them are trifling. Glass, stoneware, and sugar, are the principal articles of manufacture.

La Rochelle is an ancient town, and was for some time in possession of the English, prior to 1224, when it was retaken by the French. In the 16th century it became a strong hold of

of the Protestants, and governed itself for some time in the form of a republic. It was several times besieged by the Catholics without success, and stood out until 1637, when it was taken by Louis XIII. after a memorable siege of thirteen months, during which the inhabitants suffered all the horrors of famine. It was to exclude supplies during this siege, that Cardinal Richelieu caused the construction of an immense mole across the roadstead, above a mile and a half in length: remains of this vast work are still visible. Its fortifications were razed on that occasion, but they were re-erected under Louis XIV. such as they are at present. The environs of La Rochelle are unhealthy, on account of the number of salt marshes. This town was the birth-place of the naturalist Reaumur; 78 miles south of Nantes, and 335 south-west of Paris. Lat. 46. 9. 21. N. long. 1. 9. 40. W.

ROCHELLE, New, a township of the United States, in West Chester county, New York, on Long Island sound; 21 miles north-north-east of New York. Population 996.

ROCHELOIS, two rivers of St. Domingo, which run south-east, and enter the sea, on the north coast of the bay Grande.

ROCHEMAURE, a town of France, department of the Ardeche, near the Rhone. Population 1050; 6 miles north-west of Montelimart.

ROCHESTER, a city in the hundred of Rochester, lathe of Aylesford, and county of Kent, England, is situated on an angle of land formed by the current of the river Medway, at the distance of 8½ miles north from Maidstone, and 29 miles east-by-south from London. It contained, in conjunction with the adjoining town of Chatham, 3838 houses, and 21,722 inhabitants.

Rochester is said to have been originally founded by the ancient Britons, who gave it the appellation of Dwr-bryf, which signifies "a swift stream," in allusion to the rapidity of the Medway at this part of its course. When the Romans established themselves in Albion, it became one of their stipendiary stations, and was denominated by them Durobrivæ, or Durobrivis, afterwards contracted to Roibis. These facts are evidenced by the Itinerary of Antoninus, and also by the Peutingerian Tables, and receive strong confirmation from the frequent discoveries of Roman remains, which have been made at different periods within the area of the present city. During the government of that people, however, its history is completely barren; nor did it attain any celebrity for more than a century after the arrival of the Saxons, who altered its name to Hrofceaster, whence its modern designation is derived. Ethelbert, king of Kent, who was converted to the Christian faith, A. D. 597, first erected a church here, and constituted the town a bishop's see. Still, however, it was regarded chiefly as a military station, and hence is styled by Bede "a castle of the Kentish men." In the year 676, Ethelred, king of Mercia, pillaged Rochester, as did Ceadwalla, king of Wessex, within a few years of the same period. The Danish invaders likewise frequently plundered it, particularly in 839, when they sacked the city and committed many cruelties. In 885 they besieged it again, but were effectually kept in check by the inhabitants, till the great Alfred arrived with his army, and drove them back to their ships. About a century afterwards, Ethelred, king of Kent, met with a similar reception, and being frustrated in his attempt upon the city, gratified his vengeance by laying waste all the lands belonging to the see. But these sieges were trivial to what the inhabitants suffered from the Danes in 999, when the city was pillaged to the uttermost, and all the inhabitants who remained in it were put to death. From that period Rochester seems to have continued mostly in possession of the Danes till the death of Canute the Great. In the time of Edward the Confessor it belonged to the crown; and as part of the royal domains it was seized by the Conqueror, by whom it was granted to his half-brother, Odo, bishop of Baieux, on whose disgrace, in 1083, it reverted to the monarch. Henry I. farmed it out to the citizens at the yearly rent of 20*l.*, which was paid by the præpositus, or bailiff. He also granted to bishop Gundulph, and to the church of Rochester, an annual fair to be held on the eve and day of St. Paulinus, together with various rights and immunities. In the same reign, on the 11th of May 1130, while Henry himself, the archbishop of Canterbury, and other prelates, and many of the nobility were at Rochester, most of its buildings were consumed by fire. A similar misfortune befell it in the year 1137, and again in April, 1379. These several calamities retarded the prosperity of the city; and the intestine commotions happening soon afterwards, it did not regain any great degree of consequence till the reign of Henry III. This monarch repaired, or rebuilt, the city walls, and invested it besides with a deep fosse. In 1251 the same prince held a solemn tournament here, which was attended by most of the English nobility, and by a great concourse of foreign knights. In the time of the wars between York and Lancaster, Rochester suffered much from the arms of the contending parties, and was more than once visited by the plague. Henry VIII. was twice here, once in company with the emperor Charles V. and again when he came hither to meet his consort, Ann of Cleves. During the reign of queen Mary several individuals suffered martyrdom here for their religious opinions. Queen Elizabeth, her successor, lodged upwards of a week at Rochester; and this was the first city in which Charles II. was publicly received, after his restoration to the throne in 1660. In 1665, Rochester was visited with the same plague which committed such dreadful havoc among the inhabitants of the metropolis. From that period nothing worthy of historical record has occurred.

Rochester probably possessed a corporate community even in the time of the Saxons, but its nature cannot now be precisely ascertained. The first Norman monarch who granted to the inhabitants any privileges by charter, was Henry II. This prince gave them the city "in fee, or perpetual ferm, for 20*l.* sterling per annum, to hold of him and his heirs for ever, with all the appurtenances, liberties, and free customs; and that they should have a guild merchant, and several other privileges and immunities." These advantages were still further increased by Richard I. who directed his writ to the bailiff, and the whole hundred of Rochester, ordaining, "that no one, except his servants, should purchase victuals in the city till the monks of St. Andrew had been first served." This right was afterwards so far extended, that even the servants of the monarch were forbidden to make a prior purchase; and the monks continued to enjoy the privilege thus given till the dissolution. Henry III. not only confirmed to the citizens all former grants, but remitted to them a portion of their annual fee-ferm, and declared they were to be "exempt from toll, lastage, stallage, and murage, throughout England and the sea-ports, and should have a free market within their city, and the return of all writs whatsoever." These privileges were renewed by Richard II. in 1378; by Henry VI. in 1438 and 1446; and by Edward IV., who further extended the bounds of the city, and ordained that the corporation should be styled "The Mayor and Citizens of Rochester." Henry VIII. was the next monarch who confirmed the privileges of Rochester; and his successors, to the time of Charles I. severally did the same. By the last-mentioned monarch, the corporation was made to consist of "a mayor, twelve aldermen, (of which latter number the mayor was to be one,) twelve assistants, or common council-men, a recorder and town-clerk, two chamberlains, a principal sergeant-at-mace, a water-bailiff, and other inferior officers." Under this charter the city is now governed; and by virtue of it, the mayor is elected annually on the Monday previous to St. Matthew's day. The mayor and citizens hold a court of admiralty once a-year, for regulating the oyster fishery in those creeks and branches of the river Medway which are within their jurisdiction. Here are also held the county assises, alternately with Maidstone; likewise the petty sessions for the north division of the lathe of Aylesford. The market-day is Friday, weekly; and there are two annual fairs, on the 30th of May and the 11th of December. Rochester sends

sends two members to parliament, and has done so ever since the 23d year of Edward I. The right of election is vested in the freemen, who are about 630 in number. Many of the representatives have been naval officers, distinguished for brilliant achievements in the cause of their country.

The buildings of a public description that chiefly demand attention, are the castle, the cathedral, the churches, the town-hall, and the bridge, each of which is entitled to separate notice.

The present castle of Rochester was one of those founded by William the Conqueror, to keep in awe his newly acquired subjects; but there seems every reason to believe that a prior one existed on the same scite, as frequent mention is made of the "Castrum Roffense" in the Saxon annals. The Conqueror, indeed, is said, by some historians, to have only repaired the former structure. Whatever it might be, however, he committed to Odo, bishop of Baieux, the execution of the new work, and the custody of the fortress; but that prelate proving unworthy of his trust, he was afterwards seized, and sent as a prisoner to the castle of Rouen, in Normandy, where he continued till the accession of William Rufus, who restored him to his dignities and possessions; a favour which he shortly after ungratefully repaid, by raising an insurrection in favour of the king's brother, Robert, duke of Normandy. Rufus, upon this, laid siege to Rochester castle, and having forced the garrison to surrender, banished the bishop from his dominions. During this siege the buildings sustained considerable injury, which the king enjoined bishop Gundulph and the prior of Rochester to repair, perhaps on account of their having shewn some attachment to the rebellious cause. Gundulph accordingly not only renovated the walls, but laid the foundation of the great square tower, which yet perpetuates his name, and entitles him to rank among the most eminent architects of Anglo-Norman times. About twenty years after this prelate's death, the custody of Rochester castle was granted to William Corboyl, then archbishop of Canterbury, and to his successors; but this grant was resumed by Henry II. on his quarrel with the celebrated Thomas à Becket. In the reign of king John, this fortress was seized and garrisoned by the rebellious barons, and having been besieged by the king, was taken, after a resistance of three months. Lewis, the dauphin of France, who came over to the assistance of the nobles, however, reduced it again into subjection to the barons, by whom it was held till the accession of Henry III. when it was surrendered to the crown, and granted for life to Hubert de Burgh, earl of Kent, and justiciary of England, who was commanded to repair the buildings. The king's favour afterwards declining, Hubert was dispossessed; and Stephen de Segrave John de Cobham, Nicholas de Moels, William de Say, and Robert Waleran, were, in succession, appointed governors of the castles of Rochester and Canterbury. About the year 1264, after the king had occasioned much discontent among his barons, by his refusal to comply with the statutes of Oxford, he greatly strengthened the fortifications of this castle, and furnished it with every thing necessary to sustain a siege. Roger de Leybourne, who was constituted chief constable, had under him John, earl of Warren and Surrey, and other noblemen. Shortly afterwards, Simon de Montfort, chief of the associated barons, marched hither to besiege the castle, on which occasion several severe contests happened in this vicinity. Montfort succeeded in getting possession of the city, but failed in his attacks upon the castle, the siege of which he was eventually compelled to abandon. After this event, little more occurs in the history of this castle, than the names of those to whom its custody has been entrusted. Edward IV. was the last monarch who paid any attention to the state of its buildings, he having "repaired the walls, both of the castle and city, about the eleventh year of his reign." Since then they have been alike neglected, and have gradually fallen to their present state of decay. Several estates in this county hold of Rochester castle by the ancient tenure of castle-guard. On St. Andrew's day, old style, a banner is hung out at the house of the receiver of rents; and every tenant who does not then discharge his arrears, is liable to have his rent doubled, on the return of every tide of the Medway, till the whole is discharged.

Rochester castle stands at the south-western angle of the city, on an eminence rising abruptly from the river Medway, which preserves it from attack on the west, whilst its south, east, and north sides are defended by a broad and deep ditch. The outward walls, which formed an irregular parallelogram, 300 feet in length, were strengthened by several square and round towers; but these, as well as the walls themselves, are now verging to a state of ruin. The most perfect are on the east side, and at the south-east angle; that at the angle was semicircular, and rose boldly from the ditch, which is now almost filled up. The principal entrance was on the north-east, and was defended by a tower-gateway, with outworks at the sides. The keep, or great tower, already mentioned, as founded by bishop Gundulph, occupies the south-east portion of the castle area. It is of a quadrangular form, 70 feet square at the base, and is so planned, that its angles correspond with the four cardinal points of the compass. The walls on the outside are built inclining inwards from the base, and in general measure twelve or thirteen feet thick. Near the centre, on each side, is a pilaster buttress, ascending from the base to the roof; and at the angles are projecting towers, three of them square, and the fourth semi-circular, which rise twelve feet above the roof. The entrance to this part of the castle was most difficult and intricate, and displayed much architectural ingenuity. "The first ascent was by a flight of twelve steps, leading to an arched gate and covered way; beneath which a flight of seven steps led forward to a draw-bridge, that connected with the arched gateway of the entrance tower; this opened into a vestibule, between which and the keep there were no other avenues of communication than by a third arched passage in the thickness of the wall. This latter, being the immediate inlet to the body of the keep, was defended by a massive gate and portcullis, the hinges and grooves of which yet remain; and in the roof are openings for the purpose of showering down destruction on the assailants."

The interior of the keep is divided into two nearly equal parts by a strong wall, with arched door-ways of communication on each floor. In the centre of this wall is a circular hole for a well of considerable depth, neatly wrought, and open from the bottom to the very top of the keep. This tower consisted of three floors, independent of the basement story; but these floors were removed when the castle was dismantled in the reign of James I. The lowest apartments were two dark and gloomy rooms, in which the garrison stores were probably deposited. At the north-east angle is a circular winding staircase, which ascends to the summit; and near it is a small arched doorway, leading to a narrow vaulted apartment underneath the little tower, supposed to have been a dungeon for criminals. The first floor appears to have been allotted for the accommodation of servants and inferior attendants; the second floor contained the state apartments; and the third was designed for a chapel, and for bed-rooms for the family. The roof of the keep is now entirely destroyed; but it most probably consisted of a platform on a level with the top of the wall within the parapet; the latter was about five feet high, and had embrasures about two feet wide. The four towers at the angles were raised another story, and had also small platforms, with parapets and embrasures. These, as well as the first-mentioned platform, commanded a very extensive view over the whole city, the river Medway, and the adjacent country; so that no enemy could approach within the distance of several miles without being discovered.

The see of Rochester, though one of the smallest in England, derives considerable consequence from its antiquity. It was established, and a church built, as early as the year 600, by Ethelbert, king of Kent; who, at the same time, attached to the chruch a priory for secular canons, and dedicated it to the honour of St. Andrew. The first prelate of this see was Justus, a man of eminent learning and integrity, who had been sent from Rome to assist in the conversion of the Saxons to Christianity. He was installed

installed by St. Augustine, the apostle of Britain, and first archbishop of Canterbury, in the year 604, from which period the episcopal dignity of Rochester has been held in succession by ninety-four bishops, many of whom were eminent for their talents, piety, benevolence, and extensive acquirements. Paulinus, the third bishop, was reputed a saint, and his memory was held in high estimation during several centuries. Ithamar, the fourth bishop, was the first Englishman who held a prelacy in Britain. Tobias, the ninth bishop, is highly extolled by Bede and other writers, for his literary attainments, and particularly for his intimate knowledge of the Greek, Latin, and Saxon languages. These three prelates were all interred in the ancient cathedral, and are the only bishops known to have been so honoured of all the twenty-five who presided previous to the conquest. At the era of that event, the see appears to have been fast verging to entire dissolution; but its impending fate was soon after arrested by Lanfranc, archbishop of Canterbury, who raised Ernost, a monk of Bec, in Normandy, to the bishopric, for the avowed purpose of improving its affairs. That bishop, however, died in the first year of his prelacy, and was succeeded by Gundulph, another monk of Bec, who proved a most active agent in the re-establishment of the see. He not only recovered the alienated estates of the bishopric, but, pulling down the old cathedral, he erected a spacious and magnificent edifice in its stead. He likewise rebuilt the priory, and placed therein twenty monks of the order of St. Benedict, upon whom he bestowed extensive privileges and possessions. Gundulph had for his successor Ernulph, abbot of Peterborough; who composed the "Textus Roffensis," a work replete with information on matters of antiquity. He was likewise distinguished as an architect, having, besides his works at Canterbury and Peterborough, built the dormitory, and refectory, and the chapter-house at Rochester. He was succeeded by John, archdeacon of Canterbury, in whose time the monastery was unfortunately destroyed by fire; an event which occasioned the temporary dispersion of the monks. On the re-erection of the priory, however, they were again collected, and, through the exertions of bishop Ascelen, recovered such of their possessions as had been alienated by the cupidity of his predecessor, John, a Norman bishop, who had obtained this see on the death of his namesake above-mentioned. Ascelen's successor was Walter, brother to Theobald, archbishop of Canterbury, who was elected by the monks of Rochester. This bishop assisted at the coronation of Henry, eldest son of Henry III., on which account he was excommunicated by Thomas à Becket. During his prelacy, the cathedral sustained heavy damages by fire. This bishop died in 1182, and was succeeded by bishop Waleran, who, as well as his successor, Gilbert de Granville, was constantly engaged in litigations with the prior and monks, which were at length settled by solemn adjudication in the year 1207: notwithstanding this, however, the monks thought proper to display their hatred to bishop Granville, by refusing burial to his remains in the cathedral; and on being frustrated in their resistance, they hastened the interment, that it might take place before the interdict, which the nation then lay under, was removed. This prelate rebuilt the bishop's palace, which had been burnt down by the fire above noticed; and also erected a cloister of stone for the monks: but the re-edification of the cathedral made very slow progress, as we find it remained unfinished till the year 1240, when Richard de Wendover held the bishopric. He had been elected to the see, by the monks, in opposition to the claims of patronage maintained by Edmund, archbishop of Canterbury, who appealed on the subject to the court of Rome, but without success. On his death, in 1250, Laurence de St. Martin was advanced to the episcopal dignity, and held it till 1274, when he died, and gave place to Walter de Merton, to whom his country is indebted for the foundation of Merton college, at Oxford, which is considered to be the "first literary community in this kingdom that had the sanction of a royal charter." His immediate successors were, John de Bradfield, who died in 1283; Thomas de Ingelthorpe, who died in 1291; and Thomas de Woldham, who died in 1316. On the decease of the latter, Hamo de Hethe obtained the bishopric. He was a very active prelate, and conferred considerable benefits on the priory and the church. His successor was John de Shepey, who had been a monk in the priory, and was a man of great learning and abilities. Some sermons attributed to him are still extant in New College, Oxford, and there are in the king's library two MSS. of his on legal subjects. He died in 1360, when William Witlesley was consecrated bishop, but was soon afterwards translated to the see of Worcester. Thomas Trilleck next obtained the bishopric, and after him Thomas Brinton, confessor to king Richard II. and the fifty-first bishop of this see. Richard Young, the third in succession after him, met with great difficulties in obtaining possession of his bishopric, owing to the death, first of pope Boniface, by whose mandate he was translated from Bangor, and afterwards of his successor, pope Innocent. At length, however, he was installed, in May, 1407, and held the see till 1418, when he was removed by death, and was succeeded by John Kemp, who subsequently became bishop of Chichester and of London, and archbishop of York and of Canterbury. His successor was the learned John Langdon, who was distinguished for his extensive knowledge of history and antiquities, and was author of a chronicle of England. On his death, which happened in 1434, while he was attending the council at Basil on the part of Henry VI., Thomas Brown, D. D. was elected to the vacant see. John Lowe, the fifty-ninth bishop, was provincial of the order of Augustine friars. He held the bishopric twenty-three years, and is supposed to have rebuilt the palace at Rochester. He died in 1467, and was succeeded by Thomas de Rotherham, subsequently bishop of Lincoln, lord chancellor, and archbishop of York. The next bishop of note, was the unfortunate John Fisher, who was beheaded in 1535, by order of Henry VIII. for maintaining the supremacy of the pope in ecclesiastical affairs. His successor was John Hilsey, D. D., a controversial writer of considerable eminence, who died in 1538. Two years afterwards, the priory here was surrendered to the king; and in 1542, a new foundation charter was granted, by which a collegiate body was established in the church, to consist of a "dean, six prebendaries, six minor canons, a deacon and sub-deacon, six lay clerks, a master of the choristers, eight choristers, one grammar master, twenty scholars, two sub-sacrists, and six poor bedesmen," besides inferior officers. In the new establishment, Walter Phillips, the prior of the late convent, was made first dean of the cathedral; and Nicholas Heath, D. D. was the first reformed bishop of the see. From his time to the present period, twenty-five bishops have been advanced to the episcopal dignity of Rochester, among whom the most noted were the pious Ridley, who suffered along with bishop Latimer at Oxford; Francis Atterbury, who was exiled for treasonable correspondence in 1723; and the late bishop Horsley, one of the most erudite divines the church of England can boast of.

The situation of Rochester cathedral is at a short distance south from the High-street, and east from the castle. It is of a cruciform shape, and is divided into a nave, aisles, two transepts, and a choir, with a low tower and spire rising at the intersection of the nave and great transept. This edifice evidently appears, from the different styles of its architecture, to have been the work of different eras. The chief part of the nave and west front display the massive character of the early Norman age. The west entrance is particularly deserving of attention, and must have been, when entire, a most magnificent piece of workmanship. The arch which forms this entrance is semi-circular; and is supported on each side by several columns, two of which are cut into statues, representing king Henry I. and his queen Matilda, the patrons of the founder bishop Gundulph. The capitals of all the columns are composed of wreathed foliage, mixed with the heads of birds, and other animals. The lintel of the door, immediately under the arch, exhibits a figure, probably designed to represent the Saviour, attended by angels, and the attributes of the four evangelists. The mouldings of the arch, and the transom-stone, are charged with varied sculpture. The remaining parts

parts of the cathedral are comparatively plain in their exterior. Entering the nave by the western door, the massive Norman style is conspicuous in the first five columns, and half of the sixth, on each side, all of them supporting circular arches, decorated with zigzag mouldings, above which is a series of smaller arches, having over them arches, corresponding, both in size and ornament, with the larger ones beneath. Still higher are two ranges of obtuse-pointed windows, each divided into three lights. The roof is of timber, with knees supported on corbels, the fronts of which are carved into figures of angels sustaining shields, on which are painted the arms of the city, the see, and the priory of Rochester, as well as those of the archbishopric and cathedral of Canterbury. The west wall appears to have been divided into ranges of niches, some of them crowned with arches, having plain and billeted mouldings, supported on small three-quarter columns, with fluted capitals: others, having neither pillar nor capital, are decorated with zigzag mouldings, continued down the sides of the recess. The alterations made in Gundulph's design by the introduction of the present west window, are clearly to be seen in the abrupt termination of the different ranges of these niches, some of them having been cut through the centre. The two easternmost arches of the nave, on each side, exhibit a very different style of architecture to the preceding; these being in the pointed style, with deep grooved mouldings, rising from clusters of slender columns. The great tower is supported by four obtusely-pointed arches, resting on pieces of solid masonry, which are environed by slender columns of Petworth marble. The west transept is in the pointed style; but, from having been erected at different periods, the architecture is somewhat dissimilar. In the upper part of the north end is a triforium, behind which are lancet windows, each having a screen in front, divided into three arches of unequal height; the vaulting is of stone, groined, with a plain grooved moulding: several of the lesser pillars and imposts of arches are supported by corbel heads, chiefly of monks, which display a degree of strength of feature and expression, evincing an advanced state of the art of design. The south end of this transept principally varies from the other in its superior lightness: like that, it has a triforium in the upper story with lancet windows behind screens. The roof is of timber framework, in imitation of vaulting. Under a large arch, on the west side, is an opening into the chapel of St. Mary, a structure probably erected in the reign of Henry VII. It measures forty-five feet in length, and thirty-five in breadth, and exhibits on its south and west sides five spacious windows, under obtuse arches, and divided by mullions. In this chapel the consistory court of the diocese is held; and many of the bishops are buried within it. The choir is entered from the nave by an ascent of ten steps, leading through an arch, in an unornamented stone screen, which sustains the organ and organ gallery. The style of building in this part of the church is uniform in its character; neat, lofty, and solid, though not heavy. The whole consits of two tiers of pointed arches, decorated with grooved mouldings, and resting upon slender columns of Petworth marble, with plain capitals. All the windows are lancet-shaped, and are formed of single lights, except those nearest to the altar, which are divided by mullions, and appear to have been formerly filled with painted glass. The east transept of the church has two aisles, over which are apartments (ascended to by circular winding staircases in the wall), in which were deposited the vestments, and sacred utensils appertaining to the altars and shrines of St. William, St. Paulinus, and others, in the choir. The northern division of this transept is still denominated St. William's chapel, from the popular saint so named, whose remains were there enshrined; and to the number and value of the oblations made at whose altar the present choir owes its origin. The crypt, which extended beneath the two last mentioned portions of the church, has been thought by some to be of Norman structure; but more intelligent antiquaries assign it to the architect of the choir and upper transept, which were built by William de Hoo, in the reign of Henry III. The pointed arches in the windows and entrances are evidences of the truth. Running parallel with the south-side of the choir is the chapter-house, which contains the library, and is entered by a richly sculptured door-way. In a large hollow between the inner mouldings is a range of human heads and flowers, in alternate succession. Beyond these, and rising above each other in detached recesses to the centre of the arch, are six whole length figures, two of which are conjectured to represent Henry I. and his queen Matilda, and the others the bishops Gundulph, Ernulph, Laurence de St. Martin, and Hamo de Hethe, to the last of whom the erection of this door-way is attributed. Over these figures are smaller ones of angels, two on each side, apparently singing praises and glorifying the Saviour, who is represented standing naked under a canopy in the centre of the arch. The library, besides an excellent collection of printed books, contains several curious and valuable MSS. among which are the original copies of the Textus Roffensis, and the Custumale Roffense.

Rochester cathedral extends in length from east to west 306 feet, of which 150 are included in the nave and 156 in the choir. The breadth of the nave, with the side aisles, is 75 feet, and that of the choir is nearly the same. The western transept measures 122 feet, and the eastern one 90 feet long. The width of the west front is 94 feet, and the height of the great tower 156 feet. Several of the monuments in this church are curious, both from their antiquity and their workmanship. In the south of the choir is a plain stone chest, supposed to contain the remains of bishop Gundulph, and near it is another, on the top of which is sculptured, in high relief, the figure of a bishop in pontificalibus, designed to represent Thomas de Ingelthorpe, the 44th bishop of the see. A third stone chest, of a similar description, is thought to be the tomb of bishop Laurence de St. Martin, who obtained the canonization of St. William. All these chests are constructed of Petworth marble; several others of them are dispersed throughout the cathedral. On an altar-tomb, beneath a double pointed arched canopy, variously ornamented, is a full length portraiture of bishop Walter de Merton, whose remains are deposited beneath. Another altar-tomb, in St. William's chapel, commemorates bishop Lowe; and near it are the monuments of bishop John Warner and two others of his family. On the north side of St. Edmund's chapel, entering into the crypt, is a headless episcopal figure, supposed to have represented bishop John de Bradfield, who died in the year 1283; and in the narrow aisle leading to St. William's chapel, is a monument attributed to bishop Hamo de Hethe. The other persons who have monuments here are, Richard Watts, esq. recorder of the city, who had the honour of entertaining queen Elizabeth at his seat called Satis; John, Lord Henniker, and his lady, the former of whom died in 1803, and the latter in 1792; sir Richard Head, and the Rev. Samuel Denne, the learned compiler of the "Memorials" of this cathedral, inserted in the Costumale Roffense.

Adjoining to the cathedral, on the south, are the remains of the chapter-house and cloister belonging to the priory, which exhibit a very beautiful series of Norman arches and ornaments, but in a state of great dilapidation. The door-way of the chapter-house lies under a richly ornamented arch, having on it another of equal elegance, supported on short thick columns with flowered and figured capitals, and displaying an unusual variety of mouldings, zigzag, quatrefoil, and billeted. The mouldings of the southernmost arch unite with those of a smaller arch, belonging to the cloister, and these again with the mouldings of a second highly enriched door-way, the space between the transom of which and the inner moulding exhibits the mutilated remains of an historical sculpture. An arch, rising from two three-quarter columns, and intersected by two others springing from a central column, connects this door-way with a third, likewise rich in ornaments, though less so than the others. Gundulph's tower

tower stands on the north side of the cathedral, between the transepts. The masonry of this building is extremely solid, the walls being ten feet in thickness, though the entire building is only 40 feet square. The angles are strengthened by pilaster buttresses, and the windows have semicircular arches. The precincts of this cathedral appear to have occupied nearly half the area contained within the walls of the city. There were three gates leading into them, viz. the Cemetery gate, St. William's gate, and the Prior's gate; the first and last of which are still remaining. Only a few traces of the offices of the monastery now exist separately, but considerable parts of their walls are incorporated into other buildings. The porter's lodge consists of a small embattled tower, with a pointed archway in the centre. The scite of the bishop's palace, erected by Gundulph, is occupied by a range of modern houses; and on that of the prior's lodge stands the present deanery.

Rochester had formerly four churches, besides the cathedral, which were dedicated to St. Nicholas, St. Margaret, St. Clement, and St. Mary, but the last is now totally demolished, and St. Clement's is only to be discovered as forming part of some houses on the north side of the High-street, near the bridge. The church of St. Nicholas was built in 1421, and consists of a nave, aisles, and a chancel, with an embattled tower at the north-west angle. The windows are large and pointed; each being divided into three lights, with crockets above. St. Margaret's church is only remarkable for its fine situation, on a lofty eminence, to the southward of the High-street. The town-hall stands on the north side of the same street, and was erected about the year 1687. In the lower division of this structure is the city prison; and in the higher, the hall, a large and lofty room, containing full length portraits of king William and queen Anne, and of several persons of distinction, connected with the city. The bridge over the Medway, here, was constructed in the reign of Richard II. by sir Robert Knolles, and John, third baron de Cobham, who not only defrayed the expense of its erection, but also left a considerable estate for its repair. For height and strength, this structure is allowed to be superior to any in England, with the exception of the bridges in the metropolis. It measures 560 feet in length, but is only 14 feet broad between the parapets. Its arches are eleven in number, but of these, three have been rebuilt in modern times.

The charitable institutions in this city are, St. Catharine's hospital, a grammar-shool, an alms-house for the relief of poor travellers, and a free-school. The hospital was founded and endowed in 1316, by Simond Potyn, who represented this city in seven parliaments, for the maintenance of twelve poor people, who have an allowance of coal, candle, and money, annually.

The grammar-school was founded by King Henry VIII., for twenty scholars, to be called "King's scholars," with an upper and under master; together with four exhibitions in the universities. The alms-house, which stands on the north side of the High-street, was built in the reign of queen Elizabeth, by the proprietor of Satis, before-mentioned, who left estates for its support. The founder of the free-school was sir Joseph Williamson, knt., who died in 1701, and bequeathed 5000*l.* to be expended in the erection of a suitable building, and in the purchase of lands and tenements to maintain two masters, and defray the incidental expences of the establishment. The History and Antiquities of Rochester and its Environs, &c. 8vo. Rochester, 1772. The History and Topographical Survey of the county of Kent, by Edward Hasted. Beauties of England, &c. by E. W. Brayley, vol. viii.

ROCHESTER, a village of England, in Northumberland, near the source of the river Read; 25 miles north-north-west of Hexham.

ROCHESTER, a township of the United States, in Windsor county, Vermont. Population 911.

ROCHESTER, a township of the United States, in Strafford county, New Hampshire, on the west side of Salmon Fall river. Near the centre of this township is a village called Norway Plains, containing a church, court-house, above 40 dwelling-houses, and several stores. There is also a cotton manufactory in the township.

ROCHESTER, a township of the United States, in Plymouth county, Massachusetts, on Buzzard's bay; 48 miles south of Boston. Here are some iron-works. Lat. 41. 42. N. long. 70. 40. W.

ROCHESTER, a township of the United States, in Ulster county, New York; 20 miles south-west of Kingston. Population 1882.

ROCHESTER, a township of the United States, in Ontario county, New York.

ROCHESTER, or ROCHESTERVILLE, a post village of the United States, in Genesse county, New York, at the falls of the Genesse, six or seven miles from the mouth of the river. It is a very flourishing village, and a place of considerable trade. The exports of this place are considerable, and consist of flour, pot and pearl ashes, pork, whisky, slates, butter, lard, &c. A weekly newspaper is published here.

RO'CHET, *s.* [*rochet*, Fr. from *roccus*, low Lat. a coat. *Dr. Johnson.*—Mr. Horne Tooke contends, that it is the past participle of the Sax. ꝑꝛꝯan, to cover, as ꝑoce, the upper garment, is; of which, he says, *rochet* is the diminutive. *Rock*, or *rokke*, is the Su. Goth. and Germ. for a loose outer garment; and our old word is *rokette*. *Todd.*]—An outer garment.

There nis no clothe sitteth bette
On damosel, that doth *roketee*. *Chaucer.*

Rochet, a frock, loose gaberdine, gown of canvas or coarse linen, worne by a labourer over the rest of his clothes; also, a prelate's *rochet*, &c. *Cotgrave.*—A linen habit now peculiar to a bishop, worn under the chimere.—Bishops were obliged, by the canon law, to wear their *rochets* whenever they appeared in publick; which practice was constantly kept up in England till the Reformation. *Wheatly.*—[*Rubellio*, Lat.] A fish. Usually written *rotchet*; the red gurnard.—Of *rothcets*, whitings, or such common fish. *Browne.* See CUCULUS.

ROCHETTA, in the glass trade, another name for polverine.

ROCHETTA, a town of the Sardinian states, in Montserrat. Population 2600; 3 miles north-east of Cairo, and 16 south-south-east of Acqui.

ROCHETTA, a small town of Italy, in Piedmont; 10 miles north of Nice.

ROCHETTA, a town of Italy in the kingdom of Naples; province of Terra di Lavoro. Population 4000.

ROCHFEN, a village of England, in Wiltshire, north of Amesbury.

ROCHFORD, a market town and parish of England, in the county of Essex. It is situated on a small rivulet called the Broomhill, over which it has two small bridges. Most of the houses are irregular and ill built. The parish church, which stands about half a mile to the westard, is a plain building, with a lofty brick tower at the west end. Near it stands Rochford-hall, the manor-house. It is a large and stately building, and has been successively the seat and residence of the Rochfords, the Botelers, earls of Ormond and Wiltshire, sir Thomas Bullen, and Richard lord Riche. The market-house is a mean structure of timber. The privilege of holding markets was granted to Rochford by king Henry III. and confirmed by Edward I. The petty sessions for the Rochford division of Essex are held here. A singular custom called the lawless court, was till lately held in this manor. It is said to have originated in a conspiracy against the lord of the manor, who detecting it, ordained the tenants, as a punishment, that they should afterwards assemble, at a certain hour of the night, on the spot where the conspirators met, which is called King's hill, and do homage for their lands. Population 1214. Market on Thursday; two annual fairs; 16 miles south-east of Chelmsford, and 39 east of London.

ROCHFORD,

ROCHFORD, a village of England, in Worcestershire; 3 miles east of Tenbury.

ROCHLAND, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 7 miles south-east of Norwich.

ROCHLAND, All Saints, St. Andrew's, St. Peter's, and St. Mary's, four parishes of England, in Norfolk, near Attlebury.

ROCHLIFFE CASTLE, a village of England, in Cumberland; 6 miles north-west of Carlisle.

ROCHLIFFE CHURCH, a village of England, half a mile distant from the foregoing.

ROCHLITZ, a town of Bohemia, in a valley among the Sudetic mountains, in the upper circle of Biczow. It is divided into Upper and Lower, and contains 2900 inhabitants, employed partly in weaving cambric, partly in bleaching.

ROCHLITZ, a town of Germany, in Saxony; 28 miles south-south-east of Leipsic, on the Mulda, with 2100 inhabitants. Precious stones are occasionally found in the neighbourhood, but they are of inferior quality.

ROCK, *s.* [*rocca*, Ital. from the Gr. ῥωξ, a crag or cliff.] A vast mass of stone, fixed in the earth.

The splitting *rocks* cower'd in the sinking sands,
And would not dash me with their ragged sides.
Shakspeare.

Ye darksome pines, that o'er yon *rocks* reclin'd,
Wave high, and murmur to the hollow wind. *Pope.*

Protection; defence. A scriptural sense.—Though the reeds of Egypt break under the hand of him that leans on them, yet the *rock* of Israel will be an everlasting stay. *K. Charles.*—[*Rock*, Danish; *rocca*, Italian; *rucca*, Spanish; *spin-roch*, Dutch.] A distaff held in the hand, from which the wool was spun by twirling a ball below.

On the *rock* a scanty measure place
Of vital flax, and turn the wheel apace. *Dryden.*

Flow from the *rock* my flax, and swiftly flow,
Pursue thy thread, the spindle runs below. *Parnel.*

The composition and structure of rocks comprise a most important part of the natural history of the earth, whether considered with reference to geological hypothesis or to the more useful purpose of improving our knowledge of durable architecture.

Rocks, besides furnishing the metallic ores, and materials for architecture, have the most important uses in the physical constitution of the globe, not only as forming the solid bases or skeletons on which islands and continents are constructed, but these elevations and inequalities are absolutely necessary to supply the dry land with pure and running streams, and to drain the superfluity of moisture in rainy seasons, which would otherwise form stagnant and putrid pools, infecting the air with death: without these rocky elevations the earth must remain a solitary desert, fitted only for the abode of reptiles and amphibious animals. Thus, by the very irregularity and confusion which seem to prevail in the disposition of the fractured surface of the globe, it is rendered salubrious and productive, and prepared to satisfy the wants, and gratify the various inclinations and instincts, of its numerous inhabitants.

In the knowledge of the qualities which ensure durability to the labours of the architect, the ancients appear to have greatly exceeded the moderns; but they did not extend their inquiries respecting rocks to any other objects than those of immediate utility.

Lehman, a German mineralogist, was the first who made a good classification of rocks. He observed that certain rocks occupy the lowest relative position in mountainous districts, and that these contain no remains of animals or vegetables; but in the upper rocks, numerous impressions and petrified relics of animals and vegetables abound. Hence he inferred, that the first were consolidated before the existence of organized life; and on this account, they were called *primitive* or primary. The latter were called *secondary* rocks, because they not only contained these organic reliquiæ, but also fragments of the former rocks, and hence were supposed to be of later formation.

This division into two classes was continued by geologists until the close of the last century, when M. Werner, the celebrated professor of mineralogy at Freyburg, first pointed out another class of rocks, which he named *Transition*, as they exhibit such characters as show the transition from those of the secondary classes. These are interposed between the primitive and secondary classes, and are the first or earliest rocks of which the crust of the earth is composed, that afford fossil organic remains. The same illustrious naturalist examined with great care the various characters of those loosely cohering rocks of clay, marl, loam, &c. which rest on the more solid and older rocks of the secondary transition, and primitive classes, and which form a fourth class, under the title *Alluvial*. The various mineral masses formed by the agency of volcanoes form a fifth class, under the title of *Volcanic*.

Dr. Jamieson observes, that "these different classes of rocks are met with in most extensive tracts of country, and every where exhibit the same general relations. Thus the primitive rocks of Scotland, on a general view, do not differ from those of New Holland, and the rocks of the secondary class, although at first sight presenting much of a local character, are the same in all parts of the world, where they have been hitherto met with."

This observation has, however, met with a contradiction from several French writers, who found their objections to its accuracy on the discovery of various deep-seated rocks not accounted primitive by Werner. But this species of objection does not appear to us to apply very closely, and, upon the whole Wernerian theory, seems far more consonant with extensive experiments than any other that has been attempted.

Primitive rocks lie under those of the succeeding classes, and frequently, owing to the inequalities of their original surface, rise through them, and often to a great height, in the form of mountains and mountain chains. Countries composed of primitive rocks are in general more rugged and lofty than those of the other classes; further, their cliffs are more extensive, their valleys narrower and deeper, and more uneven than those in secondary countries. The primitive strata in many countries maintain a wonderful uniformity of direction; thus, in Scotland, the general direction of the strata of the primitive mountains is from north-east to south-west, and the same is the case nearly in the vast alpine regions of Norway, and in many of the lofty and widely extended primitive lands of other parts in Europe. In Scotland the direction is so invariable, not only in the primitive but also in the transition strata, that travellers may use it in place of a compass in guiding themselves through the mountain wilds of the Highland regions. The rocks of which primitive mountains and plains are composed are, throughout, of a crystalline nature, and present such characters as intimate their formation from a state of solution. These characters are the intermixture of the concretions of which these are composed at their line of junction, their mutual penetration of each other, their considerable lustre, pure colours, and considerable translucency. Thus, in granite, the concretions of felspar, quartz, and mica, are joined together without any basis or ground, and at their line of junction are either simply very closely attached together, or are intermixed, and frequently branches of the one concretion shoot into the other, thus occasioning a mutual interlacement, as is observed in bodies that have been formed simultaneously, and from a state of solution. These characters show that the concretions of granite, and the same applies to the concretions in limestone, gneiss, mica-slate, and other rocks of the primitive class, are of a crystalline nature, and have been formed at the same time.

The strata themselves are so arranged in mountains, that is, one set of strata including another, as to render it probable, that the seams of the strata are not a mechanical effect, but have

have been produced in the same manner as the seams of distinct concretions, or the surfaces of crystals. These strata, collected in groups, give rise to *formations*, such as gneiss or mica-slate; and in those cases where the rock is not distinctly stratified, it exhibits such characters as point it out in an unity or formation in the grand series, of which the crust of the earth is composed. The rock formations in primitive countries, although well marked and distinguished by their general and particular characters, are not in any case isolated or unrelated to each other; on the contrary, we find, as they approach and join each other, gradual transitions of the one into the other, or intermixtures and interlacings at their great lines of junction. No true primitive rock appears foreign to the others, or exhibiting such characters as intimate a different mode of formation. Thus granite, which some consider a kind of lava, and therefore formed in different manner from gneiss or mica-slate, passes into and is intermixed with the surrounding rocks, and therefore has been formed in the same manner.

Primitive rocks are distinguished from those of the succeeding classes, by the absence of all fossil organic remains. This important fact allows us to infer, that organic beings had not been called into existence during the formation of primitive rocks, so that there was a time, in the history of the formation of our planet, when plants and animals did not exist. Although no traces of organic life occur in primitive rocks, yet they afford beds of a kind of coal (glance coal), almost entirely composed of carbon, a substance which many consider as peculiar to the organic kingdom, and which, they maintain, when found in the mineral kingdom, is to be traced to previously existing organic beings. This opinion is disproved, not only by the facts already mentioned, but also by the occurrence of carbon in hornblende, slate, and other minerals of the primitive class. Here, then, we have the formation of carbon, independent of the agency of animals and vegetables.

Limestone has been by many considered as entirely the result of animal action, and the various formations of that rock, whether in primitive or secondary mountains, are viewed as accumulations of altered shells or corals. But neither shells nor corals occur in primitive mountains, although they often contain extensive beds of limestone; and further, lime enters as a constituent part into most of the simple minerals of which primitive rocks are composed, facts which show that lime, like carbon, is an original substance in primitive mountains, and therefore has been formed at times independent of animals.

The two most abundant alkalies, viz. natron and potash, occur in primitive mountains, but of these, the potash is by far the most frequent and abundant. Before the discovery of potash in lepidolite, a primitive mineral, by Klaproth, this alkali was considered as entirely a production of the vegetable kingdom; but no vegetable remains occur in primitive rocks; and, therefore, in this case, the potash has been formed by some other agency than that of vegetation.

Phosphat of lime, which forms so important a constituent part of the higher animals, was long maintained to be exclusively a production of the animal kingdom; its after discovery in some vegetables, demonstrated that it also was occasionally produced in some tribes of plants; but still it was believed to be, in every case, either of animal or vegetable origin. But geologists, by the discovery of apatite, or phosphat of lime, in primitive mountains, have proved its existence in nature, independent of the agency of the organic kingdom.

Primitive rocks abound very much in metalliferous minerals, and hitherto no metal has been met with which does not occur exclusively, or occasionally, in this class of rocks. Tin, wolfram, and molybdena, occur more frequently in these rocks than in other situations. Gold, silver, lead, copper, iron, cobalt, zinc, manganese, arsenic, and mercury, occur either disseminated, in beds, veins, or imbedded, in various rocks of this class, and many primitive districts are particularly characterized by the metalliferous repositories they contain; thus, the primitive district of strontian is characterized by its particular venigenous formation of galena, or lead-glance; the primitive country of Königsberg, in Norway, by its group of veins of silver-ore; and the primitive gneiss rocks of Arendal and Lapland, by their beds of magnetic iron-ore.

Many of the richest and most important mines in the world are situated in primitive rocks; statuary marble, and the various granites, porphyries, and serpentines, so much valued in the arts; and the gems, so distinguished by their beauty of lustre, colour, and great hardness, are principally contained in formations of the primitive series. The diamond only is wanting.

The different species of primitive rocks are very simple in their nature, being generally composed of not more than five minerals, viz. quartz, felspar, mica, hornblende, and limestone. Some rocks are composed of but one of these simple minerals, as quartz rock; others of two, such as mica-slate, which is a compound of mica and quartz; and others, as granite, consist of three of them, viz. quartz, felspar, and mica. In determining the species of primitive rocks, we must have an accurate acquaintance with the five simple minerals already enumerated, and with the aspects they assume when forming these aggregate mountain rocks. This being the case, nothing more is necessary than to refer the reader to the characters of these simple minerals given in the article MINERALOGY: and now to give short characters of the rocks themselves.

1. *Granite* is a granular compound of felspar, quartz, and mica; *syenite* is a variety of granite, containing, besides the ingredients already enumerated, also hornblende.

2. *Porphyry* is an aggregate rock, having a basis or ground containing imbedded grains and crystals of felspar, and sometimes of quartz and hornblende.

3. *Trap.*—All the rocks of the primitive class in which hornblende is the predominating ingredient are named trap. On exposure to the air they assume the form of steps of a stair, hence the name *trap*. When the hornblende is associated with felspar, it forms *greenstone;* if unmixed, *hornblende rock;* and if slaty, *hornblende slate.*

4. *Serpentine* is a dark green rock, with a splintery fracture, and glimmering or dull lustre, translucent on the edges, and so soft as to yield readily to the knife. It is conjectured to be a compound of felspar, and of a mineral of the nature of hornblende, named diallage.

5. *Limestone.*—This rock has generally a white or grey colour, is composed of shining granular concretions, and is more or less translucent. It frequently contains scales of mica, and grains of quartz.

6. *Gneiss* is a granular slaty compound of felspar, quartz, and mica.

7. *Mica-slate* is a slaty compound of mica and quartz.

8. *Clay-slate* is a slaty rock, generally composed of extremely minute scales of mica. It is the roof-slate so well known in the arts.

9. *Quartz-rock.*—This rock is almost entirely composed of quartz, either in granular concretions, or in the compact state; and grains of felspar and scales of mica are frequently contained in it.

Transition Rocks, or those of the second class, generally occupy a higher level than the secondary, but a lower one than the primitive formations. Their mountains, mountain-ranges, mountain-groups, and cliffs, are more rugged than those of the secondary class, but are less rugged and softer in their outlines than the primitive rocks. Their valleys, too, are wider, and their sides less rugged and abrupt, than in those of primitive mountain-groups.

Most of the rocks are distinctly stratified, and the strata are frequently vertical, and, like those of the primitive class, exhibit the same general direction throughout great tracks of country. Thus the strata in the great high land which ranges from St. Abb's Head to the Irish Sea, and which is almost entirely composed of transition rocks, range every where nearly from north-east to south-west.

Although

Although most of the transition rocks appear to have been formed from a state of solution, and therefore possess the crystalline character, yet their crystallization appears to have been less perfect than in the primitive rocks, because the parts of which they are composed have a lower degree of lustre, inferior hardness, less translucency, and colours of less purity, than primitive rocks. In short, on a general view, we should say, these rocks have more of the earthy aspect, and of the fragmented character, thus intimating a lower degree of crystallization, than is observable in the primitive class. But transition rocks are further distinguished from those of the primitive class, by the very important circumstance of their containing fossil organic remains. These petrifactions are of corals and shells, animal productions low in the zoological scale; and of vegetable remains that appear to belong to plants of the most simple construction, such as those of the class cryptogamia, and therefore at the bottom of the botanical scale. Hence it follows, that animals and vegetables of the more simple construction, were those first called into existence, and that their creation did not take place until the period of the formation of transition rocks. Corals of the same nature as those met with in the preceding class also occur in transition rocks; and numerous and extensive beds of limestone, sometimes containing organic remains, are in some districts of frequent occurrence. Transition rocks frequently abound in ores of various descriptions, which are generally disposed in veins. The mining districts of the Leadhills and Wanlock-head, near Edinburgh, which are so rich in galena, or lead-glance, are situated in transition rocks. The rich lead and silver mines in the Hartz, and many of those in Mexico, are in rocks of the same description.

The gems which appear in so many interesting forms and relations in the strata and veins of primitive mountains, are comparatively rare in the present class.

The abundant occurrence of ores in this class of rocks; the extensive deposites of limestone, particularly of the variegated kinds, so highly prized for ornamental purposes, which they contain; the fine granites and porphyries which they afford, are sufficient proofs of their importance in the arts.

The following are the rocks belonging to this class, viz. greywacke, clay-slate, limestone, trap, granite, sienite, porphyry, serpentine, gneiss, mica-slate, and quartz rock.

1. *Greywacke* is a conglomerated looking rock, with a basis of clay-slate, including angular and various shaped portions (by many considered as fragments) of clay-slate, of flinty-slate, quartz, felspar, &c. and occasionally scales of mica. When the imbedded masses become small, and the mass slaty, it is named *greywacke-slate*.

2. *Clay-slate.*—This rock is of the same general nature with primitive clay-slate, but differs from it in having less lustre, and in sometimes containing fossil plants and fossil shells.

3. *Limestone.*—It is more compact, and has much smaller grains, and therefore has less lustre and lower translucency than the primitive limestone. It is frequently traversed by veins of calcareous spar, and often exhibits in the same bed various tints and shades of beautiful colours. Some varieties are conglomerated, forming the *brecciated marble* of artists, and others contain fossil shells and corals.

4. *Trap.*—This rock, like that of the primitive class, is principally composed of hornblende, and is sometimes associated with felspar, forming *transition greenstone*.

5. *Granite, Sienite, and Porphyry.*—These have the same composition as in the primitive class; and, independent of the characters derived from their mass, and their particular imbedded minerals and veins, are distinguished by the greywacke, with which they are associated.

6. *Gneiss, and Mica Slate.*—These rocks occasionally occur associated with the greywacke and other members of this class.

7. *Serpentine and Quartz Rock.*—These very nearly resemble those of the primitive class, but are distinguished from them by their connexion with greywacke, &c.

The extensive and very interesting class of rocks termed secondary, rests immediately on those of the transition class; but when these are wanting, it rests on primitive rocks; and when the rocks of the two preceding classes occur in the same district with the secondary, the two former generally occupy a higher level. The hills of secondary districts are lower, rounder, with gentler acclivities, and fewer cliffs than those in transition districts; and their valleys are shallower, and their bottoms less inclined. Nearly all the secondary formations are more or less distinctly stratified, and the strata are more frequently horizontal, or slightly inclined, than in the older rocks. That regularity of direction of the strata, so prominent in the two preceding classes, has not been observed in the present.

Many of the secondary rocks, from their conglomerated structure, present a mechanical and not chemical aspect, and even the limestones of this series approach more nearly to the mechanical formation, than is observed in those of the preceding classes.

Secondary rocks are further particularly distinguished by the great variety and abundance of fossil organic remains which they contain. These extend throughout the whole secondary series, abounding in some formations, as limestone, and in others as gypsum and trap, appearing rarely, and in small quantities. In the older formations, fossil remains of oviparous quadrupeds or lizards are met with, while, in the newer members of the series, remains of true quadrupeds, as of opossums, occur; and Werner, long ago, pointed out among the secondary formations the gradual rise of the animals in the zoological scale, according to the date of the formation in which their remains are found, viz. that in the oldest secondary rocks, the animal remains were of tribes lower in organization than those met with in formations in the middle of the series, and that those found in the newest members of the class were of animals much more perfect than those in the middle part of the series.

Coal, which we have already enumerated in the primitive and transition classes, occurs in great abundance in the secondary class, and, besides the glance-coal, the only kind of coal found in the formations older than the secondary class, contains also the black or bituminous coal, (which has much more the aspect of a vegetable formation than the glance-coal,) and brown coal, a mineral of undoubted vegetable origin.

Secondary rocks are much less metalliferous than the transition and primitive, and hitherto the principal repositories, of ore have been met with in the lower parts of the series, viz. in the mountain limestone, lower part of the coal formation, magnesian limestone, and in the lower part of the new red sandstone. The most abundant metals are iron, lead, and copper, and to these, as a metal of rather abundant occurrence, may be added zinc, in the form of calamine, mercury in form of cinnabar, and cobalt. It is in the secondary class of rocks, that rock-salt first makes its appearance in quantity, and in the form of imbedded masses, and beds associated with gypsum and saliniferous clay.

The gems, as we have already remarked, are almost entirely confined to the primitive class, being of comparatively rare occurrence in transition rocks, and still less frequent in the rocks of this class.

The principal secondary rocks are sandstone, limestone, and trap, and these are arranged in various positions, and associated with other rocks.

We shall now enumerate them in the order of their relative position.

1. First Sandstone, or Old Red Sandstone Formation.—This is a reddish-brown sandstone, principally composed of particles of quartz, either without ground, or connected together by a basis or ground of iron-shot clay. It passes into greywacke, as on the coast of Galloway. It rests upon the rocks of the transition class.

2. First Secondary Limestone, or Mountain Limestone—is a compact blueish-grey limestone, full of encrinites, corals, and shells; often contains caverns, and sometimes alternates with the sandstone, slate-clay, and other rocks of the coal formation. It lies immediately on the old red sandstone.

3. Coal Formation.—This is an alternation of grey and white

white sandstone, butuminous shale and slate clay, clay ironstone, limestone, and coal. The whole together form a group or set of rocks, termed the coal formation. It rests on the mountain limestone.

4. Second Secondary Limestone, or Magnesian Limestone of Geologists.—The formation, as it appears in England, is generally a granular, sandy, and glimmering limestone, which contains a considerable portion of carbonate of magnesia. It occasionally contains gypsum and rock-salt. It lies immediately over or above the coal formation.

4. Second Sandstone, or New Red Sandstone Formations.—This sandstone is principally composed of particles of quartz, set in a reddish-brown clayey basis or ground. It is looser in its nature than the old red sandstone, and its colour wants the blueish tint which occurs in the old red sandstone. It is sometimes conglomerated, particularly where near the magnesian limestone, when it contains fragments of the subjacent strata. It abounds in beds of red and blue marl and clay, and in these there are occasionally imbedded masses and beds of gypsum, and rock-salt. It is here, and in the magnesian limestone formation, that the greatest masses of rock-salt are met with, and it is in these formations of the secondary series that the principal salt mines are situated. It rests immediately on the second secondary or magnesian limestone.

5. Third Secondary Limestone, or the Oolite or Shell Limestone Formation, or Jura Formation.—The lower members of this formation are blue, grey, and white slaty limestone, with blue slaty marl, and clay, in which are variously shaped masses of chert. These are known under the name *Lias*. Above these, still in this formation, there are alternations of beds of oolite limestone, shelly limestone, calcareous sandstone, various marls, clays, and fuller's earth. It rests upon the second or new red sandstone.

6. Third Sandstone Formation, or the Green Sand Formation.—This formation extends through a large portion of the south-eastern parts of England. Its characteristic member is a siliceous sandstone, abounding in grains of a substance resembling green earth or augite. Besides this sandstone, the formation contains beds of a coarse shelly limestone, of various clays, fuller's earth, and of iron sand. It rests upon the third limestone or oolite formation.

7. Fourth Limestone Formation, or Chalk Formation.—The lower part of this formation is composed of a grey clayey chalk, without flints, and of grey coloured clays and marls. Immediately above is a hard chalk, with few flints, and above is the softer chalk in which flints and organic remains abound.

8. Brown Coal Formation.—In this formation, which appears to rest upon chalk, brown coal occurs in great masses, associated with clays and marls, and occasionally with glance coal. The English pudding-stone appears to rest immediately, either on the brown coal or the chalk formations.

9. Paris Formation.—Under this head we include the series of beds of clay, marl, limestone, gypsum, sand, and sandstone, that occur in the basin of Paris, and also in that of the Isle of Wight and other quarters. They lie above chalk, and higher than the brown coal, and are divided into sets; two characterized by the presence of fresh water shells, and remains of quadrupeds, are named fresh water formations; and other two, containing principally salt water shells, are named marine formations.

10. Secondary Trap Rocks.—The rocks of this division have been described by many geologists as lavas. They occur in imbedded masses, beds and veins, in many of the formations already described, and hence, in order to prevent repetition, we have brought them together under one division. They are principally composed of augite, with occasional hornblende, and felspar; the augite occurs in all its states from the crystalline to the earthy or powdery condition, and the felspar appears in all the different states from clay stone and clay, to the crystalline state. The following are the secondary trap rocks: basalt, greenstone, sienite, amygdaloid, porphyry, and tuffa.

Alluvial Rocks.—These are the various clays, loams, marls, sands, gravels, rolled masses, &c. which lie over the other more solid rocks, and which owe their origin to the agency of the waters of the ocean, of rivers, lakes, and springs. They are divided into those called diluvian, because they seem to have been formed at the time of the deluge; such are the clays, sands, and loams, containing ther emains of elephants, rhinocerotes, &c. and of those loose blocks sometimes 50,000 square feet in magnitude, and found at great distances from their native places; and into those clays, loams, sands, and gravels, which are daily formed on the face of the earth by the agency of the waves of the ocean, and the actions of rivers, lakes, and springs, and which have been named post-diluvian.

Volcanic Rocks.—All those rocks which owe their present characters to the action of subterranean heat, or to that emanating from beds of coal, are named volcanic.

They are divided into pseudo-volcanic, and true volcanic. The pseudo-volcanic rocks are clays and iron stones, indurated, and partly melted by the heat from burning beds of coal. The true volcanic rocks are those which have flown in streams, or have been projected in the form of dust or gravel, from the craters of volcanoes.

For the preceding account, we have been chiefly indebted to the works of Dr. Jamieson. We shall now copy from Saussure a description of Mont-Blanc, because it affords some objections to the theory just laid down, and is also in itself highly interesting.

After having gained the highest point of the mountain, "the first thing which struck me," says Saussure, "in the entire view of the high mountainous summits which I had under my eyes from the summit of Mont Blanc, (the highest of them all,) was the kind of disorder which prevailed in their disposition. When we contemplate the range, of which Mont Blanc forms a part, from less considerable elevations, it appears as if these colossal mountains, were situated in a line, and formed a chain; but this appearance vanishes entirely from the bird's-eye view which is here presented. The mountains to the north of Mont Blanc, in Savoy and Switzerland, are indeed united among themselves, so as to form mountain chains, but the primitive mountains do not present this appearance. They are distributed in great masses, or in groups of various strange forms, detached from each other, which appear at least but accidentally united, without any regularity. Thus on the east, the lofty peaks called les Aiguilles de Chamouni, the mountains of Argentiere, of Courtes, and of Taleul, form one triangular group, almost detached from Mont Blanc, and only connected with it at the base by a narrow ridge.

"On the south-east likewise, Mount Zuc, La Rogue, and the other primitive mountains to the north of the summit of l'Allée Blanche, form a group nearly triangular, separated from Mont Blanc by the valley of the glacier of Miage, and which is only connected with Mont Blanc by the base of the mountains which close that glacier to the north.

"Mont Blanc itself forms a mass almost isolated, the different parts of which are not in the same line, and have no relation of situation with the other groups.

"On casting my eyes still further, I confirmed the same observation. The primitive mountains of Switzerland and Italy, which I had sufficiently near to be under my eyes, presented only separated masses, or detached groups, without order or regularity. Notwithstanding this irregularity in the forms and distributions of the grand masses, I observed certain important resemblances in the structure of their parts. All that I distinctly saw, appeared composed of plates (*feuillets*), arranged in the same manner nearly from north-east to south-west. I had particular pleasure in observing the same structure in the Aiguille du Midi, which I had formerly endeavoured but in vain to study, being prevented by the inaccessible walls of granite that surround the base. I had a view of the Aiguille du Midi on the second day of my ascent, and never lost sight of it as I proceeded. I assured myself that it is entirely composed of magnificent plates of granite, perpendicular to the horizon, and directed from north-east to south-west. Three of these plates, separated from each other, form the summit, decreasing

decreasing gradually in height from the southern race, on the side of the Col du Geaun.

"When seen from the base, these plates had the appearance of being bent, like the leaves of an artichoke; but this must be an optical illusion, for all those which I could now see distinctly appeared straight; and if there were any exceptions, they were only local, and of small extent.

"This great phenomenon of the vertical position of the plates can only be explained, by admitting a great overturning of the whole mass, which has lifted them from their original horizontal position.

"Another question, which I wanted anxiously to resolve, was also now answered. These great plates of rock preserved the same nature and quality at the summit as at the base, where I had so frequently examined them. This observation proves a remarkable property in mountains with vertical beds: each bed preserves the same nature from the bottom to the top.

"From this magnificent observatory I could comprise in one view the whole of that great phenomenon—which I had before contemplated but in parts—the elevation of the beds forming the mountains on the side of Mont Blanc. On whichever part I turned my eyes, I saw the secondary chains of mountains, and even the primitive of the second order, raising their beds against Mont Blanc, and the high summits in its vicinity. Such were the mountains on the north of Repesior, of Passy, of Servoz, and Le Buet; on the south, the Col du Ferret, Great St. Bernard, and those of the chain of Cremont, more remote, and beyond the mountainous chains, whose escarpments turn to Mont Blanc. We saw others, whose escarpments were turned in a contrary direction. These appearances are in perfect accordance with the theory which supposes that the crust of the globe has been broken, and the beds of rock raised from their horizontal position. It follows from hence, that the horizontal distance from the bottom of the valley of Chamouni (if that were once the ancient surface of the globe) should have some correspondence with the height of Mont Blanc; and that this distance is nearly the thickness of the stony crust, which has been broken and elevated; and that, consequently, Mont Blanc, which actually rises about a league above the surface, was in its original position buried two leagues beneath it."

The naked rocks on the summit, which form two kinds of arretes or crests of a dark colour, are of granite. The felspar in this granite is white, inclining to grey, green, or reddish: when exposed to the flame of the blowpipe, it yields a colourless transparent glass, but full of bubbles. The felspar is sometimes intermixed with a kind of earthy steatite. The quartz in this granite is semi-transparent and whitish, and appears rather unctuous in the fracture. Very minute fragments were rounded by the flame of the blow-pipe: it is, therefore, more fusible than rock-crystal. These granites are also intermixed with green and black hornblende, and with chlorite, which seems to supply the place of mica, as the latter scarcely appears, and only in minute spangles. In some places, these granites graduate into irregularly schistose rocks, composed of quartz and felspar, whose seams are filled with a brown argillaceous and ferruginous earth, that melts into a black glass. The granite on the actual summit is composed, like the above, of quartz, felspar, and hornblende or steatite. Felspar constitutes about three-fourths of the mass: the hornblende and steatite form too small a portion to be estimated, the quartz forming nearly the whole of the remaining fourth part. On the northern summit, besides the above species of granite, he met with a kind of trap rock, composed of minute crystals of white felspar and hornblende. On the southern summit he also found rocks of petrofilex (hornstone), of a pearl-grey colour. It is deserving notice, that the definition of these granites, as given by Saussure, would, according to the Wernerian system, bring them under the denomination of secondary granites; though surely, if any granite can properly be considered as primary, it is that of Mont Blanc, and the mountains in its immediate vicinity.

We borrow from Dr. Jamieson's Geognomy a description of two well-known tracks of country, the Hartz, and the Saxon Erzgebirge, or metalliferous mountains.

Of the Hartz.—An immense mass of granite forms the centre of this country; it rises through the other strata, and is elevated a considerable height above them all, forming the famous mountain—the Brocken. Mantle-shaped strata of clay-slate are wrapped around this central mass. It is worthy of remark, that gneiss and mica-slate, two of the most considerable of the older formations, are wanting in this country. To the clay-slate succeeds transition limestone, then grey-wacke and grey-wacke slate; and the whole of these wrapped around the granite in mantle-shaped strata, and invariably with lower and lower outgoings, corresponding to the newer and newer strata. The flœtz rocks that immediately succeed the transition surround them in mantle-shaped strata. Immediately on the newest of the transition rocks rests the oldest of the flœtz, the old red sand stone; to this succeeds the other flœtz formation, in the following order, according to their relative age:—first flœtz limestone, first flœtz gypsum; second or variegated sandstone, second or newer flœtz gypsum, second flœtz limestone. These flœtz rocks are the links that connect the transition with the alluvial, the next class of rocks. These are found in the lowest situations. We have thus, from granite to the alluvial formation, all the series marked with a diminishing level, in proportion to the newness of the strata.

Of the Saxon Erzgebirge.—The mine district of the Electorate of Saxony has a basis of granite which rises through the super-incumbent rocks in the different places at Altenberg, Johanngeorgenstadz, and Bobrisch, on the road leading from Freyberg to Dresden. The newer formations, viz. gneiss, mica-slate, topaz-rock, and clay slate, are wrapped around the granite in mantle-shaped strata, and the diminishing levels of the outgoings correspond to the newness of the formations. Over these we meet with other primitive formations that overlie the older formations, and their continuity is partly broken and partly unbroken; here are porphyry, sienite, newer granite, quartz, and serpentine. Still lower down we meet with transition rocks, of which the limestone appears Kalk-grun and Wildenfels; the amygdaloid at Voghtland; and the grey-wacke and grey-wacke slate near Freyberg. Still lower down, and often covering the preceding formations, we find sandstone and limestone; and in several places, as at Hainchen, Pottchappel, near Dresden, and Zwickau, there are depositions of the coal formation. Lastly, the newest flœtz-trap formation covers all the others in unconformable, overlying, and very broken stratification."

Where rocks rise above the surface, and are exposed to the action of air and moisture, they are liable to decomposition and disintegration. The former consists in the separation of the constituent parts; the latter in the separation of the integrant parts: the one may be compared to the mouldering of the stones of which a building is constructed; the other to the disjointing and dislocation of the stones in a sound state, when a building is thrown down. Both these processes frequently take place in the same rock.

The disintegration of rocks is sometimes rapidly effected by earthquakes, lightning, and the immediate action of subterranean fires. It is, however, to the more constant operations of moisture and change of temperature, that the destruction of rocks and mountains may be principally attributed; but no well-authenticated observations have yet been made to determine the extent of these effects during a given period of time. It has been vaguely stated, that the height of the Pyrenees is diminishing about one foot in a century; hence it was calculated that a million years would be required to level the rocky boundary which separates France and Spain. It is obvious that a lapse of many centuries would be required to verify such a conclusion; and though the decomposition and disintegration of rocks are, in many situations sufficiently rapid to be observable during the short period of a single life, yet, in other situations, rocks present the same unvarying outline for ages, and preserve their angular sharpness, which is natural, or, in some instances, the

the effect of art. Thus, the blocks of granite remaining in the quarries at Sienna, in Upper Egypt, have all the impressions of the tools with which they were worked during the latter period of the Roman empire: and the basaltic rocks formed by the extinct volcanoes of Auvergne are so compact, as to present, at this day, the appearance of trickling lava, suddenly congealed, though the period of their formation was prior to the record of authentic history. The causes of disintegration are, the vicissitudes of the atmosphere, change of temperature, and the absorption and congelation of water. The sudden dilation or contraction produced by the expansion and congelation of water, is alone sufficient to rend the strongest rocks when it enters their fissures. In Greenland the rocks are said, from this cause, frequently to burst with a noise like thunder. The external causes of decomposition are, principally, water and oxygen. Mineral substances, containing sulphur or metallic matter capable of a higher degree of oxygenation, absorb oxygen from water, or the atmosphere. To this cause the decomposition of stones, containing pyrites, is to be attributed. Calces of iron, moderately oxygenated, are the most general cause of decomposition; they act by absorbing a greater portion of oxygen, by which they gradually swell, and are disunited from the other constituent parts of the stone in whose composition they enter. When least oxygenated, their colour is black, or dark brown; and, in some instances, when combined with alumine, or magnesia, greenish-grey; the alumine, as it becomes more oxygenated, turns to a purple-red and orange, and finally a pale yellowish-brown; the magnesia becomes at first blue, then purple and red. Iron, in its metallic state, or, at least, when but slightly oxygenated, also decomposes water; but if exposed to the air, it becomes further oxygenated, and the compound into which it enters gradually decays.

Stones, into whose composition calces of iron, highly oxygenated, seem originally to have entered, are said, by Mr. Kirwan, to decompose with great difficulty, of which he instances red jasper; but perhaps the more perfect vitrification of these minerals may be the cause of their durability.

Calcareous rocks are liable to the decomposing effects of water, partly mechanical and partly chemical. Carbonate of lime is insoluble in water, except when aided by carbonic acid; but as this exists more or less in almost all water, it acts slowly upon limestones, particularly on those of a loose texture. Potash and soda enter also into the composition of many rocks; and to the existence of potash in felspar, one of the constituents of granite, the decomposition of granite rocks may be generally attributed.

From the combination of some extraneous mineral substance with rocks, remarkably rapid instances of the decomposition of rocks are sometimes known to take place. According to Dolomieu, all the houses of Malta are built of a fine grained limestone of a loose and soft texture, but which hardens by exposure to the air. There is a circumstance which hastens its destruction, and reduces it to powder, namely, when it is wetted by sea-water; after this it never dries, but is covered by a saline efflorescence, and a crust is formed some tenths of an inch thick, mixed with common salt, nitre, and nitrate of lime. Under this crust the stone moulders to dust, the crust falls off, and other crusts are successively formed, until the whole stone is destroyed. A single drop of sea-water is sufficient to produce the germ of destruction, which gradually increases and spreads, like a caries, through the whole mass of stone; nor does it stop there, but after some time affects all the neighbouring stones in the wall. The stones most subject to this decay are those that contain most magnesia; those that are finer grained, and of a closer texture, resist it. Notwithstanding the speculations of Dolomieu and Mr. Kirwan on the cause of this uncommon property in the stone of Malta, we conceive that a satisfactory explanation is still wanting.

We have before stated, that water is the principal agent in the gradual destruction of rocks; but sometimes entire mountains are suddenly levelled by subterranean currents, which work their passage through fissures and cavities, and silently prepare the causes of the most alarming catastrophes in alpine districts. In proportion to the elevation and abruptness of rocks, these catastrophes are more frequent and extended. In the cantons of Switzerland numerous instances of this kind are on record, and one, which we shall subsequently notice, occurred in our own times.

The town of Fleurs, about a league from Chavennes, containing about 2200 inhabitants, and numerous splendid palaces, was suddenly buried under a mountain on the 25th of August, 1618.

On the same evening an inhabitant, who entered the town, advised his neighbours to leave the place, saying, he had seen the mountains cleaving, but could obtain no credit; his daughter, whom he had persuaded to depart with him, returned to lock up some valuables, and was overwhelmed with all the other inhabitants in one common ruin. Mr. Coxe says vineyards, chesnut trees, and houses, now cover the spot where this unfortunate town once stood.

On the 23d of September, 1714, a great part of the mountain Diableret fell in between two and three o'clock in the afternoon, and buried more than 100 huts, and a considerable part of the valley. Those who saw this disaster say that it happened in a moment, and at the same time whirling clouds of dust arose suddenly, which darkened the air like a sudden night.

In 1751, a mountain fell down, situated near Passy, between Salenches and Servoz. Saussure says, the noise was so dreadful, and so thick and dark a cloud of dust arose, that many persons supposed that the world was at an end. Intelligence was received at Turin, that a terrible volcano had broken forth in these mountains; in consequence of which the king sent the celebrated naturalist, Vitaliano Donaty, to verify the report, who gives the following account of the event. "I hurried with extreme pleasure to examine so extraordinary a phenomenon. After having travelled four days and four nights without halting, I came in front of a mountain all covered with smoke, and from which were incessantly detached, both by day and night, large masses of stone with a noise perfectly like that of thunder, or of a large battery of cannon, but louder and more terrible. The peasants had all retired from the vicinity, and dared not to look at the ruin, until at the distance of two miles, or even farther. All the neighbouring hills were covered with a dust much resembling ashes. All said they had seen at intervals a smoke, which was red during the day, and accompanied with flames at night. I attentively examined the smoke, but neither perceived flames nor any smell of sulphur. Nor did the rivulets I examined with care, present the least appearance of sulphuric matter. Thus persuaded, I entered the smoke, and though quite alone, went to the brink of the abyss, where I saw a large rock darted down, and observed that the smoke was only dust raised by the fall of the rocks, the cause of which I soon after sought for and discovered.—A great part of the mountain situated above that which had fallen was composed of earth and stones, not disposed in beds, but confusedly heaped together. I thus perceived that the mountain had been subject to similar falls, which had left the large rock that fell this year without a support, and with a considerable projection. This rock was composed of horizontal beds, of which the lower were of slate, or rather of fragile schistose stone of little consisteney, while the two beds beneath these were of marble like that of Porto Venere, but full of fissures, which crossed the beds. The fifth bed was wholly composed of slate in vertical plates, entirely disunited; this bed formed all the upper part of the fallen mountain. Upon the same level summit were three lakes, the waters of which penetrated constantly through the fissures of the beds of rock, and decomposed their supports. The snow, which had fallen in Savoy in greater abundance than had ever been seen in the memory of man, increased the effect, and the united waters occassioned the fall of three million cubic fathoms of rock, a mass sufficient to form a large mountain."

On the 2d of September, 1806, at five in the evening, the Knippenhoul rock, which formed the summit of Mount Rosenberg, was on a sudden detached from its situation; and at the same time part of the mountain, about 280 feet thick on

on the east side, and several feet thick on the west, gave way, and fell into the valley which separates the lake of Zug from that of Lauwertz. One part of the mountain fell into the lake of Lauwertz, which caused such an agitation in the waters of the lake, that they overthrew a number of houses, chapels, mills, &c., along the northern shore. Upwards of 1000 persons were the victims of this calamity. A society of thirteen travellers were on the road from Arth to Schwetz; nine who walked first perished, the other four escaped. In this convulsion enormous pieces of rock were carried through the air to prodigious distances. The lake of Lauwertz has lost about a quarter of its extent. That rich plain, before so beautiful, now presents a mountain of 100 feet in height, 1½ league in length, and as much in breadth. The villages of Goldau and Rotheu, consisting of 115 houses; that of Busingen, of 126; and that of Kuflock, have totally disappeared. Of Lauwertz, which had 25 houses, there remain ten buildings, all much damaged. Twenty years previously, General Psyffer predicted this catastrophe, from the knowledge he had of the nature of the mountain. A professor of Schwitz said, that above Spietsfleu there was a lake of water which had undermined the rock for several years, and that below there was a cavern of great depth, where the waters were ingulphed. The quantity of water which had fallen during the preceding years hastened the catastrophe, and the rains of some preceding weeks decided it. On the 10th, 800 persons were employed digging for the bodies of those who were destroyed by the falling of the mountain. In forming a channel to draw off the waters, between 30 and 40 labourers were swallowed up by a torrent of muddy water which broke in upon them suddenly.—*Annual Register*, 1806, p. 449.

In the mountainous parts of North Wales, Cumberland, and Westmoreland, similar effects, on a diminutive scale, are taking place, and the scattered masses of rock, spread widely over the sides and feet of the hills, prove that they have once had a greater elevation.

To ROCK, *v. a.* [*rocquer*, Fr. Dr. Johnson.—Descended from the Icel. *hrocka*, to shake, or be shaken. Serenius adds the Dalecamp. *rucka*, oscillare.] To shake; to move backwards and forwards.—If, by a quicker *rocking* of the engine, the smoke were more swiftly shaken, it would, like water, vibrate to and fro. *Boyle.*

The wind was laid; the whispering sound
Was dumb; a rising earthquake *rock'd* the ground.
Dryden.

To move the cradle, in order to procure sleep.

Leaning her head upon my breast,
My panting heart *rock'd* her asleep. *Suckling.*

High in his hall, *rock'd* in a chair of state,
The king with his tempestuous council sate. *Dryden.*

To lull; to quiet.

Sleep *rock* thy brain,
And never come mischance between us twain! *Shakspeare.*

To ROCK, *v. n.* To be violently agitated; to reel to and fro.

The *rocking* town
Supplants their footsteps; to and fro they reel
Astonish'd. *Philips.*

ROCK, a village of England, in Northumberland; 5 miles north-north-west of Alnwick.

ROCK BUTTER, in Mineralogy, a saline mineral, formed in the fissures of rocks of alum-slate. It occurs both massive and stalactitical, and sometimes pulverulent. It has a greyish-white or a straw-yellow colour, and a sweetish and somewhat acidulous astringent taste, like alum. It is indeed a kind of native alum. The feel is somewhat greasy, from which and its colour it has received its name.

ROCK CASTLE, a river of the United States, in Kentucky, which runs south-west into the Cumberland, near the Long Shoals.

ROCK CORK, *Suber Montanum*, a flexible and somewhat elastic mineral, found in mineral veins. It is sometimes massive, and sometimes in laminæ or plates: these have been called rock-leather and rock-flesh. The common colour is a yellowish-grey of various shades: it is sometimes a yellowish-brown and cream-colour. It has a fibrous structure, and but little lustre. The fractured surface is delicately uneven. This mineral is opaque, and very soft, yielding to the nail. It breaks with great difficulty, and cracks when handled: it is so light as to swim on water, and is almost infusible in the flame of the blow-pipe.

The constituent parts, as given by Bergmann, are, silex 56.2; magnesia 26.1; alumine 2; lime 12.7; iron 3. Total 100.

Rock-cork approaches in its nature to asbestus, from which it differs principally by the promiscuous arrangement of the fibres.

ROCK CRYSTAL, the purest variety of crystallized quartz. This stone is sometimes employed in jewellery, and is differently named, according to the places from whence it is procured, as Bristol stone, Scotch pebbles, &c.

ROCK FISH, a common English name for the GOBIUS, which see.

ROCK FISH CREEK, a river of the United States, in Virginia, which runs into James river. Lat. 37. 37. N. long. 78. 54. W.

ROCK GERMANDER, in botany, a species of VERONICA, which see.

ROCK HALL, a post village of the United States in Kent county, Maryland.

ROCK HILL, a township of the United States, in Bucks county, Pennsylvania. Population 1508.

ROCK LANDING, a post village of the United States, in Halifax county, North Carolina, at the head of the great falls of the Roanoke; 12 miles above Halifax.

ROCK-OUZEL, a name of a bird.

ROCK POINT, an elevated bluff point on the south-east coast of the peninsula of Alaska, so called by Captain Cook in 1778. Lat. 55. 10 N. long. 198. 50. E.

ROCK POINT, a cape on the north coast of the island, of Cumbava. Lat. 8. 8. S. long. 118. 35. E.

ROCK RIVER, a river of America, which runs into Lake Michigan. Lat. 37. 37. N. long. 83. 35. W.

ROCK ROSE, the plant CISTUS.

ROCK SPRING, a post village of the United States, in Nelson county, Virginia.

ROCK TOWN, a small sea-port on the Grain coast of Africa. Lat. 4. 35. N. long. 7. 50. W.

ROCKAWAY, a township of the United States, in Morris county, New Jersey on Rockaway river.

ROCKBEARE, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 5 miles west of Ottery St. Mary. Population 363.

ROCKBRIDGE, a county of the United States, in the central part of Virginia. Population 10,318, including 1724 slaves. Chief town Lexington.

ROCKBURN, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire; 3½ miles north-west of Fordingbridge.

ROCKCASTLE, a county of the United States, in Kentucky. Population 1731.

ROCKDALE, a township of the United States, in Crawford county, Pennsylvania.

ROCK-DOE, *s.* A species of deer. — The *rock-doe* breeds chiefly upon the Alps; a creature of admirable swiftness; and may probably be that mentioned in the book of Job: her horns grow sometimes so far backward, as to reach over her buttocks. *Grew.*

ROCK-PIGEON, *s.* A sort of pigeon which builds in rocks by the sea-coast.—Pigeons or doves are of several sorts; as wood-pigeons, and *rock-pigeons*. *Mortimer.*

ROCK-RUBY, *s.* A name given improperly by lapidaries and jewellers to the garnet, when it is of a very strong, but not deep red, and has a fair cast of the blue. *Hill.*—*Rock-ruby* is of a deep red, and the hardest of all the kinds. *Woodward.*

ROCK-SALT, *s.* Mineral salt.—Two pieces of *rock-salt*; one white, the other red. *Woodward.*

This useful mineral forms large beds and masses in many parts of the world, and even composes entire mountains. It occurs in large columnar or in spheroidal concretions, and also crystallized in cubes. Rock-salt is subdivided by Werner into two kinds, foliated and fibrous. The more common colours of foliated rock-salt are, white, grey, reddish-brown, and red; but sometimes it is violet, sky-blue, and green, and is more or less transparent or pellucid: it breaks into cubical fragments, which have a vitreous lustre: the structure is indistinctly foliated. In fibrous rock-salt the fibres are generally small and curved; in other respects it differs little from the former. The taste of both is like that of common salt. The red varieties are coloured by earthy matter and oxyd of iron; the white and transparent are extremely pure, being composed almost entirely of muriatic acid and soda, or, according to Davy, of chlorine and sodium. In the purest kind also, there is scarcely any trace of water of crystallization. According to Henry, pure transparent rock-salt, calcined for half an hour in a low red heat, equal to four or five degrees of Wedgewood's pyrometer, lost absolutely nothing of its weight. It is remarkable, also, that if free from any adventitious moisture, it may be suddenly and strongly heated with scarcely any of that sound called decrepitation, which is produced by a similar treatment of all the varieties of manufactured common salt. The specific gravity of the purest specimens of rock-salt is about 2.170, of the less pure about 2.130.

Rock-salt is widely distributed over the globe; it appears principally in the lower secondary strata. It is most frequently accompanied with sulphate of lime or gypsum, and by beds of clay impregnated with salt. Beside the beds of rock-salt which are known, numerous brine-springs in various parts of the world attest the existence of this mineral deep under the surface, as it is evident these springs percolate beds of salt, or strata impregnated with it. Several brine-springs have recently been discovered in the deep coal-mines of Northumberland and Durham. In the coal-mines near Ashby-de-la-Zouch, in Leicestershire, there are springs of brine 245 yards below the surface; and though these springs are in the centre of the island, they are 140 yards below the level of the sea. How much deeper their source may be, has not been ascertained.

The most obvious hypothesis respecting the formation of rock-salt is, the one which supposes that it was deposited from the sea, or by the desiccation of salt lakes which formerly covered the present continents. Against this it has been objected, that the composition of rock-salt is much more pure than the contents of sea-water, which contains a quantity both of muriate and sulphate of magnesia, sulphate of soda, and of sulphate of lime. Rock-salt is also found at great heights above the present level of the sea. These objections will, in a considerable degree, be invalidated by the consideration that whatever impurities there may be in sea-water, if the process of evaporation go on very slowly the salt will be crystallized nearly pure. Of this we have an instance in the species of salt made at Lymington, in Hampshire, called *salt cat*, which is gradually formed in the course of ten or twelve days, by spontaneous evaporation of the liquor which drains from the common salt. This salt is so pure (though evaporation from the most impure part, the mother water, or residue of sea-water), that 1000 parts contain only 12 of foreign impurities, or little more than one per cent. Thus if the desiccation of lakes or basins filled with salt water were very gradual, as it must be, except in the vicinity of subterranean fires, the muriate of soda or rock-salt would be crystallized before the other salts, which being more deliquescent might be separated and washed away. In this manner the sulphate of lime or gypsum, which exists in sea-water, and accompanies rock-salt, may also have been deposited, and being nearly insoluble would remain.

The occurence of rock-salt deep under the earth, or high above the level of the sea, can scarcely form an objection to its formation from sea-water; for it is admitted by all geologists, and is proved by undoubted facts, that the ocean once covered our present continents. Now by whatever process the dry land was raised above the sea, whether by the elevation of the former, or the depression of the beds of the latter, extensive hollows and closed valleys must have formed lakes of salt water, from which the salt might be deposited by evaporation. Some of these valleys or hollows would occur in elevated situations. With respect to the beds of rock-salt placed under other strata, however difficult it may be to explain the formation of the secondary strata, the existence of organic remains in them prove that each stratum was once the uppermost part of the globe, and the strata by which it is covered were deposited upon it in successive and probably at distant periods. Nor is the difficulty greater with respect to the strata covering rock-salt, than the strata covering coal and beds of coal-shale abounding in vegetable impressions. No organic remains have indeed been discovered in the strata over the rock-salt of Cheshire, but they are commonly met with at greater depths over the rock-salt beds in Poland, and in other parts of Europe. The occurrence of rock-salt at the sides or feet of extensive mountainous chains, may perhaps illustrate its formation, as it is probable these extensive chains once formed the boundaries of inland seas or lakes, when the relative level of the ocean and our continents was very different from the present.

Rock-salt is not mined in any part of our island, except Cheshire, though it was bored through at Droitwich; and it exists, in all probability, in many of the western counties through which the red sand-rock extends. We have proofs of its existence from the brine-springs at Droitwitch, in Worcestershire, at Lemington in Warwickshire, and at Ashby Wolds, in Leicestershire; and also in the counties of Northumberland and Durham, on the eastern side of England. The springs at Droitwitch furnish a brine as strong as those of Cheshire. A description of the rock-salt of Cheshire having been given under that article, we shall proceed to give a short account of the most important repositories of this useful mineral in other parts of the world.

Salt is very abundant in Africa; all the plains and sandy deserts are impregnated with it, and the greater part of the springs in these deserts are so saline, that it is not possible to drink the water. To the south of Abyssinia, at the feet of the mountains which separate that country from that of the Gallas negroes, salt exists in dry and solid masses. The summit of the mountains which border the desert to the west of Cairo, presents an immense plain covered with a mass of salt. According to Horneman it is spread over so large a track of surface, that no eye can reach its termination in one direction; its breadth extends several miles. To the west of the desert of Sahara are the great salt rocks of Tegaza, on the south-east frontier of the desert of Zuenziga, a little distance from Cape Blanc. They are worked by the Moors. These salt mines furnish the white and coloured salt, which is carried by caravans to Casnah and Tombuctoo, to supply the Negro states; for it does not appear that there are any salt mines in Negro-land properly called. The mines of salt spread in that part of Africa which the ancients called Libya, have been well indicated by Herodotus, and it is in this country that he has described buildings constructed of rock-salt, like those in Caramania and Arabia. Other salt mines, according to Park, are found on the southern frontier of the great desart Sahara. Their produce is also sold to the Negroes on the borders of the Niger and the Jolibe. In the kingdom of Tunis, mount Had Delfa is entirely composed of very compact salt of a red and violet colour. The lake des Marques, and the plains near it, also contain much salt. There are mines of rock-salt in the country of Bamba, in the kingdom of Congo. On all the western coast of Africa there are salt lakes and marshes. In the neighbourhood of the Cape of Good Hope, and

and in Caffraria, rock-salt is less common; but there are lakes to the east of the Cape, on the frontiers of Caffraria, which contain at the bottom beds of salt variously coloured.

Salt lakes exist in the Cape Verde islands, and natural salt-marshes, particularly in Bona Vista.

Spain is the only country in the south of Europe which contains extensive repositories of rock-salt in considerable masses above the surface. It is found there in elevated situations, forming entire hills: brine-springs also issue from the feet of the mountains which traverse that country. According to the description of Mr. Bowles, the repository of rock-salt which lies between Caparoso and the river Ebro, is in a chain of hills which extend from east to west. These hills are composed of limestone, mingled with gypsum, the chain extending more than two leagues. In the most elevated part is situated the village of Valtierra, on a slope towards the middle of which is found a bed of rock-salt. It may be about 400 paces long, and 80 wide. The salt is contained in a bed of about five feet in thickness.

"I examined," he adds, "with attention those beds of salt; I compared them with the layers of earth and gypsum in which they are imbedded; I found the outside layer to be composed of gypsum; and, immediately afterwards, I met with two inches of white salt, succeeded by two inches of stony salt, and a layer of earth. I found others alternately composed of earth and salt to the very bottom of the mine, which is of gypsum, undulated like the other layers. The layers of saline rock are of a dusky blue, those of salt are white.

"This mine is considerably elevated above the sea, for you ascend continually all the way from Bayonne.

"The second hill is that of Cardona, in Catalonia, near the Mountain of Montserrat, sixteen leagues to the north-west of Barcelona, and a few leagues from the Pyrenees.

"The village of Cardona is situated at the foot of a rock of salt, which, from the sides of the river Cardonere, seems nearly mural. This rock is a block of massive salt, which rises from the earth about four or five hundred feet, without crevices, chasms, or layers. No gypsum is found near it. This block is about a league in circumference; and its elevation is equal to that of the surrounding mountains: as its depth is not known, it is impossible to say on what it rests.

"In general, the salt, from the top to the bottom, is white, though some parts are red; some is also found of a fine blue. There are also in Spain other repositories of rock-salt and saline springs. In La Mancha, at Almengranilla, there is a mass of salt similar to that of Cardona; it is seventy yards in diameter, mixed with sulphate of lime, and covered with the same stone, including crystals of red quartz; above which are siliceous pudding-stones, and a stratum of carbonate of lime."

The mines of rock-salt that are wrought at Poza, near Burgos, in Castille, are remarkably situated, being placed in a vast crater. A French traveller, M. Fernandez, found pumice-stones, puzzolana, and other volcanic productions there.

Rock-salt is likewise found near Aranjuez and Ocanna, in the transition hills between Sierra Morena and Madrid.

On the north side of the Pyrenees no beds of rock-salt have been discovered, but numerous brine-springs occur, particularly at Salies: in the department of the lower Pyrenees the soil is calcareous, and sulphate of lime is found in the neighbourhood of the spring.

There are salt-springs at Salies, to the south of Thoulouse, also at Salins and Montmorat, in the department of the Jura; in the first of these the water contains fifteen per cent. of salt.

There are about twenty brine-springs in the department of La Meurthe, which contain, on the average, thirteen per cent. of salt. These springs are at no great distance from each other; some are at the foot of the chain of Jura, the others at the foot of the Vosges: the product of these brine-springs supplies Switzerland with salt. There are salt-springs in the department of Mont Blanc, in the midst of the Higher Alps. In the same department, near St. Maurice, there is a salt-rock near the region of perpetual snow, which is probably the highest situation in Europe where this mineral occurs. The rock consists of gypsum, intermixed or impregnated with salt, which is extracted by solution in water; the insoluble part remains porous and light. Various brine-springs also occur in other parts of France.

Though there are numerous brine-springs in the north of Germany, no beds of rock-salt appear on the surface, until we approach the circle of Austria and the neighbouring countries. The range of salt-rocks commences at Halle, in the Tyrol, passes through Reichenthal in Bavaria, and continues to Hallein in Salzburgh, Halstadt, Ischel, and Ebensel, in Austria, and terminates at Ausse in Styria. The salt at Halle is worked in a particular manner: parallel galleries are run into the rock, in these dykes are formed, and water is let into them, where it remains from five to twelve months. When the water is saturated, it is drawn off in pipes, and the solution is evaporated.

On comparing the geological situation of the greater part of the beds of rock-salt and brine-springs, it will be seen that they occur most frequently at the foot of high mountainous chains. The mines of rock-salt in Transylvania, Upper Hungary, Moldavia, and Poland, may be cited in further proof of this. These mines are numerous, and very important from their extent, and the vast masses of salt they contain. They are found along the chain of the Carpathian mountains, and spread nearly in an equal degree on each side of the chain accompanying these mountains to the extent of more than two hundred leagues, from Wieliczka in Poland, towards the north, to Fokszian or Rymnick in Moldavia, to the south.

The strip of land that contains the salt-rock or brine-springs, is near forty leagues broad in some parts. In it may be reckoned about sixteen mines, that are worked for salt; forty-three indications of mines that have never been wrought; and four hundred and twenty, or four hundred and thirty brine-springs.

The most remarkable of these commence in the north-east, and extend in a southerly direction, including those of Wieliczka, Bochnia, and Samber, in Poland; and some brine-springs in Buchovina and Moldavia, particularly near Ocknal. On the south-west of the chain, following the same direction, are those of Sowar, near Eperies, in Upper Hungary; of Marmarosch, in Hungary; of Dees, Torda, Paraid, and Visackno, near Hermanstadt, in Transylvania, &c.

The salt-mines of Wieliczka, near Cracow, and those of Bothnia, which appear to be a branch of them, have become celebrated from the accounts given of them by almost every traveller who has visited that country; many of their descriptions are too highly coloured. They are, indeed, very ancient, having been worked ever since the year 1251; but have nothing to distinguish them above others, except the extent of the works in the beds of rock-salt, the dimensions of which still remain unknown. The ground that covers the rock-salt is composed like that over most other salt-mines, of alternate strata of sand, pebbles, and marle, including large blocks of salt. You go down to these mines by six shafts, of four or five yards in diameter. Various structures have been formed in the body of the salt itself. We find there a stable, chambers, and chapels, all the parts of which, as pillars, altars, and statues are of salt. The shafts and galleries are perfectly dry, so that you are more incommoded by dust than dirt. There are springs, however, both of salt water and of fresh in these mines. It appears that the air is not so foul in them as in most salt mines; but the workmen do not reside in them, as some have asserted. In certain parts of the mine, hydrogen gas sometimes collects and explodes.

The salt is cut out in little ascending steps. It is formed into parallelopipedons, weighing about eighty or a hundred pounds, or into cylinders, which are put into casks.

This

This mine produces about six thousand tons of salt every year.

According to the description of Dr. Townson, the salt in the upper mines does not form continuous strata, or rocks, but exists in immense detached blocks or masses, imbedded in marle. He gives the following account of the strata which cover the salt.

	Yards.
Vegetable soil	4
Sand clay	10
Fine sand effervescing with acids	7
Marle with sand, containing fragments of sandstone	18
Sand-stone	2
Marle mixed with salt, in small particles and cubes	40

At the depth of forty yards in this marle the salt is found. The blocks of this mineral are of such a size, that in passing through the galleries formed in them, sometimes the upper, and sometimes the lower end only of a block may be seen; but often, though the galleries are three or four yards high, the breadth can only be observed, and even in some places the blocks of salt form the sides of the gallery for fifteen or twenty yards. These blocks compose the upper bed of salt, and from them the whole of what is called the green salt is obtained. This salt, which is of a greenish or blackish hue, owes its colour to numerous fine particles of a substance which seems to be of the nature of argillaceous schistus scattered through it. This variety of salt, on account of its impurity, is retained in the country for home consumption. In this marle, also, blocks of sand-stone are sometimes found imbedded, and the marle itself is strongly impregnated with salt. Lower down there is another bed of salt, called szybicker salt, which is in some places two or three yards thick; it is of a purer quality than the former, and is exported to foreign countries. This variety of salt-rock is disposed in very extensive beds. The mine has been driven in one place twelve hundred yards, from east to west, and four hundred from north to south; salt being still found there. The utmost extent is yet unknown. The nature of the stratum beneath the szybicker salt has not been ascertained; for the miners being apprehensive of increasing the quantity of water, have never proceeded to a great depth in this stratum. The greatest depth of the mine is two hundred and forty yards. It does not appear that the remains of organized bodies have been found in great abundance in the strata connected with the salt-rocks now described. None have been observed, according to Dr. Townson's information, in the szybicker salt, or the lower strata; but some have been seen in the marle which envelopes the block of green salt; such as bivalve shells, at the depth of seventy-two yards; crabs' claws at the depth of eighty yards; and charred coal, mixed with salt and gypsum, at the great depth of two hundred yards.

From the circumstance of mass being formerly celebrated in these mines two or three times a week, it has been said that the workmen, to the amount of five hundred, live constantly below ground. They do not, however continue longer than their hours of working. To keep the mines dry, the salt water is drawn up in leathern sacks, and is thrown away; the small quantity of fresh water which they afford is reserved for the use of the horses which are employed in the subterraneous operations. At the time Mr. Townson visited them, twenty-four horses were constantly kept below ground.

In the mine of Bochnia the salt presents itself in a stratum at once, and not in detached pieces. The strata of clay, as well as those of salt, are undulated, and not of an uniform thickness. The salt is sometimes brown, at others reddish, and at others transparent. The different coloured salt is not arranged in parallel layers. The strata dip at an angle of about forty degrees with the horizon. Dr. Townson informs us that very beautiful specimens of fibrous muriate of soda are found in it.

At Thorda the mass of salt is divided into horizontal but undulated strata. These strata are about eight or ten inches thick. The lowest are the most undulated.

Near Ockna, in Moldavia, there is a hill of rock-salt, in many parts of which the salt appears exposed to view.

The mines on the south-east of the Carpathian chain appear more numerous, and are dispersed through a greater space of ground than those on the north-east. They are in general very near the surface. Some of those in Transylvania are so to such a degree, that persons are appointed to cover the salt with turf, when it is washed bare by the rain. These masses, however, are so thick, that their bottom has never been found. They are not worked to the depth of more than a hundred and seventy or eighty yards, because the extraction of the salt becomes then too expensive. In the county of Marmarosch they have been wrought to the depth of upward of two hundred yards. These mines contain likewise a great deal of petroleum, and the ground in which they are contained is every where furrowed by rivers. The mud interposed between the water of these and the salt, is imagined to prevent the salt from being dissolved by them.

At Paraid, in Transylvania, there is a valley, the bottom and sides of which are of pure salt. Walls of salt appear there sixty or seventy yards high.

The mine of Eperies is three hundred and sixty yards deep.

In the salt mines of Marmarosch, water has been found included in the substance of the salt-rock.

The mines of the south-west of the Carpathian mountains are generally wrought by means of shafts. There are at least two to each mine; one for the workmen, the other for drawing up the salt. The salt is cut out in ascending steps which produces empty spaces, of a conical form, in the midst of the strata. The ladders reach perpendicularly to the bottom of this conical space: so that within it they stand perfectly detached. Thus the greater part of the body of salt is extracted, leaving empty spaces, which are conical, and which communicate with one another by means of galleries. It has been thought, that, in order to leave less salt, it would be better to give these spaces the shape of a parabola. The salt is so plentiful, that the miners are paid only for such pieces as weigh upwards of eighty pounds; the others being rejected as useless.

The Transylvanians and Moldavians extract salt from their brine-springs, by throwing the water on wood fires, as the Gauls and Germans did in former times.

No salt-mine, or brine-spring, is known either in Sweden, or in Norway.

There are a great number of both, and particularly of salt lakes, in Russia. Among these is the salt lake of Tor, towards the northern extremity of Little Tartary.

There are similar salt lakes in the Crimea.

At Balachna, on the banks of the Wolga, are some very rich brine-springs.

In Russia, in Asia, we find the brine-springs of Permia, of which there are a great number at the foot of the mountains of Poyas.

About eighty verst from Yena Tayeoska, in the desart between the Wolga and the Uralian mountains, there is a mine of rock-salt.

In the government of Astracan, to the north of the Caspian sea, in the environs of Orenburgh, and in the country of the Bashkirians, salt lakes are very common, and the water evaporating during the summer, the salt appears crystallized on their surface, and round their borders. When this water is highly concentrated, it has a deep red colour. The salt formed in them has often the same hue; and when this is the case, it diffuses a very perceptible violet smell.

One of these is the salt lake of Elton, above Astracan, in the re-entering angle formed by the Wolga. The Kalmucks called it the Golden lake, because of its red appearance, when the sun shines on it.

The lake of Bogdo, situate near this, yields a perfectly white salt, free from sulphate of magnesia, and preferred to that of lake Elton.

Near

Near Astracan, too, is the mine of Iletzki, celebrated for the quantity of salt it furnishes. The salt lies at no great depth, and rests on a very hard clay. The soil above it is sandy, and full of holes, containing water saturated with salt.

In Siberia there is a mine of rock-salt on the right bank of the Kaptendoi; and on that of the Kawda are fourteen brine-springs. Others are found in the government of Kolivan, and in the environs of Irkutsk, near the lake Baikal, in the centre of Asiatic Russia. Lastly, the country near the Caspian sea is so impregnated with muriate of soda, that in the environs of Gourief, the fogs and dew that settle on people's clothes, and on plants, are saline. Pallas.

Among the Mongul Tartars, the soil is so thoroughly penetrated with muriate of soda, that the people lixiviate it, and evaporate the solution to obtain salt.

That part of China, which borders on Tartary, contains salt-mines, and the ground is strongly impregnated with salt.

Salt is found in the same manner throughout almost the whole table-land of Great Tartary, Thibet, Hindoostan, and particularly Persia, where very extensive plains are seen covered with a saline efflorescence. The isle of Ormus, at the mouth of the Persian gulf, appears, according to the accounts of travellers, to be one large rock of salt. This substance is also found in solid masses near Balach, on the eastern side of Persia. In the desart of Caramania, according to Chardin, rock-salt is so abundant, and the atmosphere so dry, that the inhabitants use it for building their houses. It is found in the neighbourhood of Ispahan, and in the mountains to the north of that city.

The repositories of rock-salt in America, are less known. According to Ulloa and others, it is found in vast quantities in the elevated desarts of Peru, at the extraordinary height of 10,000 feet, or more, above the present level of the sea. It is extremely hard, forming solid continuous rocks of a dull violet colour.

The mountain of Xaragua, in the island of St. Domingo, affords salt; and in the same island there is a very remarkable salt lake, about 22 leagues in circumference, called Henriquelle. The water, which is inhabited by lizards, alligators, and land-tortoises, all of a large size, is deep, clear, bitter, salt, and of a disagreeable smell. Near the middle of the lake is an island, about six miles long and three broad, well stocked with goats, whence it has the name of Cabrito island; and in this island is a spring of fresh water.

Salt lakes occur in other of the West India islands. In North America, west of the Alleghany mountains, in the state of Kentucky, are numerous repositories of rock-salt and brine-springs: these are called licks, where the elks and buffaloes formerly repaired in herds, to lick the soil impregnated with rock-salt. On the western side of the great river Missouri, a chain of mountains extends 80 miles in length, and 55 in breadth, and of considerable height; it consists of pure rock-salt, barely covered with earth, but without any tree or shrub. Further west, in California, salt is found in a very pure state, in large and solid masses.

From the preceding account it will be seen that this most useful mineral is found in every quarter of the globe; and in many parts it exists in masses of immense size and extent, compared with the rock-salt in our own island, in the county of Chester. Such, however, is the superior industry of our inhabitants, that the quantity annually exported from that county alone greatly exceeds that procured from any other district in the known world, being not less than 140,000 tons, the produce of the salt-rock and brine-spring; while the celebrated mines at Wieliczka, in Poland, are stated to yield only about 6000 or 7000 tons. Where rock-salt is white or colourless, it is immediately applicable to all useful purposes; but when mixed with earthy matter, it is rendered pure by the simple process of solution in water. The liquor is afterwards drawn off into pans, leaving the insoluble part behind; and the water is then evaporated either by the natural warmth of the climate, or by fires.

It is remarked by the writer of the account of the Agriculture of Cheshire, that, from some experiments made on different specimens of rock-salt, it would appear that the transparent kind of it is an almost pure muriate of soda, which contains no admixture of either earth or earthy salts; and that the colour of the less transparent and brown specimens is derived from the earth that enters, in greater or less proportions, into their compositions. That on 480 grains of transparent rock-salt being dissolved in four ounces of distilled water, there was, first, no precipitate let fall, on the addition of carbonate of potash. Secondly, no alteration was produced by this solution on blue vegetable juices. Thirdly, on the addition of a few drops of tincture of galls, a slight purple tinge was given to the solution; and after standing some hours, there was a brown sediment at the bottom of the vessel. Fourthly, on the addition of muriate of barytes, there was no precipitate thrown down. From the first of these trials, it is supposed that rock-salt has no muriate of lime, or muriate of magnesia, combined with it; from the second, that it has no uncombined acid or alkali; from the third, that it contains some portion of iron; and from the fourth, or last, that there is no sulphate of lime contained in it.

On examining different specimens of the less transparent, and the brown rock-salt, with the same re-agents as in the above trials, it was found that these consisted of muriate of soda, or sea-salt, in combination with a certain proportion of earth, varying in quantity from one to thirty per cent.; also, that the earth was wholly the argillaceous or common clay; but that some of the specimens contained a few grains of sulphate of lime, in 480 of those of the rock-salt.

The beds of this salt are now well known to be the principal cause of the salt-brine springs in this county; and, in connection with some other circumstances, to have a great share in causing the vast differences in their strength, in different places.

This is a strong sort of salt, which is found useful for a variety of domestic purposes, according to the different manner in which it is prepared, or the difference in the size of the particles or crystals of which it is composed.

Although rock-salt is found in various parts of the above district, there are no pits of it wrought at present, except in the vicinity of Northwich. And part of the inferior rock-salt, which is procured there, is, it is said, used at some of the refineries in that neighbourhood; and a further quantity sent down the river Weaver, for the supply of the refineries at Frodsham, in the same county, and those on the banks of the Mersey, in Lancashire. The purer rock-salt, or that which is called in general Prussian rock, is carried by the same conveyance to the port of Liverpool; whence, according to the above writer, it is exported chiefly to Ireland, and the ports of the Baltic. The annual quantity of rock-salt sent down the first of the above rivers is found, on the average of the last ten years, to be 51,109 tons. But in this, it is observed, is included what is used at the Frodsham and Lancashire refineries, which may probably be about one-third of the whole. And it is added, that it appears, from the report of the committee of the house of commons, appointed to inquire into the laws respecting the salt duties, printed in June 1801, that,

in 1798	were exported	20,162	tons of rock-salt.
1799		33,913	
1800		34,939	

Of this quantity,

in 1798,	-	-	16,095 tons
1799,	-	-	22,374
1800,	-	-	19,663

were

were sent to different ports in Ireland: the remainder was principally exported to Denmark, Russia, Sweden, Prussia, and Germany. However, a small quantity went to Guernsey, Jersey, and the West Indies.

This shews, in a striking manner, the great utility and advantage of this article in a manufacturing and trading point of view, as well as in other ways.

In regard to the original formation of the beds or strata of rock-salt, in this and other countries, different theories, opinions, and conjectures, have been formed and proposed; but it is one of those geological questions which is extremely embarrassing in its nature, and very difficult in its solution. Mr. Holland has, however, in the above work, ingeniously stated several suppositions on the subject, and the objections to which they are exposed. It is remarked, that wherever rock-salt is met with, sulphate of lime seems to be very generally discovered in mixture with the earthy strata above it. And the writer of the "Memoire sur le Sel Marin," in the 11th volume of the Annals of Chemistry, it is added, informs us, that this is the case in Poland, Transylvania, and Hungary; also, that there is commonly a layer of gypsum betwixt the strata of stone and the bed of salt. This gypseous layer is of different colours, and is found crystallized, striated, and mixed with marine shells. The gypsum above the beds of rock-salt in Cheshire is, in like manner, found crystallized and striated; but no marine exuviæ, or organic remains, it is observed, are ever met with in any of the strata. Nor does gypsum accompany it, as is usual in other places, as near Cordova, in Spain, where rock-salt forms a mountain 500 feet in height, and three miles in circumference, as noticed by Kirwan and Townshend. Jars, the author of the "Voyages Metallurgiques," who it is asserted, has given the most particular account we have of the upper stratum of rock-salt about Northwich, remarks, that "it appears to have been deposited by layers or beds of several colours;" and that "these layers of salt are in such a position, as to lead us to believe that the deposition of it was made in waves, similar to those which are formed on the sea-coast."

This, Mr. Holland says, coincides with an opinion suggested by Mr. Stanley, a friend of his, in regard to the probable origin of the beds of rock-salt, now in existence in this district; who states that rock-salt is there found in several strata, one above the other, with intermediate beds of indurated clay, in the valleys of the Weaver, and those of the other rivers and brooks emptying themselves into it; but that it has never been found so near the surface, as to be above the level of the sea, or beneath any solid rock. If beds of rock-salt are to be considered as so many deposits of salt from sea-water, we must suppose the sea, at some former period, to have occupied the valleys in this county; and that, from time to time, the communications were interrupted between these valleys (then deeper than they are now) and the sea. Earthquakes, or accumulations of sand in the estuaries of the Mersey and the Dee, might, it is contended, have caused the interruptions. Whenever the sea-water in the valleys became separated from the sea, the salt contained in it would subside, by the natural process of evaporation. This, it is supposed, would the more easily have taken place, if, by any subterraneous fermentation, the ground below the water should have been heated. To account for a greater accumulation of salt than the sea-water filling all the lowest parts of the district would contain, we must suppose, it is said, that the obstruction interposed between the valleys and the sea had been repeatedly broken down, and renewed again. Tides, unusually high, might occasionally overcome the resistance of the accumulated sand; and if the intervals between the inundations were only of short duration, a subsidence of salt might take place, equal to the formation of the thickest stratum of the rock-salt now existing. Long intervals between the inundations would admit of an accumulation of clay, and other earthy particles, over the salt thus deposited; and in this manner would be formed a new basis for another stratum of rock-salt to repose upon.

Thus, it is thought, the regular and astonishing existence of the salt strata may be accounted for, without necessarily supposing them coeval with the original formation of the earth: but to confirm the theory, it is suggested that much observation and close inquiry into the natural history of the county would be required.

Mr. Holland, however, justly thinks that there are many objections to the theory which supposes the beds of rock-salt, in this district, to have been formed by deposition from the waters of the sea; some of which he states rather for the sake of promoting discussion and inquiry, than of affording any very decided opinion on a matter of so much doubt, uncertainty, and obscurity. Though on making a perpendicular section of the upper bed of rock-salt, an irregular stratification, such as noticed by Jars, may, he says, by frequent accurate examination, be observed, the general appearance of the sides of the openings, whence the rock-salt is taken, is that of a confused and irregular red mass; in which some portions of salt have a greater, others a less, proportionate admixture of earth; while, here and there, they may be seen perfectly pure and transparent. He, therefore, asks, is it likely that this irregularity and confusion would have existed, had the beds of rock-salt in this district been formed by the evaporation of sea-water inundating the land at certain intervals of time, as the above theory supposes? On the contrary, says he, would it not be natural to expect from reasonings, a priori, that the salt, thus deposited from sea-water, would be disposed in layers perfectly regular, and differing from one another merely in thickness, or a few other circumstances of inferior moment?

Another fact which, it is supposed, invalidates, in some measure, the notion that the rock-salt has been deposited from the waters of the sea, is the great disproportion of quantity, shewn by analysis to exist, between the earthy salts contained in the brine of this district, and those held in solution by sea-water; the ratio here being as one to ten, or the proportion which the earthy salts bear to the pure muriate of soda in sea-water is ten times greater than that which prevails in the Cheshire brine. The ascertaining of this fact proves, it is supposed, that the rock-salt (from the solution of which the brine is formed) is combined with a much smaller proportion of earthy salts than exists in sea-water; a circumstance difficult to be accounted for, on the supposition that the beds of this substance were formed by the evaporation of the sea-water, occupying the valleys and lowest parts of the land. It must be noticed, however, as worthy of attention, that the earthy salts, intermixed with the rock-salt in the above district, are the same which are held in solution by sea-water, being principally muriated magnesia and sulphate of lime.

There is, however, a still stronger proof, it is supposed, against the notion that the beds of rock-salt in this county are depositions from the sea-water, in the circumstance that no marine exuviæ have ever been discovered in the strata. This, it is imagined, would almost indubitably have been the case, had the land been covered with sea-water during a period of sufficient length for the deposition of beds of salt of such prodigious thickness; and the fact, that no such exuviæ do actually exist, is supposed in itself sufficient to induce a suspicion that the theory in question cannot be well founded. Other objections too, it is observed, offer themselves to its validity; such as the enormous depth of sea-water necessary to the production of a body of rock-salt forty yards in thickness; the difficulty, if not impossibility, on such principles, of accounting for the formation of the singular insulated mountain of rock-salt at Cordova, in Spain.

ROCKENHAUSEN, a town of the Bavarian province of the Rhine, on the Alsenz, with 1100 inhabitants; 13 miles north-by-east of Kaiserslautern.

RO'CKER,

RO'CKER, *s.* One who rocks the cradle.

His fellow, who the narrow bed had kept,
Was weary, and without a *rocker* slept. *Dryden.*

RO'CKET, *s.* [*rocchetto*, Ital.] An artificial fire-work, being a cylindrical case of paper filled with nitre, charcoal, and sulphur, and which mounts in the air to a considerable height, and there bursts.—Every *rocket* ended in a constellation, strowing the air with a shower of silver spangles. *Addison.*

When bonefires blaze, your vagrant works shall rise
In *rockets*, till they reach the wond'ring skies. *Garth.*

We have given under the article PYROTECHNICS the necessary information concerning the formation of common rockets. It remains, in this place, to insert some calculations of the flight of these combustibles, and an account of Congreve's rockets, the invention of which promises to be an accession to the art of war. The former of these subjects will very aptly succeed the latter. The Congreve rockets are so called from their inventor, Sir William Congreve. They differ from the common rocket, as well in their magnitude and construction, as in the powerful nature of their composition; which is such, that without the incumbrance of any ordnance (the rocket containing the propelling power wholly within itself), balls, shells, case-shot, and carcasses, may be projected to the distance of from 1000 to 3000 yards, which renders them a most efficacious species of artillery; as they may not only be employed in almost every case, and for every purpose, as the usual light and heavy ordnance, but they are available also in a variety of instances, in which the nature of the ground or other impediments, prevent the effectual introduction of those arms.

These rockets are of various dimensions, as well in length as in calibre, and are differently armed according as they are intended for the field, or for bombardment and conflagration; carrying, in the first instance, either shells or case-shot, which may be exploded at any part of their flight, spreading death and destruction amongst the columns of the enemy; and in the second, where they are intended for the destruction of buildings, shipping, stores, &c. they are armed with a peculiar species of composition, which never fails of destroying every combustible material with which it comes in contact.

The latter are called carcass-rockets, and were first used at Boulogne, their powers having been previously demonstrated in some experiments made at Woolwich by Sir William Congreve, in the presence of Mr. Pitt and several of the cabinet ministers, in the month of September 1805. Sir Sidney Smith was ordered to command the expedition intended for this purpose; but from the lateness of the season, it being near the end of November before the preparations were completed, nothing was done that year. In 1806, Sir William Congreve renewed his proposition for the attack of Boulogne by rockets, which was ordered to be put in execution after lord Moira, at that time master-general of the ordnance, and lord Howick, first lord of the admiralty, had satisfied themselves of the efficacious nature of the weapons, from other experiments made again at Woolwich for that purpose. The attack was accordingly made under the command of commodore Owen, late in October 1806; having been put off during the summer months, in consequence of the negociations for peace, at that time pending between the courts of England and France.

From this delay, however, instead of being conducted upon the grand scale at first intended, it became a mere desultory attack, in which not more than 200 rockets were fired. The town, however, was set on fire by the first discharge, and continued burning for near two days: it was supposed also that some shipping was destroyed but the greater part of the rockets certainly went over the basin into the town.

After this, their first introduction as a military weapon, the carcass-rockets have been used in almost every expedition, and in nearly all under the immediate inspection of their inventor. Their reputation was completely established at Copenhagen, where they did incredible execution: after the siege, they were ordered by lord Chatham, the master-general of the ordnance, to be reported upon by a committee of field officers of artillery, who had witnessed their effect in that bombardment, and who pronounced them to to be "*a powerful auxiliary to the present system of artillery.*" Indeed the powers of this weapon are now established upon the best of all testimonies, the best of all criterions, the testimony of the enemy; a striking instance of which occurred at the siege of Flushing, where general Monnet, the French commandant, made a formal remonstrance to lord Chatham, respecting the use of them in that bombardment; than which no better fact need be recorded of the effect they must have produced. If such, therefore, be the acknowledged power of the weapon in such an early stage of its progress, and only when a handful, as it were, were used, merely by way of experiment, under the inventor, with not more than twenty or thirty men to assist him, what may not be expected, when regularly organized in the service, and generally combined with the other implements of bombardment?

At present we have spoken only of the carcass-rockets; it is not, however, in bombardment only that this species of artillery may be advantageously employed; their powers in the field having been demonstrated to be equally irresistible. The crown prince of Sweden was the first general who bore testimony to their effects in this service; a small corps of rocketeers, under the command of captain Bogue of the royal artillery, having been attached to this division of the allied armies; and who, in the ever memorable battle of Leipsic, while yet the fate of empires was suspended in fearful equilibrium, gloriously maintained the honour of the British arms, and incontrovertibly established the reputation of the rocket system.

They were afterwards employed with great effect when the British army, under the command of the duke of Wellington, crossed the Adour; and had the war continued, we should, in all probability, have seen them as commonly in active service in the field as the other artillery. In consequence o these successes, and a variety of other instances, which our limits will not allow us to enumerate, his royal highness the prince regent commanded the formation of a rocket corps, which took place on the 1st of January 1814, by augmentation to the regiment of royal artillery, as proposed by lord Mulgrave, master-general of the ordnance.

Having thus given a sketch of the history, improvement, and introduction of the rocket-system of artillery, we shall proceed to give such explanation of the nature and application of the weapon in different species of attack and defence, as may be consistent with the general interest of the service; such only being suffered to transpire; for, the military rocket being exclusively an English weapon, all the more minute and important particulars, both of construction and composition, are very properly kept a profound secret, being probably known in complete detail by no person except the inventor himself.

The general form of all the different kinds of rockets, for whatever service they may be designed, is cylindrical, being formed in strong metallic cases, and armed, as we have before stated, either with carcass composition for bombardment and conflagration, or with shells and case-shot for field service. They are, however, of various weights and dimensions, from the eight-inch carcass, or explosion rocket, weighing nearly three hundred weight, to the six-pound shell-rocket, which is the smallest size used in the field. The sticks which are employed for regulating their flight are also of different lengths, according to the size and service of the rocket; and which, for the convenience of carriage, are stowed apart from the rocket, and so contrived as to consist of two or more parts, which are connected to it, and to each other, when requisite, with the utmost expedition.

Rocket ammunition is divided into three classes, *heavy*, *medium*, and *light*; the former including all those of above 42lbs., which are denominated according to their calibre, as, eight-inch, seven-inch, six-inch, &c. rockets; the medium include all those from the 42lb. to the 24lb. rocket; and the light, from the 18-pounder to the 6-pounder inclusive.

The carcass-rockets are armed with strong iron conical heads, containing a composition as hard and solid as iron itself, and which, when once inflamed, bids defiance to any human effort to extinguish it: and consequently involves, in an inextinguishable flame, every combustible material with which it comes in contact. The 42-pounder and 32-pounder carcass-rockets, are those which have hitherto been chiefly employed in bombardments; the penetration of the 32lb. carcass-rocket in common ground is nine feet; and in some instances where they have been employed, they have been known to pierce through several floors, and through the sides of houses: this is the smallest rocket used in bombardment, and the largest employed in the field; the more usual size for the latter service being the 24, 18, 12, and 6-pounders.

The ranges of the eight-inch, seven-inch, and six-inch rockets, are from 2000 to 2500 yards; and the quantity of combustible matter, or bursting powder, from 25lbs. to 50lbs.; and from their weight combined with less diameter, they possess a greater power of penetration than the heaviest shells, and are therefore equally efficient for the destruction of bomb-proofs, or the demolition of strong buildings; so that the facility of application, on which the inventor has hitherto rested the merit of the rocket-system, is not its only excellence; for it thus appears, that it actually will propel heavier masses than can be done by any other means, that is to say, masses, to project which, it would scarcely be possible to cast, much less to transport, mortars of sufficient magnitude. The largest rocket that has yet been constructed, has not, we believe, exceeded three hundred weight; but Sir William Congreve seems to have in contemplation others of much superior magnitude, weighing from half a ton to a ton weight, which being driven in very strong cast-iron cases, may possess such force, that, when fired along trenches cut to the foot of the glacis, from the nearest point of the third parallel, against the revetement of any fortress, even unimpaired by a canonnade, it shall, by its mass and form, pierce the same; and, having pierced it, shall with one explosion of several barrels of powder, with which it is loaded, blow such portion of the masonry into the ditch, as may, with very few rounds, complete a practicable breach.

The 42 and 32-pounders are those, as we have before stated, which have hitherto been principally used in bombardment, and which, for the general purposes of that service, are found quite sufficient, as they will convey from 7lbs. to 10lbs. of combustible matter each, and have a range of upwards of 3000 yards.

The 32-pounder rocket may be considered as the medium rocket, being the smallest used in bombardment as a carcass or explosion rockect, and the largest used with shot or shell in the field; but as the 24-pounder is very nearly equal to it in all its applications in the latter service, being quite equal to the propelling of the Cohorn shell, or 12-pounder shot, it is, from the saving in weight, generally preferred to the 32-pounder.

The 18-pounder, which is the first of the light nature of rockets, is armed with a 9lb. shot or shell; the 12-pounder with a 6lb. ditto; the 9-pounder with a grenade; and the 6-pounder with a 3lb. shot or shell. From the 24-pounder to the 9-pounder rocket inclusive, a description of case-shot rocket is formed of each nature, armed with a quantity of musket or carbine balls, put into the top of the cylinder of the rocket.

The following table presents a general view of the ranges, elevations, and other particulars of several of the most usual descriptions of Congreve rockets.

Nature of Ammunition.	Armed with.	Extreme Range.	Elevation for extreme Range.
42-Pounder carcass-rockets	Carcasses { large, 18lbs. of combustible matter small, 12lbs. ditto	Yards.	Elevation for extreme range not less than 60°
42-Pounder shell-rockets	Shells .. { $5\frac{1}{2}$-inch ..... 12-pounder spherical.....	 3500	
32-Pounder carcass-rockets.....	Carcasses { large, 18lbs. of combustible matter medium, 12lb. = 13-inch carcass small, 8lbs. = 10-inch ditto....	... 2000 .... 2500 3000	60° 60° to 5 ° 55°
32-Pounder shell-rockets	Shells, 9-pounder spherical	 3000	50°
32-Pounder case-shot rockets	Case-shot { large, containing 200 carbine balls small, 100 ditto	.... 2500 ... 3000	55° 50°
32-Pounder explosion-rockets.....	{ Strong iron cones, containing from 5lbs. to 12lbs. of powder, to burst by fuzees	from 2500 to 3000	55°
12-Pounder case-shot rockets	Case-shot { large, 72 carbine balls ..... small, 48 ditto	.... 2000 2500	45° 45°

Note.—The mean velocity of any rocket is to that of its equivalent shell in about the ratio of 8 to 9, the ranges being the same.

From the preceding table it will be seen, that the 32-pounder carcass-rocket will range 3000 yards, with the same quantity of combustible matter as that contained in the 10-inch spherical carcass; and 2500 yards, with the same quantity as that of the 13-inch sperical carcass. It will be seen also, that the 12-pounder case-shot rocket, which is so portable that it may be used with the facility of musquetry, has a range nearly double that of field artillery, carrying as many bullets as the 6-pounder spherical case; add to which, that from the nature of the construction of the rocket, these bullets are projected from it in any part of its track, with an increase of velocity, whereby its operation becomes frequently most destructive at that point where any different species of ammunition ceases to be effective.

Of this description of case-shot rocket, 100 infantry soldiers will carry into action, in any situation where musquetry can act, 300 rounds, and 10 frames for discharging them; from each of which, four rounds may be fired in a minute. And of the same description of case-shot for the use of cavalry, four horses will carry seventy-two rounds, and four frames; from which may be fired sixteen rounds in a minute; each horse not having more than the ordinary burden of a dragoon's horse.

The

The rockets used by the cavalry are, however, now designed to be the 12-pounders, armed with a 6-pounder shell or case-shot; each horse carrying four of these rockets.

Every third man, besides his portion of ammunition, has, in addition, to carry the chamber from which the rockets are discharged. This chamber, however, weighs but six pounds, and is, therefore, but little additional burden; so that the rockets may be discharged parallel to the surface, and as near to it as possible.

The weight of ammunition carried by the troop-horse, with the full complement going into action is such, that the horse is fully equal to any ordinary operations. But in long marches, small tumbrils are provided for carrying a part of the ammunition; which leaves the horse, in travelling, one stone four pounds of ammunition to carry, a burden of two stone less in line of march than that of the heavy dragoon's or artillery-man's horse: to which we may further add, that as the rocketeer has no heavy duty to perform, no guns to sponge, nor any to limber up or unlimber, he may, upon an average, be a lighter man by three stone than is required for an artillery-man, who has constantly the above duties to perform; a difference amounting, within a few pounds, to the whole weight of the ammunition, carried by the men even in action.

A subdivision of rocket cavalry consists of 24 horses and 20 men, four of the horses being employed in carrying the ammunition for the subdivision. Each of these ammunition horses carries 18 rockets and rocket-sticks, and a proportion of small stores, weighing in all, including saddle, saddle-bags, &c. 19 stone; so that these 20 men will carry into action 152 rounds of 12-pound shell or case shot, and six chambers, or *bouches à feu*; from which, without any extraordinary exertion, 80 rounds of 6-pound ammunition may be discharged in three minutes.

It is obvious that the combined celerity and quantity of the discharge of ammunition of this description of artillery cannot be equalled, or even approached, taking in view the means and nature of the ammunition employed, by any other system. The universality, also, of the operation, not being encumbered with wheel-carriages, must be duly appreciated; as, in fact, it can proceed not only wherever cavalry can act, but even wherever infantry can get into action, as has been already stated.

The heavier species of rockets, as the 32-pounder or 24-pounder, as also the 18 and 12-pounders, are sometimes carried in cars of a peculiar description, which not only convey the ammunition, but are contrived also to discharge each two rockets in a volley, from a double iron-plate trough, which is of the same length as the boxes for the sticks, and travels between them; but which, being moveable, may, when the car is unlimbered, be shifted into its fighting position at any angle from the ground ranges, or point-blank, up to 45°, without being detached from the carriage. The limbers are always supposed to be in the rear. The rockets are fired with a port-fire and long stick: two men will fight the light car, and four men the heavy one.

At present we have confined our remarks to rocket cavalry: it is obvious, however, that they may, with equal facility, be accommodated to the use of infantry. In this case, one man in ten, or any greater proportion, carries a frame of very simple construction, standing on three legs, like a theodolite, when spread; and which closes similarly, for the convenience of carrying. It is mounted at top with an open cradle, from which the rockets are discharged, either for ground ranges, or at any required elevation. The rest of the men carry each three rounds of ammunition, which for this service is proposed to be either 12-pounder shell-rockets, or the 12-pounder rocket case-shot; each round equal to the 6-pound case, and ranging 2500 yards; so that 100 men will bring into action, in any situation where musquetry can be used, nearly 300 rounds of this description of artillery, which ranges at 45°, nearly double those of light field ordnance.

When the rockets are employed in bombardments, they are discharged from frames of a different construction; the rockets employed in this service being larger than those used for the field: they are, however, equally simple, and the discharges may be made with great rapidity. In many cases, however, the frames are dispensed with, and the rockets are thrown from a battery erected for that purpose. The great advantage of this system is, that as it dispenses with apparatus, where there is time for forming a work of this sort, of considerable length, the quantity of fire that may be thrown in a given time is limited only by the length of the work; one of 200 feet in length being sufficient for firing 100 rockets in a volley, and so on for any greater length; or an incessant and heavy fire may, by such a battery, be kept up from one flank to the other, by replacing the rockets as fast as they are fired in succession.

Another use is for the defence of a pass, or for covering the retreat of an army, by placing any number, hundreds or thousands, of 32 or 24-pounder shell rockets, or 32-pounders armed with 18-pounder shot, limited as to quantity only by the importance of the object which is to be obtained; as, by this means, the most extensive destruction, even amounting to annihilation, may be carried amongst the ranks of an advancing enemy, and that with the exposure of scarcely an individual. For this purpose, the rockets are laid in batteries of 100 or 500 in a row, according to the extent of ground to be protected; so that one man is in fact alone sufficient to fire the whole in succession, beginning with that nearest to the enemy, as soon as he shall perceive him near enough to warrant his firing. Where the batteries are very extensive, each battery may be subdivided into smaller ones; so that the whole, or any part, or particular division, may be fired, according to the number and position of the enemy advancing.

A similar application of the rocket artillery is as follows: a low work is thrown up for the defence of a post, or of a chain of posts, consisting merely of as much earth and turf as is sufficient for forming the sides of shallow embrasures, for large rockets, placed from two to three feet apart, or nearer; from which the rockets are supposed to be discharged independently by a certain number of artillery-men, employed to keep up the fire according to the necessity of the case. In this manner, such an incessant fire may be maintained as would be next to impossible for an advancing enemy to pass through, not only from the quantity, weight, and destructive nature of the ammunition, but from the closeness of its lines and its contiguity to the ground. The larger kind of these rockets are also equally applicable to the attack and defence of fortified places. They may also be employed by infantry against an attack from cavalry: they may be even carried by a storming party into the place, by which the parapet may be scoured of the enemy, any street or passage enfiladed; or thrown occasionally into the town, as well to distract the attention of the garrison, as to serve as an index to each of the storming divisions, as to the situation and progress of each party. In fact, there is no limit to their application, being as general and extensive as that of gunpowder itself.

In naval warfare the rocket-system likewise possesses peculiar advantages; for in consequence of there being no re-action in these projectiles on the point of discharge, rockets, carrying such a quantity of combustible matter, as, by the ordinary system, would require to be thrown from the largest mortars, and from ships of very heavy tonnage, may be used in the smallest boats of the navy; and the 12-pounder, and 18-pounder, have been frequently fired from four-oared gigs; and it should also be remarked, that rockets of the above weight will ricochet in the water remarkably well at low angles; they may also be employed to facilitate the capture of a ship by boarding, by being thrown, by hand, into the ports, &c. by the boarding party, as soon as they get along-side, as the confusion and destruction which will thence inevitably ensue, cannot but facilitate the performance of this dangerous duty. These rockets are also peculiarly

liarly adapted to add to the dreadful effects of fire-ships; for, according to the present system, it is not improbable that a number of fire-ships may pass harmlessly through an enemy's, fleet, by the exertion of their crews in towing them clear, whereas, if they were supplied each by a sufficient number of rockets, such an extensive and devastating fire would be spread in every direction, as to involve every vessel of the enemy in that destructive element. After the above statement, little need be said in reference to the general utility and importance of the rocket system. It will be sufficient so observe, that it consists, first, in there being a species of projectiles of the most destructive kind, which, containing in themselves the propelling power, dispenses with the use of heavy ordnance, and consequently offers great facilities to the movement of an army. 2dly. The extensive nature of the fire that may be kept up, by a few men, against any important point. 3dly. It may be employed in a variety of cases in which the usual artillery, from the nature of the ground, or other impediments, cannot be rendered effective; and lastly, in naval bombardments, in consequence of its trifling re-action it may be thrown from cutters and small boats, and therefore from points which could never be approached by the vessels usually employed in that service.

It may also not be amiss to observe, that in point of expense the rocket likewise possesses the advantage. The 32-pounder carcass-rocket costs only 1*l.* 1*s.* 11*d.* complete, in every respect, for service; whereas its equivalent, the 10-inch spherical carcass, with the charge of powder necessary to convey it 3000 yards, which power is contained in the rocket, costs 1*l.* 2*s.* 7*d.*, independent of any charge for the mortar, mortar-bed, platform, difference of transport, &c. &c. attaching to the spherical carcass, and not to the rocket, which actually requires no apparatus whatever to use it in a bombardment, and has, therefore, no charge attaching to it, beyond the first cost, but that of transport; and a vessel of 300 tons will carry 5000 of them at least. It is also further to be observed, that the above 1*l.* 1*s.* 11*d.* supposes the whole construction to be effected by manual labour: by introducing machinery (which we understand may easily be done), the expense of the 32-pounder carcass-rocket will be reduced to 18*s.*, or even to 16*s.*, by using bamboo instead of the usual stick, which is but about three-fourths of the expense of the 10-inch spherical carcass, independent of all the other charges of transport, &c. attending the latter.

But the comparison, as to expense, is still more in favour of the rocket, when compared with the larger kind of carcasses. The 13-inch spherical carcass costs 1*l.* 17*s.* 11½*d.*, to throw it 2500 yards, while its equivalent rocket costs but 1*l.* 5*s.* 0*d.*, being a saving, on the first cost, of 12*s.* 11½*d.*, and a similar proportion of saving runs through the whole system.

The Rocket *Light Ball*, also invented by Sir William Congreve, is a species of light ball thrown into the air by means of one of his rockets; where, having reached the summit of the rocket's ascent, it is detached from it by an explosion, and remains suspended in the air by a small parachute, to which it is connected by a chain. Thus, in lieu of the transient momentary gleam obtained by the common light ball, a permanent and brilliant light is obtained, and suspended in the air for five minutes at least, so as to afford time and light sufficient to observe the motions of an enemy either on shore or at sea; where it is particularly useful in chasing, or for giving distant and more extensive night signals. It is to be observed, that nothing of this kind can be obtained by the projectile force of either guns or mortars, because the explosion infallibly destroys any construction that could be made to produce the suspension in the air.

There is another of the inventor's applications of his rocket, and of the parachute, called the *floating rocket carcass*, for the purpose of conveying combustible matter to distances far beyond the range of any known projectile force; at the same time that it is cheap, simple, and portable. The floating carcass, like the light ball, is thrown into the air attached to a rocket, from which, being liberated at its greatest altitude, and suspended to a small parachute, it is driven forward by the wind, and will, in a moderate breeze, afford ranges at least double those of the common carcass; and may, therefore, for naval purposes, from a blockading squadron, be thrown in great quantities, by a fair wind, against any fleet or arsenal, without the smallest risk, or without approaching within range either of guns or mortars. Thus, in the blockade a few years back, of the Russian fleet at Baltic fort, it might have been continually used, at all events, with great prospect of success, and certainly where no other means of annoyance could be applied. The rocket containing this carcass is not larger than the 32-pounder carcass-rocket; and the whole expense, added to the rocket, does not exceed five shillings; nor are the approaches of the carcass itself necessarily visible by night, as it may be so arranged, as not to inflame till some time after it has settled. It is evidently, therefore, capable of becoming a very harassing weapon, with a great chance of doing as much mischief as any other carcass amongst large fleets and flotillas, by lodging unperceived in the rigging, or lighting on extensive arsenals, in situations where no other means of annoyance whatever exist.

Theory of the Motion of Rockets.—The theory of the flight of rockets differs very essentially from that of the usual projectiles. In the latter, the body is launched into space with a certain and determinate velocity; and by rejecting the resistance of the air, a most beautiful theory is established, possessing great simplicity and generality, and which is, therefore, highly interesting to the speculative mathematician, notwithstanding it is of little or no use to the practical artillerist. In order to render the theory useful in the latter sense, a great variety of experiments have been made to ascertain the effect of the air's resistance, which is not at all considered in the former case, the initial velocity of the ball, the strength of fired gunpowder, &c. &c.; yet after all, it must be acknowledged that very little has been gained, and the practitioner is still much more guided by his own experience, than by any light that has been thrown upon the subject from long and intricate mathematical theories.

The motion of rockets is more complicated than that of common projectiles, partaking, in fact, of all the anomalies that attend the accelerated motion arising from the rocket composition, and the uniform motion of the rocket-case, after the composition is expended; and as little or no advantage has yet been gained from the experiments that have been made with cannon, even where the angle of elevation and the initial velocity of the ball were both accurately known, it seems totally useless to look for any assistance from mathematical investigations, with respect to determining the ranges, &c. of military rockets: because if we could determine with the greatest accuracy the point, position, and velocity of the rocket, at the moment when the composition was expended, the remaining part of its track would still be subject to all the inequalities attending on common projectiles.

If we confine our investigations only to that motion which has place during the time the composition is burning, it is not improbable that much light might be thrown on the subject from a well arranged course of experiments; and that their motion might be reduced to precise rules, in several applications of the rocket-system, particularly in the cases we have mentioned, where they are intended to be used as a kind of battering-train.

The great impediment in gunnery to the exact determination of the momentum of any given ball, when projected with a given velocity, and from a given distance, is the resistance of the air; because it can only be found from experiment at certain distances, and it is difficult from a few partial cases to infer a general law. That the resistance of the air to the same ball is as some function of the velocity, there

there can be no doubt; but we much question whether that determined by Dr. Hutton, viz. $r = .00002576 v^2 - .00388 v$, although the most accurate of any yet found, is as correct as could be wished. Indeed, when we consider the infinitude of different forms under which the function of a single variable may appear, it seems much too confined a scale to attempt to reduce it to the simple form $a v^2 + b v$; viz. to limit the dimension of the function, and attempt every accommodation by means of the co-efficients a and b. With regard to the rocket, the case is very different: the very medium, which in the former instance is the great impediment to an accurate theory, is here the principal agent in producing the motion; and moreover, we are here, from the nature of the weapon, enabled to ascertain all the successive energies of the propelling power, and the resisting force, which, in the other case, are only determinable at two or three different distances: on which account, it is to be presumed that more advantage may be here expected to be gained from experiment, than in the cases above referred to.

Instead of a ball impinging on the hallistic pendulum, at the distance of 60 or 100 yards, as practised in gunnery experiments, a rocket might be fixed to the same pendulum, and its whole energy observed with the greatest accuracy; or, in case such experiment should be thought inconclusive, for want of that partial vacuum which has place behind the rocket when in flight, it might be attached to some wheel, or revolving body, and its successive energies measured by the motion of some weight attached to the revolving axis of the machine. This is a most important advantage attending experiments on the momentum of rockets, which it is impossible to accommodate to other projectiles.

No such experiments have yet been undertaken; and, therefore, all our investigations on the flight, momentum, &c. of rockets, must necessarily be hypothetical. In fact, we have two distinct theories of the motion of rockets, the one by Mariotte, and the other by Desaguliers; the latter attributing their motion to the momentum of combustion, and the other to the elastic nature of the gas generated by the combustion and the resistance of the air. Desaguliers illustrates his hypothesis as follows: "Conceive the rocket to have no vent at the choke, and to be set on fire; the consequence will be, either that the rocket will burst in the weakest place, or if all its parts be equally strong, and able to sustain the impulse of the flame, the rocket would burn out immoveable. Now as the force of the flame is equable, suppose its action downwards, or that upwards sufficient to lift 40 pounds; as these forces are equal, but their directions contrary, they will destroy each other's action. Imagine then the rocket opened at the choke; by this means, the action of the flame downwards is taken away, and there remains a force equal to 40 pounds acting upwards, to carry up the rocket and stick." Although there is some ingenuity and plausibility in the above reasoning, we are by no means inclined to admit its accuracy. The action of the flame or gas within the rocket, when closed, as supposed above, we conceive to arise wholly from the elastic nature of the gas, and the re-action it experiences against the ends and sides of the rocket-case; the whole of which ceases, as soon as a free vent is given to the flame; and, therefore, if a rocket could be fired in a vacuum, as the flame would, in that case, experience no resistance, there would be no re-action, and consequently no motion would ensue. In order to submit the above supposition to experiment, take a strong piece of whale-bone, and bend it into the form of a bow, by means of a bit of thread or silk fastened to each extremity: then if this bow be suspended by its middle, and two pieces of board, or two books, be set up on their edges, each touching one end of the bow, and the string by which it is bent be cut, both books will, from the elastic nature of the whale-bone, be thrown down with considerable force. Now repeat the experiment, but set up only one book, leaving the other end of the bow entirely free; then cut the string as before, and it will be found that, for want of the re-action of the other book, no effect, or very little, is produced on the standing book: it may be a little disturbed, but it will not fall. This we consider to be a very similar case to the action of the gas on the rocket, when shut up and opened, as supposed by Desaguliers; and if so, it shews very distinctly the inaccuracy of his hypothesis.

As a mere matter of mathematical investigation, it certainly reduces the theory to the most simple form; because here it is not essential, so far as regards the propelling power, what may be the velocity of the rocket; which power is, therefore, supposed uniform during the whole time of combustion: whereas, in Mariotte's theory, which attributes the motion of the rocket to the resistance or re-action of the air, the propelling force will decrease as the velocity increases, in consequence of the partial vacuum left behind the rocket in its flight; so that the velocity becomes, as it were, both a *datum* and *quæsitum;* and the correct solution of the problem necessarily involves the integration of partial differences of the highest orders.

As the problem under this formidable shape would be one of extreme difficulty, we shall prefer availing ourselves of a few problems relative to the motion and flight of rockets in non-resisting mediums, as given by Mr. Moore, of the Royal Military Academy, in his Treatise on the Motion and Flight of Rockets, who has adopted the hypothesis of Desaguliers, by supposing the motion of the rocket to arise from the momentum of the ignited composition. We shall also suppose the rocket and stick perfectly free the moment after being fired; for, without this, it is obvious that the angle of elevation of the rocket's direction, and that of its actual discharge, will be essentially different. The first motion of the rocket, like all other motions not produced by a great momentary impulse, is slow; and before the stick is clear of the frame, gravity has been acting upon the rocket, and depressed it below its natural position, while the stick is prevented from being equally depressed, by the top of the frame; so that the angle of projection is in fact considerably less than the angle of the frame, or slope of the rocket's first position. In consequence of this, the rocket has the appearance of falling the moment after the projection; and, for this reason also, the angle for producing the greatest range of a rocket exceeds very considerably that which gives the extreme range of a shell projected from a mortar.

The strength or first force of the gas from the inflamed composition of a rocket being given, as also the weight and quantity of the composition, the time of its burning, and the weight and dimensions of the case and stick; to find the height to which it will ascend, when projected perpendicularly upwards.

It is obvious here, that the principal point of investigation is the height to which the rocket will rise, and the velocity it will have acquired, at the moment when the composition is all expended; as the determination of its farther ascent, with these data, depends upon well-known and established principles. We shall, therefore, only consider the former case. For this purpose, put

w = the weight of the rocket-case and stick.
c = the weight of the composition.
a = the time in which it will be consumed.
n = the medium pressure of the atmosphere.
$s n$ = the assumed force of the inflamed composition.
d = the diameter of the rocket's base, and $p d^2$ its area.
x = the space described. And
v = velocity acquired in any indeterminate time t.

Then $s n p d^2$ is the constant impelling force of the composition.

Now the weight of the quantity of rocket-matter that is consumed in the time t is $\frac{c t}{a}$; therefore, $c - \frac{c t}{a}$ is the weight of the part unconsumed; and $w + c - \frac{c t}{a}$, or $m - \frac{c t}{a}$ (making $m = w + c$), is the weight of the whole mass at the end of the time t.

Hence

Hence $s\,n\,p\,d^2 - \left(m - \frac{c\,t}{a}\right)$ is the *motive* force, and

$$\frac{s\,n\,p\,d^2 - \left(m - \frac{c\,t}{a}\right)}{m - \frac{c\,t}{a}} = \frac{a\,s\,n\,p\,d^2}{a\,m - c\,t} - 1,$$ the *accelerating* force. Therefore, from the known formulæ for variable forces, we have $\dot{v} = 2\,g\,f\,\dot{t}$, which hence becomes

$$\dot{v} = \frac{2\,a\,g\,s\,n\,p\,d^2\,\dot{t}}{a\,m - c\,t} - 2\,g\,\dot{t};$$

the fluent of which is

$$v = -\frac{2\,a\,g\,s\,n\,p\,d^2}{c} \times \text{hyp. log.}\left(\frac{a\,m}{c} - t\right) - 2\,g\,t, \text{ or}$$

$$v = -b\,.\,\text{hyp. log.}\left(\frac{a\,m - c\,t}{c}\right) - 2\,g\,t;$$

$$\text{where } b = \frac{2\,a\,g\,s\,n\,p\,d^2}{c}.$$

This fluent, corrected for the case in which $t = 0$, gives the correct fluent,

$$v = b\,.\,\text{hyp. log.}\,\frac{a\,m}{a\,m - c\,t} - 2\,g\,t;$$

which, when $t = a$, becomes

$$v = b\,.\,\text{hyp. log.}\,\frac{m}{m - c} - 2\,g\,a,$$

the velocity required.

Again, to find the space described in the same time, we have $\dot{s} = v\,\dot{t}$, or $\dot{x} = b\,\dot{t} \times \text{hyp. log.}\,\frac{a\,m}{a\,m - c\,t} - 2\,g\,t\,\dot{t}$. The correct fluent of this is $x = \left(b\,t - \frac{b\,a\,m}{c}\right)$ hyp. log. $a\,m + \frac{b}{c}(a\,m - c\,t)\,.\,\text{hyp. log.}\,(a\,m - c\,t) + b\,t - g\,t^2$; and in the case when $t = a$, it becomes $x = \frac{a\,b}{c} + \left((m - c)\,\text{hyp. log.}\,\frac{m - c}{m} + c - \frac{a\,c\,g}{b}\right)$ the space sought.

It will be observed, however, that in both these cases, gravity has been supposed to act directly in opposition to the motion of the rocket; but had we considered the flight uninterrupted by gravity (as we must suppose, in estimating its flight, when projected at any given angle, where gravity is not considered as in any respect retarding the rocket's motion in the first line of projection), then the last terms in each of the above expressions will disappear, and we shall have simply

$$v = b\,.\,\text{hyp. log.}\,\frac{m}{m - c}, \text{ and}$$

$$x = \frac{a\,b}{c} + \left((m - c)\,\text{hyp. log.}\,\frac{m - c}{m} + c\right).$$

Having thus determined the height of the rocket, and its velocity, when the composition is just consumed, it follows that its whole height may be determined in the usual manner, by the known formula for the ascent and descent of heavy bodies.

ROCKET is the popular name of the plant ERUCA,—BASTARD ROCKET of RESEDA;—CORN, SEA or SQUARE PODDED ROCKET of BUNIAS;—GARDEN ROCKET of HESPERIS;—WATER ROCKET of SYSYMBRIUM. See the classical names.

ROCKFIELD, a parish of England, in Monmouthshire; 2 miles north-west of Monmouth.

ROCKFORD, a post village of the United States, in Surrey county, North Carolina.

ROCKHAMPTON, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire, near Thornbury, where there is a ferry over the Severn.

RO'CKINESS, *s.* State of being rocky.—This *rockiness* in the highest parts proves his fine earth to be but a figment. *Bp. H. Croft.*

RO'CKING, *s.* State of being shaken.—I like this *rocking* of the battlements. *Young.*

ROCKINGHAM, a market-town and parish in the hundred of Corby, and county of Northampton, England, is situated close to the river Welland, at the distance of 26 miles north-north-east from Northampton, and 84 miles north-north-west from London. In former times it was a place of some note on account of its castle and appendant forest. This castle was built by William the Conqueror, on the summit of a hill overlooking the town, and appears to have been occasionally the residence of several of our early monarchs In the reign of William Rufus, a great council of the nobility, bishops, and clergy, was assembled here to terminate the dispute between the king and Anselm, archbishop of Canterbury, respecting the right of investiture, and obedience to the see of Rome. The council sat on Sunday the 11th of March, 1094, in the chapel belonging to the castle. Edward III. frequently honoured this fortress with his presence, as is evident from the numerous dispatches, and other instruments of royal authority, which are dated at Rockingham, in different years of his reign. Edward IV. settled the manor here, together with the castle and forest, on his queen, Elizabeth, for her life-time. These afterwards formed part of the duchy of Cornwall, and continued so till the reign of Edward VI., when they were granted to Edward, lord Clynton, from whose family they passed to the Watsons, one of whom, sir Lewis Watson, was created baron Rockingham, of Rockingham castle, in the year 1644. At what period the castle was dismantled is uncertain; but it is probable that event happened early in the reign of Henry III., as in the 34th year of that monarch, it is described as being in a ruinous condition. Leland, who visited it in the time of Henry VIII., gives the following account of this structure in the first volume of his Itinerary. "The castelle of Rokingham standith on the toppe of an hill, right stately, and hath a mighte diche, and bulwarkes agayne withoute the diche. The uttur waulls of it yet stond. The kepe is exceding fair and strong; and in the waulls be certein strong towers. The lodgings that were within the area of the castelle be discovered and faul to ruine. One thing in the waulls of this castlle is much to be notid; that is, that they be embatelid on booth the sides. So that if the area of the castelle were won by cumming in at either of the 2 greate gates of the castelle, yet the keepers of the waulls might defende the castelle. I marked that there is a stronge tower in the area of the castelle, and from it over the dungeon dike is a drawbridge to the dungeon toure." All that now remains of the original building is the arched gateway of the grand entrance, which is flanked by two massy bastion towers. Rockingham forest extended about 29 miles in length, from Oxenden bridge to Stamford bridge, and four or five miles in breadth. Leland says there were only "fallow dere in it" "with divers lodges for kepers" in his time.

The town of Rockingham consists chiefly of one irregular street. The market day is Thursday, weekly; and there is an annual fair on the 25th of September. These privileges were granted by Henry III., at the request of Edmund, earl of Cornwall, the then possessor of the manor; but they are at present only nominal. According to the population of 1811, this parish contains 49 houses, and 230 inhabitants. The church is not remarkable except for some handsome monuments, erected to commemorate different individuals of the Watson family. An altar-tomb, in the chancel, bears the recumbent statue of a man in armour, with that of a female by his side; and on the entablatures are the figures of nine children, sculptured in relief. This tomb was erected in memory of Edward Watson, grandfather of the first lord Rockingham, and his wife, one of the daughters of Sir Edward Montague, lord chief justice of the court of king's bench.

Another

Another handsome monument commemorates Lewis Thomas, lord Sondes, who died June 21, 1806. Beauties of England, &c. vol. xi. by John Britton, F. S. A. The History and antiquities of Northamptonshire.

ROCKINGHAM, a township of the United States, in Windham county, Vermont, on the Connecticut. Population 1954.

ROCKINGHAM, a county of the United States, in the south-east part of New Hampshire, bounded north-east by Strafford county, east by the Atlantic, south by Massachusetts, and west by Hillsborough county. Population 50,175. Chief towns, Portsmouth, Exeter, and Concord.

ROCKINGHAM, a county of the United States, in the central part of Virginia, bounded north-east by Hardy and Shenandoah counties, south-east by Orange and Albermarle counties, south-west by Augusta county, and north-west by Pendleton county. Population 12,753, including 1491 slaves.

ROCKINGHAM, a county of the United States, on the north side of North Carolina. It lies west of Caswell county, and is watered by the Dan. There is a mineral spring in this county, which is much resorted to. Population 10,316, including 2114 slaves.

ROCKINGHAM, a township of the United States, and capital of Richmond county, North Carolina. It contains about 25 houses.

ROCKINGHAM BAY, a bay on the north-east coast of New Holland, lying north-west of Cape Sandwich.

ROCKLAND, a county of the United States, in New York, bounded north-west by Orange county, east by the Hudson, and south-west by New Jersey. Population 7758. Chief town, Clarkstown.

ROCKLAND, a township of the United States, in Sullivan county, New York. Population 309.

ROCKLAND, a township of the United States, in Berks county, Pennsylvania. Population 1026.

RO'CKLESS, *adj.* Being without rocks.

A crystal brook
Is weedless all above, and *rockless* all below. *Dryden.*

RO'CKROSE, *s.* A plant.

ROCKSAVAGE, a village of England, in Cheshire, on the river Weaver, near Halton.

ROCKVILLE, a post-village of the United States, in Montgomery county, Maryland.

ROCKVILLE, a post village of the United States, in Frederick county, Virginia.

ROCKWARDINE, a parish of England, in Salop; 11 miles from Shrewsbury. Population 1938.

RO'CKWORK, *s.* Stones fixed in mortar, in imitation of the asperities of rocks. A natural wall of rock.—The garden is fenced on the lower end, by a natural mound of *rockwork. Addison.*

RO'CKY, *adj.* Full of rocks.

The vallies he restrains
With *rocky* mountains. *Dryden.*

Nature lodges her treasures in *rocky* ground. *Locke.*—Resembling a rock.

The *rocky* orb
Of tenfold adamant, his ample shield. *Milton.*

Hard; stony; obdurate.

I, like a poor bark, of sails and tackling reft,
Rush all to pieces on thy *rocky* bosom. *Shakspeare.*

ROCKY BRIDGE, a post village of the United States, in Christian county, Kentucky.

ROCKY HILL, a post village and parish of the United States, in Wethersfield, Connecticut. The business of shipbuilding is carried on here to some extent.

ROCKY HILL MILLS, a post village of the United States, in Fauquier county, Virginia.

ROCKY MOUNT, a township of the United States, and capital of Franklin county, Virginia.

ROCKY MOUNT, a post village of the United States, in Nash county, North Carolina.

ROCKY MOUNTAINS, a great ridge of mountains in North America. They run the whole length of the continent, from its southern to its northern extremity, where they terminate in the Icy sea, in the latitude of 70°. Their general course is from south-east to the north or north-west; and they seem to consist of several ranges, which successively rise above each other, till the most distant mingles with the clouds. The country along these mountains, where it was explored by captains Lewis and Clarke, in their adventurous journey across the continent of America, by the Missouri, is, for several hundred miles in length, and about 50 wide, a high level plain, in all its parts extremely fertile, and in many places covered with a growth of tall-leafed pine. This plain is chiefly interrupted near the streams of water, where the hills are steep and lofty; but the soil is good, being unincumbered by much stone, and possesses more timber than the level country. Under shelter of these hills, the bottom lands skirt the margin of the rivers, and though narrow and confined, are still fertile and rarely inundated. Nearly the whole of this wide spread track is covered with a profusion of grass and plants. Among these are a variety of esculent plants and roots, acquired without much difficulty, and yielding not only a nutritious, but a very agreeable food. The air is pure and dry, the climate quite as mild, if not milder, than the same parallels of latitude in the Atlantic states, and is healthy. This general observation is of course to be qualified, since in the same track of country, the degrees of the combination of heat and cold obey the influence of situation. Thus the rains of the low grounds are snows in the high plains; and while the sun shines with intense heat in the confined bottoms, the plains enjoy a much colder air, and the vegetation is retarded at least 15 days, while at the foot of the mountains, the snows are still many feet in depth; so that, within a space of 20 miles, all the varieties of climate, the rigours of the winter cold, the cool air of spring, and the oppressive heat of midsummer, may be observed. The savage tribes who range among these mountains, are in general stout, well formed, and active; they have high, and many of them aquiline noses, and the general appearance of the face is cheerful and agreeable, though without any indication of gaiety and mirth. The dress of both sexes resembles that of the Shoshonees, and consists of a long shirt reaching to the thigh, leggings as high as the waist, moccasins and robes, all of which are formed of skins. Their ornaments are beads, shells, and pieces of brass attached to different parts of the dress, or tied round the arms, neck, wrists, and over the shoulders: to these are added pearls and beads suspended from the ears, and a single shell of wampum through the nose. The head dress of the men is a bandeau of fox or otter skin, either with or without the fur, and sometimes an ornament is tied to a plait of hair, falling from the crown of the head: that of the women is a cap without rim, formed of bear grass and cedar bark; while the hair itself, of both sexes, falls into two rows down the front of the body. Collars of bears' claws are also common. But a personal ornament most esteemed is a sort of breastplate, formed of a strip of otter skin, six inches wide, cut out of the whole length of the back of the animal, including the head; this being dressed with the hair on, a hole is made at the upper end, through which the head of the wearer is placed, and the skin hangs in front, with the tail reaching below the knee, and ornamented with pieces of pearl, red cloth, and wampum, or, in short, any other fanciful decoration. Tippets also are occasionally worn. That of Hohastillpilp, one of the chiefs, as he was seen by captains Lewis and Clarke, was formed of human scalps, and adorned with the thumbs and fingers of several men slain by him in battle. The Chopunnish are among the most amiable of those tribes. Their character is placid and gentle, rarely moved into passion, yet not often enlivened by gaiety. Their amusements consist in running races, shooting with arrows at a target, and they partake of the great and prevailing vice of gambling. They are, however, by no means so much attached to baubles as the generality of Indians, but are anxious to obtain articles of utility, such as knives, tomahawks, kettles, blankets, and

and awls for moccasins. They have also suffered so much from the superiority of their enemies, that they are equally desirous of procuring arms and ammunition, which they are gradually acquiring. The Chopunnish bury their dead in sepulchres, formed of boards, constructed like the roof of a house. The body is rolled in skins, and laid one over another, separated by a board only, both above and below. Sometimes their dead are buried in wooden boxes, and rolled in skins in the manner above mentioned. They sacrifice their horses, canoes, and every other species of property to their dead; the bones of many horses are seen lying round their sepulchres.

The animals in this district are the buffalo, deer, elk, antelope, and the white and brown bears, which, however, are not so ferocious in this part of the country as on the upper part of the Missouri, though they are still not so passive as the black bear, which is also to be found here. Among the reptiles common to this country, are two species of innocent snakes, and the rattlesnake, which last is of the same species as that of the Missouri, and though abundant here, is the only poisonous snake to be seen between the Pacific and the Missouri. Besides these, there are the common black lizard and horned lizard. Of frogs there are several kinds, such as the small green tree-frog, the small frog common in the United States, which sings in the spring of the year, a species of frog frequenting the water, much larger than the bull-frog, and in shape between the delicate length of the bull-frog, and the shorter and less graceful form of the toad: like the last of which, however, its body is covered with little pustules, or lumps. It is never heard to make a noise of any kind. Neither the toad bull-frog, the moccasin-snake, nor the copperhead-snake, are to be found here. Captain Lewis killed a snake while crossing those mountains, three feet and eleven inches in length, and much the colour of the rattlesnake. There was no poisonous tooth to be found. It had two hundred and eighteen scuta on the abdomen, and fifty-nine squamæ, or half formed scuta on the tail. The eye was of a moderate size, the iris of a dark yellowish brown, and the pupil black. There was nothing remarkable in the form of the head, which was not so wide across the jaws as that of the poisonous class of snakes usually is. There is a species of lizard, called by captains Lewis and Clarke, the horned lizard, about the size, and much resembling in figure, the ordinary black lizard. The belly is, notwithstanding, broader, the tail shorter, and the action much slower than the ordinary lizard. It crawls like the toad, is of a brown colour, and interspersed with yellowish brown spots: it is covered with minute shells, interspersed with little horny projections like prickles on the upper part of the body. The belly and throat resemble the frogs, and are of a light yellowish brown. The edge of the belly is regularly beset with these horny projections, which give to those edges a serrate figure; the eye is small, and of a dark colour. These animals are found in great abundance in the sandy parts of the plains, and after a shower of rain, are seen basking in the sun. For the greatest part of the time they are concealed in holes. Most of the insects common to the United States, are seen in this country, such as the butterfly, the common house-fly, the blowing-fly, and the horse-fly, (except one species of it, the gold coloured ear-fly, the place of which is supplied by a fly of a brown colour, which attaches itself to the same part of the horse, and is equally troublesome.) There are likewise nearly all the varieties of beetles known in the Atlantic states, except the large cow-beetle, and the black beetle, commonly called the tumblebug. Neither the hornet, the wasp, nor the yellow jacket, inhabit this part of the country, but there is an insect resembling the last of these, though much larger, which is very numerous, particularly in the Rocky Mountains, and on the waters of the Columbia: the body and abdomen are yellow, with transverse circles of black, the head black, and the wings, which are four in number, of a dark brown colour. Their nests are built in the ground, and resemble that of the hornet, with an outer covering to the comb. These insects are fierce, and sting very severely, so that they were found by Captains Lewis and Clarke's party, very troublesome in frightening their horses as they passed the mountains. The silkworm is also found here, as well as the humble-bee, though the honey-bee is not. As the Rocky Mountains approach towards the north, vegetation is stinted by the severity of the climate. There are no trees except a few of diminutive growth; and there is scarcely any thing of surface that can be called earth. Yet these inhospitable regions are inhabited by a people accustomed to the life which they require; nor has nature altogether withheld the means of subsistence. The rein-deer, which supply both food and clothing, are satisfied with the produce of the hills, though they bear nothing but a short curling moss, on a species of which that grows on the rocks, the people themselves subsist, when famine invades them. Their small lakes are not furnished with a great variety of fish, but such as they produce are excellent, which with hares and partridges, form a proportion of their food.

ROCKY RIVER, a large stream in Louisiana, which empties itself into the Mississippi on the east. It is about 300 yards wide at its mouth, from which it is navigable 300 miles. About three miles up this river, on the south bank, is situated the third town of the Six nations, which, in 1781, was burnt by the Americans.

ROCKY RIVER, a river of the United States, in the Michigan territory, which falls into Lake Erie; 3 miles south of Swan creek.

ROCKY RIVER, a river of the United States, in Indiana, which falls into the Wabash from the east. Its branches are interlocked with those of the main fork of White river. It is 100 yards wide at its mouth, and has several large forks.

ROCKY RIVER, a river of the United States, in the Michigan territory, which runs into Lake Michigan.

ROCKY RIVER, a river of the United States, in Ohio, which runs into Lake Erie; 9 miles west of the Cuyahoga. It is a rapid river, with high banks, has numerous forks, and waters a rich and thriving settlement.

ROCKY, or ROCK RIVER, or ROCHE, a river of the United States, which rises in the north-west territory, runs through the north-west part of the Illinois territory, and flows into the Mississippi, 160 miles above the Illinois. Length about 200 miles. It is 300 yards wide at its entrance, 390 miles above St. Louis.

ROCKY RIVER, a river of North Carolina, which runs into the Yadkin.

ROCKY RIVER, or GRANGER, a post village of the United States, in Cuyahoga county, Ohio.

ROCKY SPRINGS, a post village of the United States, in Rockingham county, North Carolina.

ROCOURT, a large village in the north-east of France, department of the Ardennes. It has manufactures of hardware, and 1100 inhabitants.

ROCOUX, a village of the Netherlands, in the province of Liege, remarkable for a victory obtained over the allies by marshal Saxe, in 1746; 2 miles north-west of Liege.

ROCQUIGNY, a town of France, department of the Ardennes, with 1200 inhabitants, and some manufactures of hemp; 14 miles north-north-west of Rethel.

ROCROY, a town of France, department of the Ardennes. It is situated at the extremity of the Ardennes, is fortified, and contains 2900 inhabitants. It has some woollen manufactures, and was the scene of a victory gained by the French over the Spaniards, in 1643; 14 miles north-west of Mezieres, and 44 south-east of Mons.

ROD, *s.* [*roede*, Dutch.] A long twig.—Some chuse a hazel *rod* of the same year's shoot, and this they bind on to another straight stick of any wood, and walking softly over those places, where they suspect the bowels of the earth to be enriched with metals, the wand will, by bowing towards it, discover it. *Boyle.*—A kind of sceptre.

She had all the royal makings of a queen;
As holy oil, Edward confessor's crown,
The *rod* and bird of peace. *Shakspeare.*

The

The pastoral reed
Of Hermes, or his opiate *rod*. *Milton.*

O gentle sleep, I cry'd,
Why is thy gift to me alone deny'd?
Mildest of beings, friend to ev'ry clime,
Where lies my error, what has been my crime?
Beasts, birds, and cattle feel thy balmy *rod;*
The drowsy mountains wave, and seem to nod;
The torrents cease to chide, the seas to roar,
And the hush'd waves recline upon the shore. *Harte.*

Any thing long and slender.

Haste, ye Cyclops, with your forked *rods*,
This rebel love braves all the gods,
And every hour by love is made,
Some heaven-defying Encelade. *Granville.*

An instrument for measuring; 16½ feet long.—Decempeda was a measuring *rod* for taking the dimensions of buildings, and signified the same thing as pertica, taken as a measure of length. *Arbuthnot.*—An instrument of correction, made of twigs tied together.

I am whipt and scourg'd with *rods*,
Nettled, and stung with pismires, when I hear
Of Bolingbroke. *Shakspeare.*

In this condition the *rod* of God hath a voice to be heard, and he, whose office it is, ought now to expound to the sick man the peculiar meaning of the voice. *Hammond.*—Grant me and my people the benefit of thy chastisements; that thy *rod*, as well as thy staff, may comfort us. *King Charles.*

A wit 's a feather, and a chief a *rod;*
An honest man's the noblest work of God. *Pope.*

RODA, a town in the interior of Germany, in the principality of Altenburg; 8 miles south-east of Jena, with 800 inhabitants.

RODA, a town of Spain, in Catalonia, on the Ter; 6 miles north-north-east of Vique. Population 2400.

RODA, a small town of Spain, in Arragon; 23 miles east-south-east of Barbastro.

RODA, a small town of Prussian Saxony, in Thuringia; 3 miles north of Sangershausen.

RODA, LA, a town of Spain, in La Mancha, with 2400 inhabitants. The streets are wider, and the houses less uncomfortable than in most towns of this backward province; 20 miles south of Alarcon, and 22 south-east of San Clemente.

RODACH, a small river of Germany, in Franconia, which joins the Itz, six miles south of Coburg.

RODACH, a town of Germany, in the principality of Saxe-Coburg, on the above river; 6 miles west-north-west of Coburg. Population 1300.

RODAS, a settlement of New Granada, in the province and government of Antioquia.

RODBACK, a village of Swedish Lapland, in the province of Umea-Lapmark, to the south of the river called Umea-Elf. In the neighbourhood are several salt-mines, and the adjoining meadows contain such a quantity of that mineral in their soil, that in dry weather they are completely whitened.

RODBORNE, a village of England, in Wiltshire; 3 miles south-by-east of Malmesbury.

RODBORNE, a village of England, in Warwickshire, between Southam and Daventry.

RODBOROUGH, a township of England, county of Gloucester; 1 mile west-by-south of Stroud. Population 1628.

RODBURN CHENEY, a parish of England, in Wiltshire; three miles north-west-by-north of Swindon. Population 463.

RODBYE, commonly called *Roebye*, a small sea-port town of Denmark, in the island of Laland, on an arm of the Baltic. It has a convenient harbour, and is the usual place for crossing by ferries to Holstein and the island of Femern. Population 800; 12 miles south-east of Naskov.

RODD, a village of England, in Herefordshire; 4 miles north-north-east of Kington.

RODDA, a village of Upper Egypt, at the mouth of one of the branches of the canal of Joseph; 3 miles east of Ashmunein.

RODDEN, a river of England, in the county of Salop, which runs into the Tern; 3 miles west of Wellington.

RODDEN, a hamlet of England, in Wiltshire; 2 miles from Frome, Somersetshire.

RODDEN CRIBS, a sort of large wicker-work basket, for containing the hay or other fodder in farm-yards. Used in Lincolnshire.

RODDINGTON, a village and parish of England, in Salop, situated on the river Rodden; 4½ miles north-west-by-west of Wellington. Population 361.

RODDY, *adj.* Full of rods or twigs. *Not in use. Cotgrave, and Sherwood.*

RODE (Bernard), an eminent Prussian painter, was born at Berlin in 1725. At an early period he displayed great attachment to the sciences, but afterwards devoted himself entirely to painting, in the study of which he was encouraged and liberally supported by his father, who was a very ingenious goldsmith. In 1750 he went to Paris, where he remained a year and a half, during which time he received instruction from Charles Vanloo and Restaut. He then returned to his native place, and two years after, visited Italy, where he passed the greatest part of his time at Venice. After an absence of two years, he returned to Berlin, and first distinguished himself by historical and allegorical paintings, four of which he executed for a Greek church in the Ukraine. He presented to the garrison church at Berlin four allegorical paintings, in which he introduced four of the Prussian generals who had rendered their names celebrated in the seven year's war. He painted also historical pieces on a smaller scale, and in such abundance, that it appeared inconceivable how he could find sufficient time to complete them. The greater part of these he engraved in a very good style, to the amount of about one hundred and fifty, a catalogue of which was afterwards published. Among these are some studies of landscapes, which he sketched in the course of his travels. One of the most remarkable of his pictures is that of Christ raising up the dead. This alone is sufficient to entitle him to a distinguished rank among historical painters; but the excellence of his genius is most conspicuous in the paintings which he executed in the large gallery of the palace of Sans Souci, and in the hall adjacent to it. In 1783, he was appointed director of the Academy of Painting at Berlin, and died in the month of June, 1797.—*Neues Historisch — biographisches Handwörterbuch von J. G. Grohmann.*

RODE, pret. of *ride.*—He in paternal glory *rode.* *Milton.*

RODE, *s.* [ꝓoƀ, Sax.] The cross. See ROOD.

RODE, NORTH, a hamlet of England, in Cheshire; 3½ miles north-east of Congleton.

RODE, ODD, a village of England, in Cheshire; 2 miles north-west of Church Lawton. Population 1003.

RODELEY, a village of England, in Leicestershire; 2 miles south of Mount Sorrel.

RODELHEIM, a town of Germany, in Hesse-Darmstadt, in Upper Hesse; 3 miles west of Frankfort on the Maine. Population 900. It has a large manufactory of sulphuric, nitric, and muriatic acids, and is the chief place of the principality of Solms-Rodelheim.

RODELLE, a village of France, department of the Aveyron, with 1500 inhabitants.

ROELSEE, a small town of Germany, in the Bavarian states, circle of the Lower Maine; 2 miles from Kitzingen. In the neighbourhood is a castle on a lofty hill, where Pepin, the father of Charlemagne, is said to have been born.

RODEMACHERN, or RODEMACK, a town of France, department of the Moselle, with nearly 1000 inhabitants; 9 miles north-north-east of Thionville, and 25 north of Metz.

RODENBERG, a town of Germany, in the part of the county of Schauenburg belonging to Hesse-Cassel. Population 850; 17 miles west-by-south of Hanover.

RODER,

RODER, a small river of Germany, in Saxony, which falls into the Schwartz Elster; 2 miles below Elsterwerda.

RODERLOO, a small inland town of the Netherlands, in the province of Gelderland. Population 1700; 6 miles south-west of Borkulo.

RODEROISCH, a village of Germany, in Saxony, on the Gorisch, near Auerbach. Population 2000.

RODEZ. See RHODEZ.

RODHEIM, a small town of the west of Germany, in Hesse Cassel; 9 miles north of Frankfort on the Maine.

RODI, a small town of Italy, in the Continental Sardinian States, in the duchy of Montserrat, near Alba.

RODI, a small town of Naples, in the Capitanata, at the foot of Monte Gargano. Population 3000; 20 miles north-west of Manfredonia.

RODINEN, a village of the Prussian states, in the duchy of Juliers, with 1300 inhabitants.

RODING, a small river of England, in Essex, which rises near Canfield, and falls into the Thames near Barking.

RODING, the name of eight parishes of England, in the western part of Essex, which are distinguished by the appellations of Abbot's, Berner's, Beauchamp, Eythorp, High, Leaden, Margaret's, and White Roding. They take their general name from the above-mentioned river. High Roding, the principal, is the highest up the river, and nearest to Dunmow. This part of the county is called the Rodings, and is celebrated for excellent arable land.

RODING, a town of Germany, in Bavaria, on the river Regen; 20 miles north-east of Ratisbon. Population 1000.

RODMARTON, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 6½ miles west-south-west of Cirencester.

RODMELL, a parish of England, in Sussex; 3 miles south-by-east of Lewes.

RODMERSHAM, a parish of England, in Kent; 2 miles south-east of Sittingbourne.

RODNA, or RADNA, a large village of Transylvania, in the district of Bistritz. Its inhabitants are chiefly of Walachian origin, but mixed with Germans and Magyars. In the neigbourhood is a gold and a silver mine, now of very limited produce; also several mineral springs.

RODNEY (George Bridges), Lord Rodney, a distinguished naval commander, was born in the year 1718. His father was a naval officer; and commanding, at his son's birth, the yacht in which the king, attended by the duke of Chandos, was passing to or from Hanover, he asked and obtained leave to have the honour of calling his infant son George Bridges. The royal and noble godfathers advised Captain Rodney to educate his boy for his own profession, promising, as we are told, to promote him as rapidly as the merit he should display, and the regulations of the navy would permit.

In 1742 he was lieutenant in the Namur, and in 1751 we find him, in the rank of a commodore, sent out to make accurate discoveries respecting an island which was supposed to lie about 50° north latitude, and about 300 leagues west of England: but he returned without having seen any such island as that which he was appointed to survey. In the war which soon followed this voyage of discovery, he was promoted to the rank of a rear-admiral, and was employed to bombard Havre-de-Grace. He executed the trust committed to him so completely, that the town itself was several times on fire, and the magazines of stores and ammunition burnt with fury upwards of six hours, notwithstanding the exertions used to extinguish it. Thus had Admiral Rodney the happiness of totally frustrating the design of the French court; and so completely did he destroy their preparations, that the fort itself, as a naval arsenal, was no longer, during the war, in a state to annoy Great Britain. In 1761 Admiral Rodney was very instrumental in the capture of the islands of St. Pierre, Granada, St. Lucia, and St. Vincent, when the whole Caribbees came into the possession of the English. For his skill and bravery in the war, he was, after the conclusion of it, raised to the dignity of a baronet. In 1768, after an expensive, and to sir George Rodney a ruinous, contest with Mr. Howe, he was elected member of parliament for Northampton. His affairs were now so deranged, that he exiled himself to France, the government of which had long since trembled at his name. The French king wished to take advantage of his pecuniary embarrassments, and through the duke de Biron, made him the most unbounded offers, if he would quit the English for the French service. In reply to this proposal, he said, "my distresses, sir, it is true, have driven me from the bosom of my country, but no temptation can estrange me from her service. Had this offer been voluntary on your part, I should have deemed it an insult, but I am glad to learn it proceeds from a source that can do no wrong." It is also said that the duke de Chartres, afterwards the duke of Orleans, told sir George, that he was to have a command in the fleet which was to be opposed to that under the command of his countryman, Mr. Keppel; and with an insulting air asked him what he thought would be the consequence of their meeting? "That my countryman will carry your Highness with him to learn English," was the reply.

Before sir George Rodney's arrival in England, the French had united with the Americans in a war against this country. Towards the close of the year 1779, the chief command of the Leeward Islands was given him; upon which he hoisted his flag on board the Sandwich. From this time he was very successful against his majesty's enemies, but our limits do not allow us to particularize all the advantages that resulted from his services during the remainder of the war of which we are speaking. In the first year he had done enough to obtain a vote of thanks from the House of Lords, and the freedom of the cities of London and Edinburgh; but his great triumph, and that which must not be passed over, was on the 12th of April 1782, in an engagement in the West Indies, with count de Grasse. This battle was fought among the islands of Guadaloupe, Dominique, the Saintes, and Marigalante. As soon as the day broke, Admiral Rodney threw out the signal for close action, and every vessel obeyed it most scrupulously. The British line was formed at the distance of one cable's length between each ship. As the ships came up separately, they ranged close alongside their opponents, passing along the enemy for that purpose, giving and receiving, while thus taking their stations, a most dreadful and tremendous fire. The action continued in this manner till noon, when Admiral Rodney resolved to carry into execution a manœuvre, which he expected would gain him a complete and decisive victory: for this purpose, in his own ship, the Formidable, supported by the Namur, the Duke, and the Canada, he bore down with all the sail set on the enemy's line, within three ships of the centre, and succeeded in breaking through it in a most masterly style. As soon as he had accomplished this, the other ships of his division followed him, and they all wore round, doubled on the enemy, and thus they placed between two fires those vessels which, by the first part of the manœuvre, they had cut off from the rest of the fleet. As soon as Admiral Rodney, and the vessels which followed him, wore, he made the signal for the van to tack, by which means they gained the windward of the French, and completed the disorder and confusion, in which the breaking of the line had thrown them. One consequence of the breaking of the line was, that opportunities were given for desperate actions between single ships. The whole loss of the enemy on this occasion amounted to eight ships; one had been sunk, and another blown up after she had been taken, and six ships remained in possession of the conquerors. It was esteemed remarkably fortunate, and glorious for the victors, that de Grasse's ship, the Ville de Paris, was the only first rate man-of-war that had ever, at that time, been taken and carried into port by any commander of any nation. And this ship was on the present occasion fought so well, that when it struck there were but three men left alive and unhurt on the upper deck.

The British nation were so sensible of the bravery displayed both by officers and men in this action, and of the importance of it as the only means of preserving the remainder of the West India islands, that they manifested the most

most excessive joy when intelligence of the victory arrived. It came extremely seasonable in other points of view. Neither by land, nor by sea, except where Admiral Rodney had been engaged, had we been able to meet the enemy, on any occasion, with great and decisive advantage; and, in too many instances, we had retired from the contest not in the most honourable manner. As the means of obtaining more favourable terms of peace, this important victory was hailed with joy and exultation; and as Admiral Rodney was looked up to as the cause of it, the gratitude of the nation towards him was deeply felt, and expressed in warm and glowing language. It was recollected that the fortune of Sir George Rodney had been peculiarly singular, as well as highly glorious in the war. Within little more than two years he had given a severe blow to each of our three powerful continental enemies, the French, Spaniards, and Dutch. He had in that time taken an admiral of each nation; added twelve line-of-battle ships, all taken from the enemy, to the British navy; and destroyed five more. He received the unanimous thanks of both houses of parliament; and his majesty added dignity to the peerage of the realm, by calling the victorious admiral to a seat in the upper house.

It has been observed, that the victory of the 12th of April was gained by putting in practice an entirely new system of naval tactics, the adoption of which formed an era in our naval history, and may be regarded as the cause of the glorious victories, by which the fame of British seamen has been raised to such a pitch of glory; and the maritime power of our enemies in the late war, has not only been crippled, but absolutely annihilated. It has been said, in order to derogate from the honour of the admiral, that, in the instance of the 12th of April, it was the effect of chance, and not effected by the foresight of Sir George Rodney. This idea was satisfactorily exposed and refuted. The only question that remained was whether the honour of the plan were due to Admiral Rodney, or Mr. Clerk, the author of a treatise on "Naval Tactics." This question is, however, completely set at rest. Mr. Playfair informs us, that before going out to take the command of the fleet in the West Indies, Admiral Rodney said one day to Mr. Dundas, "There is one Clerk, a countryman of yours, who has taught us how to fight, and appears to know more of the matter than any of us. If ever I meet the French fleet, I intend to try his way."

That Admiral Rodney did try Mr. Clerk's method, we have the testimony of both Lord Melville and General Ross, who heard the admiral distinctly state, "that he owed his success in the West Indies to the manœuvre of breaking the line, which he learned from Mr. Clerk's book."

"An anecdote," says Mr. Playfair, "which sets a seal on the great and decisive testimony of the noble admiral is worthy of being remembered, and I am glad to be able to record it, on the authority of a noble earl. The present Lord Haddington met Lord Rodney at Spa, in the decline of life, when both his bodily and mental powers were sinking under the weight of years. The great commander who had been the bulwark of his country, and the terror of his enemies, lay stretched on his couch, while the memory of his own exploits seemed the only thing that interested his feelings, or afforded a subject for conversation. In that situation he would often break out in praise of the naval tactics, exclaiming with great earnestness, "John Clerk of Eldin, for ever!"

With the brilliant victory of the 12th of April, sir George closed his professional career; to his title was added a pension of 2000*l.* to descend to his heirs. He died in London the 24th of May, 1792. For his important services to the West Indian islands in particular, a temple was built to receive his statue at Spanish Town, Jamaica.

A contemporary of the noble admiral said, that "as an officer of nautical abilities, none were his superiors, and but few his equals. He possessed a bold and original genius, which always carried him directly to the object he had in view. As a man, he was benevolent, generous, and friendly. He has been known to be writing his private letters, and dictating to three secretaries at the same time." But this is evidently nonsense. *Stockdale's edition of Campbell's Lives of the Admirals.*

RODNEY, POINT, a low point on the north-west coast of North America. It is the north point of Norton Sound. Sledge island is south-east-half-east of it four leagues, between which and the continent is anchorage in seven fathoms. This point has its name in honour of the celebrated admiral lord Rodney. Lat. 64. 30. N. long. 166. 3. W.

RODNEY STOKE, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 5 miles from Axbridge.

RODOLPH I., II., &c. Emperors of Germany. See GERMANY.

RO'DOMONT, *s.* [from *Rodomonte*, the blustering Italian hero. See RODOMONTADE. This word appears full as early in our language as *rodomontade.*] A vain boaster. —He vapoured; [but] being pretty sharply admonished, he quickly became mild and calm, a posture ill-becoming such a *rodomont.* *Sir T. Herbert.*

RO'DOMONT, *adj.* Bragging; vainly boasting.

Don, a Spanish reader,
Who had thought to have been the leader
(Had the match gone on)
Of our ladies one by one,
And triumph'd our whole nation,
In his *rodomont* fashion. *B. Jonson.*

RODOMONTA'DE, or RODOMONTA'DO, *s.* [from a boastful boisterous hero of Ariosto, called *Rodomonte;* Fr. *rodomontade.*] An empty noisy bluster or boast; a rant.—I was a little mov'd in my nature to hear his *rodomontadoes.* *Beaum. and Fl.*—He only serves to be sport for his company; for in these gamesome days men will give him hints, which may put him upon his *rodomontades.* *Gov. of the Tongue.*—He talks extravagantly in his passion, but if I would quote a hundred passages in Ben Jonson's Cethegus, I could shew that the *rodomontades* of Almanzor are neither so irrational nor impossible, for Cethegus threatens to destroy nature. *Dryden.*

To RODOMONTA'DE, *v. n.* To brag thrasonically; to boast like Rodomonte.

RODOMONTA'DIST, or RODOMONTA'DOR, *s.* [from *rodomontade.*] One who brags or blusters.—When this *rodomontadist* had ended his story, it was dinner time. *Terry.*—The Andalusians seem to be the greatest talkers and *rodomontadors* of Spain. *Guthrie.*

RODON (David de), or rather DERODON (David), a celebrated French professor of philosophy in the 17th century, was born in some part of Dauphiné, but in what place, or in what year, we are not informed. He filled the philosophical chair, first at Die, afterwards at Orange, and lastly at Nismes. Bayle says, that "he was one of the most acute logicians at that time in France, and few Spanish or Irish schoolmen exceeded him in what concerns universals, and *entia rationis,* and the airy and abstracted speculations of the categories, and the dependencies of the syllogistical forms. But if he equalled, in this particular, the most refined logicians of the schools, he surpassed them greatly in his physics; for he embraced the opinions of the moderns, and the hypothesis of atoms, and he explains, like Gassendi, several natural effects by mechanical principles." He published "A Course of Philosophy," which was well received, notwithstanding its great length; but the author having been induced to publish an abridgement of the whole, under the title of "Philosophia Contracta," that performance met with great success, and underwent repeated impressions. It is a moderate sized volume in 4to., and contains short systems of logic, metaphysics, physics, and ethics; to which is added, a treatise or disputation on human liberty. M. Derodon also engaged in controversy, and published "A Disputation against the Mass," in 8vo.; a treatise entitled, "De Supposito," &c., 8vo. in which he openly declared himself the defender of Nestorius against St. Cyril, not by admitting two natures, but by maintaining that Nestorius did not admit them, and that Cyril confounded the two natures of Christ; and a piece entitled,

"The Tomb of the Mass," in 8vo. By the last mentioned book the Catholics were so highly exasperated against him, that, in 1632, by their interest at court they obtained a royal decree, which banished him from the kingdom. Upon this he retired to Geneva, where he died about two years afterwards. *Bayle. Moreri.*

RODONDA, a small island at the entrance of the harbour of Rio Janeiro.

RODONDESCA, a small town of Austrian Italy; 12 miles west of Mantua.

RODONI, a cape on the coast of Albania, in the Adriatic. Lat. 41. 55. N. long. 19. 16. E.

RODOSTO, or RODOSDSCHIG, a considerable town of European Turkey, in Romania, situated near the sea of Marmora, on the great road extending along the coast from Constantinople. It is fortified, and tolerably well built, with good streets, several good public buildings, and 16,000 inhabitants. It has a good harbour, and a considerable trade, particularly in the export of corn, wine, fish, and oil to Constantinople. It is the seat of a Greek archbishop; and is supposed to be the *Bisanthe* of Herodotus; 55 miles north-east of Gallipoli, and 68 west of Constantinople. Lat. 40. 58. 34. N. long. 27. 25. 16. E.

RODOSTOPOS, a hamlet of European Turkey, in Albania, about 12 miles north of Joannina. Its name signifies the "country or district of roses," and although the neighbouring territory be unproductive, the varieties of prospect, the diffusion of verdure, and the picturesque aspect of the vicinity, make this spot much admired by travellers.

RODRIGUES KEY, on the coast of Florida, a pretty large mangrove island, one of the Tortugas, lying off Key Largo, and bears from Tavernies' Key north-north-east-half-east 5 miles. The roots of the trees are always overflowed. Lat. 25. N. long. 81. 17. W.

RODERIGUEZ (Alphonsus), a Spanish Jesuit in the 16th century, whose labours are held in high estimation by the Catholic world, was born at Valladolid, in the year 1526. His celebrated work is entitled, "Exercises of Perfection, and of the Christian Virtues," in 3 vols. 4to.; it was translated into French by the solitaries of Port-Royal, by the Abbé Desmaretz of the French Academy, and others, of whose versions a vast number of editions has been published, some in two, others in three volumes 4to. An abridgment of it has also appeared in French, by the Abbé Tricalet, in 2 vols. 12mo. Translations of it have likewise been made into the Latin, Italian, German, Dutch, and other languages.—*Antonii Bibl. Script. Hisp. Moreri.*

RODRIGUEZ, a river of New Granada, in the province of San Juan de los Llanos, which joins the Iscance to enter the Caqueta.

RODSLEY, a hamlet of England, in Derbyshire; 5 miles south-by-east of Ashborne.

RODSTOKE, or RADSTOKE, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 7 miles north-west of Frome. Population 567.

RODZ, a town of France, in Alsace. Population 2700.

ROE, *s.* [ꝓa, ꝓa-beoꝓ, Saxon. And so *ra*, in old English: "Wight (nimble) as is a *ra*." Chaucer. Reve's Tale.] A species of deer.

> He would him make
> The *roe*-bucks in their flight to overtake. *Spenser.*

Thy greyhounds are fleeter than the *roe*. *Shakspeare.*—They were as swift as the *roes* upon the mountains. 1 *Chr.* —Procure me a Troglodyte footman, who can catch a *roe* at his full speed. *Arbuthnot and Pope.*

The roe-buck is called a *hind* the first year; *gyrle*, the second; *henuse*, the third; *roe-buck of the first head*, the fourth; and a *fair roe-buck*, the fifth.

The roe-buck is a deer well known in Germany; and seems to have also been formerly found in England, though now the race be extinct.

ROE, *s.* old pl. *roan*, answering to *roes*. Skinner. [*raun*, Dan. *rogen*, Germ. ova piscium. Wachter.] The eggs of fish.

> Here comes Romeo
> Without his *roe*, like a dried herring. *Shakspeare.*

ROE (Sir Thomas), a distinguished traveller and negotiator, was born about 1580, at Low Layton, in Essex. He was sent at an early age to Magdalen College, in Oxford, which he left without taking a degree, and passed some time at one of the inns of court, and also, it is supposed, in France. He was made an esquire of the body to Queen Elizabeth towards the close of her reign, and in 1604 was knighted by King James. We are not informed what preceding studies or occupations caused him to be thought a fit person for maritime discoveries, but we are told that it was at the instigation of Henry Prince of Wales that he undertook an exploratory voyage to Guiana. Having fitted out a ship and pinnace at his own charge and that of his friends, he sailed, in 1609, for the river of Amazons, up which he proceeded to the distance of 300 miles, landing in various places to examine the country. From its mouth he sailed along the coast to that of the Oroonoko, entering several of the intermediate rivers in canoes; and having spent thirteen months in a laborious survey of this part of the American continent, which he did not find so full of gold (the great object of search at that time) as was commonly supposed, he returned to England in 1611. The credit he acquired in this expedition caused him, at the desire of the East India company, to be sent, in 1614, as ambassador to Jehanguire, the Mogul Emperor, for the purpose of concluding a treaty of peace and commerce. He arrived at Surat in the autumn of that year, and resided at the Mogul court till the beginning of 1618. His conduct in this station did honour to himself and his country, and he made many curious observations on the court and people, of which, specimens were given in Purchas's Pilgrims, and afterwards in Churchill's Collection of Voyages. On his departure thence, he visited the court of Schah Abbas, in Persia, with whom he made a treaty, by which the East India company obliged itself to assist him with a fleet for the purpose of expelling the Portuguese from Ormus, on condition of being allowed a free trade with Persia.

After his return, Sir Thomas Roe was elected, in 1620, a representative in parliament for Cirencester; and in the following year he was nominated ambassador to the Ottoman Porte, which post he occupied under the Sultans Osman, Mustapha, and Amurath IV. The services he rendered here to the political and commercial interests of his country were numerous and important, and few members of the diplomatic body have ever acquired more general respect and esteem. He was particularly serviceable to the Greek church, by protecting it both from the oppressions of the Turkish ministers, and from the intrigues of the Jesuits and other bigots of the papal see. The gratitude he inspired on this account assisted him in his collection of manuscripts in the Greek and Oriental languages, which he presented to the Bodleian library; and to him was entrusted the famous Alexandrine manuscript of the Bible presented to Charles I., by Cyril, Patriarch of Constantinople. During his embassy, Sir Thomas drew up "A true and faithful Relation of what hath lately happened at Constantinople, concerning the Death of Sultan Osman, and the setting up of Mustapha his Uncle; with a Continuation of the same Story," printed in 1622, Lond. 4to. He also kept minutes of his negotiations at the Porte, which remained in manuscript till 1740, when they were published by the Society for promoting learning, under the title of "The Negotiations of Sir Thomas Roe in his Embassy to the Ottoman Porte, from the Year 1621 to 1628 inclusive," fol.

Soon after his return from Constantinople, he was sent, in 1629, to mediate a peace between Poland and Sweden. In this he succeeded so as to gain the confidence of the great Gustavus Adolphus, whom he encouraged in his design of an expedition into Germany. He was afterwards employed in negotiating a treaty with the King of Denmark, at Copenhagen; and he went a second time to that court, and also to those of several German Princes, and was present at the Congress of Hamburgh, and in its removals to Ratisbon and Vienna.

Vienna. In 1640 he was elected a representative of the University of Oxford, and made several speeches upon important occasions, especially an excellent one at the council table against debasing the coin. Whilst yet a member of parliament, he was sent, in 1641, to the Diet at Ratisbon, to negotiate for the restoration of the late King of Bohemia's son to the Palatinate, an order at the same time being made that he should retain his seat in the house. After his return, the King created him a privy-counsellor, and chancellor of the order of the Garter. The view of the approaching national disturbances embittered, and perhaps shortened, his life, which was terminated in 1644. He left the character of a very able and upright minister, a true patriot, and an accomplished gentleman. Besides the writings above-mentioned, he left in manuscript a "Compendious Relation of the Proceedings and Acts of the Imperial Dyet held at Ratisbon in 1640 and 1641;" and a "Journal of several Proceedings of the Knights of the Garter."

ROE, a river of Ireland, in the county of Donegal, which runs into Lough Foyle; 2 miles north-west of Limavaddy.

ROE, a small island near the west coast of Ireland, in Clew bay; 7 miles west of Newport Pratt.

ROE-STONE, *Oolite*, in Mineralogy, a variety of limestone, so called because it is composed of small round globules, supposed to resemble the roes of fishes, imbedded in a calcareous cement. These globules are composed of concentric lamellæ, and are evidently the result of crystallization. They vary in size from a grain of mustard-seed to that of a pea; when they are as large as the latter, it is called pea-stone. Roe-stone is one of the secondary lime-stones, which may be considered as belonging to the chalk-formation. It lies under chalk in various parts of England, being separated from it by beds of sand and clay. It is found also in many parts of Europe, but, according to Humboldt, is not met with in South America. Some of the strata of this stone are extensively used for the purposes of architecture: the most distinguished are the Ketten stone in Northamptonshire, the Bath fire-stone in Somersetshire, and Portland stone in the island of Portland. Portland stone is of a yellowish-white colour: the more compact varieties, when closely inspected, shew a tendency to crystalline arrangement; it is composed of carbonate of lime, with a small admixture of silex and alumine.

The island of Portland is properly an isthmus, situated in Weymouth bay, in the British Channel. The stone is got in every part of the island, but the quarries at Kingston are the most productive. According to Mr. Smeaton, the first stratum in the quarry is a dark coloured reddish earth, about one foot thick. To this succeed six feet of stone of an inferior quality, called cap. Immediately under this lies the roe-stone or free-stone, which is ten or twelve feet deep; and beneath this bed there is flint or clay. In some parts irregular veins of quartz run through the roe-stone. The stratum of stone that is wrought for sale lies nearly parallel with the upper surface of the island; and, in general, the cover of earth and rubbish upon it is thin. Several beds of stone lie continuous one above another, varying in thickness from two to four feet, and sometimes more.

Portland stone was brought into repute in the reign of James I., and was employed in the construction of the banquetting-house at Whitehall. After the great fire in London, this stone was generally used by sir Christopher Wren, in the construction of the new public edifices, as St. Paul's cathedral, the monument, and almost every building of note in the metropolis.

The different beds of roe-stone abound in marine organic remains, of which the pear encrinite is perhaps the most remarkable. In the lower beds are found the hippocephaloides, or horse-head muscles, which, according to Mr. Townson, are not casts, but petrifactions of the fish itself, and do not represent the interior surface of the shells, from which they are perfectly distinct. The stratum also contains the Anomia Spinosa of Linnæus. The spines are extremely delicate, and in some specimens are more than half an inch in length; from which circumstance we may infer, that the calcareous earth of this stratum was deposited in an extremely comminuted state, and in a tranquil element, otherwise it is almost impossible to conceive that these spines could have remained unbroken.

ROEBUCK (John), M. D. was born at Sheffield in Yorkshire, in the year 1718. His father was a manufacturer of Sheffield goods, and by his ability and industry procured a considerable fortune. He intended John to follow his own lucrative employment; but he was powerfully attached to other pursuits, and his father did not discourage his rising genius, but gave him a liberal education.

Having completed his studies at school, he was sent to the university of Endinburgh, where he studied medicine and chemistry in particular, which then began to attract some attention in Scotland. He was much distinguished among his fellow students by his logical and metaphysical acuteness, and by great ingenuity in his arguments. At Edinburgh he formed an acquaintance with Mr. Hume, Dr. Robertson, and other literary characters.

Having completed his medical studies, and being wholly attached to the practice of physic, he spent some time at the university of Leyden, where he obtained a degree in medicine. He afterwards settled as a physician at Birmingham, a place which then began to make a rapid progress in arts, manufactures, and population, and where a favourable opening was presented to him by the death of an aged physician. But it was soon found that his industry and studies were turned to other subjects than those of his profession, and in a particular manner to that of chemistry, the utility of which he was anxious to extend to the arts and manufactures. In the prosecution of this idea, he fitted up a laboratory in his own house, where every moment of his time was spent, not necessarily devoted to the duties of his profession.

In this manner he was led to the discovery of certain improved methods of refining gold and silver, and an ingenious method of collecting the smaller particles of these metals, which manufacturers had formerly lost. He also discovered improved methods of making sublimed hartshorn, and many other articles of equal importance.

The extensvie use of sulphuric acid in chemistry led many to various methods of obtaining it, and Dr. Roebuck attempted to prepare it in such a manner as to reduce the price, for which purpose he substituted leaden vessels in the room of glass; and he had the good fortune to effect his benevolent design. He established a manufacture of this useful article at Prestonpans in Scotland, in the year 1749, which was opposed by Dr. Ward, but without success, as Roebuck's discovery did not come within Dr. Ward's patent. By concealment and secrecy Dr. Roebuck and his partner preserved the advantages of their industry and ingenuity for a number of years, supplying the public with sulphuric acid at a much chaper rate than had been formerly done.

He found it expedient to give up his medical profession altogether, and he resided in Scotland during the greater part of the year. He made some discoveries in the smelting of iron-stone, greatly facilitating that process by using pit coal instead of charcoal. He and his partner therefore projected a very extensive manufactory of iron, for which they soon procured a sufficient capital, as their friends had much confidence in their integrity and abilities. Dr. Roebuck at length made choice of a spot on the banks of the river *Carron* as the most advantageous situation for the establishment of their iron manufactory, abundance of iron-stone, limestone, and coal, being found in its immediate vicinity. The preparations for this establishment were finished in the end of the year 1759, and the first furnace was blown on the 1st of January 1760, after which a second was in a short time erected.

These works turned the attention of Dr. Roebuck to the state of coal in the neighbourhood of that place, and to the means of procuring the extraordinary supplies of it which the iron-works might require in future. He therefore became lessee of the extensive coal and salt works at Borrostownness, the property of the Duke of Hamilton, in which he sunk, in the course of a few years, not only his own, but a considerable

able part of his wife's fortune. So that when he died, his widow was left without any provision for her immediate or future support, and without the smallest advantage from the extraordinary exertions and meritorious industry of her husband.

Dr. Roebuck departed this life on the 17th of July, 1794, retaining all his faculties, spirit, and good humour, to the last.

Dr. Roebuck was the author of a few compositions, viz. 1, A Paper read in 1784, to the Royal Society of Edinburgh on the "Ripening of Corn," wherein he shewed that corn can ripen at a temperature of 43°, and therefore that farmers should not cut their corn down in a cold autumn on the supposition that it cannot perfectly fill. (This error might have been practised formerly, but is by no means the case at present.) 2, "Account of certain phenomena observed in the air-vault of the furnaces of the Devon iron works, together with some practical remarks on the management of blast furnaces," published in the *Edinburgh Transactions*, vol. v. p. 31. 3, A Paper in the Royal Society of London (*Phil. Trans.* 1775.) entitled, "A comparison of the heat of London and Edinburgh." 4, "Experiments on ignited bodies," *Phil. Trans.* 1776.

Dr. Roebuck also published two political pamphlets, but their names have not reached us.

ROEBUCK ISLAND, a small island at the eastern extremity of Lake Ontario.

ROEBUCK ISLAND, a small island in the gulf of Mexico, near the coast of West Florida. Lat. 30. 17. N. long. 88. 44. W.

ROEBURN, a small river of England, in Lancashire.

ROEDERER (John-George), an anatomist and eminent writer on midwifery, was born in 1726, at Strasburg. He studied physic, and afterwards travelled for improvement to Paris, England, and Holland. The illustrious Haller invited him, in 1754, to Gottingen to be his assistant, and resigned to him the anatomical chair. He also gave lectures on the theory and practice of midwifery, which greatly improved that art as administered by practitioners of both sexes in that part of Germany.

This physician wrote a number of works, many of which were theses, programs, dissertations, &c., on anatomical and obstetrical topics, to which he applied great exactness of observation, with respect to measure, weight, and other particulars. He also published "Elementa Artis Obstetricæ ad Usum Prelectionum Academicarum," 8vo., 1752; and "Icones Uteri humani Observationibus illustratæ," fol., 1759; "Opuscula Medica, sparsim prius edita," 4to.

ROEHAMPTON, a pleasant hamlet of England, in Surry, between the Heath and East Sheen, where are several elegant villas; 8½ miles south-west-by-south from St. Paul's, London.

ROELL (Hermann-Alexander), a celebrated Protestant divine and theological professor in Friesland and Utrecht during the latter part of the 17th and at the commencement of the 18th century. He was born in 1653, at Doëlberg, in the county of Marck, in Westphalia. He became chaplain to Elizabeth, Abbess of Hervorden, and daughter of Frederic King of Bohemia, and he retained that post till the death of the Princess, in 1680. Not long after that event he was appointed preacher to Albertine, Princess of Orange, and widow of William of Nassau; in whose household; and at Deventer, he exercised the ministry till the year 1686, when he accepted the offer of a professorship in divinity from the University of Franeker. About this time a controversy began to be warmly agitated in the united provinces concerning the following questions: "Whether the divine origin and authority of the Holy Scriptures can be demonstrated by reason alone, or whether an inward testimony of the Holy Spirit in the hearts of Christians be necessary in order to the firm belief of this fundamental point?" and "Whether the sacred writings propose to us, as an object of faith, any thing that is repugnant to the dictates of right reason?" Professor Roell took an active part in this controversy, and was at the head of those doctors and other learned men who answered the former question in the affirmative, and the latter in the negative. As the flame excited by this controversy increased from day to day, the states of Friesland thought proper to interpose their authority, and attempted to restore peace to the church, by imposing silence on the contending parties. Not long afterwards, Roell alarmed the orthodoxy of his colleagues, more particularly of the learned Vitringa, by using language when explaining the doctrines of the generation of the son, the satisfaction of Christ, the divine decrees, and the penal effects of original sin, which they pronounced to differ essentially from the meaning of those doctrines as received and established in the Dutch church. To prevent any controversy on these points in their province, the magistrates of Friesland again interfered, and published an edict enjoining silence, forbidding at the same time all professors, pastors, &c. from teaching the particular opinions of Roell; and this pacific divine sacrificed the propagation of his notions to the love of peace and concord. But in other provinces, the explanations of our author and his disciples were condemned, both in private and in public synods, as heresies and corruptions of divine truth. Dr. Maclaine, in a note to his version of Mosheim's "Ecclesiastical History," observes, that Roell's "notion concerning the Trinity did not essentially differ from the doctrine generally received upon that mysterious and unintelligible subject; and his design seemed to be no more than to prevent Christians from *humanizing* the relation between the *Father* and the *Son*. But this was wounding his brethren, the rigorous systematic divines, in a tender point; for if *Anthropomorphism*, or the custom of attributing to the deity the kind of procedure in acting and judging that is usual among men (who resemble him only as imperfection resembles perfection), was banished from theology, orthodoxy would be deprived of some of its most precious phrases, and our confessions of faith and systems of doctrine would be reduced within much narrower bounds." However, notwithstanding that our author's particular opinions were proscribed, he was continued in the exercise of the functions of his professorship at Franeker, for several years afterwards. In 1704, he accepted an invitation to fill the divinity chair at the University of Utrecht, upon the most honourable and advantageous terms; and he retained that post with great credit till his death, in 1718, when he was in the 66th year of his age. Among several of his publications, the most important are, "Theological Theses on the Generation of the Son, and the temporal Death of the Faithful," 1689, 4to.; "Two Philosophical Dissertations on Natural Religion, and one on innate Ideas," 1700, 4to.

ROELLA, [so named in honour of William Roell, professor of anatomy at Amsterdam.] in botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of campanaceæ, campanulaceæ, *(Juss.)* Generic Character.—Calyx: perianth one-leaved, turbinate, five-parted, permanent, superior; segments lanceolate, acute, toothed, large. Corolla: one-petalled, funnel-form, deciduous; tube a little shorter than the calyx; border from upright-spreading, five-parted, longer than the calyx; nectary of five converging scales, at the bottom of the corolla. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, placed on the nectary; anthers awl-shaped, converging, the length of the filaments, the height of the calyx. Pistil: germ oblong, inferior; style filiform, the length of the stamens; stigmas two, oblong, depressed, spreading. Pericarp: capsule cylindrical, shorter than the calyx, crowned with the calyx which spreads and is become larger, two-celled (according to Bergius sub-bilocular—to Gærtner, unilocular, opening at top by a large round hole.) Seeds very many, angular.—Allied to Campanula.

Essential Character.—Corolla: funnel-form, with the bottom closed by staminiferous valves. Stigma bifid. Capsule two-celled (one-celled, *G.*) cylindrical, inferior.

1. Roella ciliata or ciliate roella. — Leaves lanceolate, ciliate, flowers solitary, terminating. This is a low shrubby plant, somewhat like a heath when not in flower. The narrow ciliate leaves are clustered about the flower-bud like bractes. A single flower terminates each branch, differing from that of the campanula, to which it is very nearly related, in

in being funnel-shaped, that is having a tube, and a border spreading out; whereas in campanula, the corolla is bell-shaped, or spreads gradually from the bottom.—When a flower is recently expanded, five shades of colour appear, which being disposed in circles, produce a striking effect: the bottom of the flower is white, of a yellowish cast, next succeeds a circle of deep blue inclining to black, with a surface highly glazed, the next circle is greyish-blue resembling satin, the next nearly white, and the outermost pale purple. The anthers at first are closely applied to the surface of the corolla, and resemble so many small ridges; the stigma, as in many other flowers, does not assume its true appearance till the corolla is on the decay; then it becomes bifid. Capsule ovate-cylindrical.

2. Roella squarrosa, or trailing roella. — Leaves ovate toothed ciliate, flowers terminating aggregate.

3. Roella decurrens, or decurrent roella. — Leaves lanceolate ciliate, quite entire, decurrent, flowers solitary terminating.

4. Roella muscosa, or mossy roella.—Herbaceous, diffused, leaves ovate toothed reflex, flowers terminating solitary.

5. Roella spicata, or spiked roella. — Leaves lanceolate ciliate, flowers terminating aggregate.—All these plants are natives of the Cape of Good Hope.

Propagation and Culture.—The first and other shrubby species may be increased by cuttings, but not very readily. They are not so easy of culture as many others. They must be kept in a dry stove, good green-house, or glass case.

Roella reticulata is Gorteria ciliaris.

ROEMER (Olaus), a celebrated Danish astronomer and mathematician, who flourished in the 17th and early part of the 18th century, was the son of a respectable merchant at Arhusen, in Jutland, where he was born in the year 1644. From an elementary school at his native city, he was transplanted to the University of Copenhagen, in the year 1662, and soon distinguished himself by the progress which he made in his academical studies, and particularly in the mathematical sciences, which were the favourite subjects of his pursuit. By assiduous application he had become so expert in those sciences, and such an able astronomer, that in the year 1671, having been introduced to M. Picard, of the Academy of Sciences at Paris, who was sent by Lewis XIV., to make astronomical observations in the northern regions, that gentleman was so greatly surprized and pleased with him, that he engaged him to accompany him when he returned to France. Here he presented him to the King, who appointed him mathematical preceptor to the Dauphin, and settled a pension upon him. Roemer was united with Picard and Casina, in making astronomical observations; and in 1672, he was admitted a member of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris. In this city he resided ten years, during which he acquired a high reputation by his discoveries; and he is even said to have complained afterwards, that his coadjutors took the honour of many things which properly belonged to him. Here it was that he, for the first time, found out the velocity with which light moves, by means of the eclipses of Jupiter's satellites. For many years he had observed that, when Jupiter was at the greatest distance from the earth, at which he could be observed, the emersions of his first satellite happened constantly fifteen or sixteen minutes later than the calculations gave them. Hence he concluded, that the light reflected by Jupiter was thus long in passing through the excess of distance, and, consequently, that it took up sixteen or eighteen minutes in running over the diameter of the earth's orbit, and eight or nine in coming to us, provided that its velocity was nearly uniform. This discovery met at first with much opposition; but it was afterwards confirmed by Dr. Bradley. In the year 1681, Roemer was recalled to his own country by Christian V., King of Denmark, who appointed him professor of astronomy at the University of Copenhagen, and gave him the title of his own mathematician, with a considerable salary. His Majesty also employed him in reforming the coin, improving the public buildings, regulating the weights and measures, and in surveying and laying out the high roads throughout the kingdom: offices which he discharged with the greatest credit and satisfaction. In 1687, the King directed him to travel through Germany, France, England, and Holland, in order to collect such information on a variety of points, as might be applied to beneficial purposes in Denmark. Upon his return home during the following year, he was made counsellor of the chancellery; and in 1693, assessor of the supreme tribunal of justice. After the death of Christian V., Roemer was distinguished by the favour of his successor, Frederic IV., who, in 1705, appointed him burgomaster of Copenhagen, and in 1706, honoured him with the dignity of counsellor of state. This able man was preparing to publish the result of his observations, when he died in 1710, a few days before he had completed the 66th year of his age. In 1753, Peter Horrebow, who had been his disciple, and was then professor of astronomy at Copenhagen, published, in a 4to. volume, various observations of Roemer, with his method of observing, under the title of "Basis Astronomiæ." In the different volumes of the "Memoires" of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Paris, of the institution of 1666, may also be seen various accounts of his astronomical observations, and other pieces communicated by him, particularly in Vols. I. and X. of that collection.—*Albarti Thuræ Idee Hist. Lit. Dan. Hutton's Math. Dict.*

ROENENG, a long measure in Siam, equal to one league, containing 4204 English yards, or $2\frac{1}{3}$ miles nearly.

ROER, or Ruhr, the name of two rivers in the west of the Prussian states. The one flowing through the provinces of the Lower Rhine, and Cleves and Berg, passes by Duren and Juliers, and falls into the Maese. The other rises near Winterburg, in Westphalia, flows westward, till it joins the Rhine between Ruhrort and Duisburg. It is rendered navigable by means of sluices, but is rapid, and frequently does considerable injury by overflowing its banks.

ROERORT, or Ruhrort, a town of the Prussian states, in the duchy of Cleves, at the confluence of the Roer and the Rhine. Population nearly 1000; 15 miles north of Dusseldorf.

ROEULX, a town of the Netherlands, in the province of Hainault, situated in a pleasant district. Population 2500; 8 miles east-north-east of Mons.

ROFFIGNAC, a village in the west of France, department of the Lower Charente, with above 1000 inhabitants.

ROFRANO, a town of Naples, in the Principato Citra. Population 2000; 12 miles north-north-west of Policastro.

ROG, two small islands in the gulf of Finland, on the coast of Esthonia, inhabited by Swedes, but belonging to Russia.

ROGA, ρογα, a donative, or present, which the Augusti, or emperors, made to the senators, magistrates, and even the people; and the popes, or patriarchs, to their clergy.

The emperors used to distribute these rogæ on the first day of the year, or on their birth-day, or on the natalis dies of the cities: the popes and patriarchs in Passion Week.

This custom of rogæ, or largesses, was introduced by the tribunes of the people, to gain the populace more effectually over to their interest. The emperors at length took it up, and made such distributions to the people, and even to the soldiery, who are hence called by the Greek writers of the middle age ρογαλορες.

ROGA, was also used for the ordinary pay of the soldiery.

ROGARSTONE, a hamlet of England, in Monmouthshire; 20 miles west of Newport. Population 650.

ROGART, a parish of Scotland, in the county of Sutherland, of an irregular square form, about 10 miles in extent in every direction. Population 2148.

ROGASEN, a town of Prussian Poland, in the government of Posen, on a lake. Of its population, 3500, nearly a third are Jews. The chief employment is the weaving and sale of woollens; 24 miles north-byeast of Posen.

ROGATE, a parish of England, in Sussex; 7 miles west-by-north of Midhurst. Population 595.

ROGATIO, in the Roman Jurisprudence, a demand made by

by the consuls, or the tribunes, of the Roman peopl e when a law was proposed to be passed.

The demand was made in these terms: *Do you will and appoint that* (for instance) *war be declared against Phillip?* This was the rogatio; and what the people returned in answer, as, *The Roman people do appoint war to be made against Phillip*, was the *decretum*, *decree*, or *resolve*.

The word *rogatio* is frequently also used for the decree itself, to distinguish it from a senatus-consultum, or decree of the senate.

Frequently, also, *rogatio* is used in the same sense with law, because there were never any laws established among the Romans, but what was done by this kind of rogation. Otherwise they were null.

ROGA'TION, *s.* [*rogation*, Fr. from *rogo*, Lat.] Litany; supplication.—Supplications, with this solemnity for appeasing of God's wrath, were of the Greek church termed litanies, and *rogations* of the Latin. *Bp. Taylor.*

ROGATION-WEEK, *s.* The second week before Whit-sunday; thus called from three fasts observed therein, the Monday, Tuesday, and Wednesday, called Rogation days, because of the extraordinary prayers and processions then made for the fruits of the earth, or as a preparation for the devotion of Holy Thursday.

Dr. Godolphin says, the Rogation days derive their name from certain ordinances for abstinence, or days of fasting, which the bishop of Rome recommended to be observed by the western churches, before he assumed the power of compulsion; and which he, therefore, called by the gentle name of Rogation, the time of abstinence being appointed at the beginning by that ordinance, which was called Rogatio, and not lex, or decretum.

The first who appointed these rogations was St. Mamertus, bishop of Vienne, who, in 474, assembled several bishops, to implore the mercy of God by a fast of three days, on occasion of an incursion then made in the country by a number of wild beasts. Others say, it was first set on foot by the same Mamertus, in 463, on occasion of some great public calamities.

His example was soon followed, first by the church of Cleremont, in Auvergne, then by all their neighbours, and afterwards throughout all Gaul.

In 801, Leo III. confirmed this fast, and made it universal.

ROGATTCHEV, a small town of the west of European Russia, on the Dnieper; 54 miles south-south-west of Mohilev.

ROGAZ, a village of Prussian Saxony; 14 miles north-by-east of Magdeburg, with 800 inhabitants.

ROGER, king of Sicily. See SICILY.

ROGER DE HOVEDEN, a learned historian of the 13th century, was probably born at the town of Hoveden or Howden, in Yorkshire, some time in the reign of Henry I. Having received the early parts of his education, he began to study the civil and canon law, which were then become the most fashionable branches of learning. He was appointed domestic chaplain to Henry II., who employed him in many ecclesiastical affairs, in which he acquitted himself with high honour. He is, however, best known by his annals of England, from the year 731, where Bede's Ecclesiastical History ends, to 1202. This work, which is one of the most voluminous of our ancient histories, is more valuable for the sincerity with which it is written, and the great variety of facts which it contains, than for the neatness of its style, or the regularity of its arrangement.

ROGERS (John), a celebrated controversial divine of the church of England in the 18th century, was born at Ensham in Oxfordshire, of which parish his father was vicar, in the year 1679. He was instructed in grammar-learning at New-college school in Oxford; whence he was elected, in 1693, to a scholarship of Corpus-Christi-college, where he pursued his academical studies with commendable diligence, and having before taken the degree of B. A. proceeded M. A. in the year 1700, with considerable reputation. In 1712, he was invited to London, and chosen lecturer of St. Clement's Danes. On this new scene, the excellence of his discourses, his graceful gesture, and his clear pathetic elocution, soon rendered him a very popular preacher; and his reputation in this line became so well established, that the inhabitants of the united parishes of Christ-church and St. Leonard, Foster Lane, unanimously chose him their lecturer also. This relation towards those respective parishes he retained many years, to the entire satisfaction of the people, by whom he was respected and beloved for the uniform diligence and unabated zeal with which he discharged his professional duties, and for his exemplary and agreeable manners. He was presented to the rectory of Wrington in Somersetshire. In the year 1719, he embarked in the celebrated Bangorian controversy, by publishing "A Discourse of the Visible and Invisible Church of Christ: in which it is shown that the Powers claimed by the Officers of the visible Church are not inconsistent with the Supremacy of Christ as Head, or with the Rights and Liberties of Christians, as Members of the invisible Church," 8vo. This discourse was received with great applause by the advocates for church authority, and is certainly deserving of praise, for the temper and seriousness with which it is written, as well as for the methodical arrangement of his matter, and the perspicuity of reasoning which the author displays. The advocates for the right of private judgment, however, maintained that the whole superstructure of his argument is built upon an untenable foundation, an inadmissible distinction of Visible and Invisible church, which is not to be found in the Christian code, and is utterly inconsistent with the principles of the Reformation. He also wrote "Reasons against Conversion to the Church of Rome, in a Letter to his Guardian, a late Convert to that Church, by a Student in the Temple," 8vo. "The Necessity of Divine Revelation, and the Truth of the Christian Religion asserted in eight Sermons," 8vo. These discourses were introduced by "A Preface, with Remarks on the Scheme of Literal Prophecy," &c., written by Mr. Anthony Collins. In this preface he discovered a dis position to repress freedom of inquiry and debate on the subject of the evidences of revelation, and even used indirect threatenings against the author, on account of the covert attack on Christianity which was made in his work. His exceptionable sentiments and language on this occasion, not only exposed himself to great severity of reproof from Mr. Collins, but were animadverted upon, in a very spirited manner, by Mr. Samuel Chandler, who censured him for ushering in his discourses in vindication of a religion which abhors persecution, with a preface that strongly savours of it. And even in the opinion of his friends, such an introduction of them seemed liable to some exception, or, at least, demanded a more full and distinct explication. He therefore published, in the year 1728, "A Vindication of the civil Establishment of Religion; wherein some positions of Mr. Chandler, the Author of 'The Literal Scheme,' and an Anonymous Letter on that Subject, are occasionally considered," &c., 8vo. Soon after he obtained the valuable vicarage of St. Giles's, Cripplegate, but he enjoyed it only for a short time, since he died on the 1st of May, 1729, in the 50th year of his age. He was a man of good abilities, and was generally esteemed an excellent writer; though he was by no means a profound scholar, nor ambitious of being thought one. He neither collected nor read many books; being persuaded that from a few, well chosen, and diligently studied, the most real knowledge would be acquired. In private life, he adorned the virtues of a Christian with the manner of a gentleman; and he was particularly distinguished by the liveliness of his disposition, and the polite freedom of his conversation.

ROGER'S POINT, a cape on the west side of Lake Huron. Lat. 44. 19. N. long. 82. 45. W.

ROGERSTOWN, a township of the United States, in the territory of the Missouri.

ROGERSVILLE, a township and capital of the United States, in Hawkins county, Tennessee, on the Holston. It is pleasantly situated in Carter's Valley, and contains a court-house, a bank, an academy, and a printing office; 9 miles south-west of the town there are extensive salt works; 65 miles east-north-east of Knoxville.

ROGERSVILLE,

ROGERSVILLE, a post town of the United States, in Pendleton district, South Carolina.

ROGGENBURG, a small town in the west of Bavaria, on the river Gunz; 14 miles south-east of Ulm. Population 1800.

ROGGENDORF, a hamlet of the Prussian states, in the duchy of Juliers. It has considerable lead mines, with galleries under ground, of great extent.

ROGGEVELD, Upper, Middle, and Little, three districts in the northern part of the territory of the Cape of Good Hope, occupying a table land formed at the summit of the great range of mountains, from which it derives its name, and which are two or three thousand feet high. It contains the largest and best breed of horses in the colony; but the temperature is in winter so cold, that the inhabitants are under the necessity of coming down for four months to the foot of the mountains.

ROGIATE, a village of England, on the banks of the river Severn, in Monmouthshire, near Caldicote.

ROGLIANO, a town of Italy, in the south part of the kingdom of Naples, in Calabria Citra. It contains 3400 inhabitants, who, like the great majority of their countrymen, live in extreme poverty; 7 miles south-by-east of Cosenza.

ROGLIANO, a town of Corsica. Population 1300.

ROGME, *s.* a fracture. (An obsolete surgical term).

ROGNES, a town of France, department of the Mouths of the Rhone, with 2000 inhabitants. The chief branch of industry is the making of perfumery and liquors; 12 miles north-west of Aix.

ROGONAUTGUNGE, a town of Bengal, district of Pacheet. Lat. 23. 15. N. long. 86. 20. E.

ROGONAUTPORE, a considerable town of Bengal, district of Pacheet. Lat. 23. 32. N. long. 86. 44. E.

ROGORETO, a village of Switzerland; 4 miles east-by-north of Belinzona, on the river Muesa, with 800 inhabitants.

ROGOWNO, an unfortified town of the north-west of European Russia, government of Wilna.

ROGUE, *s.* [of uncertain etymology, Dr. Johnson.—Mr. Horne Tooke pronounces it the past participle of the Saxon. ꝑnīzan: "*Rogue* (according to the usual change of the characteristic *i*) is the past tense, and therefore past participle, of ꝑnīzan, and means *covered, cloaked;* most aptly applied to the character designated by that term." *Div. of Purley*, ii. 227.—*Rogues*, in our old books, are "*sturdy beggars.*" This is the earliest acceptation of the word. I conceive it therefore to descend from the Dutch *prachgen*, to go a begging, whence our *prog*, written also *progue*, a word of bad meaning; and thence, omitting *p*, the word before us. *Todd.*] — A wandering beggar; a vagrant; a vagabond.—The scum of people and wicked condemned men spoileth the plantation; for they will ever live like *rogues*, and not fall to work, but be lazy and do mischief. *Bacon.*—The troops are all scattered, and the commanders very poor *rogues*. *Shakspeare.*—A knave; a dishonest fellow; a villain; a thief.—Thou kill'st me like a *rogue* and a villain. *Shakspeare.*

If he call *rogue* and rascal from the garret,
He means you no more mischief than a parrot. *Dryden.*

The *rogue* and fool by fits is fair and wise,
And ev'n the best, by fits, what they despise. *Pope.*

A name of slight tenderness and endearment.

I never knew a woman love man so,
—Alas, poor *rogue*, I think indeed she loves. *Shakspeare.*

A wag. [*rogue*, Fr. malapert, saucy. *Cotgrave.*] Dr. Johnson cites no etymon, but a passage from Shakspeare's Hamlet, in which he has converted *peasant* into *pleasant*, and has there mistaken the sense of the word.—The satirical *rogue* says here, that old men have grey beards. *Shakspeare.*

The term *rogue*, though of little definite import, is very common in our statutes. The general distress which was inflicted on the lower orders by the breaking up of the great feudal establishments in the reign of Henry VII. overwhelmed the country with rogues and vagabonds, and hence the most severe laws were passed against them. In the 27 Henry VIII. it was enacted, that an idle and sturdy beggar, who, by ancient statutes, is called a *rogue of the first degree*, should be punished, for the first offence, by whipping, and boring through the gristle of the right ear, with a hot iron, an inch in compass; and, for the second offence, when he is called a *rogue of the second degree*, be put to death as a felon, if he be above eighteen years of age.

To ROGUE, *v. n.* To wander; to play the vagabond. —If he be but once so taken idly *roguing*, he may punish him with the stocks. *Spenser.*—He *rogued* away at last and was lost. *Carew.*—To play knavish tricks.

This was thy *roguing*,
For thou art ever whispering. *Beaum. and Fl.*

RO'GUERY, *s.* The life of a vagabond.

To live in one land is captivity.
To run all countries a wild *roguery*. *Donne.*

Knavish tricks.—You rogue, here's lime in this sack too; there's nothing but *roguery* to be found in villainous man. *Shakspeare.*

Like the devil did tempt and sway 'em
To *rogueries*, and then betray 'em. *Hudibras.*

Waggery; arch tricks.—The other Terræ Filius made up what was wanting on Saturday; full of waggery and *roguery*, but little wit. *Life of A. Wood.*

ROGUE'S YARN, a name given to a rope-yarn, which is placed in the middle of every strand, in all cables and cordage in the king's service. It differs from all the rest, as being untarred and twisted in a contrary manner, by which it is easily discovered. The use of this contrivance is to examine whether any cordage, supposed to be stolen or embezzled, has been formed for the king's service, the possessor of which is subject to a heavy fine. *Falconer.*

RO'GUESHIP, *s.* The qualities or personage of a rogue.

Say, in what nasty cellar under ground,
Or what church porch your *rogueship* may be found?
Dryden.

RO'GUISH, *adj.* Vagrant; vagabond. — Though the persons, by whom it is used, be of better note than the former *roguish* sort; yet the fault is no less worthy of a marshal. *Spenser.*—Knavish; fraudulent.

He gets a thousand thumps and kicks,
Yet cannot leave his *roguish* tricks. *Swift.*

Waggish; wanton; slightly mischievous. — The most bewitching leer with her eyes, the most *roguish* cast; her cheeks are dimpled as when she smiles, and her smiles would tempt an hermit. *Dryden.*—Timothy used to be playing *roguish* tricks; when his mistress's back was turned, he would loll out his tongue. *Arbuthnot.*

RO'GUISHLY, *adv.* Like a rogue; knavishly; wantonly.—His heir *roguishly* wasteth all. *Granger.*

RO'GUISHNESS, *s.* The qualities of a rogue.

RO'GUY, *adj.* Knavish; wanton. *A bad word.*

Go, buy some ballad of the faery king,
And of the beggar wench; some *roguy* thing,
Which thou may'st chaunt unto the chambermaid. *Marston.*

ROHAN (Henry), Duke of, second of the name, one of the first in rank, talents, and character of the French nobility of his time, was born at the castle of Blein in Britany, in 1579. At the age of 16 he distinguished himself at the siege of Amiens under the eyes of Henry IV., who had a great affection for him, and to whom he was presumptive heir before the birth of the Dauphin. After the death of Henry, he was at the head of the Calvinist party in France, a station which he retained during three religious wars against the authority of Lewis XIII. In the first, in 1621, he defended Montauban in person, where he animated his party by the following address: "You have sworn the union

union of the churches in my presence; it is a sacred oath, and you ought to keep it inviolable. Though there should be only two persons of our religion, I will be one of the two. My houses and revenues are seized; but my sword and life remain, and I will employ both in your defence." The siege was raised, and in the following year a favourable peace was granted to the Protestants. The war was rekindled in 1625, in consequence of violations of the late treaty, but was soon terminated by a peace on the former conditions. At length Richelieu resolved entirely to subdue a party which had become a sort of separate republic in France, allied for its own defence with her enemies. He laid siege to Rochelle, the strong hold of the Calvinists, and at length took it; and though the Duke of Rohan vigourously maintained the war in Languedoc, he was in fine obliged in 1629 to make his submission, and the party was deprived of all its fortresses, but still allowed the public exercise of its religion. As it was one of the conditions that he should quit the kingdom till it pleased the King to recal him, he retired to Venice. It is affirmed in the memoirs of the Duchess of Rohan, that, during his residence in this city, the Duke engaged in a negotiation with the Ottoman Porte for the purchase of the island of Cyprus, with a view of settling in it Protestant refugees from France and Germany, and that it failed principally through the death of the Patriarch Cyril, by whose mediation it was carried on. The Venetian republic nominated him its general in chief against the Imperialists; but the King of France took him from its service to send him ambassador to the Swiss and Grisons. At the head of the troops of the latter, he drove the Germans and Spaniards out of the Valteline in 1633. He afterwards defeated the Spaniards on the banks of the lake of Como; but the Grisons becoming suspicious that it was not intended to withdraw the French troops from their country, rose in arms, and the Duke was obliged to make a separate treaty with them in 1637. Apprehending that he might incur the resentment of Richelieu on this account, he retired to Geneva. He thence went to join his friend the Duke of Saxe-Weimar, with whom he fought against the Imperialists at Rheinfeld in 1638. He received wounds in the action, of which, some weeks after, he died at the abbey of Konigfeld in Switzerland, at the age of 59. His remains were interred in the church of St. Peter, at Geneva, where a magnificent monument was erected to his memory.

The Duke of Rohan was one of the greatest captains of his time, and possessed all the qualities requisite in the head of a party, together with disinterestedness, generosity, and gentleness of manners. He is finely characterised by Voltaire in the following lines:

Avec tous les talens le ciel l'avoit fait naitre:
Il agit en heros; en sage il ecrivit.
Il fut même grand homme en combattant son maitre,
Et plus grand lorsqu'il le servit.

The Duke was the author of several works, military and political. These are, "Les Interets des Princes;" "Le parfait Capitaine, ou l'Abregé des Commentaires de Cesar;" "Un Traité de la Corruption de la Milice ancienne;" "Un Traité du Gouvernment des Treize Cantons;" "Memoires," containing the Transactions in France from 1610 to 1629; "Recueil de quelques Discours politiques sur les Affaires de l'Etat, depuis 1612 jusqu'à l'an 1629;" "Memoires et Lettres de Henri duc de Rohan, sur la guerre de la Valteline." It was one of his projects to divide France much in the manner of the modern departments.

ROHAN, a town in the north-west of France, department of the Morbihan. Population 1500; 30 miles north of Vannes.

ROHANPORE, a town of Bengal, district of Mouldah. It is pleasantly situated on the eastern bank of the Mahanuddy river, and has risen out of the ruins of Gour. Lat. 24. 48. N. long. 88. 26. E.

ROHAN-ROHAN, a town of France, department of the Two Sevres. Population 1900; 6 miles south-south-west of Niort.

ROHAULT (James), a French philosopher and mathematician of some note in the 17th century, was the son of a rich merchant at Amiens in Picardy, where he was born in the year 1620. He studied the writings both of the ancient and modern philosophers; but Des Cartes was the author who most engaged his notice, and of that great man he became a zealous follower. He drew up an abridgment and explanation of the philosophical works of Des Cartes, entitled "Physics," a methodical and perspicuous production, and was translated from the French into Latin by Dr. Samuel Clarke, who accompanied his version with notes, in which the Cartesian errors are corrected upon the Newtonian system. The fourth and best edition of this translation was published in 1718, in 8vo. Rohault also published "Elements of the Mathematics; and Dialogues concerning Philosophy," 1671, 12mo., on the principles of the Cartesian system, which is now considered as entitled to little merit. The first Six Books of Euclid; Trigonometry; Practical Geometry; Fortification; Mechanics; Perspective; Spherical Trigonometry; and Arithmetic. *Moreri. Nouv. Dict. Hist. Hutton's Math. Dict.*

ROHATYN, a town of Austrian Galicia. Population 1800; 13 miles west-south-west of Brzezauy, and 22 east-by-south of Zaleszczyki.

ROHILCUND, properly KUTTAHER, an extensive and valuable district of Hindostan, formerly belonging to the province of Delhi, but now included in the district of Bareily. It is situated between the rivers Ganges and Gogra, and between the 28th and 30th degrees of northern latitude. It is extremely well watered by several rivers, and the soil is remarkably fertile. In addition to the productions of other parts of Hindostan, it contains woods of valuable timber, and whenever it shall be brought to a complete state of cultivation, will be the finest part of British India. It contains the following towns:—Bareily, Bissowly, Budavon, Moradabad, Owlah, Pillibeet, Rampore, Sumbul, and several other places. Some of the Mahometan princes of the Afghan dynasty fixed their residence at Budavon; and if their descendants had been wise, they would have erected their capital on the eastern side of the Ganges. But this district is better known in history, from its having in recent times been occupied by a number of Afghans of the tribe of Roh, or Rohillas. The founders of this dynasty were two brothers, named Shah Aalum and Hussein Khan, who, having forsaken their native mountains of Afghanistan, about the year 1673, settled in Kuttaher, where they procured some inconsiderable employments under the officers of the Mogul emperor Aurungzebe. The former of these had several sons, the eldest of whom, named Doondy Khan, became a celebrated character. The latter had two sons, the eldest of whom, named Daood Khan, became a soldier of fortune, and collecting some followers, was admitted into the imperial service, and having distinguished himself, was rewarded with the grant of a small district of land in the collectorship of Budavon. Daood left two sons, the youngest of whom, Aly Mohammed, followed the profession of his father, and was employed by the foujedar, or military collector of the province. Taking advantage of the absence of this officer, and the distracted state of the court of Delhi, he collected a number of his countrymen, and took forcible possession of a considerable territory, and having soon after espoused the party of the celebrated vizier, Kummir Adden Khan, through his influence not only obtained a confirmation of his possessions, but also the title of nabob. Aly Mohammed died in the year 1749, leaving six sons; but as they were all under age, he appointed two of his relations, named Rahmet Khan and Doondy Khan, guardians of his children, in consequence of which the former took the title of hafiz. Between these persons, and Shuja Addowlah, nabob of Oude, several disputes occurred, which at length arose to such a height, that war was declared between them, and the nabob having procured the assistance of the British in the year 1774, attacked the Rohillas, and having totally defeated them, took possession of the country, and compelled the greater number of them to emigrate and cross the Ganges. But to

Fyzoola

Fyzoola Khan, one of the sons of Aly Mohammed, was ceded the territory of Rampoor, of which an account has been given under that article. Previous to this conquest, the country was in a very flourishing state, and each of the large towns was enriched by the residence of one or more of the Rohilla chiefs, all of whom lived in an hospitable and princely style, and gave every protection and encouragement to the farmers, in consequence of which the land revenue alone amounted to a million sterling; but after it came into possession of the nabob of Oude, it rapidly decreased, and in the course of 20 years was reduced to about £400,000. Fortunately for the inhabitants, the whole of ancient Rohilcund was ceded to the British, in 1801, and is now governed by a civil establishment of officers, stationed at Bareily, and is said to be yearly improving. It must, however, be allowed that the superior class of natives, especially the Rohillas, are by no means satisfied with the British courts of justice, nor the system of their police. The former reduces them to an equality with their inferiors, and the latter savours too much of espionage; in consequence of which, a few years ago a serious disturbance took place at Bareily, in which many lives were lost.

ROHINI, the Sanskrit name of a star, supposed to be that designated on our globes by a Tauri. In mythology it is an asterism that furnishes more poetical allusion than any other in the zodiac. Rohini is one of the sixty daughters of Daksha, and one of the twenty-seven espoused by Soma, or the moon; the lunar regent being male among the Hindoos, as it is with some European mythologists. Rohini was the favourite consort of the fickle Soma. In one of their terrestrial journies, arriving at the southern mountain Sahyadri, they unwarily entered the forest of Gauri, or Parvati, where some men, having formerly surprised Mahadeva caressing that goddess, they were punished by a change of their sex, and the forest had retained a power of effecting a like change on all males who should enter it. Soma, or Chandra, instantly becoming a female, (Chandri,) was so afflicted and ashamed, that she hastened far to the west, sending Rohini to her seat in the sky, and concealed herself in a mountain, afterwards named Somagiri, where she performed acts of the most rigorous devotion. Darkness then covered the world each night, the fruits of the earth were destroyed, and the universe was in such dismay, that the Devas, or divinities, with Brahma at their head, implored the assistance of Mahadeva, who, placing Chandri on his head, she became male again. Mahadeva, in statues and pictures, is usually seen with the moon on his head and forehead, and one of his names is Chandra-sekra, or *moon-crowned*. Another fable states that she was visited in her retreat by Surya, or the sun, from which conjuction arose a numerous progeny. Mahadeva is the sun; and this sol-lunarian progeny is, perhaps, vegetation.

These fables, taken from the Asiatic Researches, vol. iii. are related by Mr. Wilford, from Puranic authority; and were thus explained to him by an ingenious Pandit. To the inhabitant of the countries near the source of the Kali, or Nile, the moon, being in the mansion of Rohini, or the Pleiades, seemed to vanish behind the southern mountains. Now when the moon is in opposition to the sun, it is the god Chandra; in conjunction, the gooddess Chandri. The moon is believed, by Hindoo naturalists, to have a powerful influence on vegetation, especially on certain plants, and, above all, on the Somalata, or moon-plant. This mode of interpretation, Mr. Wilford adds, may serve as a clue to the intricate labyrinth of the Puranas, which contain all the history, physiology, and science of the Indians and Egyptians, disguised under similar fables.

ROHITSCH, a small town of the Austrian states, in Styria, with a much frequented mineral spring; 21 miles east of Cilley.

ROHNSTOCK, a village of Austrian Silesia, in the government of Reichenbach; 2 miles from Jauer, with a beautiful castle belonging to the count of Hochberg.

ROHR, a market town of Germany, in Bavaria near the river Laber. Actions were fought here on the 19th and 20th of April, 1809, between the French and Austrians; 16 miles south of Ratisbon, and 7 east-south-east of Abensberg.

ROHRA, a village of Prussian Saxony, in the Henneberg; 2 miles east of Meinungen. Population 1000.

ROHRDACH, a village of Germany, in Baden; 2 miles south of Heidelberg. Population 1000.

ROHRDORF, a village of Germany, in Wirtemberg, county of Scheer-Trauchburg. Population 800.

ROHRHEIM, or GREAT ROHRHEIM, a village of Germany; 13 miles south-south-west of Darmstadt, with 1100 inhabitants.

ROHRIA, *s.* [so named in honour of Julius von Rohr.] In botany, a genus of the class triandria, order monogynia. Generic Character.—Calyx: perianth one-leaved, bell-shaped, five-parted; segments ovate, concave, blunt, ciliate, coriaceous; the two inner ones a little longer. Corolla: petals five, upright, longer than the calyx, the two upper ones a little larger, the three lower smaller; claws narrow, wider at the base, woolly within, under the laminæ a little bent outwards; laminæ ovate, erect, in the larger petals bent inwards and cowled, in the smaller spread out and bluntish.—Stamina: filaments three, one between the two larger petals, and two by the side of them, united at bottom with their claws, filiform, longer than the corolla, woolly within; anthers roundish, erect, with the face turned inwards.—Pistil: germ turbinate, tomentose; style filiform, the length of the stamens, villose; stigmas three, revolute.—*Essential Character.*—Calyx bell-shaped, five-parted. Corolla five-petalled, unequal. Stigmas three, revolute.

1. Rohria petioliflora.—This is a branching shrub. The leaves are alternate, petioled, oblong, acuminate, quite entire, netted-veined. The petioles are floriferous. Flowers small, yellow, at the top of the petiole and base of the leaf, heaped into small very short four-flowered or five-flowered racemes.—Native of the woods of Guiana.

ROHRKOPF, a mountain of the south-west of Germany, in the territory of Baden, and the Black Forest, 3750 feet in height.

ROHRSDORF BOBER, a village of Prussian Silesia, on the Bober, with 1600 inhabitants; 57 miles west-by-south of Breslau.

ROHRSDORF, Gross, a large village of Saxony; 11 miles north-east of Dresden, with 2000 inhabitants, employed almost exclusively in the manufacture of linen and tape.

ROI *des Violons*, or king of the fiddlers. In France each profession, or incorporated company, had formerly a superior, who was dignified with the title of King. The masons, carpenters, barbers, lawyers' clerks, cross-bow-men, the principal soldiers called *ribauds*, even the poets, and many other orders of men, had their particular kings; but their exactions and tyranny, by degrees, occasioned the abolition of these phantoms of sovereignty.

The minstrels, religious observers of ancient usages, were the last to relinquish this precious relic of antiquity. The king at arms, and king of the minstrels, were the only surviving monarchs of their calling. But the first has few tributaries, and his functions are only exercised occasionally; the other, on the contrary, was always in power, and pretended to exercise his empire over the whole realm.

The history of the first kings of the minstrels is unknown; it is only recorded that, after the decease of Constantine, the famous violin of the 17th century, the crown passed, in 1630, to Dummoir I., then to Dummoir II., who relinquished the crown by a voluntary abdication, occasioned by an anarchy, in 1685. Louis XIV. saw with indifference the extinction of this royalty, and declared that it was not his intention it should be restored.

This monarchy had been long agitated by internal troubles, and civil and foreign wars. The dancing-masters, originally incorporated with this company, had been 50 years soliciting its extinction; indignant at being united with such vile artizans, who dishonoured their faculty by playing at ale-houses

ale-houses (cabarets), and places of debauchery; or if not totally silenced, that one of the strings of their fiddles should be cut off, and they reduced to their ancient level, and be allowed to play on no instrument but the three-stringed rebec.

They had commenced a suit against the city dancing-masters, and obtained a solemn sentence against them, January 14th, 1667. No company was ever more discordant, more tumultuous; all the courts of justice rang with their divisions and quarrels, by which the law was enriched, and the public amused, at their expense. The interregnum lasted from 1685 to 1741, when the celebrated Guignon, the violinist, was ambitious of having the royalty revived in his favour. The king had the goodness to comply with his request, and honoured him with the minstrel crown, on the 15th of June the same year. But his election awakening a desire to revive certain prerogatives, which he pretended to be inherent in his crown, he had suits and actions to defend against a host of musicians, particularly the organists, who obtained a complete victory; and Guignon, willing to give a proof of his love for the arts and disinterestedness, generously, and voluntarily, resigned his sovereignty of king of the minstrels.

ROIBON, a town of France, department of the Isere, on the river Galaure. Population 2300. It has some manufactures of woollens; 22 miles west-north-west of Grenoble.

ROIN, *s.* [*rogne*, Fr. from *rogner*, to eat, to corrode.] A scab; a scurf. *Not in use.*—Withouten blaine, or scabbe, or *roine*. *Chaucer.*

To ROIN. See *To* ROYNE.

ROI'NISH. See ROYNISH.

ROINT, or ROYNT, *adv.* Aroynt; be gone; stand off. See AROYNT. *Roynt* thee, witch, i. e. get out of my way, witch. North. *Grose.*

ROIOC, in botany, a barbarous South American, or perhaps Spanish, name, for one of Plumier's genera, referred by other botanists to MORINDA; see that article.

ROISELLE, a town of France, department of the Somme. Population 1200; 6 miles east of Peronne.

ROISSY, a village in the north of France, with 1200 inhabitants.

To ROIST, *To* ROISTER, *v. n.* [of this word the most probable etymology is from *hrister*, Icelandic, a violent man.] To behave turbulently; to act at discretion; to be at free quarter; to bluster.

Among a crew of *roist'ring* fellows,
He'd sit whole evenings at the alehouse. *Swift.*

ROI'STER, *s.* [*hrister*, Icel. See the verb *Rustre*, Fr. "a ruffian, swaggerer, saucy, scurvy fellow." *Cotgrave.*] A turbulent, brutal, lawless, blustering fellow. *Roisterer* is used in the north.—There was, about half a year since, one that pretended himself a minister, &c. but at last was found to have gone under three names, and in as several habits, of a minister, an ordinary lay-man, and a *royster*. *Abp. Laud.*

ROITSCH, a village of Prussian Saxony, in the government of Merseburg, with 2700 inhabitants.

ROKEBY, a village of England, North Riding of Yorkshire, between Barnard Castle and Greta-bridge.

ROKEJECA, in botany, an Arabic name, applied by Forskall, Fl. Ægypt. Arab. 90, and adopted by Jussieu, Gen. 313, for a supposed genus of the natural order of *Portulaceæ*, found in sandy waste ground about Cairo. Jussieu supposes it akin to *Trianthema*. The capsule however is said to have only one cell, and there is a corolla of fivepetals.

ROKELY, a village of England, in Wiltshire, north-west of Marlborough.

ROKIT, CAPE, a cape on the north coast of Africa, at the entrance into the straits of Babelmandel; 60 miles west of cape Guardefai.

ROKITNO, a town of Lithuania, in the palatinate of Brzesk; 72 miles east-south-east of Pinsk.

ROKITZAN, or Rokyczany, a town of Bohemia. It was the native place of John Rokitzany, the celebrated Hussite general. Population 2300; 8 miles east of Pilsen, and 42 west-south-west of Prague.

ROKOS, an isle, or rather large rock, which, according to M. Kerguelen, is situated in north lat. 57. 50. and long. 16. west of Paris; or about 5° south-west of St. Kilda.

ROKOSNIA, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Braclaw, on the Bog; 16 miles west-north-west of Braclaw.

RO'KY, *adj.* [*roock*, Teut. *rook-damp*, vapour. Kilian.] Misty; cloudy. Prompt. Parv. It is pronounced *rooky* in the north; as, *rooky* weather. Ray calls it a variation of dialect for *reeky*.

ROLAND (de la Platiere), J. M., born at Villafranche, near Lyons, of a family distinguished in the profession of the law. He was the youngest of five brothers, left orphans and without fortune. To avoid entering into the church, like his elder brothers, he left home at the age of nineteen, alone, without money, or friends; he traversed a part of France on foot, and arrived at Nantes, intending to embark for India. He was, however, dissuaded from this project, by a merchant who had seen him throw up blood, and who was aware that the climate of the East would infallibly kill him. He accordingly went to Rouen, engaged in the direction of some manufactories; distinguished himself there by his love of study, and his taste for economical and commercial pursuits; and obtained the place of inspector-general at Amiens, and then at Lyons. Having travelled in Italy, Switzerland, and other countries, he accumulated a great mass of valuable information, particularly in what related to the arts, which, on his return, gained him admission into a great number of learned societies. Early in the revolution he became a member of the municipality of Lyons, and founded there a club, which he connected with the Jacobin club of Paris. In 1790 he went to the capital, took a decided share with the popular party, and in March, 1792, was raised to the administration of the interior. He seems now to have possessed an enthusiastic love and attachment to a republican form of government. The first day that he appeared before the king, he went with straight undressed hair, a black coat, and shoes without buckles; his behaviour was, at the same time, so very uncourtly, that his majesty dismissed him a very short time before he himself was reduced to scenes of adversity and the most piognant distress. From this time Roland attached himself more than ever to the Jacobins, and was probably deeply implicated in the business of the 20th of June and 10th of August of that same year. He deprecated, however, the cruelties of the 2d of September, and denounced the horrors that were transacting under the mask of patriotism. As the violent gained ascendency, Roland was declining in credit. On the 20th of January, 1793, he, as member of the provisional executive council, signed the order for the execution of the king: this was one of his last official acts: yielding to the voice of the Mountain faction he resigned, and was involved in the proscription which issued against the Brissotines; but he contrived to escape from Paris, and conceal himself among his friends at Ronen: as soon, however, as he heard of his wife's execution, he determined not to survive her. He stabbed himself near the high road, leaving a paper containing the following lines: "Whoever you may be that find me lying here, respect my remains; they are those of a man who devoted his whole life to being useful, and who died, as he lived, virtuous and honest." Roland was kind and obliging to his friends, but the irascibility of his temper made him many enemies. He was deeply read in the learned, and in several modern languages, and was author of the following works: "An Essay on the Rearing of Flocks and the Improvement of Wool;" "The Art of the Woollen-Cloth Printer, of the Cotton-Velvet Maker," &c. This work forms the Compendium of Mechanical Arts, published by the Academy of Sciences. "Letters written from Switzerland, Italy, Sicily, and Malta, in 1782." A new edition of this work was published in 1800. The latter were first addressed to his wife during his courtship.

ROLAND,

ROLAND (Marie-Jeanne Philipon), the wife of the preceding, a woman distinguished for her virtues and talents was born at Paris in 1754. Her father was M. Philipon, a respectable engraver and jeweller, who instructed her in the arts connected with his profession. Though not regularly handsome, her person was attractive, and her character and accomplishments excited general admiration in the small circle in which she moved. It was supposed, likewise, that she would inherit a fortune not inconsiderable for her station; but her mother, who was an excellent woman, dying, her father became dissipated, and squandered great part of his own and his daughter's property. With the little she was able to preserve, she retired to a convent, where she lived in solitude, submitting with a truly philosophical spirit to her privations, whilst she was improving her mind by study. Among her admirers had been M. Roland, who was now in the post of inspector of manufactures at Amiens: he had been rejected by her father, who disliked his severity of manners, but he sought her out in her retreat, and obtained her hand, when she had completed her 25th year: he was 20 years older. She accompanied him to Amiens, where she added the knowledge of botany to her other acquisitions. She afterwards visited Switzerland and England, and was led, by what she observed in the constitutions of those countries, to study the theory of government, the result of which was an ardent attachment to the principles of liberty. Her husband removing to Lyons, she spent several winters with him in that city, and the summers at his country house in the vicinity, still extending the sphere of her knowledge and attainments. When the Revolution broke out, Roland lost his place as inspector, and repaired to Paris, whither he was deputed to the constituent assembly for the negotiation of some arrangement respecting the public debts of Lyons. Madame Roland was now in her element. She received at her apartments the leaders of the popular party, especially those called the Girondists, assisted at all their deliberations, and employed her pen in their service. In March, 1792, when the king found it necessary, in order to allay the public discontents, to nominate a popular administration, Roland, as we have seen, was appointed minister of the interior; and though he was a man of talents and information, yet the public, perhaps justly, attributed to his wife the most eloquent and best written of his public papers. She has avowed that his celebrated letter to the King was chiefly her composition. Roland, and all the other ministers except Dumouriez, were dismissed in consequence of their urging the king to sanction decrees which he disapproved; but when the monarchy was abolished for a republican government, he was restored to his place. In December, 1792, Mad. Roland appeared at the bar of the Convention, in order to repel a denunciation that had been made against her, and spoke with equal eloquence and facility. She appeared again to defend her husband when proscribed with the rest of the Brissotines, but could not obtain a hearing. He made his escape, but she was apprehended, and committed to the Abbaye. After a confinement of some weeks, she was released, but had scarcely returned to her house when she was again arrested by the satellites of Robespierre. She was sent to the convent of St. Pélagie, which had been converted into a prison, and there passed her time in consoling her fellow-prisoners, and composing an account of her own life, and of the transactions she had witnessed. At length she was called before the bloody revolutionary tribunal, and underwent an examination with a calmness and serenity disturbed only when one of the brutal judges asked her questions offensive to modesty. Her condemnation followed as a matter of course, and in November, 1793, she was led to the scaffold. On passing the statue of Liberty in the Place de la Revolution, she bent her head towards it, exclaiming, "O Liberty, how many crimes are perpetrated in thy name!" She then submitted to the stroke with the most heroic fortitude. She foretold that her husband would not long survive her; a prediction which we have before noticed was verified. Mad. Roland was, indeed, a woman capable of inspiring all the elevated sentiments she felt. With the grace and animation of one sex, she possessed the firmness and solidity of the other; and she was generally thought superior to all the men of the party with whom she was connected. She particularly excelled them in penetration and knowledge of the human character, and was not a dupe to that philosophy of which she partook in common with them. She left one only daughter, whose sole provision was her mother's writings. She had written "Opuscules," on moral topics, and "Voyage en Angleterre et en Suisse;" and when in prison, she composed what she entitled "Appel a l'impartiale Posterité," containing historical notices, anecdotes, and her own private memoirs. This is an interesting work, written with much energy and vivacity. It presents many well-drawn portraits of the leading characters of that period, with the purest sentiments of public and private morality. Her own memoirs are peculiarly valuable, as giving a picture of life and manners in the middle ranks in France, with a view of the progress of a mind which was certainly one of the highest order with respect to virtue and intellect. *Biogr. Anecd. of the Fr. Revolut. Nouv. Dict. Hist. Aikin.*

ROLAND, Breche de, a remarkable opening in the central part of the Pyrenees, in very high ground above the village of Gavarnie. A wall of rocks, from 300 to 600 feet in height, extends in the form of a crescent, with its convexity towards France. In the middle is a breach, 300 feet in width, said, by the tradition of the peasantry, to have been made by the famous Roland. The great mountain of Marbore rises over the breach like a citadel, and the elevation is so great, that the whole forms a desert, without a trace of vegetation. The prospect on the side of Spain is very extensive: on the side of France is a succession of mountains, the tops of which resemble the waves of the sea.

ROLANDINO, an early Italian historian or chronicler, was the son of a notary at Padua, in which city he was born in 1200. He studied at Bologna under Buoncompagno, and in 1220 received the honorary title, then customary, of master and doctor in grammar and rhetoric. His father who, besides his employment as a notary, had kept a chronicle of memorable events as they occurred, put his papers into his son's hands after he had returned from Bologna, with a charge to continue them. This he executed with care and fidelity, to the year 1260, when he was urged to revise and complete his work. He employed two years in this revision, and in 1262 his chronicle, in twelve books, in the Latin language, was read publicly before the University of Padua, submitted to an attentive examination, and solemnly approved. Rolandino, who succeeded his father in his post, and was probably likewise a professor of grammar in the University, died in 1276. His history is accounted one of the most exact and faithful records of that time, particularly with respect to the transactions of the famous tyrant Ezzelino da Romano, and the other principal families in the Marche of Trevigi. Though his style is not free from the barbarisms then prevalent, his narrative is clear and well arranged. Vossius speaks of him as surpassing all the writers of his age in perspicuity, order, and judgment, and as showing himself well versed in sacred and profane literature. An edition of his work, with other chronicles, was given at Venice in 1636 by Felix Osius, and it has been reprinted by Muratori in the 7th volume of his Italian historians. *Vossii Hist. Lat. Moreri. Tiraboschi.*

ROLANDRA, *s.* [so named in honour of Rolander, a pupil of Linnæus.] In botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia segregata, natural order of compositæ capitatæ. Cinarocephalæ, *(Juss.)* Generic Character.—Calyx: common none; florets in bundles, in a roundish head; bundles distinct, pedicelled, with many scales interposed, shorter than the florets, ovate and lanceolate awned; perianth partial chaffy, two-valved; valves unequal, compressed, keeled; the upper one larger, inclosing the other, awned; lower acuminate. Corolla: proper hermaphrodite, very small, funnel-shaped; tube filiform, long; border five-cleft; segments very short, erect, acute. Stamina: filaments five, shorther than the tube; anther tubular, within

within the aperture. Pistil: germ compressed-three-cornered, acute at the base, retuse at the top; style the length of the tube, bifid at the top; stigmas thickened, erect. Pericarp none. Seed three-cornered, crowned with a toothed rim; down none.—*Essential Character.* Florets bundled into a head with scales interposed. Calyx partial two-valved, one-flowered. Corollets hermaphrodite; down none.

1. Rolandra argentea.—Stem straight, woody, covered with a smooth reddish-brown bark; having at every inch or two one, two, or three leaves, greater and smaller, the largest about two inches long, and three-quarters of an inch broad in the middle, smooth, dark green on the upper side, and very white underneath, on a very short foot-stalk. At each axil a sessile conglomerate head of flowers.—Native of the West Indies.

ROLAND'S TABLE, a flat mountain on the mainland of the east coast of the district of Gaspee, in Lower Canada, and west part of the gulf of St. Lawrence.

ROLEIA, a petty town in the central part of Portugal on the coast road leading from the north to Lisbon. On 17th August, 1808, four days before the battle of Vimiera, a corps of French posted here, was attacked by the British advancing army, and obliged to retreat.

To ROLL, *v. a.* [*rouler*, Fr. *rollen*, Dutch; from *rotulo*, of *roto*, Lat.] To move any thing by volutation, or successive application of the different parts of the surface, to the ground.—Who shall *roll* us away the stone from the door of the sepulchre? *St. Mark.*—To move any thing round upon its axis.—To move in a circle.—To dress, and troll the tongue and *roll* the eye. *Milton.*—To produce a periodical revolution.—Heaven shone, and *roll'd* her motions. *Milton.*—To wrap round upon itself.—To enwrap; to involve in bandage.—By this *rolling*, parts are kept from joining together. *Wiseman.*—To form by rolling into round masses.—Grind red-lead, or any other colour with strong wort, and so *roll* them up into long rolls like pencils. *Peacham.*—To pour into a stream or waves.

A small Euphrates through the piece is *roll'd*,
And little eagles wave their wings in gold. *Pope.*

To ROLL, *v. n.* To be moved by the successive application of all parts of the surface to a plane; as a cylinder.

Fire must rend the sky,
And wheel on the earth, devouring where it *rolls*. *Milton.*

I'm pleas'd with my own work; Jove was not more
With infant nature, when his spacious hand
Had rounded this huge ball of earth and seas,
To give it the first push, and see it *roll*
Along the vast abyss. *Dryden.*

To run on wheels.

He next essays to walk, but downward press'd,
On four feet imitates his brother beast;
By slow degrees he gathers from the ground
His legs, and to the *rolling* chair is bound. *Dryden.*

To perform a periodical revolution.—Thus the year *rolls* within itself again. *Dryden.*—When thirty *rolling* years have run their race. *Dryden.*—To move with the surface variously directed.

Thou, light,
Revisit'st not these eyes, which *roll* in vain,
To find the piercing ray, and find no dawn. *Milton.*

To float in rough water.

Twice ten tempestuous nights I *roll'd*, resign'd
To roaring billows and the warring wind. *Pope.*

To move as waves or volumes of water.—Wave *rolling* after wave. *Milton.*—Our nation is too great to be ruined by any but itself; and if the number and weight of it *roll* one way upon the greatest changes that can happen, yet England will be safe. *Temple.*

Till the huge surge *roll'd* off, then backward sweep
The refluent tides, and plunge into the deep. *Pope.*

Storms beat, and *rolls* the main;
Oh beat those storms, and *roll* the seas in vain. *Pope.*

To fluctuate; to move tumultuously.

Here tell me if thou dar'st, my conscious soul,
What diff'rent sorrows did within thee *roll*. *Prior.*

To revolve on an axis.

He fashion'd those harmonious orbs, that *roll*
In restless gyres about the Arctic pole. *Sandys.*

To be moved with violence.

Down they fell
By thousands, angel on archangel *roll'd*. *Milton.*

ROLL, *s.* The act of rolling; the state of being rolled.—The thing rolling.

Listening senates hang upon thy tongue,
Devolving through the maze of eloquence
A *roll* of periods, sweeter than her song. *Thomson.*

[*Rouleau*, Fr.] Mass made round.

Large *rolls* of fat about his shoulders clung,
And from his neck the double dewlap hung. *Addison.*

To keep ants from trees, encompass the stem four fingers breadth with a circle or *roll* of wool newly plucked. *Mortimer.*—Writing rolled upon itself; a volume.

Busy angels spread
The lasting *roll*, recording what we said. *Prior.*

A round body rolled along; a cylinder.—Where land is clotty, and a shower of rain comes that soaks through, use a *roll* to break the clots. *Mortimer.*—[*Rotulus*, Lat.] Public writing.

Cromwell is made master
O' the *rolls* and the king's secretary. *Shakspeare.*

Darius made a decree, and search was made in the house of the *rolls*, where the treasures were laid up. *Ezra*, vi. 1.—The *rolls* of parliament, the entry of the petitions, answers and transactions in parliament, are extant. *Hale.*—A register; a catalogue.—Beasts only cannot discern beauty; and let them be in the *roll* of beasts, that do not honour it. *Sidney.*

These signs have mark'd me extraordinary,
And all the courses of my life do shew,
I am not in the *roll* of common men. *Shakspeare.*

The *roll* and list of that army doth remain. *Davies.*

Of that short *roll* of friends writ in my heart,
There's none, that sometimes greet us not. *Donne.*

'Tis a mathematical demonstration, that these twenty-four letters admit of so many changes in their order, and make such a long *roll* of differently arranged alphabets, not two of which are alike; that they could not all be exhausted, though a million millions of writers should each write above a thousand alphabets a day, for the space of a million millions of years. *Bentley.*—Chronicle.

Please thy pride, and search the herald's *roll*,
Where thou shall find thy famous pedigree. *Dryden.*

His chamber all was hanged about with *rolls*
And old records, from antient times deriv'd. *Spenser.*

The eye of time beholds no name
So blest as thine, in all the *rolls* of fame. *Pope.*

[*Role*, Fr.] Part; office. *Not in use.*—In human society, every man has his *roll* and station assigned him. *L'Estrange.*

The ancients made all their books up in form of rolls, or little columns; and, in Cicero's time, the libraries consisted wholly of those rolls. The dearness of parchment, and the cheapness of papyrus, of which the rolls were made, was the reason that scarcely any but paper rolls were used.

Vossius says, they pasted several sheets end to end, when filled on one side, and rolled them up together, beginning with

with the last, which they called *umbilicus*, and to which they fastened an ivory or boxen stick, to sustain the roll. To the other extremity they pasted a piece of parchment, to cover and preserve it.

These rolls were placed in the libraries perpendicularly to the horizon. The Jews still preserve the ancient usage of rolls for the books they read in the synagogues.

ROLL, in Antiquity. From the time of Anastasius, we find in the hands of the emperors, on medals, a kind of narrow long roll, or sachel; the meaning of which has greatly puzzled the antiquaries.

Some imagine it to be a roll or bundle of papers, memoirs, petitions, &c. presented occasionally to princes, consuls, and the like. Others take it to be a plaited handkerchief, which the persons who presided at the games cast forth as a signal for their beginning. Others will have it a bag of dust and ashes, presented the emperor at the ceremony of his coronation, and called *akakia*, q. d. a means of preserving innocence, by the remembrance of dust, &c.

ROLL *of Tobacco*, is tobacco in the leaf, twisted in the mill, and wound twist over twist, about a stick or roller.

The generality of tobacco in America is there sold in rolls of various weights; and it is not till after its arrival in England, Spain, France, and Holland, that it is cut. Roll tobacco is what is chiefly used, both for chewing and rasping.

A ROLL *of Parchment* contains 20 skins.

ROLL, *Rotulus*, in Law, denotes a schedule of paper or parchment, which may be wound up by the hand into the fashion of a pipe.

Of these there are, in the Exchequer, several kinds; viz. the great *wardrobe-roll*, the *cofferer's-roll*, the *subsidy-roll*, &c.

The word is formed from the French *rolle*, of the Latin *rotulus*; because most instruments and expeditions in law were anciently written on papers, or parchments, sewed or glued together, and thus rolled up; whence the word *enrol*, and the like.

ROLLS *of Parliament*, are the manuscript registers of the proceedings of our ancient parliaments.

Before the use of printing, and till the reign of Henry VII. our statutes were all engrossed in parchment, and (by virtue of the king's writ for that purpose) proclaimed openly in every county.

In these rolls we have also a great many decisions of difficult points in law, which were frequently, in former times, referred to the decision of that high court.

ROLL, *Rider*, a schedule, or small piece of parchment, frequently sewed, or added to some part of a roll, or record.

Noy observes, that the court ex-officio may award a certiorari ad informandam conscientiam; and that which is certified shall be annexed to the record, and called a *rider-roll*.

ROLL is also used for a list of the names of several persons of the same condition, or entered in the same engagement.

ROLL, *Size*, a list containing the names of all the men belonging to a troop or company, with the height or stature of each specifically marked. Every serjeant keeps a regular size-roll, and every captain of a troop or company ought to have one likewise.

ROLL, *Squad*, a list containing the names of each particular squad. Every non-commissioned officer and corporal, who are entrusted with the care and arrangement of a squad, must have a roll of this kind.

ROLL-*Calling*, is the calling over of the soldiers of a troop, or company, by their names, to see that they are all present.

This necessary duty is performed by the serjeants of companies, morning and evening, in every well-regulated corps. Hence we have "morning roll call," and "evening roll-call," on critical occasions; and in services that require promptitude and exertion, frequent roll-calls should be made.

ROLL, *Calves-head*, is a roll in the two Temples, in which every bencher is taxed yearly at 2*s.*, every barrister at 1*s.* 6*d.*, and every gentleman under the bar at 1*s.* to the cook, and other officers of the house, in consideration of a dinner of calves-heads, provided in Easter term.

ROLL, *Ragman's* or *Ragimund's Roll*, is a roll denominated from *Ragimund*, a papal legate in Scotland; who, calling before him all the people who held benefices in that kingdom, caused them, upon oath, to give in the value of their estates, according to which they were taxed in the court of Rome.

ROLLS, or *Office of Rolls*, in Chancery-lane, London, is an office appointed for the custody of the rolls and records in chancery.

The master of this office is the second person in that court; and, in the absence of the lord chancellor, he sits as judge.

This house, or office, was anciently called *Domus Conversorum*, as being appointed, by king Henry III., for the use of converted Jews; but their irregularities occasioned king Edward II. to expel them thence: upon which, the place was deputed for the custody of the rolls.

ROLL-*rich Stones*, a series of huge stones, ranged in a circle, in Oxfordshire, near Moreton-Hen-Marsh. There are many fabulous traditions about them. Among the antiquaries, some take them to be a monument of a victory; others, a burying place; and others a place for the coronation of the Danish kings.

Near Penros, in Cornwall, is a like monument.

ROLLAMPONT, a large village of France, department of the Upper Marne.

ROLLAND, an island in the Southern Indian sea, discovered by Kerguelen in the year 1773, who named it after the vessel in which he sailed. It is about 9 miles in circumference. Lat. 48. 37. N. long. 68. 43. E.

ROLLE (Michael), an eminent French mathematician in the 17th and early part of the 18th century, was born at Ambert, a small town in Auvergne, in the year 1652. His father, who was a petty tradesman, after having had him taught to write a good hand, and a little arithmetic, placed him to gain his livelihood as a writer, at first with a notary, and afterwards with different country attorneys. Disgusted with an occupation so little suited to his genius, at the age of 23 he went to Paris, depending on no other recourse than his fine penmanship, and supported himself for some time by teaching writing and the first rules of arithmetic. From an originally slight acquaintance with the science of numbers, finding the study of it congenial to his taste, he by degrees advanced further and further, till unintentionally, and almost without perceiving it, he arrived at algebra. No sooner had he made himself master of the first principles of this science, than he became passionately attached to the study of it; and though the demands of a growing family required an assiduous attention to his professional engagements, yet all the leisure time which he could find, and many hours which he redeemed from sleep, he devoted to this favourite pursuit, till he had become intimately conversant in the most abstract analyses. In 1682, the learned M. Ozanam having proposed a difficult mathematical problem to exercise the ingenuity of mathematicians, M. Rolle, who was then in his 30th year, soon sent him a very able and clear solution of it, accompanied by methods which he had invented of solving other problems, attended with still greater difficulty. Informed of his merits, the minister Colbert, who delighted in encouraging men of extraordinary genius and abilities, determined to draw him out of the obscurity in which he had hitherto been concealed, and presented him with a handsome gratuity, which was afterwards settled on him as a regular pension. Animated by such distinguished patronage, he gave up his profession of writing-master, and devoted himself wholly to the study of algebra, and the other branches of the pure mathematics. So great was his success, that in 1685, three years only after his name was first known in the mathematical world, he was chosen a member of the Ancient Academy of Sciences. Some time after this, having taught the elements of the mathematics to a son of M. de Louvois, that minister recompensed him for his services by a place in the War-office, of much greater emolument than his seat in the academy. For a while he endeavoured to discharge the duties of both situations; but finding at length that a proper attention to his new appointment was incompatible with his scientific engagements

engagements and pursuits, he without hesitation sacrificed his lucrative place, that he might be at liberty to prosecute his studies without restraint.

In the year 1690, M. Rolle published "A Treatise on Algebra," in which his profound skill and inventive genius in the science were advantageously displayed. This was followed, during the course of the following year, by a new work, entitled, "A Demonstration of a Method for the Resolution of Equations of all degrees; to which succeed two other Methods: by the first of which the same Equations are resolved geometrically; and by the second, several unresolved Questions of Diophantus are answered." In the year 1699, he published a work, entitled, "A Method of resolving indeterminate Questions in Algebra;" and he was appointed second geometrical-pensionary of the Academy of Sciences. About this time he united with that party in the academy which opposed the new geometry, and carried on a controversy against the Marquis de l'Hôpital on the subject of infinitesimals, till the society imposed silence on all the disputants. In the history of the academy for the year 1710, M. Rolle will be found to have taken a leading part in another dispute among some of the members, in which he openly attacked the geometry of Des Cartes, where that philosopher advances his theory concerning the construction of equations. He was of opinion that algebra was capable of very material improvements, and he announced his design of drawing up entirely new elements of that science; but he did not live to carry it into execution. In the year 1708, he had an apoplectic attack, from the effects of which he so far recovered as to be able to pursue his studies with his former vigour; but a second attack of the same disorder, ten years afterwards, was succeeded by a paralytic affection, which totally disqualified him for any future exertions. He died in 1719, when he was in the 68th year of his age, having maintained through life a character estimable for piety, probity, regularity, and amiable manners. Besides the works which are mentioned above, many curious papers were communicated by him to the Academy of Sciences, and may be seen in the volumes of their "Memoirs" from the year when he took his seat in that body till 1714. The following are some of the subjects of them: "A Rule for the Approximation of irrational Cubes;" "Remarks ubon Geometric Lines;" "On the new System of Infinity;" "On the inverse Method of Tangents;" "Method of finding the Face of Geometric Lines of all Kinds;" "On Curves, both Geometrical and Mechanical, with their Radii of Curvature;" "On the Construction of Equations;" "On the Extermination of the unknown Quantities in the Geometrical Analysis;" "Rules and Remarks for the Construction of Equations;" "On the Application of Diophantine Rules to Geometry;" "On a Paradox in Geometric Effections;" and "On Geometric Constructions." *Eloge de M. Rolle par Fontenelle. Hutton's Math. Dict.*

ROLLE (Johann Heinrich), the youngest of three brothers, all eminent musicians, and sons of a father who, as music director at Magdeburgh, had rendered the name illustrious. Henry, who succeeded his father as music-director in his native city, was born in 1718, and died in 1785. He was an excellent composer for the church, as well as author of pieces for the organ and harpsichord of great merit. His oratorio of "Thirsa and her Sons," is full of good taste, new passages, pleasing effects, and true pathos.

ROLLE (Richard), a writer of the 14th century, of the order of Augustine. He was often called the hermit of Hampole, or, simply Richard Hampole. Of his life we know nothing; but have introduced him to our readers merely for the purpose of giving a specimen of the style of writing in his time. He translated the Psalms, wrote the "Twelve Profits of Tribulation," and a long poem, entitled "The Pricke of Conscience." From each of the latter we shall make an extract—premising that the author states he seeks "no straunge ynglys bot lightest and communest."

The seventh Profit of Tribulation is, that it "spreadith abred on opynyth thyne hert to receyve the grace of God. For God, with many strokys of the hammyr spredith abrode a pece of gold or of silver, to make a vessell for to put in wyne or precyouse liqwor.—And considre, as the more precious metalle is more ductible and obeynge to the strokes of the goldsmith; so the more preciouse and meke herte is more paciente in tribulaetion. And allethogh the sharp stroke of tribulaetion turmenteth the, yet comfort the; for the goldsmyth, Alle-myghty God, holdeth the hammer of tribulacion in his hond; and knoweth ful well what thou maiste suffir and mesurith hys smytynge after thi frele nature."

The following is a description of the poet's heaven:—

"Ther is lyf without ony deth,
And ther is youthe without ony elde;
And ther is alle manner soothe to wild:
And ther is reste without ony travaille:—
And ther is pees withoute ony strife
And ther is alle mannere likywye of lyf:—
And ther is bright somer ever to se,
And ther is nevere wynter in that countree:—
And ther is more worshipe and honour,
Then evere hadde kynge other emperour.
And there is grete melodee of aungeles songe
And ther is preysing him amonge
And ther is alle maner frendshipe that may be,
And ther is evere perfect love and charite;
And ther is wisdom without folye
And ther is honeste without vilenye.
All these a man may joyes of hevene call:
Ae yette the most soveryne joye of all,
Is the sight of Goddes bright face
In whom resteth all manere grace."

ROLLE, a town of Switzerland, canton of Vaud. It consists of one long street, has a castle, and stands at the foot of a range of eminences, covered with beautiful vineyards. A number of the inhabitants are watchmakers. Population 2400; 18 miles north-north-east of Geneva.

RO'LLER, *s.* [*rouleau*, Fr.] Any thing turning on its own axis, as a heavy stone to level walks.—When a man tumbles a *roller* down a hill, the man is the violent enforcer of the first motion; but when it is once tumbling, the property of the thing itself continues it. *Hammond.*—The long slender worms, that breed between the skin and flesh in the isle of Ormuz and in India, are generally twisted out upon sticks or *rollers*. *Ray.*

Lady Charlotte, like a stroller,
Sits mounted on the garden *roller*. *Swift.*

Bandage; fillet.—Fasten not your *roller* by tying a knot, lest you hurt your patient. *Wiseman.*—Bandage being chiefly to maintain the due situation of a dressing, surgeons always turn a *roller* with that view. *Sharp.*

ROLLER is also the name of the bird CORACIAS GARRULA, and also a species of AMPILIS.

ROLLESBY, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4½ miles north-east of Acle. Population 385.

ROLLESTON, a parish of England, in Nottinghamshire; 4 miles west-by-south of Newark.

ROLLESTON, or ROLVESTON, a village of England, in Staffordshire, near Burton-upon-Trent. Population 475.

ROLLI (Paolo), a Roman poet, born in 1687, the son of an architect. He was a disciple of the celebrated Gravina, who inspired him with the love of poetry and literature. The earl of Burlington brought him to England, (which he commemorates in the dedication of his opera of "Astarte" to his noble patron,) and attached him to the court as master of the Tuscan language to the princesses.

Rolli did not spend an inactive life in England; for, besides being opera poet to the Royal Academy of Music till it was broke up, teaching his language to the royal family, and many of the first nobility, he published Italian odes, songs, elegies, and endeca sillaba in the manner of Catullus, which were much admired. Besides these he published epigrams,

epigrams, and fine editions in London of the Satires of Ariosto, the complete works of Berni, Varchi, &c. 2 vols. 8vo. much esteemed; the Decamerone of Boccaccio, the Lucretius of Marchetti, Odes of Anacreon, and a translation of Milton's Paradise Lost, in Italian verse, folio.

Upon the death of queen Caroline, his royal protectress, in 1737, he left England, and returned into Italy, where he died in 1767, leaving behind him a very curious cabinet, and a rich library of well-chosen books.

ROLLIN (Charles), an eloquent writer and professor, was born at Paris in 1661. His father was a cutler by trade, and destined his son to the same occupation; but a Benedictine, who had recognised in him a disposition for learning, procured for him an exhibition at the college of Plessis, and he went through his course of classics and philosophy with great applause, and then studied theology for three years at the Sorbonne. He, however, proceeded no farther in the ecclesiastical career than to receive the tonsure, in consequence of the proposal of Hersant, who had been his instructor in classics at the college of Plessis, to make him his successor in the professorship. In 1683, Rollin entered the college as second; in 1687, he was made professor of rhetoric; and in 1688 he obtained the chair of eloquence in the Royal College. He became rector in 1694, and was permitted to occupy that post two years. During his administration, the University of Paris underwent several changes. He revived the study of Greek, substituted academical exercises to the representation of tragedies, and introduced the custom of obliging the scholars to get the Holy Scriptures by heart. He was again rector of the University in 1720, after which he entirely devoted himself to the composition of the works which have rendered his name celebrated. He had been nominated a member of the Academy of Belles-Lettres and Inscriptions in 1701, but not finding himself at leisure to attend to its duties, he obtained permission to be regarded as an honorary member. With a character universally esteemed for kindness, moderation, candour, and sincerity, he died in 1741, at the age of 80.

The writings of Rollin have been popular, both in France and in other countries. Voltaire says of him, that he was the first member of the University who wrote with purity and dignity. He began with establishing his reputation as a classical scholar, by a number of Latin harangues and poems, which have been printed, and by an edition of "Quintilian" for the use of students, with a very instructive preface and notes. His principal works in French are, "Traité de la Manière d'enseigner et d'etudier les Belles-Lettres par Rapport a l'Esprit et au Cœur," 4 vols. 12mo., 1726-28, with a "Supplement" relative to the studies of children, and the education of females. This is a work commendable for the elegance of its style, the purity of its sentiments, and the correctness of its taste; but it has little depth or acumen, and is chiefly characterised by expressing common thoughts agreeably. It has, however, been useful in forming the taste of young persons. Several editions of it have been printed. "L'Histoire Ancienne des Egyptiens, des Carthaginois, des Assyriens, des Babyloniens, &c." 13 vols. 12mo., 1730-38; of this performance, Voltaire says, "that though the latter volumes were written too hastily, and are unequal to the first, yet it is the best historical compilation in any language, because compilers are seldom eloquent, and Rollin was." In fact, the author seems to have written history chiefly for the sake of the reflexions of which it might be the vehicle, and which in this work are numerous, and highly moral and pious, but often trite and prolix. He has also given too much credit to the exaggerations and puerilities of ancient historians; and shews himself destitute of philosophy and critical sagacity. Nothing else indeed could be expected from one who was a firm believer in the miracles of the Abbé Paris, and was accustomed to pray kneeling before his tomb. A similar character may be given of his "Histoire Romaine depuis la Fondation de Rome jusqu'a la Bataille d'Actium," 8 vols. 12mo., of which he had printed only five at his death: it was less popular than the preceding work: His disciple Crevier continued it to the reign of Constantine. Rollin also published Latin translations of several theological works. *Moreri. Nouv. Dict. Hist. Voltaire Siecle.*

ROLLING, the action or operation of drawing a roller over the surface of the ground, with the view of breaking down the clods, rendering it more compact, and bringing it even and level; or for only levelling the surface, as in grass-lands. This is a practice that becomes necessary both upon the tillage and grass-lands, and which is of much utility in both sorts of husbandry. In the former case, it is made use of with different intentions, as for the purpose of breaking down and reducing the cloddy and lumpy parts of the soil in preparing it for the reception of crops. It is also of great use in many cases of light soils, in rendering the surface more firm, even, and solid, after the seed is put in. It is likewise found beneficial to the young crops in the early spring, in various instances. And it is stated by the author of "Practical Agriculture," that in the cases of stiff, heavy and adhesive soils of different kinds, it may frequently be made use of with the first-mentioned intention with very great advantage; but it should only be employed when such lands are tolerably dry, for when drawn over the ground under the contrary circumstances, little benefit can be afforded in the way of pulverization, while much mischief must be produced by the poaching of the horses, and the plastering the earth round the implement. But by using it in the manner just directed, all the lumpy or cloddy parts of the surface soil may be effectually crushed and reduced into a fine powdery state, fit for the reception of the seed. And that if, in such sorts of soil, it be applied, in the intervals between the different harrowings, it may contribute much in the same way, not merely by reducing a great number of the lumps by the pressure that it causes, but by forcing others so much into the ground that they may be acted upon, and further broken down by the fermentation that mostly takes place in the soil after the land has been stirred. In all the light and more porous sorts of soil, very beneficial consequences may also be derived from this operation by the consolidation of surface that is thus produced, and the more perfect retention of moisture, by which the seed, especially if of the small kind, is enabled to vegetate more equally, as well as in a more expeditious manner than would otherwise be the case. It is likewise supposed, that, in cases where lands have been left rough after ploughing, for the purpose of more effectually destroying weeds, it may be of utility, by being employed before the harrows, to give them more power in laying hold of and reducing the soil, and by the pulverization that it affords, and the more perfect retention of moisture that it causes, in consequence of the surface being rendered more close and compact, the seed-weeds are produced more abundantly, and more readily destroyed. It is likewise in these last methods, Mr. Donaldson says, that it proves so highly beneficial in all cases where grass-seeds are sown; as well as by the equality and smoothness of surface that are thereby produced; and it is well observed by the same writer, that if no other benefit were derived from rolling lands in tillage, than smoothing the surface, even that in harvest is of material consequence, more especially where the crops are cut down with the scythe, which is general in most of the southern districts of the kingdom, and which any scarcity of labourers would soon, in all probability, introduce into those of the north. It is also remarked by Mr. Morley, in the fourth volume of Communications to the Board of Agriculture, that old sward, or grass-seeds, upon first breaking up, should always be rolled before dibbling for either wheat, beans, or pease, as it makes the land more solid, and the grain when it vegetates, will form a stronger root. Wheat should always be rolled in the spring after frost, as it will make the soil adhere more closely to the roots of the plants, which very much encourages vegetation, and will cause the stem to be much stronger, and the grain will be brought to greater perfection. Barley and oats should always be rolled when the blades are about an inch above the ground, if the weather permits; and turnips should be rolled at night, soon after the plants make their appearance, which will be a means of destroying a great number of slugs and snails, that are very destructive to the

the young plants. It is supposed by Mr. Somerville, in his Agricultural Survey of East Lothian, that rolling, when conducted in a judicious manner, is highly beneficial, and admits of being much extended, especially upon all winter crops after that season has been severe, and without any regard to soils, as both loams and clays, after much naked frost, have their cohesion so much broken as to leave the plants quite loose, and almost without any establishment. It has also been stated, that the rolling of wheat, rye, barley, &c. with a roller of good length, and half the weight of the common ones, may be advantageous in other ways, as it presses down the soil that has been raised by the frosts about the minute ramifications of the attracting vessels or ducts, and augments the quantity of mould upon them by breaking the little lumps of sod; which indeed were very serviceable in winter by affording shelter, but in spring will still be of greater use, by such imminution in filling up the fissures, and preventing, in a great measure, the ill effects droughts have on light soils, by retaining and filtering rain-water; whereby the soil imbibes whatever is nutritive, and what is superfluous of the simple fluid only escapes.

But it is added, that although these are some of the many advantages rolling produces in agriculture, notwithstanding it amounts to no more than mere conjecture; and that, in general, rolling corn may do more damage than it can good, if such cautions as the following be not carefully attended to; viz. never to roll corn but in dry fresh weather; by no means to use heavy rollers, nor to roll too early, as before the blades be pretty strong, for the wounds that the blades may receive, the roots, being then tender, will be unable ever to recover, nor too late, as, when the stalks are hardened and grown to any height, for the roller will break them, which injury can hardly be repaired, and the crop is thereby greatly hurt; that none but light lands are proper to be rolled with this view, and those which have been manured that or the preceding year with dung only: in short, none but rich, light soils in general, can be improved by rolling in this intention; for in poor lands it opposes the most active principles, and undoes all that has been done for the crop by ploughing, &c. It is consequently concluded, that the soil, the condition, the growth of the corn, the weather, and the weight of the roller, are all to be most scrupulously regarded: when all coincide, the advantages of rolling may be great; but when they do not, the disadvantages may be insuperable. Rolling, then, is, neither the least critical, nor the most insignificant piece of the husbandman's profession; therefore ought not to be performed at random and without circumspection, in cases where young crops are concerned.

Mr. Marshall, in his Rural Economy of Norfolk, in speaking of rolling, remarks, that one circumstance requires to be mentioned, which is, that the roller, notwithstanding the lightness of the soil, and its proneness to be injured by dry weather, is never used in Norfolk for the purpose of compression. He never saw one used by a farmer either upon fallow or upon a lay; not even upon the first year of a cloverlay, to smooth the surface for the scythe. The only uses to which he has seen a roller put, in that district, are that of smoothing the surface before sowing, to prevent the seed from running down too low, and that of smoothing it afterwards as a preparation for the scythe; and even this operation is performed with a roller not more perhaps than seven or eight inches in diameter; a circumstance which he confesses he is no way able to account for; nevertheless, it would be rashness to condemn an established practice, unless he could, from his own experience, or from adequate observations on the experience of others, prove it to be ineligible. And it is stated, that there is a sort of land which when clover is sown upon it, throws out the young plants after a frost. Rolling in the beginning of winter, and immediately after the frost is gone, will, in some measure, prevent this. The first rolling hinders the frost from penetrating so deep as it would otherwise do; and the second makes the land firm, after having been loosened by the change from rost to open weather. In the latter case or that of grass-and, this is also a process that is of much advantage, especially where such lands are kept under the scythe. And it is probable, that in many cases of pasture lands it may be found of great benefit. In the former it is found beneficial in keeping the surface free from hills, and in a more even state, as well as the grass from becoming in so tussocky a condition, as is often the case where the practice is neglected, or not well understood. And in the latter it may perhaps have a similar effect, and keep the grass more free from tufts, and in a more regular condition, which is a circumstance of great consequence in the practice of grazing. It has been remarked, that the impression of the roller not only renders the surface more level and fine, but at the same time induces the grass plants to spread more laterally, and in that way to form a better and more close sward, which may be highly beneficial in both cases. Its importance on new laid-down grass-lands is therefore extremely obvious, as it must be highly serviceable in these different intentions. And the worm-casts are by this means reduced and brought into order, by which means the mowing can be performed with greater facility, and in a closer manner. Besides, it may be useful in other views, as by pressing the mould, as well as the manure, more closely round the roots of the grass plants; and in consequence of such means, they may not only be better established in the soil, and their vigorous growth more effectually promoted, but from the moisture being more fully preserved in the ground, be in less danger of injury from the effects of heat in the summer months, and of course better crops may be afforded at the period of cutting them down. In order to perform this business in the most complete and effectual manner, a roller of considerable weight is necessary, such as has been already described; and it has been advised, in order to prevent as much as possible the ground from being injured by the feet of the animals that draw it, as may frequently be the case where they follow each other in the same part, it may be the best practice to have them yoked double, as by that means there will be less treading on the same portion of the surface; and that where two horses are sufficient to execute the work, more should never be made use of; but if a third should be found necessary, it may be attached as a leader in the middle, before the other two: a greater number of horses can seldom or ever be of any material advantage in this sort of work. It is also suggested as necessary, to be very careful in executing this operation, to see that every part receives the due impression of the implement. On lands where this sort of work is regularly performed, it will seldom be requisite to pass more than once in a place, but in other cases it may often be done more frequently with benefit; and in particular cases, a more frequent repetition of the operation is absolutely requisite, in order to bring the ground into a proper state. It is necessary, in the execution of this business on grass-lands, to attend in a particular manner to the season, as it cannot be performed with advantage, either when the surface is in too dry or too moist a condition. It is stated, that in these cases the work of rolling may be advantageously performed at different seasons, as in the beginning of the autumn, and in the commencement of the year, or very early spring months; but the latter is the most common period. But in order to its being executed with the greatest possible benefit, a time should always be chosen, if possible, when the ground is in a suitable state for receiving the impression of the implement. In the drier descriptions of land it may frequently be performed in the most beneficial manner, after the land has been rendered a little soft by a moderate fall of rain; but in those of the contrary sort, it may be necessary to wait till the superabundant moisture be so much dried up, as to admit the animals employed in drawing the machine, without poaching or otherwise injuring the surface of the ground while the process is going on. It has been remarked by Mr. Boswell, that the rolling of watered meadows should be executed towards the latter end of February or beginning of the following month, after the land has been left in a dry state for a week or ten days. And that the work should be performed lengthwise of the panes, going upon one side of the trenches, and down the other. And in the case of rolling the

the common hay lands, it is a good mode to proceed up one side of the field, and down the other, somewhat in a similar manner, as by that means the work may be the most completely executed, and with the least trouble.

A writer, in the Communications to the Board of Agriculture, mentioned above, has remarked, that sward and meadow land should always be rolled in April or the beginning of May, and when the ground is in a moist state, as it causes the grass to be of a more kind nature, and reduces the hills raised by the ants to a proper state for being mown over.

Likewise on such new grass-lands as have been just restored to the state of sward, and which are often thin and patchy, when seeds are sown over such parts, the roller may frequently be run over them in order to force in the seeds; but a better practice is to turn sheep upon the lands, confining them upon such patches by means of hurdles, in order that they may tread them in. In either case, a rather moist time should be chosen for the purpose. In cases of this nature, where there is a degenerate sward, Mr. Amos, in his Minutes on Agriculture, advises the use of his compound roller, which should be run over the ground early in March, when the sward will admit the spikes without being injured by the feet of the horses, the land being previously covered with well-rotted dung, or compost, in the proportion of from about eight or ten tons to the acre. It should be well rolled in different directions, till the surface sward is pretty much broken, then sowing the grass seed over the land, and after letting it be well dressed with the sward dresser, and all the rubbish collected cleared away, rolling it well down with the plain roller, and admitting no sort of live-stock afterwards upon it. In this method of using the roller vast improvements may, in many cases of degenerated or worn-out grass-lands, be effected, without incurring any very heavy expenses, or much trouble.

ROLLING, in Sea Language, that motion by which a ship vibrates from side to side. Rolling is, therefore, a sort of revolution about an imaginary axis, passing through the centre of gravity of the ship; so that the nearer the centre of gravity is to the keel, the more violent will be the roll; because the centre about which the vibrations are made is placed so low in the bottom, that the resistance made by the keel to the volume of water which it displaces in rolling, bears very little proportion to the force of the vibration above the centre of gravity, the radius of which extends as high as the mast-heads. But if the centre of gravity is placed higher above the keel, the radius of the vibration will not only be diminished, but such an additional force to oppose the motion of rolling will be communicated to that part of the ship's bottom as may contribute to diminish this movement considerably.

It may be observed, that, with respect to the formation of a ship's body, that shape which approaches nearest to a circle is the most liable to roll; as it is evident, that if this be agitated in the water, it will have nothing to restrain it; because the rolling or rotation about its centre displaces no more water than when it remains upright; and hence it becomes necessary to increase the depth of the hold, the rising of the floors, and dead or rising-wood afore and abaft.

ROLLING FORK, a river of Kentucky, which runs into the Ohio. Lat. 37. 47. N. long 86. 18. W.

ROLLING-MILL, in metallurgy, and particularly in the iron manufacture, is a mill for reducing masses of iron or other metals into even parallel bars, or flat thin plates: this is effected by passing the metal, whilst red-hot, between two cylindrical rollers of iron or steel, which are put in motion by the power of the mill; and being so mounted in a strong metal frame, that they cannot recede from each other, they compress the metal which is passed between them, and reduce it to a thickness equal to the space between their surfaces.

It requires a most enormous power to put in motion the rollers which are employed for laminating iron in the large way; and for this reason, the greatest number of rolling-mills are situated upon the banks of rivers which have the advantage of a sufficient fall to turn the machinery. Of late years, the superior power of steam-engines has been adapted to rolling-mills, as the waste heat of the furnaces used for heating the metal may be employed, in part, to raise steam for the engines which turn the roller.

Rolling-mills were not very generally used in the iron manufacture till within these sixty years. The old mills which were first used are extremely simple; two separate water-wheels are placed on the opposite sides of the mill, with their axles in the same direction, but at different heights, so that one wheel can be connected with the upper, and the other with the lower roller: it therefore requires the two wheels to have the water delivered at opposite sides, to make them revolve in different directions, in order that the upper surface of the lower roller, and the under surface of the upper roller, may move in the same direction, and pass the iron between them. The construction of the rollers generally used in such mills is shewn at figs. 1, 2, and 3, of annexed plate, except that the two rollers, F and G, are there shewn with equal pintons, *d* and *e*, fixed upon the ends of their pivots, to compel the two to revolve equally together; whereas, in the mills with two separate wheels, no provision is made to ensure the equal motion of the two. The gudgeons, or necks, of the lower roller, G, are supported in brasses, fitted into strong carriages of iron E, E, which have holes through their ends, to receive four strong iron bolts, A A, B B; these stand perpendicular, and form the frame, to retain the rollers at the proper distance, being fitted through the carriages E with heads below, so that they cannot draw out. The upper ends of the bolts are cut with screws, upon which nuts, *a*, *a*, are fitted; and these being turned round by iron handles or wrenches, screw down the pieces D, D, and advance the rollers nearer together; or, by a contrary motion, increase the distance between them: *i* (fig. 3) is a strong iron bar, extended from one bolt, A, to the other, B, and fixed fast; it supports an iron plate, forming a kind of table before the rollers, to guide the iron through them. The rollers have square heads upon the ends of their gudgeons; and upon these squares, large cast-iron sockets or boxes, as L, are fitted, and these, at the other ends, are fitted upon similar squares on the ends of the water-wheel axis. A little play or looseness is admitted in all these squares, because the upper roller is set at different heights, according to the thickness of the work which is to be rolled between them: this play is required to allow the rollers to move freely, when they are not exactly in the line of the water-wheel axis: it is to accommodate this circumstance that the principal care is required in constructing a rolling-mill. Our readers will gain a good idea of the best proportions of a mill with two independent water-wheels, from the following directions for building one in Northumberland, which were given by Mr. Smeaton upwards of forty years ago. The two water-wheels are to be under-shot, and of different sizes, viz.: 15 ft. 4 in., and 14 ft. 8 in., the mean diameter being 15 ft. The breadths in their float-boards are to be three feet each, the small wheel being laid lower than the other by seven inches: this, with the differences of their diameters, will make the centre of the large wheel eleven inches higher than the other. The different heights of the crowns of the falls or breasts, down which the water descends to act upon the wheels, and the positions of the water-shuttles, are to be so adjusted, that the gates or shuttles being equally drawn up by their starts, the wheels will, as near as possible, revolve in equal times, and with equal power. The rings of the water-wheels are to be made of cast iron, that their weight may act as flies: the ring of the lesser wheel is to be made six inches in thickness by six inches deep, while that of the larger is to be only five by six. The greater quantity of matter in the lesser wheel, therefore, will give it nearly the same momentum as the larger wheel.

The rings of the water-wheels are each to be formed by eight pieces or fellies, the exterior circle of the greater wheel being thirteen feet diameter, and that of the less twelve feet four inches: the length of the fellies is to be about half an inch shorter than their true length, in order to admit an oak wedge

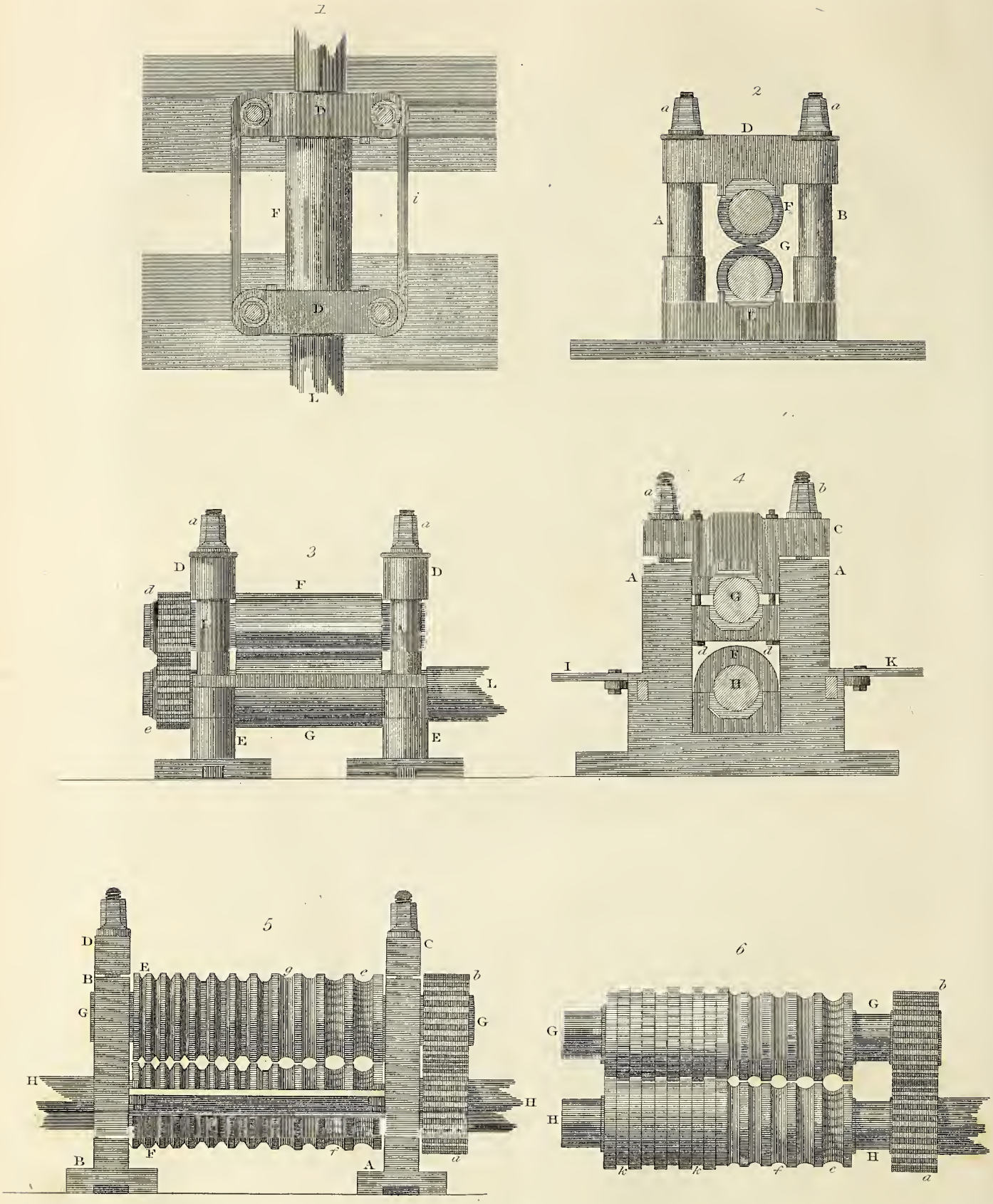
wedge of one inch thick to be introduced into every joint after the rings are screwed together by the joint-plates of wrought iron, which unite the fellies. These plates are to lay upon the plain surface of the felly, and not to be let in as the common wooden rings of water-wheels, in order that the oak wedges may completely fill the joints at the ends of the fellies. The wheels are to have wooden arms, and it must be observed, that the mortises through each of the iron fellies, for receiving the ends of the arms of the wheels, are to be about two inches and a half in width, and that they are to be a little dove-tailed, in their length only, so that the mortises being longer on the outside of the ring, and the wood of the arm being spread into them with wedges, will produce firm ties to the centre; but as a farther security, pins are to be put in after the wedging is completed. The mortises in the rings for the starts, which support the float-boards, are to be four inches by two, without dove-tailing, or rather they should be larger outside than inside. The breast or float-boards will fix by nails into the joints and arms, where they fall; but that the breast-boards for the intermediate floats may also have a fastening, holes of about one inch diameter, and about four inches deep, must be cast in the ring, at the places for every other float; these holes, being filled up with pieces of oak, will afford places to drive the nails for securing the boards. The axles of the water-wheel are to be of cast-iron, with flaunches to screw the arms of the wheel against. The total length of each axle is to be seven feet one inch, and the diameter throughout is to be a circle of nine inches.

The brasses upon which the necks of the water-wheel axles are supported, are intended to be let into cast-iron stocks, which are again supported upon wooden bed-planks, and those upon the cap-stones of the walls, which (under these at least) are supposed to reach all across the thickness of the walls, those necks being first truly and smoothly turned; at each end, beyond the neck, is formed an astragal or moulding, to keep the wheel in its place from moving end-ways. The ends of the axles are terminated by an indented head, shaped somewhat like a square citadel in fortification, and an iron box is fitted upon this to communicate the motion to the rollers, the surface lines of the indented head being formed a little rounding, that the box may not only be certain of taking its bearing in the middle, but likewise be capable of complying with the motion of the rollers; and in order to give still more liberty, the end of the box which is farthest from the water-wheel, is formed into a square of eight inches, which is again surrounded by another box, whose external surface is round. This box is formed at the end of a round spindle, or axis, three feet long, and terminated at the other end with a square of eight inches, which enters one end of a square box, and at its other end receives the square of the roller, supposed to be of six inches, but may be of any other size which is thought necessary. It is to be noted, that all the squares are to be made larger than those of the rollers, in order that they may wear longer; and all the insertions are to be less than those at the end of the water-wheel axles, that the axis may not be rendered useless by the wear or failure of the citadel heads which are introduced, as they are expected to last many years; and if any thing should happen to them, the axles are made alike on both sides of the water-wheels, that they may change ends; therefore, there is nothing of consequence likely to fail by wear or breakage, except the smaller intermediate work between the axles and the rolls, which is easily replaced. Holes are to be made through the boxes and joint parts for iron bolts to pass through rather loosely, so as to prevent the boxes and squares separating, but not to confine the joints from yielding to the motion of the rolls. The water-wheels are supposed to be closely adapted to their conduits, and their axes to remain immoveable as to height, at the difference of eleven inches in level, while the rolls are supposed to vary in their diameter from twelve inches to nine. This will be allowed for, by the distance that the squares upon the rolls are from the end of the axles; for though the house is supposed no more than ten feet wide between the walls, the distance between the middle of the citadel heads at the end of the water-wheel axle, and the middle of the squares of the rolls respectively, is upwards of four feet; and in that length no less than four joints are introduced, every one of which complying a little, a small difference in the height of the roll will produce no sensible difference in the communication of the motion from that of a right line; all the joints being kept oiled or greased, which will not be less proper on that account than to keep the parts from wearing. In order to preserve the directions as near as possible to a right line, Mr. Smeaton proposes that the lower roll shall be placed originally half an inch below the centre of the axis which turns it: suppose the rolls were first made of twelve inches diameter, while the difference of the height of the axis is only eleven, the upper roll will be just half an inch too high, so that the compliance in each will be equal, and no more than half an inch in four feet length. Thus it appears, that when the rolls are reduced by wearing from twelve inches to eleven each, then the upper roll as well as the lower will be half an inch too low for its axis; still neither will need to comply or vacillate more than half an inch. The roll being now of a just diameter to answer the different heights of the axis, let the lower roll be raised to its just height, and then both the rolls will work true till they are further reduced; but when they become reduced to ten inches and an half diameter, the upper roll will become half an inch too low; then raise the under roll half an inch above the line, and the upper roll will then be truly in the line; so that when the upper roll is come down to be half an inch below the line, the rolls will be reduced to ten inches; then raising the under roll a quarter of an inch more, it will be three quarters above the line, and the upper roll will be a quarter of an inch under the line; and when it comes down to three quarters below the line, the rolls will be reduced to nine inches and a half; therefore, lastly, raise the under roll another quarter, so as to be an inch above the line, and the upper roll will be reduced to half an inch below it, so that when it is come down to an inch below it, the rolls will be reduced to nine inches. In this way the departure of the rolls from a right line will never become more than half an inch, while they are reducing from twelve to ten inches; nor more than three quarters, while they are reducing from ten to nine and a half inches; at the worst they will be no more than an inch, while they are reducing from nine and a half to nine inches. The greatest inequality is purposely made at this place, both because the purchase of the wheels is then greatest and most able to overcome an addition of friction, and because the time that they will continue in this state is the least. If the axes are placed at ten and a half inches distance instead of eleven, the vacillation each way will never exceed three quarters of an inch; nor more than one inch to reduce the rolls to eight and a half diameter.

The raising of the under roll is not to be done by raising the whole of the bed of the roller-frame; this is to be set originally half an inch lower than the true line; and when the lower roll requires raising, it is to be effected by putting iron plates under the carriages of the lower roll gudgeons, so that they will stand as much higher than before, and not to make the several rises by additional plates, but to have plates of the different gages, so that each will lay in one solid piece.

Mills, on this construction, are still used in many iron-works for rolling coarse iron bars, but are unfit for any better purpose, from the difficulty of adjusting the two water-wheels to an equal velocity; and if one roller moves quicker than the other, the metal becomes more extended on that side than upon the other, and is thus rendered convex. Another defect is, the want of proper fly-wheels to regulate the mill; for the cast-iron rims to the water-wheels by no means answer the purpose of fly-wheels, unless they are made to revolve so quickly that the water loses much of its effect upon the floats. Fly-wheels are, perhaps, more useful for rolling than in any other kind of mills, because the resistance to be overcome is so variable; being at one moment very great for a large piece of iron, then smaller whilst it is passed through a second time, because the iron is to be less reduced; and

ROLLING MILL.



J. Pass sc.

Machines for rolling bars and plates of Iron.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis, 1826.

and in the interval of returning the iron, to put it through again, there is no other resistance than that of the friction of the machinery. Again, when the iron has been passed through several times, the resistance is greatest of all, because the metal has become harder, both by the compression it has undergone, and from being gradually cooled; also, the metal, being thinner, will not yield so readily to the pressure, as when in a larger mass. By the proper addition of a heavy fly-wheel, great advantages, in point of power, are gained, as it tends to equalize all these irregularities; and in every interval, when the resistance is removed, the water-wheel gives a rapid motion to the fly, the force of which will be returned when the work is applied: in such a mill, if the workmen have an extraordinary large piece of metal to roll, they suffer the mill to work for a few seconds without any resistance, then putting in the iron, it is carried through at once by the momentum of the fly, though requiring a power far beyond the ordinary force of the water-wheel. The most approved method of applying a fly-wheel to a rolling-mill, is to have a large cog-wheel upon the axis of the water-wheel, to give motion to a pinion, upon the axis of which a heavy iron fly-wheel is fixed: the wheel and pinion are of such a size as to make the fly revolve about three times to one of the water-wheel: at the opposite side of the great cog-wheel another pinion, of about half its size, is placed, and to the extremity of its axis produced, the rollers are connected, the two rollers being made to turn together by means of pinions upon the ends of their gudgeons, in the manner shewn at *d e*, fig. 3. If more than one pair of rollers is to be worked, a cog-wheel is fixed upon the axis which turns the rollers, and works another equal wheel upon the axis of the second pair, placed parallel to the former; in this case the lengths of the two axes must be different, so that the lines in which the bars will come through the different rollers, will not interfere with each other, but leave sufficient room between for the men to work. In most common mills, rollers, such as are represented at figs. 1, 2, 3, are employed; but to these there are some objections; first, the four nuts *a*, *a*, cannot all be turned at once with such precision as to bring the upper roller exactly parallel to the other; the means the workmen use for this, is to have a small iron wrench, or handle, fitted upon two of the nuts, *a*, *a*, and these they turn round a small quantity every time the metal has passed through, in the interval whilst it is returned to be put through again. The workman who stands in front to introduce the metal between the rollers, turns the nut on his left-hand side which is nearest to him; whilst his comrade, who receives the metal, and hands it back again to him over the roller, turns the nut on the opposite corner of the frame: by this means, as only two, instead of four, of the nuts are turned, the pieces D are constantly put out of the horizontal position, in which alone they can take a proper bearing; also, in these frames there is no support for the weight of the upper roll; but when there is no metal beneath it, it falls down, and rests upon the other; when the metal is suddenly introduced, it lifts the roll up to its bearing with a jerk, which endangers the breaking of some of the parts, and generally causes the nuts to start a little before they settle themselves to the strain.

In the modern mills, the frames for the rollers are made of cast-iron, as shewn at figs. 4 and 5. The cheeks, A, are cast in one piece, and form a bed for the reception of the brass of the lower roller, H; a piece, C, is fitted upon the top of the cast-iron cheeks, and is held down by two strong wrought-iron bolts, with nuts, *a*, *b*, to screw it down, and regulate the distance between the two rollers, the gudgeon of the upper roller, G, being confined by a brass let into the piece C, but to bear it up from falling: when there is no iron between the two rollers, another brass is placed beneath the gudgeon, G, and suspended by bolts, *d*, *d*, from the piece C; by this means the two rollers are retained always at a proper distance asunder. The two standards A, B, fig. 5, at the opposite end of the rollers, have broad feet at bottom, by means of which they are bolted down to massive ground-sills, which extend all across the mill-house. The rollers E and F are caused to move together equably by means of pinions *a*, *b*, which, that they may work well, are made with accurate teeth, of not more than $1\frac{1}{2}$ or 2 inches pitch, or distance asunder; and, to give the requisite strength, they are made of considerable breadth, as the figure shews. Two large flat iron plates, I and K, are screwed to the two standards, both to strengthen them, and to form a table, upon which the masses to be rolled are laid to be presented to the rollers, and having passed through, are received on that at the opposite side.

The rollers shewn in figs. 4 and 5, have a number of grooves in them, which, being opposite to each other, leave openings of a determinate figure for the purpose of rolling square bars, with the angles upwards; they do not therefore require to be adjusted in distance, as other plain rollers do, but are always, after the first erection, retained at the same distance; in this case the pinions *a* and *b* serve very well to connect the motions of two rollers together; but when the rollers are required to be adjusted during the working, as in the Plate Rollers, fig. 3, the pinions must necessarily have very coarse and long cogs, that they may not be so much affected by increasing or diminishing the distance between their centres; in this case they work very indifferently, and frequently break by the awkward manner in which such coarse teeth always meet each other when upon wheels or pinions of small radius, particularly when the proper distance between their centres is not preserved. As a partial remedy for this difficulty, the pinions are, in some mills, made very broad, with fine teeth, and mounted in a separate frame, exactly similar, except in its strength, to that of the rollers; this is placed at a distance of three or four feet from the rollers; then a coupling, or short shaft, being interposed between the squares at the ends of the axles of the pinions, and those of the rollers, they permit the latter to be adjusted without disturbing the pinions; and the length of the shafts will accommodate for the differences between them.

A rolling-mill generally contains a pair of shears, of a sufficient strength to clip off the ends of the largest iron bars, to reduce them to lengths or pieces of a sufficient size for laminating into thin plates. These are made different from other kinds of shears, in the circumstance that the cutting parts, or edges, are situated between the centre pin or joint, and the part or handle where the power is applied: the latter is of great strength, and made exceedingly strong in iron. The shears are fixed in a vertical position; the upper blade being firmly fixed by the framing, and the lower one, which is the long lever, is lifted up by the mill when the cut is to be made; therefore it descends when the shears are to open, and its own weight is sufficient for that purpose. The frame consists of a very large and thick iron plate, which is securely bolted down to the foundations: at one end is an upright, which has a groove through it, to receive the moving blade, and guide it; also the end of the handle of the stationary or upper blade is supported by the upper end of this upright. The joint-pin of the two blades is supported in a strong socket, or iron frame, also erected from the same large plate, which carries the upright guide at its other end. The two blades, therefore, lie side by side, and having cutters, or blades, of steel, let into the adjacent sides of the iron levers or blades, the edges of these pass by each other when the cut is made, and will thus cut any thing which is interposed between them, in the same manner as shears or scissars.

Rollers are usually made of cast-iron, and are very exactly turned on their surfaces, and also their necks, that they may turn truly when put in their places. The most common way of turning them is, first to mount the roller in a strong turning lathe, by holes or centre points made in its ends; then to turn the two necks truly cylindrical; and afterwards putting the roller in its proper place in the roller-frame, and placing brasses over the necks, they are held down by blocks, fitted under the pieces which retain the gudgeons of the upper roller: in this situation it is put in motion by the mill, and a bar of iron being fixed up for a rest, the surface of the roll is turned true, in the same manner as if it was in a lathe, and will be certain to be exact, being formed from the same necks on which it is afterwards to work. In casting a roller, the

the mould should always be placed at a considerable depth beneath the orifice where the metal is poured in, so that the pressure of a column of the fluid metal may be obtained to consolidate the casting, and render it free from those air-holes, or porous places, which will sometimes occur in metals cast without the pressure of a column. The long piece of metal which filled the aperture through which the metal ran, is left adhering to the roller, and is cut off afterwards. Case-hardened rollers must be used when it is required to have a very fair surface; viz. for such purposes as rolling iron to make thin plates for tinning; also the large rollers for gold or silver, such as are used in the Royal Mint; rollers for making tin-foil, steel-plate for saws, and for many other purposes. These rollers are not hardened by a subsequent process, as in case-hardening wrought iron, but are cast in that state. This is effected by employing iron moulds: a cast-iron cylinder of three inches thick, and its diameter equal to that of the roller, is bored out with great accuracy, and fitted with ends proper to form moulds for the necks required at each end of the roller; this is buried in the sand of the foundry, and when the metal is run into it, the rapid transmission of the heat through the iron mould causes the metal which is in contact with it to cool sooner than the other parts of the mass, and renders the surface of the roller very hard. In turning a roller of this kind, the centres must be chosen so that the circumference turns as true as it will admit, and then a very small quantity being taken off will render it perfect: this care should be taken for two reasons; first, that less will be required to be removed to make it true, which is a difficult operation, as only the best steel tools will cut it; also, that if the metal is unequally reduced, or more on one side than the other, the hardest part will there be cut away, and the roller will have a hard and a soft side, and soon wear out of the circular figure, and require a second turning. The less metal there is turned off a case-hardened roller the better it will be, because the hard part is only a case of slight thickness, and most hard at the surface.

The operation of the rolling-mill is so simple, as scarcely to require any description: the metal is heated in reverberating furnaces when it is in large masses, and for smaller pieces a kind of oven is used, in which the cokes are laid on the bottom or floor of the oven without any grate-bars, and therefore the draft of air being less rapid, it gives a slight, but very regular heat, which rises to a bright red, but no farther, and therefore it does not waste the iron by burning it to scales, as a greater heat and current of air will do. This oven is proper for heating plates, hoops, or small bars, to be rolled a second and third time: but for rolling large masses, a strong welding heat is requisite, that the metal may be consolidated, and all flaws or cracks securely closed. The reverberating furnace is used for this purpose.

The iron, being heated in the furnace to the proper degree for the purpose which is intended, is taken out by a pair of pincers, the mill put in motion by drawing the shuttle, and the iron is presented to the rollers, which are previously adjusted to the thickness of the piece which is to be passed. If this is not attended to, and the workmen attempt to reduce the iron too much at one time, there is danger of breaking some of the machinery, or of stopping the mill whilst the iron is only half passed through: this is a disagreeable accident, as it will require four or five men, with an enormous wrench applied to the nuts of the roller, to turn them back sufficiently to relieve the rollers, so forcibly are the screws pressed whilst the iron is passing through: this is indeed evinced by the circumstance of solid cast-iron rollers, of ten inches in diameter, being sometimes broken in the middle; and the necks of eight and nine inches are frequently snapped. When the iron is placed on the shelf or table before them, their motion will draw it through, and as they cannot recede from each other, because of the nuts of the bolts, the metal is reduced to the exact thickness of the space between them, increasing in length, but not at all in breadth: the iron is caught by another workman behind the rollers, and returned over the top roller to the first man, who puts it through again, first giving the handles of the nuts a small turn, to bring the rolls nearer together. In this manner it is repeatedly rolled, till it is reduced to any required length and thickness, but the breadth is not at all increased by rolling; and if it is required to increase the breadth, it is done by putting the iron obliquely through the rollers; or if a great increase is wanted, the iron is put through breadth-wise two or three times, till it is extended to the length of a gauge which the workman has marked upon the table in front.

Black-plates, such as are used for making the boilers of steam engines, tanks, or other large vessels, in wrought iron, are, when large, and of considerable thickness, rolled from the blooms, or half blooms, which are made under the forge-hammer. These blooms, which are also called slabs, are nearly the length of the intended plate; their breadth about one-half or one-third as much as their length, and of a thickness to contain as much metal as will make two, three, or four plates. These pieces, when heated to a white heat, are presented breadth-wise to the rollers, and passed through several times at the same heat, until what was the breadth of the bloom, being extended two or three times as great, becomes equal to its length. The thick square plate, thus formed, is now cut up by the shears across into two or three pieces, of about the same size as the first, but in a direction which will make what was the length of the first piece to be the breadth of the second. These pieces being heated and rolled again, become extended to the size of the required plates: the reason of thus dividing the operation is, that the rolling only extends the metal in the direction in which it moves, and not at all in breadth: by this means, the particles of iron being drawn by the sides of one another, acquire something of a fibrous texture, or an approach thereto, which is desirable in bars, rods, and hoops, but not at all in plate, as it should be equally strong, in either direction; therefore, by rolling it first one way, and then the other, the grain, as far as it is produced at all, is in both directions. There is no doubt that better plate would be made, if the slabs or original pieces were cut to the proper proportions of length and breadth, and of a thickness to form only one piece; then rolling it alternately length and breadth ways every time it is passed between the rolls, and continuing this till the plate is finished, at one heat; a better grain or texture will be thus acquired, because, in the former method, it will be weaker one way, having something of a grain in the direction of the last rolling.

Plates which are to be tinned, are made from the best English iron, and some of the very thinnest from foreign iron: the bars are drawn out, by the forge-hammer, to five inches broad, and half a inch thick, and are cut into lengths of eleven inches by the shears; these are heated in an oven, and passed breadthways through case-hardened rolls: this is repeated till they are extended to twice the length of the intended plates: the pieces are then folded, and set on edge in the furnace till properly heated, when they are rolled double, the fold being put in first; they are thus extended to twice the length of the folded plate. Now two men, with strong tongs, tear the two leaves asunder at the fold, and fold each again separately, putting one into the other, like two sheets of paper; in this state they are heated, and rolled four thicknesses together, the next time eight, and so on, till the plate is reduced to the required thickness: in the very thinnest plate, such as is used for tagging laces, sixteen leaves are rolled together. In folding the plates, care is taken every time to put a new surface of metal outside, otherwise, those which were constantly reduced by the pressure of the adjacent leaves, would, at length, become grained on the surface; but by continually gaining new surfaces, which are smoothed by the immediate contact of the rollers, those which are laid against them are also rendered smooth. A small quantity of oil is sprinkled between the leaves, when they are first put in, and instantly spreading over the whole surface, prevents any adhesion; the plates are dressed square by the shears every time before they are folded, to remove those parts which, by projecting over the edges of the upper leaves, are not so much reduced.

After

After being finished, dressed square, and the surface scowered, the plates are rolled, singly, between a pair of polished case-hardened rolls, without being heated; they are therefore extended but little in size, though rendered much harder, and more stiff. Tin-foil is rolled much in the same manner as the plates for tinning, but of course without heating.

There is a modern invention in the manufacturing of bar-iron, by which the rollers are substituted for the forge-hammer to work the metal, in the process of rendering it malleable. This method is only used in conjunction with the puddling process (that is, converting cast-iron into a malleable state by decarbonating it in a reverberating furnace); in this process the metal becomes divided into grains the size of mustard seeds, with a very slight cohesion, and full of interstices between the grains; it therefore requires to be stamped, or hammered, at a welding heat, into a solid mass; but rolling will also answer the purpose.

This was first discovered by the late Mr. Wilkinson, who had, in his extensive works at Brosely, in Shropshire, a pair of enormous rollers, moved by the beam of the steam engine, not with a rotatory, but with a reciprocating motion; they were five feet diameter, near ten feet long, and weighed almost five tons each, although cast hollow, like garden rollers; sectors were fixed on the ends of the gudgeons, to turn each other, as they did not make above one-third of a revolution, and then moved back again. The circumference of the rolls were grooved with grooves, gradually diminishing from one end to the other, in the same manner as the rollers shewn in fig. 4. The mass of iron to be rolled was collected into a ball in the furnace, which was taken out, and passed through the greatest of the grooves. When it came through, a workman at the opposite side removed the ball to the next smallest groove, and by the returning motion of the rollers, it was carried back again to the front: the front workman then returned it in another groove, and so on, passing successively through the different grooves, until, by gradual consolidation, it was reduced to an imperfect bar of malleable iron. A number of these, being cut into lengths, were made up into faggots, or piles, and by a pair of rotatory rollers finished into bars. Mr. Wilkinson had a patent for this machine, but it was afterwards found that other rollers would effect the purpose better. In fig. 5 of the plate is a view of a pair taken from Mr. Samuel Smith's works, at Sheffield, Yorkshire, a gentleman who, we believe, was the first who brought them into use; the two grooves *e* and *f* are very coarse, and have teeth, that they may, more certainly, draw in the balls. The two next grooves are plain but concave, and the remainder are angular, to form square bars when the ball becomes consolidated. The use of these rollers is very similar to those we have just described, the ball of metal being taken from the furnace and presented to the rolls. As soon as the metal comes through the rollers, a workman behind lifts it over the upper roll to the first workman, who puts it between them again: in this manner the metal is rolled ten or twelve times, being put through a smaller groove of the rollers at each time, so as to compress it in a greater degree every time, till at last it is reduced to a tolerable square bar; but the last groove E, fig. 5, has teeth in different parts of the groove, and at such distances from each other, that they will indent so deeply upon the angles of the bars, at every eight or ten inches of their length, as to render it easy to break them into short pieces when they come through. The pieces, thus formed, are piled four together, and put into a ball-furnace, and, when heated, they are rolled into bars, by rollers shewn at fig. 6, which, at the first five grooves, *e*, *f*, are similar to the former, but the succeeding grooves, *k*, *k*, are made to receive the rings of the opposite roll, leaving small rectangular spaces, through which the iron, being passed, is reduced to a parallel smooth bar. The successive grooves through which it is passed are each made narrower than the preceding, so as to reduce the bars to the width and thickness intended, in which state they are sent to market, or if required for the nail rods, or hoops, are cut up by the slitters. The rollers are thought to inclose the impurities in the iron, rather than expel them; so that at present the rolled iron is not so good in quality as the hammered.

The rolling-mill is not confined to the laminating of iron, but is likewise employed very extensively for reducing brass, copper, tin, lead, as well as gold and silver, into plates and bars. The latter metals are scarcely ever reduced by any other means than rolling; as this method makes no waste, is the most expeditious, and produces better work than hammering, or any other method, particularly when as equality of thickness and an even surface are desired; such, for example, as gold or silver, which is always to receive a polish; in these cases the rollers are made of steel hardened and polished on the surface with the most scrupulous nicety, that they may produce a perfect surface on the matters which have been passed through them.

RO'LLINGPIN, *s.* A round piece of wood tapering at each end, with which paste is moulded.—The pin should be as thick as a *rollingpin*. *Wiseman.*

RO'LLING-PRESS, *s.* A cylinder rolling upon another cylinder by which engravers print their plates upon paper.—Not long after the art of printing was made public, the invention of the *rolling-press* was discovered. *Massey.*

ROLLO, first Duke of Normandy, was originally a chieftain or petty prince in Denmark. The king of that country having in vain endeavoured by force to subdue his small territory, lulled him into security by a treaty, and then perfidiously falling upon him, killed his brother and many of his officers, and obliged him to take refuge in Scandinavia. Rollo there collected a body of adventurers from different northern regions, whom he further attached to his cause by a pretended vision of future success, and then made an attempt upon England in the latter end of Alfred's reign. The order introduced by that great prince having rendered it difficult for him to reap a harvest of plunder in that country, he directed his enterprizes to France, and sailing up the Seine, committed great ravages, and obtained possession of the city of Rouen. Making that his head-quarters, he extended his conquests in Neustria, and became so formidable, that Charles the Simple, at that time on the throne of France, made a treaty with him in 912, by which he gave him in marriage his daughter Gisele, with the part of Neustria, since called Normandy for her dower, on the conditions that Rollo should do homage for his territory, and embrace the Christian religion. He also for a time was to hold Brittany, till Normandy should have recovered from the ravages it had undergone. Rollo willingly submitted to the rite of baptism, in which he had Robert Duke of France, for his sponsor, whose name he assumed; but in the ceremony of doing homage, he disdained the usual formality of kneeling before the king and kissing his foot. One of his officers, who was appointed to represent him on this occasion, rudely caught the king's foot, and by suddenly raising it, was near throwing his majesty upon his back; and it was necessary to pass over this insult as a jest, so low had the royal authority fallen.

In governing the dukedom which he had gained by his sword, the Dane shewed nothing of the barbarian. He divided the land among his followers upon the feudal tenure, established magistracies in the different districts, and took care that law and justice were exactly administered. He severely punished robbery and pillage, treated his French subjects with mildness and equity, founded bishoprics and religious houses, and acted in all respects like an enlightened sovereign. Such was the reputation of his government, that the country shortly recovered its population and wealth, and many of his roving countrymen settled in Normandy, and became useful and regular subjects. To him is attributed the institution of the exchequer, or ambulatory parliament, which at a latter period became stationary at Rouen. At length, worn out by age and fatigue, in 927 he abdicated in favour of his son William, which act he is said to have survived five years, and then to have died in peace. *Hume's Hist. Millot. Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

ROLLOCK (Robert), a learned Scotch divine and theological

logical professor in the 16th century, was born not far from Stirling, in the year 1556. He studied the classics and the belles-lettres, under Thomas Buchanan, who then kept a school which was in very high repute. From his seminary young Rollock was sent to St. Saviour's College, in the University of St. Andrew's, where he went through his course of philosophy, and so eminently distinguished himself, that he had no sooner taken the degree of M. A. than he was chosen regent of his college. In the year 1580, the magistrates of Edinburgh, being desirous of having a college under their jurisdiction, to be erected and maintained by the public and private benevolence of the citizens, petitioned King James VI. for permission to establish such an institution, and received from him a charter under the great seal, allowing them the full liberty and privilege of an university within their city. Having finished the building in the year 1582, they proceeded to choose proper professors, and were induced, by the fame of his learning, moderation, and piety, to elect to the office of principal and first professor of divinity, Mr. Rollock, though he was not then 28 years of age. On the duties of these appointments he entered in 1583, and displayed so much assiduity and zeal, both in his lectures at college, and in his sermons to the people, while his life was a bright and uniform pattern of pious and virtuous conduct, that he acquired the respect and esteem of all ranks of persons. His high character brought numerous students to the new university, from distant parts of the kingdom, and some of the greatest Scotch divines in that age were educated under him. He died in the month of February, 1598, when he had only reached the 43d year of his age. He was the author of the following works, which reflected honour on his assiduity as a writer, and on the extent of his acquaintance with theological and biblical literature: "In selectos aliquot Psalmos Davidis Commentarius," 1610, 8vo.; "In Danielem Prophet. Comment.;" "In Evangelium sec. Sanct. Johannem Commentarius," 1608, 8vo.; "In Epistolam S. Pauli ad Romanos Comment.," 1608, 8vo.; "In Epistolam S. Pauli ad Colossenses Comment.," 1602, 8vo.; "Analysis Logica in Epist. Pauli Apost. ad Galatas," 1603, 8vo.; and "Analysis Logica in Epistolam ad Hebræos," 1610, 8vo. He also published some "Sermons," and devotional treatises, which were held in estimation till the language of the author's time became obsolete. *Spotswood's History of the Church of Scotland. Moreri.*

ROLLO'S HEAD, a cape on the west coast of the island of Dominica; 3 miles south of Prince Rupert's Head.

ROLLONA, a river of St. Domingo, in the part which formerly belonged to the French, which runs south-south-east, and enters the sea between the port of Leogane and the river del Estero.

ROLLRIGHT, GREAT, a parish of England in Oxfordshire; 3 miles north-by-east of Chipping Norton. Population 362.

RO'LLY-POOLY, *s.* A sort of game, in which, when a ball rolls into a certain place, it wins. A corruption of *roll ball into the pool.*—Let us begin some diversion; what d'ye think of *roulpouly*, or a country dance? *Arbuthnot.*

ROLO, ROLLO, or RIVOLO, a small town of Italy, in the duchy of Modena, between Novellara and Mirandola.

ROLPAH, a town of Hindostan, and capital of a district of the same name, province of Nepaul. As it has not been visited by any European, little more is known about it than that it is situated in the mountains, in a woody country, and that the town is governed by a chief who pays an annual tribute to the rajah of Nepaul. Lat. 29. 22. N. long 82. 5. E.

ROLSTON, a village of England, in Staffordshire, near Tutbury and the confluence of the Dove and Trent.

ROLVENDEN, a parish of England in Kent; 2½ miles south-west-by-west of Tenterden. Population 1130.

ROM, a village in the west of France, department of the Two Sevres. It is situated on the Dive, and contains 1300 inhabitants.

ROM, a small island of Denmark, on the west coast of the duchy of Sleswick, about eight miles long and two broad, with 1500 inhabitants. Lat. 55. 9. N. long 8. 31. E.

ROMA, CAMPAGNA DI. See CAMPAGNA.

ROMA, an island in the eastern seas, about 20 miles long, and from 6 to 12 broad. Lat. 7. 35. N. long. 127. 20. E.

RO'MAGE, *s.* A tumult; a bustle; an active and tumultuous search for any thing. It is commonly written RUMMAGE, which see.

This is the chief head
Of this post haste and *romage* in the land. *Shakspeare.*

To RO'MAGE, *v. n.* [properly RUMMAGE.] To search. —Upon this they fell again to *romage* the will. *Swift.*

ROMAGNA, the former name of a province of the east of Italy, in the States of the Church, bounded by the Adriatic, the duchy of Urbino, Bologna, and the Ferrarese. It is about 45 miles in length, and 30 in breadth, and abounds in corn, wine, olives, and silk. Its pastures are good in certain parts, and in others there are minerals of different kinds. The capital is Ravenna.

ROMAGNANO, a small town of the continental Sardinian states; 20 miles north of Vercelli.

ROMAGNESE, a town of the Sardinian states, province of Bobbio, on the river Ridone. Population 3200.

ROMAGNIEU, a village of France, department of the Isere. Population 1200.

ROMAIN, the name of a plant, cultivated in the fields in many parts of the world, particularly in France, and called, by our farmers, French vetches, or French tares. It is an annual plant, but a very quick grower, and is extremely good food for cattle, particularly for horses: they let these creatures feed on it all the former part of the summer, and then cut it for hay in August or September. Its short continuance in the ground makes it less valuable than saint-foin and clover; but it has this advantage over them, that it will grow on poor ground.

ROMAINE (William), a very popular divine of the church of England, was born at Durham in 1714, and educated at Hertford college, Oxford; from whence he removed to Christ-church, where he took his degrees in arts. On entering into holy orders, he became a frequent preacher before the university, and was noted for his zeal in behalf of what were deemed the orthodox doctrines. He removed to London in 1749, and became lecturer at St. Dunstan's church, Fleet-street. He was, for a short time, morning preacher at St. George, Hanover-Square, and professor of astronomy at Gresham college, which situation he soon resigned. In 1764 he was chosen of St. Anne, Blackfriars, where, and at St. Dunstan's, he continued to preach to large and very crowded congregations almost to his death, which happened in the year 1795. Towards the close of life his voice was feeble, but his manner was very impressive. His works, which are theological, and on the Calvinistical scheme, have been collected in 8 vols. 8vo. He was editor of Calasio's Concordance to the Hebrew Bible, in 4 vols. folio, in 1749; in which, it is said, he made some unwarrantable alterations to serve the Hutchinsonian doctrine.

ROMAIN DE BROU, ST. See BROU.

ROMAIN DE COLBOSC., ST., a town of France, department of the Lower Seine. Population 1200; 12 miles east by north of Havre de Grace.

ROMAINVILLE, a village of France; 5 miles east of Paris, with a fine castle and park, and 1000 inhabitants.

ROMALD KIRK, a village of England, North Riding of Yorkshire, on the Tees; 10 miles north-west of Gretabridge.

RO'MAN, *s.* [*Romanus*, Lat.] A native of Rome; one of the people of Rome; a freeman of Rome. — Quintus Memmius and Titus Manlius, ambassadors of the *Romans*, send greeting unto the people of the Jews. 2 *Macc.* xi. 34. —The chief captain came, and said unto him, Tell me, art

art thou a *Roman?* He said, Yea. And the chief captain answered, With a great sum obtained I this freedom. And Paul said, But I was free born. *Acts*, xxii. 27.—A papist. —Whether doth the Jew romanize, or the *Roman* judaize, in his devotions. *Lightfoot.*

ROMAN, *adj.* Relating to the people of Rome.—In Augustus's time, they [the Jews] were in a low state, reduced under the *Roman* yoke. *Sherlock.*—Popish; professing the religion of the pope of Rome.—These are the chief grounds upon which we separate from the *Roman* communion. *Burnet.*—When you are in *Roman*-Catholic countries, go to their churches, see all their ceremonies. *Ld. Chesterfield.*

ROMAN (John-Helmich), a celebrated Swedish composer and musician, was born at Stockholm, in 1694. He displayed an early taste for music, and in 1714 was sent to England at the expense of Queen Ulrica Eleonora, in order that he might study thorough bass and composition under those celebrated masters, Handel and Pepusch. During his residence in this country, he was patronised by the Duchesses of Marlborough and Newcastle, and resided three years in the house of the latter. In 1721 he went back to Sweden, and in 1727 was appointed master of the band in the Royal Chapel; but in 1735 he undertook another tour into foreign parts, first visiting England, and then proceeding to France and Italy, where he was much esteemed by the most celebrated performers and amateurs of the time. On his return to Sweden, in 1740, he was honoured with a place in the Academy of Sciences to the transactions of which, for the years 1741 and 1747, he contributed two papers; one on a method to bleach linen, and another on the fitness of the Swedish language for church music. As a composer, he possessed the necessary knowledge of the mathematics, as well as poetry; and he was acquainted with the principal languages of Europe. His works, comprehending anthems and other pieces, some of which were composed for the interment of the Swedish kings in 1742 and 1751, for the coronation in the latter year, and on various other occasions, bear honourable testimony to his abilities, and entitle him to be styled the father of the Swedish music. He continued to compose till the last period of his life, which he spent in retirement at Calmar, where he died in the year 1758. *Gezelii Biographiska Lexicon.*

ROMAN, a town of European Turkey, in Moldavia, situated at the junction of the rivers Moldavia and Sereth. It is the see of a Greek bishop, and has the remains of Roman walls; 45 miles west-south-west of Jassy, and 145 west of Bender.

ROMAN, CAPE, a cape on the coast of South Carolina. From hence to Charleston light-house the course is west-south-west ½ west 21 leagues. Lat. 33. 5. N. long. 79. 30. W.

ROMAN, CAPE, a cape on the coast of Florida; 20½ leagues north-west-by-north of Cape Sable, the south-west point of the peninsula of Florida.

ROMAN, CAPE OF, a point of land on the coast of Venezuela, and New Kingdom of Granada.

ROMANA, a small town in the north of Spain, in Arragon, near the influx of the Aguas into the Ebro.

ROMANA, a river of St. Domingo, which enters the sea in the bay of Caballos.

ROMANBY, a village of England, North Riding of Yorkshire, near Northallerton.

ROMANCE, *s.* [*Roman*, Germ. and French, *Romanza*, Ital.] "A military fable of the middle ages; a tale of wild adventures in war or love." Such is the definition of Johnson; and it is, in our opinion, a most accurate one. Nevertheless, as is well known, Sir W. Scott (than whom no one ought to know better what a romance is) takes exception to this definition, as not sufficiently comprehensive. He affirms that "a composition may be a legitimate romance, yet neither refer to love or chivalry—to war, nor to the middle ages:" and he proposes to describe a romance as "a fictitious narrative in prose or verse, the interest of which turns upon marvellous and uncommon incidents;" which description would equally embrace the Odyssey of Homer and the Adventures of Baron Munchausen.

Before the enchanter of the north attempted to try his strength with the great English lexicographer, he should have learnt what is proposed in a definition; for he seems to think it is what a word may be *made* to mean, whereas a little reflexion might have shewn him that it is what a word really *does* imply in general acceptation and with the best authors. That Dr. Johnson's exposition of this word meets exactly the common use of the term no one can deny who attends to the secondary meanings of its derivatives. What other do persons intend when they speak of a *romantic youth*, or a *romantic poem*, than one exalted beyond the natural bounds of propriety and chaste feeling,—one indeed, in whom the artificial virtue that distinguished the age of chivalry is predominant. The mixture of love, religion, and valour, into one overwhelming motion of action and rule of behaviour, is the marked and distinguishing stamp of the age of chivalry. Such also is an essential ingredient in our notions of romance. In the writings of the Greeks we behold heroism, and marvellous and supernatural adventure, but nothing that is romantic—nothing that would be like a tale of the middle ages, even were the names of the actors and countries changed. The motive of every action is in the Odyssey plain and direct, and the love of glory, the fear of the gods, or sensual appetites, rule by turns the heroes of the tale. Who does not feel that here is a wide difference in character from those renowned knights who are fabled to have cast away all thoughts of the world of dull reality, and to have moved and had their being in an atmosphere far exalted by pure love and transcendant devotion, above our sublunary sphere—and who can fail to see that if modern licence and the deficiency of language has applied the term romance to works of a mixed character, it is only because a tinge of the chivalrous spirit still elevates the nature of these productions, and animates them with an ethereal light. It must be granted that the scene of a few modern works, called romances, is laid in the last century, but these are all imbued with the expressions of pure and fervent attachments to the fair sex, and disinterested valour in the field, and so far identify themselves with the old romance. It is evident, nevertheless, that as we have no word for a serious fiction of human life, the term romance must assume this meaning, as tragedy, once only a representation of suffering, is gradually becoming a name for all dramas that deal in the strong passions of our nature, and comedy is embracing, in the delineation of manners, one particular department wherein nothing comic is to be found. Still as these serious fictions can never be expected to please in the plain and true language of nature, unless adorned by a romantic colouring, they must necessarily comply with the definition we have copied.

Romances were originally so called from the language in which compositions of this species were first composed. The name evidently points to a Latin or Roman origin, and the first and obvious presumption might be, that the vulgar Latin or Italian was identical with the romance language. Such however was not the case. The earliest romance pieces are Gallic, and the language is evidently compounded of the Celtic and Latin. It probably underwent in different courts different modifications; but there are pretty clear proofs that it was the early language of the courts of Spain and France, and even of England under Alfred, as well as (with some changes) under the Norman race of kings. Its extensive diffusion admits of an easy explanation, when we reflect that the conversion of the barbarians to Christianity necessarily introduced all desirous of knowledge, or refinements, to the study and colloquy of the Latin, the only medium of knowledge of any kind. The rude chiefs of course modified this language in various measures, and the soft provincial and Italian is especially contrasted by the rougher and more sonorous romance of the Normans. Still we cannot believe that the romance language ever was, in France, England, or Spain, the general language of the people, on account of the complete

plete dissolution it has undergone. The increase of population, the dismemberment of states, and the establishment of popular rights, annihilated a language which, if our theory be true, was nearly confined to kings, nobles, and their immediate dependents. It is only in one part of the continent that the Roman language has remained as part of the popular dialect. This is in Rhœtia, where Mr. Planta (Phil. Trans. v. 66.) found a tribe of people still speaking what they called Romansh, and near them another race conversing in *Ladin*. Both these languages were, according to his researches, very early offsets from the Latin, modified by a Celtic construction. This learned author traces the general diffusion of this tongue through other parts of Gaul, but not with sufficient exactness to establish it as a general and universal language of France. The Latin certainly assimilated itself far more intimately with the French and Spanish than with the Saxon, or any of the more northern languages, but the final dissolution of the romance tongue can be accounted for on no other supposition than that it was confined to courts and their dependents. Of this fact the evidence is sufficiently clear as far as regards our own country. With respect to the continent, it is not so apparent, and Mr. Planta accordingly infers, that "There are *incontestible proofs* that this language was once universal all over France; and that this, and not immediately the Latin, hath been the parent of the Provençal, and afterwards of the modern French, the Italian, and the Spanish. The oath taken by Lewis the Germanic, in the year 842, in confirmation of an alliance between him and Charles the Bold, his brother, is a decisive proof of the general use of the Romance by the whole French nation at that time, and of their little knowledge of the Teutonic, which, being the native tongue of Lewis, would certainly have been used by him in this oath, had it been understood by the French to whom he addressed himself. But Nithandus, a contemporary writer and near relation to the contracting parties, informs us that Lewis took the oath in the Romance language, in order that it might be understood by the French nobility who were the subjects of Charles; and that they, in their turn, entered into reciprocal engagements in *their own language* which the same author again declares to have been the Romance, and not the Teutonic; although one would imagine, had they at all understood this latter tongue, they could not but have used it upon this occasion, in return for the condescension of Lewis."

It is obvious, that we are presented here with no proof that the language in question was universal. That it was the fashionable and prevalent language of the barons, and just such as would result from their ignorant modifications of that Latin in which they had been taught Christianity, is evident. But that the peasantry, who are the bulk of all rude nations, had adopted it, is not apparent. Conquered nations rarely imbibe the language of their conquerors. The proportion of the conquered to their rulers is always so great, that a return (or at least a close approximation) to the aboriginal language is sure to occur. That the oath of Lewis, and the reply of the nobles, had not, of necessity, any connection with the language of the vulgar is shewn by what is mentioned in the same paper with regard to England, namely, that the Romance was, under *Edward the Confessor*, "not only used at court, but frequently at the bar, and even sometimes in the pulpit." Yet, in this instance, no one believes that Romance was the language of the Britons.

But a second difficulty occurs to the hypothesis, that the Romance was a prevalent and popular language. Mabillon tells us, that in the eighth century a Spaniard, conversing with a foreign monk, was able to understand him, *because he was an Italian;* Planta heard of two Catalonians who travelled over the Alps and found the *Grisons* (the inhabitants of Rhœtia before referred to,) speaking nearly the same tongue as their own. The assizes, or laws of Jerusalem, written at the time of Godfrey de Bouillon, are also in Romance; and Du Cange says, that this language was known in Scotland. Surely this general diffusion of the language shews, that it could not be popularly spoken. That it was the language of courtiers and barons, easily adapting itself to the interpolations of the speaker, and forming a general means of communication between the rulers and the more enlightened subjects of different countries, may, we think, fairly be admitted. At the same time it must be granted, that the subject is difficult of investigation; for there is reason to think, that all the more northern nations applied the term Romance to the language of their southern neighbours. Thus Giraldus Cambrensis applied the word to the English: speaking of the Frith of Forth, he says, "Scotice vocata est *Froth*, Brittanice (Welsh) *Weird;* Romane vero *Scotte Watre*." And, indeed, it was often applied in very loose fashion.

Of all the languages at present in existence, the nearest to the old Roman is certainly the French, and afterwards comes the Spanish. The great coincidence between the old French and the Roman, and again betwixt the latter and the Latin, may be seen by the following copies of the oath of Louis the Germanic before adverted to.

Romance.—Pro Deu amar, et pro Christian poblo, et nostro commun salvament, d'ist di en avant, in quant Deus savir et podir me dunat, si salvarai io cist meon fradre Karlo, et in adjudah ir in cadhuna cosa, si cum om per droit son fardre salvar dist, in o quod il me altresi fazit; et al Ludher nul placid namquam prindrai qui meon vol cist meon fradre Karle in damno sit.

French of the 12th century.—Por Deu amor, et por Christian pople, et nostre commun salvament de ste di en avant en quant Deu saveir et poir me donne, si salvarai je cist mon frere Karle et en adjude serai en cascune cose, si cum om per dreict son frere salver dist, en o qui il me altresi fascet; et a Lothaire nul placid nonques prendrai qui par mon voil a cist mon frere Karle en dam seit.

Latin.—Pro Dei amore, et pro Christiano populo et nostro communi salvamento, de ista die in abante, in quantum Deus sapere et posse mihi donat, sic salvabo ego eccistum meum fratrem Karlum, et in adjutum ero, in quaque una causa, sic quomodo homo per directum suam fratrem salvere debet, in hoc quod ille mihi alterum sic faceret; et ab Lothario nullum placitum numquam prehendam quod meo volle eccisti meo fratri Karlo in damno sit.

By a natural and easy transition, the word which at first only applied to the language in which these compositions were most commonly composed, became used to designate the compositions themselves. The long reign of the minstrels, the liberal rewards that were showered on them, and their probable origin, has been fully entered into in the article POETRY. The change that converted the minstrel effusions of these bards into the prose romance, was gradual. To trace its causes would, if we had leisure, prove no doubt highly amusing. Being confined by our limits, we must content ourselves with throwing out the conjecture, that the introduction of prose was not owing (as has been asserted) either to barrenness of invention, on the part of the minstrels, or to any satiety on the part of their patrons, either of their works or manners; but it arose from an avidity for adventure so natural to all who delight in works of fiction: an appetite for marvellous stories too impatient to regard the style in which they were conveyed. The ornaments of verse and its accompanying music were so rude and monotonous, that the ear easily forgave their omission in the more ardent pursuit of the narratives they embodied. Prose, likewise, is even in the hands of the unskilful, far more capable of deluding its readers into a belief of its reality, than the most exquisite verse; it is the language of actual life, and admits of all that minute description of time, place, dress, person, and circumstances, which constitutes the most effectual method of clothing falsehood with the semblance of truth. How essential the early romancers held this point is declared by the reiterated assertions with which they commenced every narrative, that it was a true history; that it was gained from the original work of some renowned and veracious ancient writer, and the like. Thus the author or translator (as he would be thought) of "La tres elegante, delicieux, melliflue et tres plaisante hystoire du tres noble roi Perceforest"

Perceforest" (printed in 1528), avers the following rigmarole concerning its discovery. In the year 1286, Count William of Hainault had, it is affirmed, crossed the seas in order to be present at the nuptials of Edward, and in the course of a tour through Britain, was hospitably entertained at an abbey situated on the banks of the Humber, and termed, it seems, Burtimer, because founded by a certain Burtimericus, a monarch of whom our annals are silent, but who had gained, in that place, a victory over the heathens of Germany. Here a cabinet, which was inclosed in a private recess, had been lately discovered within the massive walls of an ancient tower, and was found to contain a Grecian manuscript, along with a royal crown. The abbot had sent the latter to King Edward, and the Count of Hainault with difficulty obtained possession of the manuscript. He had it rendered from Greek into Latin by a monk of the abbey of Saint Landelain, and from that language it is said to have been translated into French by the author, who gives it to the world in honour of the Blessed Virgin, and for the edification of nobleness and chivalry.

It is conjectured that the prose romances were many of them written by churchmen, because many of them are adorned with those scriptural characters which figure so strangely in the early mysteries or plays. Thus we are informed that "in the curious romance of *Huon de Bourdeaux*, a sort of second part is added to that delightful history, in which the hero visits the terrestrial paradise, encounters the first murderer Cain, in the performance of his penance, with more matter to the same purpose, not likely to occur to the imagination of a layman; besides, that the laity of the period were, in general too busy and too ignorant to engage in literary tasks of any kind. The mystical portion of the romance of the *Round Table* seems derived from the same source. It may also be mentioned, that the audacious and sometimes blasphemous assertions, which claimed for these fictions the credit due even to the inspired writings themselves, were likely to originate amongst Roman Catholic churchmen, who were but too familiar with such forgeries, for the purpose of authenticating the legends of their superstition. One almost incredible instance of this impious species of imposture occurs in the history of the *Saint Graal*, which curious mixture of mysticism and chivalry is ascribed by the unfearing and unblushing writer to the Second Person of the Trinity."

This amusement formed a fine weapon of attack for the Reformers. In the reign of Elizabeth, when the drama had completely turned the romance out of fashion, Ascham tells us, that "In our forefathers tyme when papistrie as a standyng poole covered and overflowed all England, fewe books were read in our tongue, saving certain books of chivalrie, as they said for practice and pleasure, which as some say were made in monasteries *by idle monks and wanton chanons*."

But churchmen were by no means the only authors of these legends. Although the *Sires Clercs*, as they were sometimes termed, were accounted the chronicles of the times in which they lived, and though upon them usually the commands of the sovereigns whom they served, imposed the task of producing new romances under the usual disguise of ancient chronicles translated from the learned languages—we find individuals among the laity, and those of no mean rank, who began to consider romance-writing an elegant employment. Among these it is sufficient to mention Sir Thomas Malory, who compiled the *Morte D'Arthur*, from French originals; and Lord Berners, the excellent translator of Froissart, and author of a romance called *The Chevalier de la Cygne*.

With greater verbosity, and far less fire than their poetical predecessors, the prose romances exhibited, nevertheless, more attention to the description of *manners* than had before been attempted. There was some attention shown to relieve their story, by the introduction of new characters, and to illustrate these personages by characteristic dialogue. The lovers conversed with each other in the terms of metaphysical gallantry, which were used in real life; and from being a mere rhapsody of warlike feats, the romance began to assume the more artificial form of a picture of society. It is in the prose folios of *Lancelot du Lac*, *Perceforest*, and others, that antiquarians find recorded the most exact accounts of fights, tournaments, feasts, and other magnificent displays of chivalric splendour, and we are informed by an high authority, that these ancient books, amid many pages of dull repetition and uninteresting dialect, and notwithstanding the languor of an inartificial, protracted, and confused story, exhibit from time to time passages of deep interest, and situations of much novelty, as well as specimens of spirited and masculine writing.

At the same time it cannot be concealed that the prose romances of chivalry were produced for the most part by Bayes's most expeditious recipe for original composition, namely, by turning verse into prose, being extremely diffuse and languid compilations from the early metrical tales; and they are in general of little use to the antiquary, as neither their authors nor their dates can be ascertained. The early metrical tales are far more deserving of attention as connected with real history; and if we consider the romances of chivalry merely as amusements to the imagination, the subject appears better adapted for verse than for prose. The stately and formal manners of those ages soon grow wearisome in ordinary narrative, and require to be enlivened by the rapidity and brilliancy of poetical description. And who does not feel that the marvellous exploits and supernatural events with which they abound, deserve rather to be sung to the sound of the harp, tabret, cymbal, and all manner of musical instruments, than to be detailed in the sober language of truth, which is absurdly affected by the prose romancers, who generally announce themselves as authentic historians, and rail at the falsehood of their metrical predecessors? Accordingly it is among the poets that we are to look for the finest specimens of the fictions which we are now considering; and while the romances of Ariosto, and Tasso and Scott, are read again and again by persons of all descriptions, the Amadis de Gaul is now almost forgotten.

In tracing what is called the origin of romances, some authors have fixed their attention solely on the classic models, others have referred these amusing fictions to an eastern origin; a third party has fled to the northern Scandinavian legends, and a fourth has contended for the sufficiency of human nature to produce them in every age and climate. The opinions of the three first are supported by those traces of Grecian, Arabian, and Scandinavian legends which are found in nearly all the romances of the middle ages. The opinion that original invention supplied much of the works under consideration, though, at first sight, probable, does not bear close examination. Of all the faculties of the mind, imagination seems most dependent on foreign aid, and contrary to what might be expected, scarcely exists with uncivilized people. Caressed and largely rewarded by the great, subject from their wandering life to some variety of adventure, spectators of the internal affairs of families, and the external manners of society, the minstrels present nevertheless nearly one story. A remarkable historical event and a warlike exploit adapted to the ancestor of the patron who listened to its commemoration, is slightly diversified by the gorgeous imagery of the east, or, as we advance towards Germany, rendered sublime by the terrific images of the Scandinavian mythology. A barter of commodities takes place between these caterers for royal and noble amusement, and we have the whole of the ruder romances. The early history of Europe, their foundation, the mythological history of remote and unknown countries, their adjuvants, the minstrel's feeling for natural beauty, or his observation of passing manners, their ornament—such are the primary materials of that beautiful and complex structure, which, in our own civilized times, already rivals the potent enchantment of the drama, and bids fair to eclipse the more laboured forms of poetry altogether.

The classical sources of romances are few. The Greek language was scarcely known in many countries where romances first appeared. The Odyssey of Homer has indeed been traced into one of the tales of the middle ages, but this is the

the only example antiquity furnished, and was not generally followed. Heliodorus, a Greek bishop, had written a famous romance, entitled Œthiopica, in the reign of Theodosius, but this did not become a model of imitation, until the beginning of the 17th century. The Romans had no romances, and little romantic poetry. We have only to mention on this head, that the work entitled Orfeo and Herodiis, is plainly referrible to Ovid's tale of Orpheus and Euridice, the substitution of the elves and fairies of Gothland, for the infernal spirits of the ancients, being the only alteration of consequence in the piece.

There are a few Latin romances extant, but their production seems to have been checked before the fourth century, by the miseries of war. Of these the most famous is the *Ass of Apuleius*, which, from its great popularity, has been called the Golden Ass. It is an improvement of Lucian's whimsical tale, entitled Lucius; and relates the adventures of the author Apuleius (who lived in the first century), during his transformation into an ass. This misfortune befel him at the house of a female magician in Thessaly, with whom he lodged, and whose maid servant at his request had stolen a box of ointment from her mistress, by rubbing himself with which Apuleius expected to be changed into a bird; but as his friend the damsel had by mistake given him a wrong box, he found himself compelled to bray and walk on all fours, instead of whistling and flying in the air. He is informed by her, that the eating of rose leaves is necessary for his restoration to the human form. This poor beast accordingly goes through many adventures, some agreeable, but in general very unpleasant, before he has it in its power to taste a rose leaf. At last, having one evening escaped from his master, he found unexpectedly the termination of his misfortunes. He fled unperceived to the fields; and having galloped for three leagues, he came to a retired place on the shore of the sea. The moon which was in full splendour, and the awful silence of the night, inspired him with sentiments of devotion. He purified himself in the manner prescribed by Pythagoras, and addressed a long prayer to the great goddess Isis. In the course of the night she appeared to him in a dream; and after giving a strange account of herself, announced to him the end of his misfortunes; but demanded in return the consecration of his whole life to her service. On awakening, he feels himself confirmed in his resolution of aspiring to a life of virtue. On this change of disposition and conquest over his passions, the author finely represents all nature as assuming a new face of cheerfulness and gaiety. "Tanta hilaritate, praeter peculiarem meam, gestire mihi cuncta videbantur, ut pecua etiam cujuscemodi, et totas domos, et ipsam diem serena facie gaudere sentirem."

"While in this frame of mind, Apuleius perceived an innumerable multitude approaching the shore to celebrate the festival of Isis. Amid the crowd of priests, he remarked the sovereign pontiff, with a crown of roses on his head; and approached to pluck them. The pontiff, yielding to a secret inspiration, held forth the garland. Apuleius resumed his former figure, and the promise of the goddess was fulfilled. He was then initiated into her rites—returned to Rome, and devoted himself to her service. He was finally invited to a more mystic and solemn initiation by the goddess herself, who rewarded him for his accumulated piety, by an abundance of temporal blessings."

It is extremely probable that Apuleius had in view the general idea of representing, on the one hand, by his metamorphosis, the degradation of human nature, in consequence of a voluptuous life; and, on the other hand, the dignity and happiness of virtue, by his restoration and admission to the mysteries of Isis.

The eastern romance was extremely fruitful; the exploits of Alexander had been sung by the Arabians, and the romance of *Antar* (of extreme antiquity, since he is no other than the Sampson of Scripture,) was derived from the same source. The supposed great skill of the eastern nations in astrology and divination, peopled their remote lands with enchanters and sorcerers; the terrific number and magnitude of their wild beasts and reptiles, easily furnished the imagination with dragons, and griffins, winged and bestial demons, &c. The wealth also of the eastern nations, their splendid dresses, decorated palaces, and ample possessions of jewels, and precious metals, gorgeously display themselves in those pictures of inexhaustible riches and innumerable splendours, with which some romancers adorned (or, perhaps, rather clogged), their tales. We are inclined to attribute likewise to this source, that comic style, which, in a remoter period, sprang to so prolific a growth in Spain. Hitherward, likewise, has been traced that ludicrous poetry which, under the name of *fabliaux*, enlivened the Normans in the songs of their *trouveurs*. The *Gesta Romanorum*, and the "Legend of the Seven Wise Masters," collections much used by these bards, have been successively traced to Persia and Hindostan.

The Teutonic nations cultivated in their rude war-songs the embryo seeds of romance at an earlier period than any other of the European nations; but in their advancement to maturity, they exhibited a remarkable decay. The force and spirit of their early love and war songs, are superior to their Norman successors and contemporaries; in the exhibition of terrific and supernatural imagery, they are far more exalted, and in the number and length of historical anecdotes are exceedingly prolific; but in their prose romances there is a great falling off, both in interest and originality. It is in these northern bards, however, that we behold in its purest form the historical legends which chivalrous romances afterwards succeeded. In the Niebelungen-Leid, we have an absence of all the warring-religious feeling which afterwards became so prevalent. The antiquity of this collection is shewn in the introduction and occasional commendation of pagan heroes. We have both heathens and Christians in these legends; but the heathens are genuine worshippers of Odin, not of Mahomet, and the Christians are represented as living in peace with them, beneath the tolerating sway of Attila the Hun! A great deal of the pure old Scandinavian tone is preserved in the manners of the heroes, and in the tone of the narrative. A peculiarly dark and solemn character of melancholy pervades the whole spirit of the work. Devotion and daring are carried to their utmost height; and a rude and imperfect idea of the Christian doctrines appears to struggle throughout with elements of a very different description, softening rather than expelling the stern and iron gloom of the black and bloody creed of Scandinavian mythology.

"These singular compositions," says Sir W. Scott, "short, abrupt, and concise in expression, full of bold and even extravagant metaphor, exhibiting many passages of forceful and rapid description, hold a character of their own; and while they remind us of the indomitable courage and patient endurance of the hardy Scandinavians, at once the honour and the terror of Europe, rise far above the tedious and creeping style which characterized the minstrel efforts of their successors, whether in France or England. In the pine forests also, and the frozen mountains of the north, there were nursed, amid the reliques of expiring paganism, many traditions of a character more wild and terrible than the fables of classical superstition; and these the gloomy imagination of the skalds failed not to transfer to their romantic tales."

Dr. Watson observes, that the enchantments of the Runic poetry are very different from those in our romances of chivalry. The former chiefly deals in spells and charms, such as would preserve from poisons, blunt the weapons of an enemy, procure victory, allay a tempest, cure bodily diseases, or call the dead from their tombs, in uttering a form of mysterious words, or inscribing Runic characters. The magicians of romance are chiefly employed in forming and conducting a train of deceptions. There is an air of barbaric horror in the incantations of the scaldic fablers: the magicians of romance often present visions of pleasure and delight: and although, not without their alarming terrors, sometimes lead us through flowery forests, and raise up palaces glittering with gold and precious stones. The Runic magic is more like that of Canidia in Horace, the romantic resembles that of Armida in Tasso. The operations of the one

one are frequently but mere tricks, in comparison of that sublime solemnity of necromantic machinery which the other so awfully displays.

He adds, it is also remarkable, that in the earlier scaldic odes we find but few dragons, giants, and fairies. These were introduced afterwards, and are the progeny of Arabian fancy. Nor, indeed, do these imaginary beings often occur in any of the compositions which preceded the introduction of that species of fabling.

It is curious to observe how, in after-times, the Germans adapted these legends to the Norman romances of Charlemagne. As in all other similar cases, a real conqueror, the fame of whose exploits survived in tradition, was adopted as the central object, around whom were to be assembled a set of champions, and with whose history was to be interwoven the various feats of courage which they performed, and the adventures which they underwent. "Theodorick, king of the Goths, called in these romantic legends Diderick of Bern (i. e. Verona), was selected for this purpose by the German Minnesingers. Amongst the principal personages introduced are Ezzel, king of the Huns, who is no other than the celebrated Attila; and Gunter, king of Burgundy, who is identified with a Guntachar of history who really held that kingdom. The good knight Wolfram de Eschenbach seems to have been the first who assembled the scattered traditions and minstrel tales concerning these sovereigns into one large volume of German verse, entitled *Helden-Buch*, or the Book of Heroes. In this the author has availed himself of the unlimited licence of a romancer; and has connected with the history of Diderick and his chivalry a number of detached legends which had certainly a separate and independent existence. Such is the tale of *Sigurd the Horny*, which has the appearance of having originally been a Norse Saga."

"Theodorick, like Charlemagne and Arthur, is considered in the romance as a monarch more celebrated for the valorous achievements of the brotherhood of chivalry whom he has drawn around him, than for his own, though neither deficient in strength or courage. His principal followers have each their discriminatory and peculiar attributes. Meister Hildebrand, the Nestor of the band, is, like the Maugis of Charlemagne's heroes, a magician as well as a champion. Hogan, or Hagan, begot betwixt a mortal and a sea-goblin, is the fierce Achilles of the confederation. It is the uniform custom of the romancers to conclude by a general and overwhelming catastrophe, which destroys the whole ring of chivalry whose feats they had commemorated. The ruin which Roncesvalles brought to the Paladins of Charlemagne, and the fatal battle of Camlan to the Knights of the Round Table, fell upon the warriors of Diderick through the revengeful treachery of Grimhilda, the wife of Ezzel; who, in revenge for the death of her first husband, and in her inordinate desire to possess the treasures of the Niflunga or Burgundians, brought destruction on all these celebrated champions. Mr. Weber observes that these German fictions differ from the romances of French chivalry, in the greater ferocity and less refinement of sentiment ascribed to the heroes; and also in their employing to a great extent the machinery of the Duergar, or Dwarfs, a subterranean people to whom the *Helden-Buch* ascribes much strength and subtilty, as well as profound skill in the magic art; and who seem, to a certain extent, the predecessors of the European fairies."

But the peculiar and favoured land of chivalry, was France; and, with a few exceptions, which we shall presently notice, nearly all the romance, strictly so called, that existed in Europe, was the product of that country; and was afterwards translated in English, Italian, &c. The French romances are usually divided into two classes—such as turn on the history of king Arthur, of Britain, and those which commemorate the exploits of Charlemagne.

It is by no means easy to decide which of these ought to be considered as the more ancient. The historical Arthur belonged to an age far remoter than that of the son of Pepin; and it can scarcely be doubted that the people of his own race had founded romantic narratives on his adventures almost in his own time. But the *romances* concerning him and his heroes which we now possess, were all, it is obvious, the productions of a much more recent time. They are all, in a word, distinguished by the vividness with which the manners of the most perfect age of chivalry are represented in them. Nay, many critics have gone so far as to decide against them the question, as to their relative antiquity and that of the romances of the Charlemagne body, upon this ground only, that, as they allege, the spirit of chivalry appears in them under a purer and more idealized form than in the others. Such in particular is the opinion of Schlegel.

There are some circumstances which shew that one of these productions was copied, in great measure, from the other, with the usual alterations of characters and places.

"In both, we have a great monarch surrounded by a cycle of knightly brothers, all living under the rules of an established brotherhood of chivalry. The great object of both cycles, is the assertion of the cause of Christ against that of a warlike race of misbelievers. Arthur and his knights are opposed to the bloody heathenism of the Saxon hordes, who invaded the civilized, in so far at least, and christianized provinces of Britain. Charlemagne, and the peers of his cycle, are opposed in precisely the same manner to the Mahometans, who, in the days of the historical Charlemagne, certainly threatened to obliterate every trace of western civilization, and to eradicate the Christian faith from the soil of Europe. This is the great and presiding idea in these two kindred classes of romance; and the picture is filled up in them both with materials and colourings of a wonderfully similar nature. In each, the monarch-knight forms the centre of a band of brothers, among whom the great and leading diversities of human character and disposition are divided. In each, prophecies, charms, enchantments, giants, dwarfs, witches, are called in to supply the marvellous; in each, amorous and ludicrous adventures are employed to relieve the solemnity of the main body of the fiction; in each, we find a crowd of minor characters and incidents diverging in all directions from the great centre, yet all in some way or other attesting their connection with it. What Charlemagne is to his peers, the romance of Charlemagne is to its age; and exactly so as to Arthur, and the body of fictions of which his Round Table is the centre point."

According to the French authorities, the earliest metrical romances on the subject of Arthur, is "Le Brut," (i. e. Brutus the Trojan, who founded Britain, corrupted from *Brutain*, which he had named it.) This piece is the work of one Robert Wace, a native of Jersey, who also wrote the "Chevalier au Legon." The former work appeared about 1155. It is founded on the chronicle of Geoffrey, of Monmouth.

The earliest of the prose romances relating to Arthur, is the history of Merlin the Enchanter, who was the son of a demon and an innocent young lady, and favourite minister of Uter Pendragon, the British king. It was this monarch who instituted at Carduel (Carlisle), the order of the Round Table; at which were seated 50 or 60 of the first nobles of the country, with an empty place always left for the Sangreal. The Sangreal, was the most precious of all the Christian relics: it was the blood which flowed from our Saviour's wounds, preserved in the *hanap* or cup in which he drank with his apostles the night when he was betrayed. This relic was first in the possession of Joseph of Arimathea, by whom it was brought to Britain, and afterwards fell into the hands of king Pecheur, who, by a beautiful ambiguity of the French language, might have received this name either from being a great fisher or a great sinner, or both. His nephew, the redoubted knight Percival, succeeded to his uncle's kingdom and to the possession of the Sangreal; which, at the moment of Percival's death, was, in the presence of his attendants, carried up into heaven, and has never since been seen or heard of. But to return to Merlin—we shall extract from Dunlop's History of Fiction, the following account of his history.

"Soon after this institution (of the Round Table), the king invited

invited all his barons to the celebration of a great festival, which he proposed holding annually at Carduel.

"As the knights had obtained permission from his majesty to bring their ladies along with them, the beautiful Yguerne accompanied her husband, the duke of Tintadiel, to one of these anniversaries. The king became deeply enamoured of the duchess, and revealed his passion to Ulsius, one of his counsellors. Yguerne withstood all the inducements which Ulsius held forth to prepossess her in favour of his master; and ultimately disclosed to her husband the attachment and solicitations of the king. On hearing this, the duke instantly withdrew from court with Yguerne, and without taking leave of Uter. The king complained of this want of duty to his council, who decided, that the duke should be summoned to court, and if refractory, should be treated as a rebel. As he refused to obey the citation, the king carried war into the estates of his vassal, and besieged him in the strong castle of Tintadiel, in which he had shut himself up. Yguerne was confined in a fortress at some distance, which was still more secure. During the siege, Ulsius informed his master that he had been accosted by an old man, who promised to conduct the king to Yguerne, and had offered to meet him for that purpose on the following morning. Uter proceeded with Ulsius to the rendezvous. In an old blind man whom they found at the appointed place, they recognized the enchanter Merlin, who had assumed that appearance. He bestowed on the king the form of the duke of Tintadiel, while he endowed himself and Ulsius with the figure of his grace's two squires. Fortified by this triple metamorphosis, they proceeded to the residence of Yguerne, who, unconscious of the deceit, received the king as her husband.

"The fraud of Merlin was not detected, and the war continued to be prosecuted by Uter with the utmost vigour. At length the duke was killed in battle, and the king, by the advice of Merlin, espoused Yguerne. Soon after the marriage she gave birth to Arthur, whom she believed to be the son of her former husband, as Uter had never communicated to her the story of his assumed appearance.

"After the death of Uter, there was an iterregnum in England, and it was not known that Arthur was his son. This prince, however, was at length chosen king, in consequence of having unfixed from a miraculous stone, a sword which two hundred and one of the most valiant barons in the realm had been singly unable to extract. At the beginning of his reign, Arthur was engaged in a civil war; as the mode of his election, however judicious, was disapproved by some of the barons; and when he had at length overcome his domestic enemies, he had long wars to sustain against the Gauls and Saxons.

"In all these contests, the art of Merlin was of great service to Arthur, as he changed himself into a dwarf, a harp player, or a stag, as the interest of his master required; or at least threw on the by-standers a spell to fascinate their eyes, and cause them to see the thing that was not. On one occasion he made an expedition to Rome, entered the king's palace in the shape of an enormous stag, and in this character delivered a formal harangue, to the utter amazement of one called Julius Cæsar—not the Julius whom the knight Mars killed in his pavilion, but him whom Gauvaine slew, because he defied King Arthur.

"At length this renowned magician disappeared entirely from England. His voice alone was heard in a forest, where he was enclosed in a bush of hawthorn: he had been entrapped in this awkward residence by means of a charm he had communicated to his mistress Viviane, who, not believing in the spell, had tried it on her lover. The lady was sorry for the accident; but there was no extracting her admirer from his thorny coverture.

"The earliest edition of this romance was printed at Paris in 1498. It has been attributed to Robert de Borron, to whom many other works of this nature have been assigned; but it is not known at what time this author existed; and indeed he is believed by many, and particularly by Mr. Ritson, to be entirely a fictitious personage."

Of the metrical romances of the Charlemagne class, the most ancient appear to be "Huon de Bourdeaux," and "Fierabras." The former is famous as having served Wieland with a foundation for his Oberon; the latter for having been the favourite subject of Robert Bruce's recitations to his companions. It might be expected that the prose compositions that refer to Charlemagne would contain more historical truth than those concerning Arthur; since the former relate to a well-known monarch and conqueror, the latter to a personage of a very doubtful and shadowy existence. But the romances concerning both are equally fabulous. Charles had, indeed, an officer named Roland, who was slain with other nobles in the field of Roncesvalles, fighting, not against the Saracens or Spaniards, but against the Gascons. This is the only point upon which the real history of Charlemagne coincides with that invented for him by romancers. Roland was prefect of Bretagne, and his memory was long preserved in the war-song which bore his name. A fabulous chronicler, calling himself Turpin, compiled, in or about the eleventh century, a romantic history of Charlemagne; but it may be doubted whether, in some instances, he has not availed himself of the fictions already devised by the early romancers, while to those who succeeded them, his annals afforded matter for new figments. The personal character of Charlemagne has suffered considerably in the hands of the romantic authors, although they exaggerated his power and his victories. He is represented as fond of flattery, irritable in his temper, ungrateful for the services rendered him by his most worthy Paladins, and a perpetual dupe to the treacherous artifices of Count Gan, or Ganelon, of Mayence; a renegade to whom the romancers impute the defeat at Roncesvalles, and all the other misfortunes of the reign of Charles. This unfavourable view of the Prince, although it may bear some features of royalty, neither resembles the real character of the conqueror of the Saxons and Lombards, nor can be easily reconciled with the idea, that he was introduced to flatter the personal vanity of the princes of the Valois race, by a portrait of their great predecessor.

The circumstance, that Roland was a lieutenant of Brittany, and the certainty that Marie borrowed from that country the incidents out of which she composed her lays, seems to fortify the theory, that the French minstrels obtained from that country much of their most valuable materials; and that, after all that has been said and supposed, the history of Arthur probably reached them through the same channel.

Romance never flourished long nor grew vigorously in England. The Saxons had no doubt hardic songs of a similar caste to the Scandinavian poems, and Mr. Turner has preserved a relic in one entitled *Cædmon*. In this the hero attacks, conquers, and finally slays an evil being named *Grenfel*, who seems to bear some analogy to a gothic demon. Then follow the Romances written for the court of England, where French was long spoken. When the two languages began to assimilate together, and to form the mixed dialect termed the Anglo-Norman, we have good authority for saying that it was easily applied to the purpose of romantic fiction, and recited in the presence of the nobility. Of this we have proof in the *Sir Tristram* of Thomas Erceldoune, edited by Sir W. Scott; according to whose hypothesis the said Thomas, surnamed the Rhymer, composed his work near the borders of the old kingdom of *Strath-Clyde* (which had long preserved the legends of the Britons driven north by their invaders), early in the 13th century. In this poem, though much of the Norman romance language remains, the poem may be denominated Saxon, not only for the language, but for the studied alliteration, and complicated measures of the verse. Yet it was so far from being popularly understood, that Robert de la Brunne complains that this work is written in such *quainte Inglis*, "that many wate (wot) not what it is."

Besides *Sir Tristram*, there remain two other examples of "gestes written in quaint Inglis," composed according to fixed and complicated rules of verse, and with much attention to the language, though the effect produced is far from pleasing. They are both of Scottish origin, which may be explained, by recollecting that in the Saxon provinces

vinces of Scotland, as well as at the court, Norman was never used; and therefore it is probable that the English language was more cultivated in that country at an early period than in England itself, where it was for a long time superseded by that of the conquerors. These romances, entitled *Sir Gawain*, and *Sir Gologras*, and *Sir Galeran of Galloway*, have all the appearance of being original compositions, and display considerable poetical effort. But the uncouth use of words dragged in for the sake of alliteration, and used in secondary and oblique meanings, renders them extremely harsh in construction, as well as obscure in meaning.

In England it would seem that the difficulties pointed out by De la Brunne, threw out of fashion this ornate kind of composition; and the English minstrels had no readier resource than translating from the French, who supplied their language at the same time with the phrases of chivalry which did not exist in English. Accordingly, translations from the French fill up the list of English romance. They are generally written in short lines rhyming together; though often, by way of variety, the third and sixth lines are made to rhyme together, and the poem is thus divided into stanzas of three couplets each. In almost all of these legends, reference is made to "the romance," that is, some composition in the French language, as to the original authority. Nay, which is very singular, tales where the subjects seem to be of English growth, seem to have yet existed in French ere they were translated into the language of the country to which the heroes belonged. This seems to have been the case with *Hornchild*, with *Guy of Warwick*, with *Bevis of Hampton*, all of which appear to belong originally to England; yet are their earliest histories found in the French language, or at least the vernacular versions refer to such for their authority. Even the romance of *Richard*, England's own Cœur de Lion, has perpetual references to the French original from which it was translated. Some original compositions doubtless occur among so many translations, but they are not numerous, and few have been preserved. The poem of *Sir Eger* and *Sir Greme*, which seems of Scottish origin, has no French original; nor has any been discovered either of the *Squire of Low Degree*, *Sir Eglamour*, *Sir Pleindamour*, or some others. But the French derivation of the two last names renders it probable that such may exist.

With these abortive attempts the romance literature of this country closed. Indeed the English taste tended rather to plays than narratives. They seemed from the earliest times to delight in direct personifications of scriptural characters, and even of abstract virtues. In the early poets, especially Chaucer, we are struck with their strong yearning towards the dramatic style. Old Dan is continually falling from the high sphere of romantic fashion to the wholesome and more engaging field of truth and actual life. If he describes an enchanted palace, or a garden, or a knight, he is satisfied with copying his predecessors, but the descriptions of the nun, the monk, the wife of Bath, a colloquy, or a dispute, are the products of his own imagination and observation, and those whereon he dwells with unbounded pleasure. The *Fairy Queen*, is, perhaps, the nearest specimen of perfect romance that has been produced by an Englishman, and even in this a departure from the models is as remarkable as it is grateful.

The association that exists between romantic fictions and the land of Spain is so prevalent in the mind, that it is astonishing to find that there is really but two original romances of note that have proceeded from that source, namely, *The Adventures of the Cid*, and *Don Quixote*. The *Amadis de Gaul* may be added to these, which, though not the production of a Spaniard (Dr. Southey having clearly traced it to Vasco de Lobeira, a Portuguese knight of the 14th century), was extremely popular, and very generally imitated in that country.

Indeed Spain seems, in this respect, to have displayed the same taste as England, and to have poured forth her romantic feelings rather in the condensed form of ballads, and other short poems, or in the soul-stirring creations of theatrical fiction, than in the stately and confined habits of romance. Her serious fictions were of two kinds.—The first, the pastoral, was chiefly upheld by the talents of Monté Mayor. Of all sickly and affected compositions these seem to have been the worst. We all know how tedious a few short pastoral poems are adorned with the polished elegance of Virgil, or the refined and expressive verse of Theocrite. But the task of wading through whole volumes of puny dialogue, and hyperbolical pathos, is reserved for the reader of Spanish pastoral. The second species of romance were those modelled on *Amadis de Gaul*. The author of this work laid aside the worn-out features of Arthur and Charlemagne, and imagined to himself a new dynasty both of sovereigns and of heroes, to whom he ascribed a style of manners much more refined, and sentiments much more artificial, than had occurred to the authors of *Perceval* or *Perceforest*. Lobeira had also taste enough to perceive, that some unity of design would be a great improvement on the old romance, where one adventure is strung to another with little connection from the beginning to the end of the volume; and which then concludes, not because the plot was wound up, but because the author's invention, or the printer's patience, was exhausted. In the work of the Portuguese author, on the contrary, he proposes a certain end, to advance or retard which all the incidents of the work have direct reference. This is the marriage of Amadis with Oriana, against which a thousand difficulties are raised by rivals, giants, sorcerers, and all the race of evil powers unfavourable to chivalry; whilst these obstacles are removed by the valour of the hero, and constancy of the heroine, succoured on their part by those friendly sages, and blameless sorceresses, whose intervention gave so much alarm to the tender-conscienced De la Noue. Lobeira also displayed considerable attention to the pleasure which arises from the contrast of character; and to relieve that of Amadis, who is the very essence of chivalrous constancy, he has introduced Don Galaor, his brother, a gay libertine in love, whose adventures form a contrast with those of his more serious brother. Above all, the *Amadis* displays an attention to the style and conversation of the piece, which, although its effects are now exaggerated and ridiculous, was doubtless at the time considered as the pitch of elegance; and here were, for the first time, introduced those hyperbolical compliments, and that inflated and complicated structure of language, the sense of which walks as in a masquerade.

The *Amadis* at first consisted only of four books, and in that limited shape may be considered as a very well conducted story; but additions were speedily made which extended the number to twenty-four; containing the history of Amadis subsequent to his obtaining possession of Oriana, and down to his death, as also of his numerous descendants. The theme was not yet exhausted; for, as the ancient romancers, when they commenced a new work, chose for their hero some newly invented Paladin of Charlemagne, or knight of King Arthur, so did their successors adopt a new descendant of the family of Amadis, whose genealogy was thus multiplied to a prodigious degree. Hence came *Esplandian*, *Florimond of Greece*, *Palmerin of England*, and the other romances of this class, which soon became so very popular, as to supersede the elder romances almost entirely even at the court of France, where, according to La Noue, already quoted, they were introduced about the reign of Henry II.

The most important epoch we have to notice in the history of romance writing, is the date of the appearance of *The renowned History of Don Quixote de la Mancha*. The author, Cervantes, after trying in vain the departments of comedy and pastoral romance, seized the idea of representing as the adventures of a crazy knight the exploits of the chivalrous characters of the *Amadis de Gaul*. This work has been too generally viewed as a systematic endeavour on the part of Cervantes, to cure his countrymen of an absurd fondness for romantic and improbable fictions. It is not evident, however,

however, that any such undue partiality existed in his time, and if it had been so, the author, who had already so far yielded to prevailing tastes as to compose the long and tedious *Galatea*, would have been the last to have resisted the torrent of opinion. It seems much more probable that, in Cervantes' day, the hyperbolical romance was getting fast out of fashion, and that our author adopted the primary character of Quixote as a pleasant weapon for deriding follies already neglected; and, in this respect, he rather followed than led the impulse that plunged into irrecoverable contempt the grave romances. It is a most remarkable feature in this astonishing work, that it seized and incorporated, and refined all the beauties of the very works it professed to ridicule. It is in itself in the highest degree romantic, possesses oftentimes a deep interest, and the natural shadows and lights of human life are so exquisitely blended or artfully contrasted in it, that the smile it excites is of a cast that almost melts into a tear, while the tide of hearty laughter into which we are betrayed by the follies of La Mancha's hero, is often checked by the serious respect we are tempted to feel for his exalted and honourable disposition. Though he owed much to the unaffected beauty of his style, and his discrimination of character, yet it was chiefly to this union of the comic and the serious that Cervantes' immortality may be traced. Previous to his romance, the fabliaux of the trouveurs and the tales of Boccaccio had found their way into Spain, and had excited that *gusto piscaresco* which delighted to see human nature as unnaturally debased by caricature, as in romance it was upheld by hyperbole. The coarseness of these works become disgusting when contrasted with chaste and refined satire; and it is not, perhaps, too much to say, that the best romances of the present day owe much of their excellence to the careful mixture of the lofty and ludicrous which has been borrowed from Cervantes.

There is a tedious class of works extant, entitled "The Heroic Romance of the Seventeenth Century:" Sir W. Scott gives this excellent account of it.

"A man of fantastic imagination, Honoré d'Urfé, led the way in this style of composition. Being willing to record certain love intrigues of a complicated nature which had taken place in his own family, and amongst his friends, he imagined to himself a species of Arcadia on the banks of the Lignon, who live for love and for love alone. There are two principal stories, said to represent the family history of d'Urfé and his brother, with about thirty episodes, in which the gallantries and intrigues of Henry IV.'s court are presented under borrowed names. Considered by itself, this is but an example of the pastoral romance; but it was so popular that three celebrated French authors, Gomberville, Calprenede, and Madame Scuderi, seized the pen, and composed in emulation many interminable folios of heroic romance. In these insipid performances, a conventional character, and a set of family manners and features, are ascribed to the heroes and heroines, although selected from distant ages and various quarters of the world. The heroines are, without exception, models of beauty and perfection; and, so well persuaded of it themselves, that to approach them with the most humble declaration of love, is a crime sufficient to deserve the penalty of banishment from their presence; and it is well if it is softened to the audacious lover, by permission, or command to live, without which, absence and death are accounted synonimous. On the other hand, the heroes, whatsoever kingdoms they have to govern, or other earthly duties to perform, live through these folios for love alone; and the most extraordinary revolutions which can agitate the world are ascribed to the charms of a Mandana or a Statira acting upon the crazy understanding of their lovers. Nothing can be so uninteresting as the frigid extravagance with which these lovers express their passion; or, in their own phrase, nothing can be more freezing than their flames, more creeping than their flights of passion. Yet the line of metaphysical gallantry which they exhibited had its fashion, and a long one, both in France and England. In the latter country they continued to be read by our grandmothers during the Augustan age of English, and while Addison was amusing the world with its wit, and Pope by its poetry. The fashion did not decay till about the reign of George I.; and even more lately, Mrs. Lennox, patronized by Dr. Johnson, wrote a very good imitation of Cervantes, entitled 'The Female Quixote,' which had those works for its basis. They are now totally forgotten."

There is another numerous and dull class of compositions, extending to some hundred volumes, with which we presume most persons who have inspected the old circulating libraries are sufficiently familiar; they might conveniently be called the *horrible* romances. They are distinguished by perfect inattention to style, and considerable dependance on former publications:—A dark and wicked man, usually a knight, pursues with amorous ardour a lady, whose purity and trascendental virtue are continually displayed by her aversion to ravishment. The knight has dungeons deep, fortified castles, assassins, bandits, and sometimes a treacherous priest, at command. The lady is assisted by some lover as virtuous as herself, and, in the last emergencies, by a ghost. Mystery and horror are the ingredients of interest in these romances; and as these are the stimuli which most strongly affect the uninstructed, they have commonly had great popularity with young persons. Certainly the best of this terrific school are those of Mrs. Radcliffe, whose occasionally powerful language, and deep feeling, gave them an excellence her predecessors were unacquainted with. In our time this species has taken a new turn. The peculiar horrors of the German school has given it a novel aspect by the assimilation of modern characters and supernatural agents, and this preposterous union has not deprived them of interest. Witness the *Vampires, Frankenstein, &c.*

We turn with pleasure from this dull field to contemplate the growth of the novel. For the elements of this class of works we are probably indebted to the Italians. The sprightly tales of Boccacio raised many imitators in his country, in Spain, and at length in France. Under the hand of Le Sage this composition manifested variety, vigour, historical and moral portraitures. It served Voltaire with a vehicle for the attacks on decency and morals contained in *Candide*. Rousseau used it to pour forth the glowing descriptions of his own wild imaginations. In this country it furnished Fielding and Smollet with a medium for their accurate pictures of English society;—pictures, the more amusing, because the drama had neglected, in the pursuit of fashionable characters, the rich harvest of vulgar life. The popularity of these authors lasts even now, but it cannot be concealed from a scrutinizing eye, that many of their portraits are overcharged, much of their wit forced, and their incidents improbable. Another serious charge is their extreme coarseness. Who can read, in the present day, that favourite of our fathers, "Tom Jones," without disgust. The picture of female society drawn in that piece, was never to be found, we are certain, in any civilized country, far less in England. Nevertheless, these authors certainly far outstripped all their predecessors, and, with the glorious exception of that faultless little tale, "The Vicar of Wakefield," all their successors but one.

This one, our readers of course anticipate, is the "Author of Waverley." This author has effected a revolution among the world of romance readers, as great, and far more sudden than Cervantes himself. We had before his appearance been gradually much improving. Several female writers, amongst whom Burney and Edgeworth deserve high and honourable mention, had given us examples of a pure and elegant style of writing, combined with much sprightliness, and purity of thinking, and shrewd observation of manners. The success of "Thaddeus of Warsaw" and the "Scottish Chiefs," had shewn how greedily the public caught at a skilful clothing of historical truth in romantic fiction. But though these works were admired by the refined and well educated, they were caviare to the multitude; the old trash of the circulating libraries still continued to be read, and perhaps the excellence of the new novels only served to

excuse

excuse the reading of a class of productions which otherwise most sensible persons denounced. But the Author of Waverley appeared, and annihilated all his opponents. He united the playful and humourous with the chivalrous and romantic, the historical and political with domestic life and pathetic feelings. He painted manners; he sculptured character. Every body took up his works, and perused them with breathless interest; but when they were laid down, the mind of the reader was changed: the appetite for trashy sentiment and hyperbolical valour was gone: a taste for nature and truth was created. The light-minded public turned from the incitements of fiction to the fair field of history, and many were seduced into knowledge by a class of compositions, which a few years before were justly contemned as drawbacks to education and enervators of the mind. The appetite the romancer had created, he fed, fed so assiduously that he for ever destroyed what, had his exertions been confined to the first blow, might have failed.

It is of course unnecessary that we should enter into so trite a subject as a review of the Scotch novels. It is sufficient for us to remark, that our admiration of this author goes far beyond that of our contemporary critics. Willing to allow that some of his present fame is owing to the erethism of fashion, and unable to shut our eyes to the fact, that his later productions betray exhaustion; yet we venture to predict, that in the line he has chosen, he will never be equalled. The number of competitors he has stirred up, only seems to shew his strength, and, though to superficial observers the close imitations attempted in the "Secondary Scottish Novels" might seem successful rivalry, it is plain that public opinion has, even in this short space of time, decided that the laurels of the *great unknown* still remain untouched.

There is one remarkable merit he has, which gives him a superiority over his female rivals. We mean his power of drawing the characters of women. It has often been remarked, that the fair sex alone paint themselves in hideous colours; it is almost universally true. If women pourtray women, it is almost always as it were with censoriousness and malignity. If they would draw a virtuous and exalted heroine, they make her mad or foolish. Witness the Corinna of that powerful writer Madame de Stäel. The fact is, the real perfections of woman's conduct are of so delicate a nature, that they skrink from the rudeness of straightforward description and open praise. He who would draw her fairly, must sketch simply, must leave the imagination to fill up those excellences which only by the imagination can be filled. How completely the object of our criticism possesses this tact every one of his readers must be aware.

Before closing this subject, we have a few words to say on the end or purpose of romantic fiction. Ever since Cervantes attacked the hyperbole of chivalry, various authors have attempted to use the same means as an attack on vice or error, or as a recommendation of some particular virtue. Thus Voltaire wrote Candide against optimism, and Fenelon, exalting romance to an almost epic dignity, laid down the laws of kingly government to the giddy court of France. While we write, fresh attempts at this didactic novel have been made, as in *Tremaine*, *Owen*, and some others. We mention them only to depreciate their unfairness, and to point out their inutility. We think them unfair, because the important questions of religion and politics are of too sacred an interest to be dealt with otherwise than by straightforward argument, and the artifice of captivating youth by a fictitious picture of the effect of certain opinions, is any thing but rational. The inutility of this practice is shewn by experience: by the inefficacy of all the works of this kind that have been penned. To the romancer, belongs the task of exciting virtuous emotions, and inspiring pure feelings, but in the analysis of duties, and the thorny paths of doctrinal controversy, we surely ought not to be cheated into consent. Conviction should rest on fair and manly argument; if it does not, it is but frangible.

At present, romances are so numerous, that they may be said to be the fashion of the day, and to supersede every other branch of fiction. The ease with which they may be written, the great fund of materials for their composition, pointed out by the author of Waverley to exist in history, may account for the supply. The highly finished pictures of manners they display, the variety of matters they contain, on account of their adapting themselves by turns to description, sentiment, or to dramatic dialogue, may account for the demand. But we cannot believe, as a contemporary has averred, that the modern romances will supersede the drama. The scarcity of the latter production does not arise from any coldness on the part of the public towards it, but from the much greater and, therefore, rarer talent that is required to produce it.

The reader, desirous of entering more deeply into the pleasing study of romance literature, may consult the works of Percy, Ritson, and Warton; Ellis's Metrical Romances, Sir W. Scott's edition of Tristram, Dunlop's History of Fiction, Bouterwek's Literature of the Middle Ages, Lays of the German Minnesingers, &c.

ROMA'NCE, *s.* A lie; a fiction.

A staple of *romance* and lies,
False tears and real perjuries,
Where sighs and looks are bought and sold,
And love is made but to be told. *Prior.*

To ROMA'NCE, *v. n.* To lie; to forge.—This is strange *romancing*. *Richardson.*

ROMA'NCER, *s.* A writer of romances.—That the French *romancers* borrowed some things from the English, appears from the word "termagnant," which they took up from our minstrels, and corrupted into "tervagaunte." *Percy.*—This poem (le Roman de la Rose) is far beyond the rude efforts of all their preceding *romancers*. *Warton.*—A liar; a forger of tales.—The allusion of the daw extends to all impostors, vain pretenders, and *romancers*. *L'Estrange.*

ROMA'NCY, *adj.* Romantick; full of wild scenery. *Not in use.*—The house is an old house, situated in a *romancy* place; and a man, that is given to devotion and learning, cannot find out a better place. *Life of A. Wood.*

ROMANEGNO, a small town of Austrian Italy, in the Milanese, delegation of Cremona.

ROMANELLI (Giovan-francesco), an eminent painter, was born in 1617 at Viterbo. He was a pupil of Pietro da Cortona, whose style he imitated with no inferiority in invention and composition, and with more correctness, but in a colder tone of colouring. Being sent by his father for improvement to Rome, he employed himself assiduously in drawing after the works of the great masters, and attracted the notice of Cardinal Barberini, who became his patron, and procured him apartments in the chancery palace. Romanelli married in that capital, and became head of the academy of St. Luke. The Cardinal sent some of his pictures to England to Charles I. by whom they were much approved; and when he himself retired to France, he recommended Romanelli to Cardinal Mazarin, who engaged him to come to Paris. He there painted several pieces for the Cardinal, and for Louis XIV., who recompensed him liberally, and created him a knight of St. Michael. After two different residences in France, he finally returned to Italy, and died at Viterbo in 1662, at the age of 45. This painter was much admired for his facility of invention, his correctness of design, the graceful airs of his heads, and the elevation of his conceptions; he was also estimable for the amenity of his disposition and his social virtues. Many of his best works were in fresco, and were decorations of palaces, churches, and halls. He painted few easel pieces. The palaces at Rome and in France contain the principal monuments of his labours. About 30 of his designs have been engraved. *D'Argenville.* *Pilkington.*

ROMANIA, RUMELIA, or RUM ILI, a very extensive province or rather portion of European Turkey, comprising, with the exception of Bosnia, Moldavia, and Walachia, all the

the Turkish possessions on the continent of Europe. It is bounded on the north by the Danube, on the east by the Black sea, on the south by the Mediterranean, and on the west by the Adriatic, Dalmatia, and Bosnia. This comprises, however, Bulgaria, and Servia, which are by some considered distinct provinces. But without these, Rumelia has an extent of nearly 120,000 square miles, with a population of about 6,000,000. The whole of this fine country, comprising Thrace, Macedon, and ancient Greece, is in a very backward state of civilization, and is not likely to improve at present. Many parts of it present large uncultivated wastes; and in no part almost is agriculture brought to the perfection of former ages. For climate, soil, manners of inhabitants, size of towns, history, &c. we refer to TURKEY, and add at present only the territorial division, which, including Bulgaria and Servia, comprises 28 sandgiacats or districts, as follows:

1. Visa, a part of Thrace; 2. Kirkilissa, Thrace; 3. Silistria, Bulgaria; 4. Nicopoli, Bulgaria; 5. Vidin. Bulgaria; 6. Csirmen, Bulgaria; 7. Sophia, Bulgaria; 8. Gallipoli, Thrace; 9. Salonica, Macedon; 10. Kostendil, Macedon; 11. Uskub, Macedon; 12. Tirhala, Thessaly; 13. Egribos, the island of Eubœa, and the eastern part of Livadia; 14. Tripolizza, the western part of the Morea; 15. Misitra, eastern part of Morea; 16. Ainabachte, western part of Livadia; 17. Karli-Ili, Epirus; 18. Joannina, Epirus; 19. Delvino, part of Albania; 20. Avlona, part of Albania; 21. Ilbessan, part of Albania; 22. Scutari, part of Albania; 23. Ochri, parts of Albania and Macedon; 24. Perserin, Servia; 25. Usiterna, Servia; 26. Dukagin, Servia; 27. Aladschahissar, Servia; 28. Semendria, Servia.

RO'MANISM, *s.* Tenets of the church of Rome.—Papists have the common faith (and I wish to God they had no more), and their own proper *romanism;* to the very same or like purpose as the Jews have the law and the prophets, and the talmud of their rabbins. *Brevint.*

RO'MANIST, *s.* A Catholic.—The *Romanists* are guilty of too much scruple in this kind. *Bp. Hall.*

To RO'MANIZE, *v. a.* To convert to Romish or Catholic opinions.

Yet if your English *romanized* hearts
Gainst nature's custome swell with foule defame,
Brandish your stings, and cast your utmost darts,
Against the greatnesse of her glorious name. *Mir. for Mag.*

To Latinize; to fill with modes of the Roman speech.—He did too much *romanize* our tongue, leaving the words he translated, almost as much Latin as he found them. *Dryden.*

To ROMANIZE, *v. n.* To follow a Romish opinion, custom, or mode of speech.—Thou hast seen a popish Jew interceding for the dead:—Tell me, gentle reader, whether doth the Jew *romanize*, or the Roman judaize, in his devotions. *Lightfoot.*—So apishly *romanizing*, that the word of command still was set down in Latin. *Milton.*

ROMANO (Giulio), the most renowned among the immediate scholars of Raphael d'Urbino, his heir, and the continuator of his works. He was born at Rome in the year 1492. While a pupil, he followed less his master's delicacy than energy of character, and chiefly signalized himself in subjects of war and battles, which he represented with equal spirit and erudition. As a designer, he commands the whole mechanism of the human body; and, without fear of error, turns and winds it about to serve his purposes, but sometimes oversteps the modesty of nature. Vasari, who visited him at Mantua, prefers his drawings to his pictures, as being more full of that original fire which distinguishes his conception, and was apt to evaporate in the longer process of finish: some have, with better evidence, objected to the character of his physiognomies, as more sagacious than enamoured, less simple than vulgar, and often dismal and horrid, without being terrible. In colour, whether fresco or oil, his hand was as expeditious, and his touch, especially in the former, as decided, as his eye and choice were congenial. Bricky lights, violet demi-teints, and black shades, compose in general the raw, opaque tone of his oil pictures; far different from that characteristic tone which signalizes the Battle of Constantine, painted by him from the design and after the death of Raphael, and which was by Poussin admired as being most happily adapted to the subject. The style of his draperies is classic, but the arrangement of the folds generally arbitrary and mannered; the hair and head dressses of his women are always fanciful and luxurious, but not always arranged by taste; whilst those of his men frequently border on the grotesque.

After he had completed the Hall of Constantine in the Vatican from the design of his master Raphael, he went to Mantua, where the increased practice and authority, derived from the superintendence of the great works he had just completed, established his reliance on himself; and the patronage of the Gonzaghi roused that loftiness of conception, and gave birth to those magnificent plans, from which Mantua and the palace *del T.*, as from enchantment, rose. To the stores of antique treasures belonging to this great family, of which the statues, busts, and basso-relievos at present in the academy are but insignificant remains, he added his own; rich in designs of Raphael, and in studies and plans from the antique. No designer ever possessed such industry with so much fire, so much consideration with such fecundity, or combined with equal rapidity such correctness, or with great recondite knowledge in mythology and history, so much popularity and care in treating it.

The palace *del T.* furnishes specimens in every class of picturesque imagery. Whatever be the dimension, the subject, or the scenery, minute or colossal, simple or complex, terrible or pleasing, we trace a mind bent to surprise or to dazzle by poetic splendour; but sure to strike by the originality of his conception, he often neglects propriety in conducting his subjects, considered as a series: and in the arrangement or choice of the connecting parts, hurried into extremes by the torrent of a fancy more lyric than epic, he disdains to fill the intermediate chasms, and too often leaves the task of connection to the spectator.

In this palace, Giulio adopted the method of his master. He prepared the cartoons, and the pictures were executed by his pupils; but he retouched, corrected, and gave the last finish to them: unfortunately, his master-strokes have been covered again by modern pencils; and the fable of Psyche, the Allegories of Human Life, the Giants storming Heaven, exhibit now indeed his composition and design, but not his hand: this is better preserved in the paintings of the old palace, or, as it is now called, the Corte of Mantua; which are in fresco, and relate chiefly the histories of the Trojan war. They have the same beauties and defects as those of the palace *del T.*: each, singly considered, is a proof of the poetic spirit and the practical powers of the master; as a cyclus they want connection and evidence. Helen sleeping, Vulcan forging Arms for Achilles, are beautiful; and Minerva in the act of slaying Ajax, the son of Oileus, sublime. Nor is his versatility less admirable in the Bacchic or amorous subjects; the *capricci* and grotesque conceits with which he decorated the small cabinets of the same palace.

The altar-pieces of Giulio are not numerous. He did not live to finish those which he had begun for the cathedral of Mantua. The most remarkable of those which he finished with his own hand, are the three frescoes at St. Marco; and in the church of St. Cristofero, the athletic figure of that saint, groaning under the weight of the divine Infant on his shoulders. They are, however, far inferior, for genuine pathos and classic execution, to the Martyrdom of St. Stephen, on the head altar of the church of St. Stephen at Genoa.

Of Giulio's scholars and assistants, the most celebrated were F. Primaticcio, chiefly employed in the stuccoes and ornaments of the palace *del T.*; Benedetto Pagni of Pescia, who accompanied Giulio from Rome to Mantua; and Rinaldo

naldo Mantovano, the most expert of the three, and in the opinion of Vasari, who laments the shortness of his life, the greatest painter that Mantua ever produced: the altar-piece of Sta. Agostina alla Trinita has a grandeur of style above his age, and has by some been suspected to be the design of Giulio. To these may be added Fermo Guisoni, who coloured in the cathedral the Call of St. Peter and St. Andrew, from the most studied and most beautiful cartoon of the master; and Theodore Ghigi, or as he subcribes himself, Theodore Mantovano, a great designer, and so practised in the style of Giulio, that after his death he was selected by the prince to finish several of his works.

In addition to his powers as a painter, Giulio Romano possessed a very considerable knowledge of the principles of architecture; and was employed in plans for several of the palaces at Rome and Mantua. His last architectural exertion was the erection of a splendid mansion for himself at Mantua. Vasari relates, that upon the death of San Gallo, the architect of St. Peter's, Guilio was selected by the pope for his successor, but was prevented leaving Mantua by the interest of the cardinal Duke, and the entreaties of his wife and her immediate friends and relations; and whilst he was endeavouring to surmount these difficulties, and enjoy the proffered honour and emolument, he was seized with illness, and borne to the grave in the year 1546, and in the 54th of his age. He left a son, called, after his respected master, Raphael, of whom nothing remains, but the tradition that he possessed talents worthy of his father. He died in 1560, at the age of 30. *Fuseli's Pilkington.*

ROMANO, a town of Austrian Italy, not far from the Oglio. It is surrounded with a wall, and defended by a castle. Population 3200; 26 miles east of Milan.

ROMANO, a town of Piedmont; 5 miles south of Ivrea, with 2000 inhabitants. It stands on an eminence near the Chiusella, and has a bridge over that river. This was considered an important pass when the French crossed the Alps in 1800. Accordingly, an obstinate engagement took place on the 26th May, in which the Austrian general was killed, and his detachment defeated.

ROMANO, or Romano Cayo, a small island of the north shore of the island of Cuba. It is long and narrow, and is at the eastern extremity of that cluster of isles called the King's Garden.

ROMANOV, a small town of European Russia, in the government of Kiev; 86 miles south-south-west of Kiev.

ROMANOV, a town of the interior of European Russia, in the government of Jaroslav, on the Volga. Population 2100; 34 miles north-west of Jaroslav.

ROMANOV, or Romanovka, a small town of Russia, in Lithuania, in the government of Minsk; 22 miles west-by-north of Sluck, and 65 south-south-west of Minsk.

ROMANOV, or Romanovka, a small town of European Russia, in Volhynia; 8 miles north-east of Zytomiers.

ROMANOV, a town of European Russia, in the government of Jaroslav, on the Wolga. It has 7 churches, and 4200 inhabitants, with manufactures of linen, silk, and leather; also some commission trade in silk and woollen stuffs; 16 miles west-north-west of Jaroslav. Lat. 57. 46. N. long. 39. 40. E.

ROMANOVA, a small town in the west of European Russia, in Volhynia; 45 miles south-east of Zytomiers.

ROMANS, a town of France, in the province of Dauphiny, department of the Drome, on the Isere, with a bridge over that river. It contains 6500 inhabitants, and has manufactures of woollen and silk; also tanneries, and a number of presses for making olive oil. The environs are fertile, and produce the celebrated wine called hermitage. This town suffered greatly by the civil wars; 11 miles north-east of Valence, and 28 west-south-west of Grenoble.

ROMANSLEIGH, a village of England, in Devonshire; 4 miles south-by-east of South Moulton.

ROMANSWEILER, a village of France, in the department of the Lower Rhine, with 800 inhabitants.

ROMANTIC, or Romantically, *adj.* Resembling the tales of romances; wild.—Philosophers have maintained opinions more absurd than any of the most fabulous poets or *romantick* writers. *Keil.*—Improbable; false.—Their feigned and *romantic* heroes. *Scott.*—Fanciful; full of wild scenery.

The dun umbrage, o'er the falling stream,
Romantick hangs.

ROMA'NTICALLY, *adv.* Wildly; extravagantly.—I love you both very sincerely, though not so *romantically* perhaps as such as you may expect, who have been used to receive more complimental letters and high flights. *Pope.*

ROMA'NTICKNESS, *s.* State or quality of being romantick.

ROMANUS, the name of several Roman emperors. See Rome.

ROMANUS, Pope, was a native of Gallesium, who, upon the expulsion of Stephen VI. or VII. from the see of Rome, in the autumn of the year 897, was preferred to that dignity. He is said by Platina to have annulled the acts of his predecessor, and, in particular, to have declared his proceedings against the corpse and memory of Pope Fomosus, unjust and illegal; but his statement is not confirmed by the testimony of any of the more ancient writers. Romanus's dignity was but of short duration, since he died in Jan. 898, before he had been in possession of it quite four months. Two "Letters" attributed to him may be seen in Baluze's "Append. ad Marc. Hispan." *Platina. Moreri.*

ROMANUS (Adrian), a physician and learned mathematician, who flourished in the 16th and at the commencement of the 17th century, was born at Louvain, in the year 1561. He studied philosophy and the mathematics under the Jesuits at Cologne; and at the same city began the study of medicine, which he prosecuted still further at Louvain, and afterwards completed in the Italian universities. Possessed of a lively penetrating genius, united to a solid judgment, he made a very considerable proficiency in the different sciences to which his attention was directed, as was sufficiently apparent from the lectures which after his return from Italy he delivered for some years at Louvain, and the books which he published there. In the year 1593, he accepted an invitation from the prince and Bishop of Wurtzburg, in the German circle of Franconia, to teach the mathematics and medicine in a college which that prelate was then founding. He was appointed physician to the Emperor, and honoured with the insignia of the order of the Golden Fleece. He visited almost the whole of Germany, Hungary, Bohemia, Prussia, and Poland, and resided near two years with John de Samoschi, or Zamoschi, chancellor of the kingdom of Poland. At the request of that nobleman, in the year 1710, he delivered public lectures on the mathematics in the new town which was named after him. He died at Mentz about the age of 54. He was the author of "Ouranographia, de Cælorum Numero et Ordine," 1591, 4to.; "Ideæ Mathematicæ pars prior, sive Methodus Polygonorum," &c., 1593, 4to.; "Theatrum Urbium inquo Urbium præcipuarum per Orbem universam brevis est Descriptio," 1595, 4to.; "Supputatio Ecclesiastica, juxta novam veteremque Calendarii Rationem, cum Theoria Calendariorum," 1595, 4to.; "Theoria Ventorum," of the same date, in 4to.; "Problema Apolloniacum," of the same date, in 4to.; "Apologia pro Archimede, ad Josephum Scaligerum;" "Expositio et Analysis in Archimedis Circuli Dimensionem;" "Exercitationes Cyclicæ," 1597, folio; "Idea Matheseos Universæ," 1602, 8vo., afterwards published in an enlarged form, under the title of "Mathesis Polemica," 8vo.; "Arithmeticæ Quatuor Instrumenta," 1603, folio; "Speculum Mathematicum, sive Organum Forma Mappæ expressum, de Motibus in primo Cœlo ac mobili spectari solitas," 1606, 4to.; Methodus Experimendi numeros Quantumvis Maximos," 1607, folio; "Mathematicæ Analyseos Triumphus," of the same date, in folio; "Canon Triangulorum Sphæricorum," 1609, 4to; "Canon Triangulorum Rectangulorum, tum Sphæricorum quam Rectilineorum;" "Pyrotechnia, sive de Ignibus festivis, Jocosis et Artificialibus, Lib. II.," 1611, 4to., &c. *Valerii. Andreæ Bibl. Belg. Moreri.*

ROMBLON, or ROMBLINO, one of the smaller Philippine islands, about 30 miles in circumference. Lat. 12. 40. N. long. 121. 58. E.

ROMBOUTS (Theodore), a native of Antwerp, and born in 1597, was a painter of very considerable merit. At first he studied under Abraham Jansens; but in his 20th year he went to Italy, and there began his career as an historical painter. He was patronized by the duke of Tuscany, and painted several large compositions for that prince, who honoured and rewarded him handsomely. On his return to Antwerp, he found Rubens in possession of full fame; and soon perceived how difficult it was for him to meet with that degree of estimation at home which he had received abroad. A noble emulation, however, stimulated him to enter the lists with that great master; and though he certainly was not adequate to the combat, yet he exhibited considerable prowess, which even Rubens acknowledged.

As he died at the age of 40, his works are not numerous. The principal ones, among those executed after his return from Italy, were painted for the court-house of Ghent.

He likewise painted pictures of low subjects, such as mountebanks and their attendants, soldiers playing at cards, &c. &c.; which he did as pastime, or merely to acquire money, but they are not among his best performances. On the historical pictures he produced, his reputation rests for support, and is upheld to a considerable rank.

ROMBROOK, or ROMERICK, a village of England, in Hertfordshire, near Ickleton.

ROMBROUGH, a village of England, in Suffolk; north-west of Halesworth.

ROMDEN, a village of England in Kent, near Smarden.

ROME.

ROME [*Roma* Lat. so named from the Gr. ῥωμη, strength; or, according to others, from Romulus, its founder; the *ulus* being dropped as being a diminutive ill suited to the grandeur of the state.] The name of that well-known state of Italy which, arising from an insignificant beginning, included nearly all the populated world, introduced into the barbarian regions of Europe the arts of civilization, rescued from oblivion, and preserved for our times the literature of the Greeks; and lastly diffused through its extensive dominions the important truths of Christianity. Sinking under the reaction these great changes produced, Rome lost successively the temporal government of the world, and the spiritual dominion of mankind, and now presents in her noble ruins only a mausoleum of departed greatness, and in her feeble and enslaved population, a contrast to that haughty power which so long subjected to republican sway the proudest and most powerful monarchs of the world.

The early history of Rome is like that of all other ancient nations; a series of fables founded on the traditionary records of primitive wars. Her population has not of course been traced to its first elements, but the structure of the language sufficiently proves that Italy was either peopled directly from Greece, or from the same original stock with that country. Probably both these opinions are correct, since tradition has preserved several accounts of descents of Grecians on the Italian shores, and in each of these, mention is made of severe battles with the aboriginal inhabitants. We may refer to the article ITALY for some speculations as to the number and origin of the nations into which this country was divided. It is sufficient to mention in this place, that at the time Rome was built, the Etrurians, Tuscans, or Tyrrhenians, inhabited a large contiguous territory, had made some progress in language, and had framed regular laws, and a free system of government: and many other warlike but divided and barbarous tribes occupied the remainder of the country.

The inhabitants of Rome ascribed their origin to the Trojans; and that they were somewhat farther removed from the surrounding nations by language and character, than these were from one another, may reasonably be inferred from the perpetual coalitions that were formed between the latter against the Romans, who, on the contrary, generally had to maintain their contests single-handed.

Those who would know the pleasant fable of Æneas's voyage from Troy to Italy, may turn to the grateful pages of Virgil. The historian has nothing fixed or certain to record. All that seems to bear the semblance of probability in those marvellous adventures, is, that the Trojans, driven from their country, became a band of piratical robbers who made numerous descents on the shores of the Hellespont, on the coasts of Sicily, and lastly on Italy. [See Dion. Hal. Vol. I. p. 47, where he puts nearly the same proposition into the mouth of Æneas.] At some of these places the Trojans were favourably received. But whoever considers the extreme difficulty of transporting large masses of men across the seas, must easily perceive that the Trojans could never effectually contend with any distant country, populously inhabited, for a place of settlement. Accordingly we find that it was only by negociation, and by an alliance with the king of Latium, that Æneas was enabled to make head against Mezentius, and the chiefs who were opposed to the new colony.

The Romans were much attached to this deduction of their ancestry, and their historians mention several proofs of its veracity, as well as several traces of Æneas's peregrinations. Dionysius mentions especially, that at Zacynthus, in which island Æneas had instituted games, called the races of Æneas and Venus, the statues of both were standing in his day. In Leucas, where the Trojans landed, was to be seen, in the same author's time, a temple erected to Venus the mother of Æneas. Nor were Actium and Ambraicia without monuments that testified his arrival in those places. At Dodona were found brazen vases, upon which the name of the Trojan hero, who had made an offering of them to Jupiter, was engraven in old characters. Not far from Buthrotos, in Epirus, a Trojan camp which had escaped the injuries of time, retained the name of Troja. All these antiquities, still subsisting in the reign of Augustus, were then looked upon as indisputable proofs of Æneas's voyage to Epirus: "and that he came into Italy (adds Dionysius) we have the concurrent testimony of all the Romans; the ceremonies they observe in their sacrifices and festivals bear witness to it, as also the Sibylline books, the Pythian oracles, and many other things, which nobody can reasonably reject as invented merely for ornament." And though several Grecian authorities state that Æneas died in Greece, there is so much contradiction amongst them, that it is far easier to credit the Roman story. The name of Trojans was gradually lost in that of Latins. By a marriage with Lavinia, daughter of Latinus, and by the subsequent death of the latter, Æneas obtained the sovereignty of a kingdom. He is said to have reigned three years; during which time he established the worship of the gods of his own country, and to the religion of the Latins added that of Troy. The two Palladiums, which had been the protectors of that city, became the tutelary deities of Lavinium, and the worship of Vesta was likewise introduced, and virgins, from her called Vestals, were appointed to keep a fire continually burning in honour of that goddess. Jupiter, Venus, and many other deities who had been revered in Troy, probably became known to the Latins through Æneas; which probably obtained him the epithet of *pious Æneas*.

The death of Æneas, which took place in consequence of his being forced, during a battle, into the river Numicus, left his son Ascanius, or Julus, master of the throne. He defeated the Etrurians, and fixed the Tiber as a boundary of division betwen their states and his own. He then resigned Latium to a posthumous son of Lavinia, and built *Alba Longa*. On his death, the two states were again united under

under Sylvius. Of his dynasty, thirteen kings are said to have reigned, occupying altogether a period of 400 years. Nothing scarcely is known of these, but their names (if we except the anecdote that the drowning of one Tiberinus in the Tiber gave a name to that river), until we come to Amulius. This prince had usurped the throne from his brother Numitor, whose son he killed, and whose daughter, Rhea, he consecrated to perpetual virginity, as a vestal. By these means, he hoped to secure to himself the quiet and permanent possession of the throne.

Rhea, however, contrived to bring forth two sons, and, to save her fame, reported that she had been ravished by Mars. She was condemned to death, and her children also. But her sentence was commuted to perpetual banishment, and the twins were exposed in an open trough on the Tiber. Twenty years afterwards, two men from the country, asserted that they were the sons of Rhea; stirred up the people to arms, defeated Amulius, and placed Numitor on the throne. The following amusing account of them was preserved amongst the Roman traditions. "The wind and stream to which the royal brothers were exposed, proved both so favourable, that at the fall of the water they were left safe on the strand, and were there happily found by Faustulus, the chief of the king's shepherds, and suckled by his wife Acca Laurentia, who for her disorderly life was called Lupa; and this probably gave rise to the fabulous miracle of their being nursed by a wolf."

"As Faustulus was well acquainted with the birth of the twins, he took more than ordinary care of their education, and sent them to Gabii to be instructed there in Greek literature. As they grew up, they appeared to have something great in their mien and air, which commanded respect; and the ascendant which they assumed over the other shepherds made them dreaded in the forests, where they exercised a sort of empire. A quarrel happening between the herdsmen of Amulius, and those of Numitor, the two brothers took the part of the former against the latter; and some blood being shed in the fray, the adverse party, to be revenged on Romulus and Remus (for so the twins were called), on the festival of Lupercalia, surprised Remus, and carried him before Numitor, to be punished according to his deserts. But Numitor feeling himself touched in the prisoner's favour, asked him where he was born, and who were his parents. His answer immediately struck Numitor with a lively remembrance of his two grandsons; their age, which was about 18 years, agreed with the time when the two infants were exposed upon the Tiber; and there needed no more to change his anger into tenderness."

"In the mean time Romulus, eager to rescue his brother, and pursue those who had carried him off, was preparing to be revenged on them; but Faustulus dissuaded him from it; and on that occasion, disclosing to him his birth, awakened in his breast sentiments worthy of his extraction. He resolved, at all adventures, to attempt the delivering of his mother and grandfather from oppression. With this view he assembled the country people, over whom he had assumed a kind of sovereignty, and engaged them to come to the city on an appointed day, and enter it by different gates, provided with arms, which they were to conceal. While Romulus was thus disposing every thing for the execution of his design, Numitor made the same discovery to Remus concerning his parents, and the oppressions they groaned under; which so fired him, that he was ready to embark in any enterprise. But Numitor took care to moderate the transports of his grandson, and only desired him to acquaint his brother with what he had heard from him, and to send him to his house. Romulus soon came, and was followed by Faustulus, who took with him the trough or skiff in which the twins had been exposed, to show it to Numitor: but, as the shepherd betrayed an air of concern and earnestness in his looks, he was stopped at the gate of the city, led before Amulius, and examined concerning his burden. It was easily known by its make and inscription, which was still legible; and therefore Faustulus owned what it was, and confessed that the twins were living; but, in order to gain time, pretended that they were feeding flocks in a remote desert. In the mean time, the usurper's death being resolved on, Remus undertook to raise the city, and Romulus to invest the king's palace. The country people came at the time appointed, and formed themselves into companies each consisting of 100 men. They had no other ensigns but bundles of hay hanging upon long poles, which the Latins at that time called *manipuli;* and hence came the name of *manipulares*, originally given to troops raised in the country. With this tumultuous army Romulus beset the avenues of the palace, forced the guard, and having killed the tyrant, after he had reigned 42 years, restored his grandfather Numitor to the throne."

Affairs being thus settled at Alba, the two brothers, by the advice of Numitor, undertook the founding of a new colony. The king bestowed on them those lands near the Tiber where they had been brought up, supplied them with instruments for breaking up the ground, with slaves, and beasts of burden, and granted full liberty to his subjects to join them. Hereupon most of the Trojans, of whom there still remained 50 families in Augustus's time, followed Romulus and Remus, as did also the inhabitants of Pallantium and Saturnia, two small towns. For the more speedy carrying on of the work, it was thought proper to divide those who were to be employed in the building of the city into two companies, one under the command of Romulus, the other of Remus; this division gave birth to two factions, and produced a jealousy between the two brothers, which broke out when they came to choose a place for the building of their new city; for Remus was for the Aventine, and Romulus for the Palatine mount. Upon which, the matter being referred to their grandfather, he advised the contending parties to have recourse to the gods, and to put an end to the dispute by augury. The day appointed for the ceremony being come, the brothers posted themselves each upon his hill; and it was agreed, that whoever should see the first flight, or the greatest number of vultures, should gain his cause. After the two rivals had waited some time for the appearance of a favourable omen, Romulus, before any had appeared, sent to acquaint his brother that he had seen some vultures; but Remus, having actually seen six, while his brother's messengers were yet on their way, hastened, on their arrival, to Mount Palatine, to examine the truth of what they had told him. He had no sooner got thither, than, by an unexpected good fortune, twelve vultures appeared to Romulus. These he immediately showed to his brother; and, transported with joy, desired him to judge himself of the truth of what his messengers had told him. However, Remus discovered the deceit; and, being told that Romulus had not seen the twelve vultures till after he had seen six, he insisted on the time of his seeing them, and the other on the number of birds he had seen: the dispute grew so warm, that, from words they came at length to blows. The shepherd Faustulus, who was equally dear to both the brothers, endeavouring to part the combatants, was, by an unknown hand, laid dead on the spot. Some writers tell us that Remus likewise lost his life in the fray; but the greater number place his death later, and say that he was killed by one Fabius, for having, in derision, leaped over the wall of the new city: Livy, however, says the more common report was, that Remus fell by the hand of his brother.

Romulus, being now head of the colony, applied his thoughts wholly to the building of the city. The importance attached to this institution may be gathered from the various ceremonies observed. Romulus first offered sacrifices to the gods, and ordered all the people to do the same; and decreed that eagles should be the auspices of his new colony. After this, great fires were kindled before their tents, and all the people leaped through the flames to purify themselves. When this ceremony was over, they dug a trench round the spot where the assemblies of the people were afterwards held, and threw into it the first-fruits of whatever they were allowed

to

to make use of for food: every man of the colony was ordered to cast into the same trench a handful of earth, brought either from his own or some neigbouring country. The trench they called mundus, the world; and made it the centre round which the city was to be built. Then Romulus, yoking an ox and a cow to a plough, the coulter whereof was brass, marked out, by a deep furrow, the whole compass of the city. These two animals, the symbols of marriage, by which cities are peopled, were afterwards slain upon the altar. All the people followed the plough, throwing inwards the clods of earth which the plough-share sometimes turned outwards, (indicating, as some suppose, that the proper wealth of a city is the product of the lands without it.) Wherever a gate was to be made, the plough was lifted up, and carried; and hence came the Latin word porta, "a gate," derived from the verb portare, "to carry." As mount Palatine stood by itself, the whole was inclosed within the line made by the plough, which formed almost the figure of a square; whence, by Dionysius Halicarnassensis, it is called Roma Quadrata.

As to the exact year of the foundation of Rome, there is a great disagreement among historians and chronologers. Fabius Pictor, the most ancient of all the Roman writers, places it in the end of the seventh Olympiad; that is, according to the computation of Usher, in the year of the world 3256, of the flood 1600, and 748 before the Christian era. Varro places it in the third year of the sixth Olympiad, and his opinion is, we think, the best supported. But it must be confessed that there can be no certainty about the matter; for according to the unvarying probabilities of the duration of human life, the Romans accounted their kingdom far older than it could have become under seven kings; and on the other hand, when they began to reckon years by consulships they fell into an equal error, because, sometimes the consuls died before their year was expired, sometimes, on the other hand, they were allowed to retain it a little longer than usual, and sometimes there occurred interregna.

When Rome had received the utmost perfection which its poor and rude founder could give it, it consisted of about a thousand houses, or rather huts; and was, properly speaking, a beggarly village, whereof the principal inhabitants followed the plough, being obliged to cultivate with their own hands the ungrateful soil of a barren country which they had shared among themselves. Even the walls of Romulus's palace, says Valerius Maximus, were made of rushes, and covered with thatch.

As soon as the building of the city was finished, Romulus assembled the people, and desired them to choose what kind of government they would obey. At that time monarchy was the unanimous voice of the Romans, and Romulus was elected king.

We here arrive at a period when the Roman history begins to wear somewhat of an aspect of truth and probability. It will be better for the arrangement of this extensive subject, to divide this article into four heads or chapters, of which the first will embrace the history of the *Kingdom* of Rome; the second that of the *Republic;* the third that of the *Empire*, properly so called, extending to the death of Theodosius; the fourth that of the *Western Empire*, or Rome, strictly speaking; the fifth the *Eastern Empire*, or that of Constantinople.

I. THE KINGDOM OF ROME.

The first memorable acts of Romulus after he had adopted a habit of distinction, and appointed a guard of twelve lictors to attend his person, was the division of his people into *patricians* and *plebeians*. The former embracing the families of the first settlers, who had a sort of hereditary superiority in rank; the latter forming the common people of all classes. He established also the relation of *patron* and *client*, which was no other than this:—The patron took upon himself to support and protect a certain number of families of the lowest sort; to assist them with his interest and property, and to free them from the oppressions of the great. It was his business to draw up the contracts of his clients; to extricate them out of their difficulties and perplexities, and to guard their ignorance against the artful devices of the crafty. On the other hand, the clients were obliged to unite in contributing towards the payment of the portions of their patrons' daughters; towards paying their ransom, if they or their children were taken in war; and to discharge their public debts, when they themselves were not able to do so. Both client and patron were also mutually disabled, either from accusing or bearing witness against each other, and if either was convicted of having violated these mutual obligations, the guilt was no less than treason; and the person injured had power to put the offender to death, which was done by sacrificing him to Pluto or the manes. And whilst the patronage subsisted thus at Rome upon the footing on which Romulus had established it, concord reigned there. "It was thought honourable to have a great number of clients: whilst they enjoyed peace and tranquillity under the protection of their patrons, and lived in union and good correspondence with one another. In short, mutual interests so united the people with the nobility and rich citizens, that for more than six hundred years we find neither jealousy nor dissentions between the patrons and clients, even in the time of the republic; notwithstanding that there were sometimes insurrections among the people against those who were most powerful in Rome." This sort of fealty became probably, in the advanced ages of the republic, merely nominal, but certainly, if strictly enforced, it exhibited no difference, except in words, from the relations of master and slave. The drawing of contracts, and the vague and undefined duty of extricating their clients from perplexities, was slavishly repaid by the portioning of the patrons' daughters, and the paying of debts.

The next care of Romulus was to form a senate, consisting of a hundred persons, afterwards increased to 200, chosen from among the superior class of the people, and from whom the patrician families were descended. This assembly were not only to be judges in matters of small importance, but to debate and resolve upon such public affairs as the king proposed, and to determine them by a plurality of voices. The people at large were allowed to create magistrates, enact laws, and resolve upon any war in which the king should propose to engage. Romulus next proceeded to settle the religious affairs of his people, and he added many of the Trojan deities to those whom the aborigines, or Italian natives, already worshipped. He chose priests, instituted festivals, and laid the foundation of a regular system of religion. He restricted, however, the performance of all trades and mechanical occupations to slaves and strangers, confining the Romans to military duties and the cultivation of the land. He gave fathers an almost unlimited controul over their family, allowing them to sell their children as slaves, and even to put them to death.

After all that has been attributed to the political sagacity and talents of Romulus, it is probable that the great outlines of the first constitution had a natural foundation in the usages of barbarous nations; and though many of his institutions bear the traces of a discerning and active mind, some are sufficiently barbarous and absurd.

The new state opened her arms to all the culprits, debtors, and slaves, who fled either from the vengeance of their country's laws, or from their masters. These, after being appointed a dwelling without the city walls, on Mount Saturninus, for some short time under the command of Tarpeius, were admitted into the city, and thus increased the thin population of the first settlers.

The next event in the reign of Romulus is the memorable but strange story of the rape of the Sabines. What sort of a country that could be in which, while continual wars were destroying the males, no females could be procured, we can by no means conjecture. It is extremely surprising, also, that the Sabines, who were so well affected towards the Romans as to come and visit them at their festivals, should have been so hostile as to refuse alliances by marriage; for surely the policy suggested by the Roman historians, (that the neighbouring nations refused wives to the Romans lest they should

should increase their strength), is much too refined for barbarians. Be this as it may, thus Livy and Dionysius relate the rape of the Sabines. Romulus, by the advice of Numitor, and the approbation of the god Neptune, instituted a festival or day of sports, and invited thereto the surrounding nations. When the day fixed was come, the king presided in a striped robe, which the Latins called trabea:—"The assembly consisted of a vast number of people, which were come together from the neighbouring countries; but chiefly from the cities, or rather little towns of Cænina, Crustuminum and Antennæ, which seemed to be emptied to furnish spectators for the Roman sports: men, women, girls, and children, all came to them: but it may be affirmed, that the Sabines came in greater numbers than other people. The shows and fair lasted a considerable time; for the feast began at the beginning of the month Sextiles, and did not end till the 20th of that month. The peace and harmony that continued during the sports, lulled the spectators into security: for the Romans did not put their enterprize in execution till the last day of the festival. They had orders to come armed to the last spectacle, and conceal their arms under their clothes. And in the mean time every one during the sports pitched upon the woman whom he determined should be his wife. When, therefore, the multitude was most attentive to the show, Romulus rose from his seat, adjusted his robe, folded it and unfolded it again. This was the signal agreed on for beginning the rape; and instantly the Roman youth appeared sword in hand and fell upon the spectators. They being unarmed and frightened, fell in disorder; and in the tumult the Romans, who had no design of shedding blood, carried off every one his prey. The rest of the strangers were suffered to disperse themselves, and to go home and bewail the loss of their daughters or sisters." There is one remarkable circumstance worth mentioning: "In the hurry of the rape, some Romans of distinction perceiving a body of their people of the meanest sort running away with a young woman of singular beauty, envied them so fine a prey, and they to prevent their being deprived of their booty, cried out, Thalassio, Thalassio, a word used in Rome in the celebration of marriages ever after. Their meaning was, that the young person they were carrying away was designed for Thalassius, an illustrious Roman who was in great esteem in the colony. And from hence it was that the crying out Thalassio was always customary at Rome in the marriage ceremony, in the same manner as Hymen and Hymenea prevailed among the Greeks; and in memory of this rape, it afterwards became customary in all marriages there for the brides to be taken up under the arms, and carried at least over the threshhold of the door when they entered their husbands' houses, as if they had been taken from their fathers by force." The first attempt to revenge this affront was made by Acron, king of Cænina, a city on the confines of Latium, who, having entered into a league with the inhabitants of Crustuminum and Antennæ, invaded the Roman territories. Romulus marched against them without delay, defeated the confederate army, killed their king in single combat, decreed himself a triumph, and consecrated the spoils of Acron to Jupiter Feretrius, under the name of Opima Spolia. Several cities of Etruria voluntarily submitted to him. But the Sabines, not in the least dismayed at this increase of the Roman forces, sent a depution to Romulus, demanding restitution of the young women who had been carried off; and, upon his refusal, marched to Rome with an army of 25,000 foot and 1000 horse, under the command of their king Titus Tatius. Romulus, having received supplies from Numitor and from Etruria, likewise took the field, with 20,000 foot and 800 horse, with whom he seized an advantageous post, and fortified himself so strongly, that he could not be attacked. The Sabine monarch, perceiving the military skill of Romulus, began to be apprehensive of the event; but was extricated out of his difficulties by the treachery of Tarpeia, daughter to the governor of the citadel, who agreed to betray that important fortress to the enemy, on condition of being rewarded with what the Sabines wore on their left arms, (meaning their bracelets.) But when they became masters of this important place, they are said to have crushed Tarpeia under the weight of their bucklers, pretending that thus they discharged their promise, as they wore their bucklers also on their left arms. The possession of the citadel enabled the Sabines to carry on the war with more success; at last, in a general engagement, they had the misfortune to be driven back into the citadel, whither they were pursued by the Romans, who expected to have retaken that important post; but the enemy, rolling down great stones from the top of the hill, wounded Romulus on the head, so that he was carried insensible out of the field of battle, while, in the mean time, his troops were repulsed, and pursued to the very gates of Rome. However, the king soon recovering himself, encouraged his routed troops, and drove the enemy back into the citadel. But while the two nations were thus fiercely contending, the women, for whose cause the war had been commenced, undertook the office of mediators; and having obtained leave from the senate, marched in a body to the camp of the Sabines, where they pleaded the cause of their husbands so effectually, that a treaty of union between the two nations was set on foot, and a peace was at last concluded on the following terms. 1. That the two kings should reside and reign jointly at Rome. 2. That the city should still, from Romulus, be called Rome; but the inhabitants quirites, a name till then peculiar to the Sabines. 3. That the two nations should become one; and that the Sabines should be made free in Rome, and enjoy all the privileges of Roman citizens. As Rome was chiefly indebted for this increase of her power and splendour to the Sabine women, honourable privileges and marks of distinction were allowed them. Every one was commanded to give way to them when they passed along the streets: in capital causes they were exempted from the jurisdiction of the ordinary judges; and their children were distinguished by a golden ball hanging from their necks, and a particular kind of robe called prætexta. There is nothing more probable than that this story of Tarpeia was feigned to excuse the defeat of the Romans.

The two kings reigned with great harmony for the space of five years; during which time the only military exploit they accomplished was the reduction of the city of Cameria, at a small distance from Rome. Four thousand of the Camerini were transplanted to Rome, and a Roman colony sent to repeople Cameria; soon after which, the Sabine king was murdered by the Lavinians, on account of his granting protection to some of his friends who had ravaged their territories. The Lavinians, fearing the resentment of Romulus, delivered up the assassins into his hands; but he sent them back unpunished, which gave occasion to suspect that he was not displeased with the death of his colleague.

Soon after the death of Tatius, Rome was afflicted with famine and pestilence, which encouraged the Camerini to revolt; but Romulus marching against them suddenly, defeated them with the loss of 6000 men. After which he attacked the Fidenates, whose city stood about five miles from Rome, took their capital, and made it a Roman colony. This drew upon him the resentment of the Veientes, a powerful nation in the neighbourhood, who claimed Fidenæ as within their jurisdiction; but their forces being defeated in two engagements, and a great number of them taken prisoners, they were obliged to sue for peace. Romulus granted them a truce for 100 years, on condition that they delivered to him seven small towns on the Tiber, together with some salt-pits near the mouth of that river, and sent 50 of their chief citizens as hostages to Rome. The prisoners taken in this war were all sold for slaves.

The remaining part of the life of Romulus was spent in making laws for the good of his people; but towards the latter end of his reign, being elated with success, he began to enlarge the bounds formerly set to his prerogative, and to behave in an arbitrary manner. He paid no longer any regard to the voice of the senate, but assembled them only for form's sake to ratify his commands. The senate therefore conspired to destroy him, and accomplished their purpose while he was reviewing his troops. A violent storm

storm of hail and thunder dispersed the army; and the senators taking this opportunity, when they were left alone with the king, instantly killed him, and conveyed his body out of sight. Some writers tell us, that the better to conceal the fact, they cut his body in pieces, each of them carrying away a part under his robe; after which they told the multitude, that their king was on a sudden surrounded by flame, and snatched up into heaven. This stratagem, however, did not satisfy the soldiery, and violent disturbances were about to ensue, when Julius Proculus, a senator of great distinction, having assembled the curiæ, told them that Romulus had appeared to him, and enjoined him to acquaint the people, that their king was returned to the gods from whom he originally came, but that he would continue to be propitious to them under the name of Quirinus; and to the truth of this story Julius swore.

Romulus reigned, according to the common computation, 37 years; but some historians reduce the length of his reign to little more than 17. Be this as it will, the death of Romulus was followed by an interregnum, during which the senators, to prevent anarchy and confusion, took the government into their own hands. Tatius had added another hundred to their body; and these 200 senators divided themselves into decuries, or tens. These decuries drew lots which should govern first; and the decury to whose lot it fell enjoyed the supreme authority for five days; yet in such a manner, that one person only of the governing decury had the ensigns of sovereignty at a time. To these another decury succeeded, each of them sitting on the throne in his turn, &c. But the people soon growing weary of such frequent change of masters, obliged the senate to resolve on the election of a king. The senate referred the election to the people, and the people to the senate, who at last undertook the task. Some difficulties, however, occurred; the Romans did not choose to be subject to a Sabine; and the Sabines, as they had been subject to Romulus after the death of Tatius, insisted that the king should be chosen out of their nation. At last it was agreed, that the king should be a Sabine, but that the Romans should make the choice.

In consequence of this determination, the Romans elected NUMA POMPILIUS, an austere philosopher, who had married Tatia, the daughter of Tatius the late king. After the death of his wife, he gave himself entirely up to philosophy and superstition, wandering from solitude to solitude, in search of sacred woods and fountains, which gave the people a great opinion of his sancity. The philosopher at first rejected the offer of the kingdom; but being at last prevailed upon, he set out for Rome, where he was received with loud acclamations, and had his election unanimously confirmed by the senate.

The reign of Numa is by no means memorable for battles or conquests. He was averse to war; and made it his study to soften the manners of the Romans, rather than to exalt them to superiority over their neighbours. He dismissed the celeres, encouraged agriculture, and divided the citizens into distinct bodies of tradesmen. This last measure he took on purpose to abolish the distinction between Romans and Sabines, or Tatians and Romulists, which had hitherto rent the city into two factions; and this effectually answered his end: for now all of each particular profession, whether Romans or Sabines, were obliged to associate together, and had each their respective courts and privileges. In this division the musicians held the first rank, because they were employed in the offices of religion. The goldsmiths, carpenters, curriers, dyers, tailors, &c. formed also distinct communities; and were allowed to make bye-laws among themselves, to have their own festivals, particular sacrifices, &c.

Though Numa himself is said by Plutarch to have had pretty just notions of the Supreme Being, he nevertheless added several superstitions to those he found in Rome. He divided the ministers of religion into eight classes, appointing to each their office with the greatest precision; he erected a temple to Janus, the symbol of prudence, which was to remain open in time of war, and to be shut in time of peace. Another temple was erected to *Bona Fides*; and he invented a new kind of deities called *Dii Termini*, or Gods of boundaries, which he caused to be placed on the borders of the Roman state, and of each man's particular lands.—The last reformation which Numa undertook, was that of the kalendar. Romulus had divided his year into ten months, which, according to Plutarch, had no certain or equal number of days; some consisting of 20, some of 35, &c. However, by other historians, we are informed that he allotted to March, May, Quintilis, and October, 31 days; to April, June, Sextilis, November, and December 30; making in all 304 days. But Numa being better acquainted with the celestial motions, added to these the two months of January and February. To compose these two months he added 50 days to the 304; and thus made the year answer to the course of the moon. He then took six more from the months that had even days; and added one day merely out of superstition, that the year might prove fortunate; for the pagans looked upon even numbers as unlucky, but imagined odd numbers to be fortunate. However, he could make out no more than 28 for February, and therefore that month was always reckoned unlucky among the Romans. Besides this, he observed the difference between the solar and lunar year to be 11 days; and to remedy the inequality, he added an intercalary month named *Mercedinus* or *Mercedonius*, of 22 days every two years: but as he knew also that the solar year consisted of 365 days 6 hours, he ordered that every fourth year the month Mercedinus should consist of 23 days. The care of these intercalations was left to the priests, who left out or put in the intercalary day or month as they imagined it to be lucky or unlucky; and by that means created such confusion, that the festivals came in process of time to be kept at a season quite opposite to what they had been formerly.

These are all the remarkable transactions of the reign of Numa, which is said to have continued 43 years; though some think that its duration could not be above 15 or 16. His death was followed by a short interregnum; after which TULLUS HOSTILIUS, the son or grandson of the famous Hersilia, was unanimously chosen king. Soon after his accession Cœlius, or, as he is called by Livy, *Cluilius*, who was at the head of the Alban republic, privately commissioned some of the most indigent of his subjects to waste the Roman territory; in consequence of which, a Roman army entered the territories of Alba, engaged the robbers, killed many, and took a great number, prisoners. A war soon commenced, in consequence of this, between the two nations; but when the armies came in sight of each other, their ardour cooled, neither of them seeming inclined to come to an engagement. This inaction raised a great discontent in the Alban army against Cluilius; insomuch that he came to a resolution of giving battle to the Romans next morning, or of storming their trenches if they should decline it. Next morning, however, he was found dead in his bed; after which the Albans chose in his stead one Mettus Fuffetius, a man remarkable for his hatred to the Roman name, as Cluilius had been before him. Fuffetius, however, continued in the same state of inactivity as his predecessor, until he received certain intelligence that the Veientes and Fidenates had resolved to destroy both Romans and Albans when they should be weakened by a battle. Fuffetius then resolved to come to an accommodation with the Romans; and, having obtained a conference with Tullus, both seemed equally desirous of avoiding the calamities of war. But, in order to establish the peace on the most perfect foundation, Tullus proposed that all, or at least the chief families in Alba, should remove to Rome; or, in case they were unwilling to leave their native city, that one common council should be established to govern both cities, under the direction of one of the two sovereigns. Fuffetius took aside those who attended him, to consult with them about this proposal; but they, though willing to come to an accommodation with Rome, absolutely refused to leave Alba. The only difficulty remaining, then, was to settle which city should have the superiority; and as this could not be determined by argument, Tullus proposed

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to determine it by single combat betwixt himself and Fuffetius. This proposal, however, the Alban general declined; and it was at last agreed, that three champions should be chosen out of each camp to decide the difference.

Hence occurred that famous contest between the Horatii and Curiatii, of which the following is an account. The Horatii were three brothers, Romans; the Curiatii three brothers, Sabines. The arena of the combat lay between the marshalled hosts of the Romans and Albans. The combatants took their station in the midst of the hopes and anxieties of their countrymen, and the glittering of their burnished swords and the clashing of their arms indicated the commencement of that fatal encounter. Three of the Albans were soon wounded, and two of the Romans having fallen dead beneath their blows, the surviving, but unhurt Roman, was soon surrounded by the three wounded Curiatii. Unable to contend with three antagonists, the Roman immediately retreated, and was followed at unequal distances by the three wounded Curiatii. No sooner did he perceive that he had succeeded in separating his enemies, than he turned round upon the nearest, and having slain him at one blow, he flew to encounter the second, whom he dispatched before the third could come to his assistance. The joyful shouts which had so lately resounded from among the Alban legions, were now transferred to the Roman line. The wounded and dispirited Alban became an easy prey to the victorious Roman, and yielded up with his life the sovereignty of Alba.

This episode is rendered prettier by the introduction of female interest. It is said that previous to the war an affection had subsisted between the sister of the Horatii and one of the Curiatii: when this lady saw her brother returning crowned with the spoils and imbued with the blood of her lover, she could not forbear reproaching him. Upon which, indignant at her want of patriotism, he killed her. For this brutal act he was condemned to death, but was pardoned by the people.

In gratitude for the public deliverance by the Horatii, Tullus decreed that whenever three sons were born at one birth, they should be brought up at the public charge.

Of the death of Tullus nothing certain is known; some say he was killed by lightning, others by Ancus Martius who succeeded him. His reign lasted, according to the Roman historians, 33 years.

ANCUS MARTIUS, the fourth king of Rome, grandson to Numa, inherited his virtues, to which he joined the talents of a warrior. He greatly increased the population of Rome, by naturalizing the conquered states; and he built the port of Ostia, at the mouth of the Tiber, and a large prison. The Romans under this king first adopted the stratagem of mining cities. His reign continued twenty-four years.

Ancus left two sons behind him, one an infant, and the other about 15 years of age. Both of these he put under the tuition of Tarquin, the son of a rich merchant in Corinth, who had fled from that city to secure his wealth from Cypselus, tyrant of the place. He settled in Tarquinii, one of the principal cities in Etruria; but finding that he could not there attain to any of the principal posts in the city on account of his foreign extraction, he removed to Rome, where he had been gradually raised to the rank of patrician and senator. The death of Ancus Martius gave him an opportunity of assuming the regal dignity, and setting aside his pupils; and in the beginning of his reign he took care to strengthen his party in the senate by adding another hundred to that body. These were called *senatores minorum gentium*, because they were chosen out of the plebeians; however, they had the same authority in the senate as the others, and their children were called *patricians*.

Tarquin was not inferior to any of his predecessors either in his inclination or abilities to carry on a war. As soon as he ascended the throne, he recommenced hostilities with the Latins; from whom he took the cities of Apiolæ, Crustuminum, Nomentum, and Collatia. The inhabitants of Apiolæ were sold for slaves; but those of Crustuminum and Nomentum, who had submitted after their revolt, were treated with great clemency. The inhabitants of Collatia were disarmed, and obliged to pay a large sum of money; the sovereignty of it, in the mean time, being given to Egerius, the son of Arunx, Tarquin's brother; from whence he took the name of *Collatinus*, which he transmitted to his posterity. Corniculum, another city of Latium, was taken by storm, and reduced to ashes. This progress having greatly alarmed the Latins, several of them joined their forces in order to oppose such a formidable enemy; but being defeated in a bloody battle near Fidenæ, they were obliged to enter into an alliance with Rome; upon which the Latins having held a national conference, entered into a league with the Etrurians, and again took the field with a very numerous army. But Tarquin, having defeated the confederate armies in two very bloody battles, obliged the Latin cities to submit to a kind of dependence on Rome; and having entered the city in triumph, built the circus maximus with the spoils which he had taken from the enemy.

The war with the Latins was scarcely ended, when another commenced with Etruria. This powerful nation raised a great army, with which they ravaged the Roman territory, and took Fidenæ. Tarquin, not being in a condition to oppose them at first, was obliged to submit to the loss occasioned by their ravages for a whole year; after which he took the field, and at Eretum, a place about ten miles from Rome, defeated them with great slaughter, for which victory he was decreed a triumph by the senate; while the enemy, disheartened by so many misfortunes, were glad to sue for peace; which Tarquin readily granted, upon the sole condition of their owning his superiority over them. In compliance with this, the Etrurians sent him all the ensigns of royalty which were in use among them, viz. a crown of gold, a throne of ivory, a sceptre with an eagle on the top of it, a tunic embroidered with gold, and adorned with figures of palm branches, together with a purple robe enriched with flowers of several colours.

Tarquin, having now obtained some respite from war, applied himself to the beautifying and ornamenting the city. He built the walls of Rome with hewn stone, and erected those famous common sewers which have deservedly been accounted one of the wonders of the world, and have led some to suppose that Rome was built on the site of an ancient and populous city.

Besides these great works, Tarquin adorned the Forum, surrounding it with galleries in which were shops for tradesmen, and building temples in it for the youth of both sexes, and halls for the administration of public justice. He next engaged in a war with the Sabines, on pretence that they had assisted the Etrurians. Both armies took the field, and came to an engagement on the confines of Sabinia, without any considerable advantage on either side; neither was any thing of consequence done during the whole campaign. Tarquin then, considering with himself that the Roman forces were very deficient in cavalry, resolved to add some new bodies of knights to those already instituted by Romulus. But this project met with great opposition from the superstitious augurs.

The king contented himself with augmenting the number in each body. He then renewed the war with the Sabines, ravaged their country, defeated them in three pitched battles, obliging them at last to submit to him and put him in possession of their country. In the decline of life he employed himself in further decorating the city, building temples, &c. He was assassinated in his palace, in the 80th year of his age, by the sons of Ancus Martius, whom he had originally deprived of the kingdom.

After the death of Tarquin I. his wife Tanaquil preserved the kingdom for her son-in-law Servius Tullius, by artfully giving out that the king was only stunned, and would soon recover; upon which the sons of Ancus ran away. The second day after his decease, Servius Tullius heard causes from the throne in the royal robes and attended by the lictors; but as he pretended only to supply the king's place till he should recover, and thought it incumbent on him to revenge

revenge the wicked attempt upon his life, he summoned the sons of Ancus to appear before his tribunal; and on their non-appearance, caused them to be declared infamous, and their estates to be confiscated. After he had thus managed matters for some time in such a manner as to engage the affections of the people, the death of Tarquin was published as a thing that had newly happened, and Servius Tullius assumed the ensigns of royalty, having none to dispute the honour with him.

The new king showed himself every way worthy of the throne. No sooner were the Etrurians informed of Tarquin's death, than they shook off the yoke; but Servius quickly reduced them to obedience, depriving them of their lands, which he shared among the poor Roman citizens who had none. For this he was decreed a triumph by the people, in spite of the opposition of the senate, who could never be brought to approve of his election to the kingdom, though he was soon after legally chosen by the tribes.

After Servius had obtained the sanction of the popular voice, he marched a second time against the revolted Etrurians; and having again vanquished them, was decreed another triumph. He then applied himself to the enlarging and adorning the city. To the hills Palatinus, Tarpeius, Quirinalis, Cœlius, and Aventinus, he added the Esquilinus and Viminalis, fixing his own palace on the Esquilinus, in order to draw inhabitants thither. He likewise added a fourth tribe, whom he called *Tribus Esquilina*, to those instituted by Romulus. He divided also the whole Roman territory into distinct tribes, commanding that there should be at least one place of refuge in each tribe, situated on a rising ground, and strong enough to secure the effects of the peasants in case of a sudden alarm. These strong holds he called *pagi*, that is, "villages;" and commanded that each of them should have their peculiar temple, tutelary god, and magistrates. Each of them had likewise their peculiar festival, called *paganalia;* when every person was to pay into the hands of those who presided at the sacrifices a piece of money, the men of one kind, the women of another, and the children of a third. By this means an exact computation was made of the men, women, and children, in each tribe.

In the mean time, his two wards, Lucius Tarquinius and Arunx, the grandchildren of Tarquin, being grown up, in order to secure their fidelity, he married them to his two daughters.

During the public rejoicing for this double marriage, the twelve lucumonies of Etruria uniting their forces, attempted to shake off the Roman yoke; but were in several battles defeated by Servius, and obliged to submit to him on the same conditions on which they had submitted to his predecessor. For this success Servius was honoured with a third triumph.

The king being thus disengaged from a troublesome war, returned to the pursuit of his political schemes; and put in execution that masterpiece of policy which Rome made use of ever after, and which established a perpetual order and regularity in all the members of the state, with respect to wars, to the public revenues, and the suffrages of the comitia. A method of taxation, of all others the most just, simple, and effectual, that could be devised. The public supplies had hitherto been raised upon the people at so much a head, without any distinction of rich and poor; whence it followed, that when levies were made for the war, the rich and poor were equally obliged to take the field, according to the order of their tribe; and as they all served at their own expence, the poorer sort could hardly bear the charges of a campaign. Besides, as the most indigent of the people saw themselves burdened with the same taxes as the rich, they pretended to an equal authority in the comitia: so that the election of kings and magistrates, the making of peace or war, and the judging of criminals, were given up into the hands of a populace who were easily corrupted, and had nothing to lose. Servius formed a project to remedy these evils, and put it in execution, by enacting a law, enjoining all the Roman citizens to bring in an account in writing of their own names and ages, and of those of their fathers, wives and children. By the same law, al heads of families were commanded to deliver in upon oath a just estimate of their effects, and to add to it the place of their abode, whether in town or country. Whoever did not bring in an account of his effects, was to be deprived of his estate, to be beat with rods, and publicly sold for a slave. Servius, from these particular accounts, which might be pretty well relied on, undertook to ease the poor by burdening the rich, and at the same time to please the latter by increasing their power.

To this end, he divided the Roman people into six classes: the first class consisted of those whose estates and effects amounted to the value of 10,000 drachmæ, or 100,000 ases of brass; the first way of computing being used by the Greeks; and the latter by the Latins. This class was subdivided into 80 centuries, or companies of foot. To these Servius joined 18 centuries of Roman knights, who fought on horseback; and appointed this considerable body of horsemen to be at the head of the first class, because the estates of these knights, without all doubt, exceeded the sum necessary to be admitted into it. However, the public supplied them with horses; for which a tax was laid upon widows, who were exempt from all other tributes. This first class, including infantry and cavalry, consisted of 98 centuries. The second class comprehended those whose estates were valued at 5700 drachmæ, or 75,000 ases of of brass. It was subdivided into 20 centuries, all foot. To these were added two centuries of carpenters, smiths, and other artificers. In the third class were those who were esteemed worth 5000 drachmæ, or 50,000 ases. This class was subdivided into 20 centuries. The fourth class was of those whose effects were rated at the value of 500 drachmæ, or 25,000 ases, and was divided into 20 centuries; to which were added two other centuries of trumpets and blowers of the horn, who supplied the whole army with this martial music. The fifth class included those only whose whole substance did not amount to more than 1250 drachmæ, or 12,500 ases; and this class was divided into 30 centuries. The sixth class comprehended all those who were not worth so much as those of the fifth class: they exceeded in number any other class, but nevertheless were reckoned but as one century.

The king drew from these regulations all the advantages he had expected. Levies for the army were no longer raised by tribes, nor were taxes laid at so much a head as formerly, but all was levied by centuries. When, for instance, an army of 20,000 men, or a large supply of money, was wanted for the war, each century furnished its quota both of men and money: so that the first class, which contained more centuries, though fewer men, than all the others together, furnished more men and more money for the public service than the whole Roman state besides. And by this means the Roman armies consisted for the most part of the rich citizens of Rome; who, as they had lands and effects to defend, fought with more resolution, while their riches enabled them to bear the expence of a campaign. As it was but just the king should make the first class amends for the weight laid on it, he gave it almost the whole authority in public affairs; changing the comitia by curiæ, in which every man gave his vote, into comitia by centuries, in which the majority was not reckoned by single persons, but by centuries, how few soever there might be in a century. Hence the first class, which contained more centuries than the other five taken together, had every thing at its disposal. The votes of this class were first taken; and if the 98 centuries happened to agree, or only 97 of them, the affair was determined; because these made the majority of the 193 centuries which composed the six classes. If they disagreed, then the second, the third, and the other classes in their order, were called to vote, though there was very seldom any occasion to go so low as the fourth class for a majority of votes; so that by this good order Servius brought the affairs of the state to be determined by the judgment of the most considerable citizens, and thus saved it from the uncertainty and violence

violence of popular suffrage and secured it from the despotism of the higher classes.

Now the mode of taxation adopted by Servius would have been, had the returns of property been made every year, no other than an income tax, of all other methods the most discouraging to industry and speculation. The wise king accordingly demanded the returns only every five years; and although this period was somewhat too short, it was yet sufficiently long not to restrain individuals from making the usual endeavours at bettering their condition. As the census and returns were usually closed by the lustrum, or expiatory sacrifices, the Romans henceforth began to compute time by lustrums, each lustrum containing the space of five years. Some writers are of opinion, that Servius, coined the first money that had ever appeared at Rome, during the first lustrum; and add, that the circumstances of the sacrifices probably led him to stamp the figures of the animals there slain on the pieces of brass.

The government of the city being thus established in so regular a manner, Servius, touched with compassion for those whom the misfortunes of an unsuccessful war had reduced to slavery, thought that such of them as had by long and faithful services deserved and obtained their freedom, were much more worthy of being made Roman citizens, than untractable vagabonds from foreign countries, who were admitted without distinction. He therefore gave the freedmen their choice, either to return to their own country, or continue at Rome. Those who chose to continue there, he divided into four tribes, and settled them within the city; and though they were distinguished from the plebeians by their old name of *liberti*, or *freedmen*, yet they enjoyed all the privileges of free citizens. The senate took offence at the regard which the king showed to such mean people, who had but lately shaken off their fetters; but Servius by his judicious discourses, entirely appeased the fathers, who passed his institution into a law, which subsisted ever after.

The wise king, having thus established order among the people, undertook at last to reform the royal power itself. His predecessors had reserved to themselves the cognizance of all causes both public and private; but Servius, finding the duties of his office too much for one man to discharge well, committed the cognizance of ordinary suits to the senate, and reserved that only of state crimes to himself.

All things being now regulated at home, both in the city and country, Servius turned his thoughts abroad, and formed a scheme for attaching the Sabines and Latins to the Romans, by such social ties, as should be strengthened by religion. He summoned the Latin and Sabine cities to send their deputies to Rome, to consult about an affair of great importance. When they were come, he proposed to them the building of a temple in honour of Diana, where the Latins and Sabines should meet once a year, and join with the Romans in offering sacrifices to that goddess: that this festival should be followed by a council, in which all disputes between the cities should be amicably determined; that there proper measures should be taken to pursue their common interest; and, lastly, in order to draw the common people thither, a fair should be kept, at which every one might furnish himself with what he wanted. The king's design met with no opposition: the deputies only added to it, that the temple should be an inviolable asylum for the united nations; and that all the cities should contribute towards the expense of building it. It being left to the king to choose a proper place for it, he pitched upon the Aventine hill, where the temple was built, and assemblies annually held in it. The laws which were to be observed in these general meetings, were engraved on a pillar of brass, and were to be seen in Augustus's time, in the Latin tongue, but in Greek characters.

But Servius now grew old, and his ambitious son in law, Tarquinius, aspired to the throne. The pains the king had taken to depress the powers of the patricians, and to raise the plebes to the natural and proper rank of freemen, were not forgotten by the former, and but feebly remembered by the latter. Tarquinius found in an awed but impatient aristocracy, numerous instruments for the enslaving of his country. He objected to Servius, and his usurpation of the throne; to which the latter replied by asserting that he was duly elected by the people, and that the first Tarquin, in whose right Tarquinius claimed the throne as heritor, was himself an usurper. The people again decided in favour of Servius; but after a time TARQUINIUS took forcible possession of the throne, and caused his father in law to be assassinated. It is said that this usurpation was produced by the exhortations of Tullia, the daughter of Servius, who had married Tarquin: that this atrocious woman counselled her father's death, and even drove her chariot over his corpse.

It is hoped for the credit of human nature, that these atrocities had no other foundation than the vindictive exaggerations of an enslaved people.

The new king proved a most despotic and cruel tyrant; receiving, in the very beginning of his reign, the surname of *proud*, on account of his capricious humour and haughty behaviour. All controversies whatever were decided by himself and his friends; and he banished, fined, and even executed, whom he pleased. The census and lustrum, the division of citizens into classes and centuries, were abolished; and all kinds of assemblies, even those for amusement and recreation, were prohibited, both in town and country. The most virtuous of the senators went into voluntary banishment; while many of those who remained, were cut off on various pretences, that the king might enjoy their estates.

Tarquin could not but be sensible of the extreme danger in which he stood by losing the affections of his people in such a manner. He therefore provided a sufficient number of soldiers, by way of guard, to prevent attempts upon his person; and married his daughter to Octavius Mamilius, one of the most considerable chiefs among the Latins, in order to strengthen himself by foreign alliance, in case of a revolt among his subjects. Mamilius accordingly procured many friends to his father-in-law, but he had like to have lost them again by his haughty behaviour. He had appointed to meet the Latins in a national council at Ferentinum. The Latins accordingly met; but after waiting for several hours, Tarquin did not appear. On this, one Turnus Herdonius, an enterprising and eloquent man, made a speech, in which he inveighed against the imperious behaviour of Tarquin, set forth the contempt which he had put upon the Latins, and concluded with desiring the council to break up and return home without taking any further notice of him. Mamilius, however, prevailed upon them to return the day following; when Tarquin made his appearance, and told the assembly that his design in calling them together was to claim his right of commanding the Latin armies, which he said was derived from his grandfather, but which he desired to be confirmed to him by them. These words were scarce out of his mouth, when Herdonius, rising up, entered into a detail of Tarquin's tyranny and arbitrary behaviour at Rome, which, he said, the Latins would soon feel in an equal degree, if they complied with Tarquin's demand. To this speech the king made no reply at that time, but promised to answer him next day. In the mean time, however, he bribed the domestics of Herdonius to admit among his baggage a large quantity of arms: and then, telling the Latins that Herdonius's opposition proceeded only from Tarquin's having refused him his daughter in marriage, accused him of having laid a plot to cut off all the deputies there present, and to usurp a jurisdiction over the Latin cities; as a proof of which he appealed to the arms hid among the baggage of Herdonius. The accused, conscious of his innocence, desired that his baggage might be searched; which being accordingly done, and the arms found, he was hurried away without being allowed to make any defence, and thrown into a bason at the head of the spring of Ferentinum, where a hurdle

a hurdle being laid upon him, and stones laid upon the hurdle, he was pressed down into the water and drowned.

In consequence of this treachery, Tarquin was looked upon by the Latins as their deliverer, and declared general of the Latin armies; soon after which, the Hernici and two tribes of the Volsci entered into an alliance with him on the same terms. In order to keep these confederates together, Tarquin, with their consent, erected a temple to Jupiter Latialis on a hill near the ruins of Alba, where he appointed certain feasts, called *Feriæ Latinæ*, to be held on the 27th of April, where the several nations were to sacrifice together, and on no account to commit any hostilities against each other during their continuance. The king then proceeded to make war on the rest of the Volsci who had refused to enter into an alliance with him. Some depredations which they had committed in the territories of the Latins served for a pretence to begin the war; but as Tarquin had no confidence in the Romans, his army was composed only of a small body of them who were incorporated among the Latin auxiliaries, and this mercenary army at once enslaved his people at home, and subdued his foreign enemies. He routed the Volsci, took one of their cities by storm, and gave the booty to his soldiers. He next turned his arms against the Sabines, whom he entirely defeated in two engagements, and made the whole nation tributary: for which exploits he decreed himself two triumphs, and on his return to Rome, he employed the populace in finishing the sewers and circus which had been begun by his grandfather Tarquin I.

In the mean time, the persecutions of Tarquin against his own subjects daily drove some of the most considerable into banishment. A great number of patricians took refuge in Gabii, a city of Latium about 13 miles from Rome; where the inhabitants, touched with compassion for their misfortunes, not only received them with kindness, but began a war with Tarquin on their account. The Gabini seem to have been the most formidable enemies whom the Romans had hitherto met with; since Tarquin was obliged to raise a prodigious bulwark to cover the city on the side of Gabii. The war lasted seven years; during which time, by the mutual devastations committed by the two armies, a great scarcity of provisions took place in Rome. The people soon grew clamorous; and Tarpuin being unable either to quiet them, or to reduce the Gabini, fell upon the following dishonourable and treacherous expedient. His son Sextus Tarquinius pretended to be on very bad terms with his father, and openly inveighed against him as a tyrant; on which he was proclaimed a rebel, and publicly beaten in the forum. This being reported at Gabii, by persons sent thither on purpose, the inhabitants became very desirous of having Sextus among them; and accordingly he soon went thither, having previously obtained a solemn promise from the inhabitants never to deliver him up to his father. Here he made frequent inroads into the Roman territories, and always came back laden with spoil, his father sending against him only such weak parties as must infallibly be worsted. By this means he soon came to have such a high degree of credit among the Gabini, that he was chosen general of their army, and was as much master at Gabii as Tarquin was at Rome. Finding then that his authority was sufficiently established, he dispatched a slave to his father for instructions; but the king, unwilling to return an explicit answer, only took the messenger into the garden, where he struck off the heads of the tallest poppies. Sextus understood that by this hint the king desired him to put to death the leading men in the city of Gabii, which he immediately put in execution; and while the city was in confusion on account of this massacre, he opened the gates to his father, who took possession of the city with all the pride of a conqueror.—The inhabitants dreaded every thing from the haughty tyranny of the Roman monarch: however, on this occasion he consulted his policy rather than his revenge; granted them their life, liberty, and estates, and even entered into a treaty of alliance with them. The articles were written on the hide of an ox, which was still to be seen in the time of Augustus, in the temple of Jupiter Fidius. After this, however, he made his son Sextus king of Gabii; sending off also his other two sons, Titus and Arunx, the one to build a city at Signia, the other at Circæum, a promontory of the Tyrrhene sea, and both these to keep the Volsci in awe.

For some time Tarquin now enjoyed a profound peace; the Romans, being accustomed to oppression and the yoke of an imperious master, making no opposition to his will. During this interval Tarquin met with the celebrated adventure of the Sibyl; whose books were afterwards held in high estimation at Rome, and Tarquin appointed two persons of distinction to take care of them. These were called *Duumviri* but their number was afterwards increased to 10, when they were called *Decemviri*; and then to 15, when they were termed *Quindecemviri*. At this time also the written civil law had its origin among the Romans; all the statutes enacted by the kings being collected into one body; which, from Papirius, the name of the collector, was called the *Papirian* law. The temple of the Capitol was also finished, for which purpose the most skilful architects and workmen were brought from Etruria, the populace being obliged to serve them in the most laborious parts.

The discontent excited by this employment was increased by the exorbitant levies for the erection of these edifices. Suddenly a plague broke out at Rome, and the rutili attacked the frontiers. The king marched against the latter enemies, but they made so prolonged a resistance that he was compelled to demand fresh taxes of his oppressed subjects. Just as these injuries had ripened the minds of all the people for rebellion, a domestic injury was committed by the son of the king that blew the slumbering combustion into a flame, and overthrew at once the regal power. We have, under the article CHASTITY, told the story of the rape of Lucretia; and under LUCRETIA we have copied some forcible objections to the veracity of her story. Whether she was a weak but violent woman, who had been seduced by the arts of Sextus, and who, fearing disclosure from his indiscretion, anticipated his boasting by a great revenge; or, whether she was indeed that saint-like model of purity on which the mind dwells as on an oasis in the barren field of history—matters not to the freedom of her country. Her dead body was carried into the most frequented part of the city, and Brutus was there to expatiate on her virtues, to tell the tale of her injuries and her death. He was a man whose father and brother had been killed, and whose patrimony had been usurped by Tarquinius, and who had only preserved his own life by counterfeiting folly and subjecting himself for many years to the derision of the court, consoled only by the expectation of his revenge.

The people easily forgot his counterfeited folly in his present appearance, and they had at once an assurance of his shrewdness, and a belief that the gods were propitious to him from the following anecdote circulated by his friends. It was given out, that when Tarquin sent his sons Titus and Arunx to consult the oracle of Delphi, the princes took Brutus along with them, to divert themselves with his pretended folly by the way; that Brutus chose for his offering to the Delphic Apollo a stick of elder, which occasioned much laughter, but that he had the precaution to inclose a rod of gold within the stick. The priestess gave the princes for answer, that he who should first kiss his mother should succeed Tarquin in the government of Rome; upon which the two brothers either drew lots which of them should kiss their mother at their return, or agreed to do it at once, that both might reign jointly: but Brutus, imagining the oracle had another meaning, fell down and kissed the earth, the common mother of all living. This man now appeared upon the tribune, related the story of his own wrongs, his illustrious birth, and long-tried perseverance. He recapitulated the usurpation, the murders and proscriptions committed by Tarquin; reminded the people of the indignity they suffered in being forced to work at building temples and repairing sewers. The oppressive taxes, the unjust laws, and the abrogation of Servius's enactments, were not forgotten. He forbade

forbade his countrymen to hope for deliverance by the death of Tarquin, since his sons would succeed; and of the first of these sons he shewed them the achievement testified by the dead body before him. The orator then artfully insinuated, that the gods, by directing Tarquin to his camp, had given the Romans the present opportunity of emancipation. He finished by informing them, that the patricians were ready to support the cause of the people. Such an appeal could not be made in vain. The plebes rushed to arms; the senate decreed the perpetual banishment of the Tarquins; and Lucretius, the father of Lucretia, was appointed temporarily governor of the city.

In a short time it was resolved, that the title of king should be conferred only on the chief sacrificer who had no share in the temporal government; and that the regulations of Servius Tullius should be restored.

The Romans next proceeded to elect two *consuls*. This title, derived from *consuleæ*, to consult, would seem to imply that those who bore it were accordingly only the executive power who were to ask the advice or commands of the people. They were, however, obedient to no other authority; they had the command of the army and the office of judges, and the law which defined their duties was merely this general exhortation: *Ollis salus populi suprema lex*. They had a guard of lictors, an ivory throne, and on great occasions, carried a sceptre as the kings had done.

Brutus and Collatinus, the husbands of Lucretia, were the first consuls. The establishment of the consulship was owing to Brutus, but it is said by some, that he received the suggestion of it from a plan drawn out by Servius Tullius for abolishing the regal dignity.

The duration of the kingdom of Rome is computed at 243 or 244 years, but as in this time only seven kings reigned, of whom three met with violent deaths, and one was dethroned, the account is perhaps greater than it ought to be.

THE ROMAN REPUBLIC.

The Romans now congratulated themselves on their happy deliverance from tyranny. However, as Tarquin had by his policy procured himself many friends abroad, these now became enemies to the Roman name: and, by the defection of their allies, the Roman dominions were left in much the same state as they had been in the time of Romulus. The territory of Rome had always been confined to a very narrow compass. Though almost constantly victorious in war for 243 years, they had not yet gained land enough to supply their city with provisions. The main strength of the state lay in the number of the citizens of Rome; which the custom of transplanting the inhabitants of the conquered cities thither had so prodigiously increased, that it put the Romans in a condition of usurping the authority over other nations, the most inconsiderable of which had an extent of territory far exceeding theirs. By frequent depredations and incursions they so harassed the petty states of Latium and Etruria, that many of them were constrained to enter into treaties with Rome, by which they obliged themselves to furnish her with auxiliaries whenever she should be pleased to invade and pillage the lands of her other neighbours. Submissions of this kind the Romans called making alliances with them, and these useful alliances supplied the want of a larger territory; but now, upon the change of her government, all the allies of Rome forsook her at once, and either stood neuter, or espoused the cause of the banished king; so that she was now obliged to maintain her liberties as she best might.

The new consuls in the mean time took the most effectual methods they could for securing the liberties of the republic. The army which had been employed in the siege of Ardea by Tarquin deserted him and marched home under the conduct of Herminius and Horatius, who concluded a truce with the Ardeates for 15 years. The consuls then again assembled the people by centuries, and had the decree of Tarquin's banishment confirmed; and amongst the laws of Servius Tullius which were revived, the people were restored to their ancient right of voting in all important affairs. Tarquin, however, resolved not to part with his kingdom on such easy terms. Having wandered from city to city in order to move compassion, he at length made Tarquinii the seat of his residence; where he engaged the inhabitants to send an embassy to Rome, with a modest, submissive letter from himself, directed to the Roman people. The ambassadors represented in such strong terms to the senate how reasonable it was to let the king be heard before he was condemned, and the danger which threatened the state from the neighbouring powers if that common justice were refused, that the consuls inclined to bring these agents before the people, and to leave the decision thereof to the curiæ; but Valerius, who had been very active in the revolution, strenuously opposed this, and by his influence in the senate got it prevented. As that illustrious body had been greatly thinned by the murders committed by Tarquin, new members were elected from among the knights, and the ancient number of 300 again completed. The old senators had been called patres or "fathers;" and as the names of the new ones were now written on the same roll, the whole body received the name of patres conscripti.

The old king was not to be foiled by a single attempt. He prevailed on the inhabitants of Tarquinii to send a second embassy to Rome, under pretence of demanding the estates of the exiles, but with private instructions to get the consuls assassinated. The restoration of the estates of the exiles was opposed by Brutus, but Collatinus was for complying with it; whereupon Brutus accused his colleague of treachery, and of a design to bring back the tyrant. The matter was then referred to the people, where it was carried by one vote in favour of the Tarquins. But whilst the people were employed in loading carriages with the effects of the exiles, and in selling what could not be carried off, the ambassadors found means to draw some of the nearest relations of the consuls into a plot with them. These were three young noblemen of the Aquilian family (the sons of Collatinus's sister), and two of the Vitellii (whose sister Brutus had married); and these last engaged Titus and Tiberius, the two sons of Brutus, in the same conspiracy. They all bound themselves by solemn oaths, but though they used all imaginable precaution, their proceedings were overheard by one Vindicius a slave, who immediately communicated the whole to Valerius: upon which all the criminals were apprehended. Brutus stood judge over his own sons; and, notwithstanding the intercession of the whole assembly, and the tears and lamentations of his children, commanded them to be beheaded; nor would he depart till he saw the execution of the sentence. Having performed this piece of heroism, he quitted the tribunal, and left Collatinus to perform the rest. Collatinus, however, being inclined to spare his nephews, allowed them a day to clear themselves; and caused Vindicius, the only witness against them, to be delivered up to his masters. This roused the indignation of the people in general, especially of Valerius, who had promised to protect the witness, and therefore he refused to deliver him up to the lictors. The multitude called aloud for Brutus to return; which when he had done, he told them that he had executed his two sons in consequence of his own paternal authority over them, but that it belonged to the people to determine the fate of the rest. Accordingly, by a decree of the curiæ, all the delinquents suffered as traitors except the ambassadors, who were spared out of respect to their character. The slave Vindicius had his liberty granted him; and was presented with 25,000 ases of brass, in value about 80*l.* 14*s.* 7*d.* of our money. The decree for restoring the estates of the exiled Tarquins was annulled, their palaces were destroyed, and their lands divided among the indigent people. The public only retained a piece of ground, near the Campus Martius, which the king had usurped. This they consecrated to Mars, and it afterwards became a common field where the Roman youth exercised themselves in running and wrestling.

The

The sublime heroism of Brutus made so deep an impression on the Romans, that they allowed him the uncontrouled management of their state. Suspecting the fidelity of Collatinus, he shortly after procured his dismissal from the consulship. He obtained for him, however, 20 talents out of the public treasury, and added five talents from his own purse. He then caused VALERIUS, a man of tried fidelity, to be appointed with himself in the consulship.

The first employment of the new consuls was a war with the Tarquins. This ambitious family did not readily give up the hope of recovering the kingdom. At first they engaged the Volsci and Tarquinienses to support this attempt. The consuls marched out without delay to meet them. Brutus commanded the horse and Valerius the foot, drawn up in a square battalion. The two armies being in sight of each other, Brutus advanced with his cavalry, at the same time that Arunx, one of Tarquin's sons, was coming forward with the enemy's horse, the king himself following with the legions. Arunx no sooner discovered Brutus, than he made towards him with all the fury of an enraged enemy. Brutus advanced towards him with no less speed; and as both were actuated only by motives of hatred, without thoughts of self-preservation, both of them were pierced through with their lances. The death of the two generals served as a prelude to the battle, which continued with the utmost fury till night, when it could not be known which side had got the victory, or which had lost the greatest number of men. A report was spread, however, that a voice had been heard out of a neighbouring wood, declaring the Romans conquerors; and this, probably a stratagem of Valerius, operated so powerfully on the superstitious minds of the Volsci, that they left their camp in confusion, and returned to their own country. It is said that Valerius, having caused the dead to be numbered, found that the Volsci had lost 11,300 men, and the Romans only one short of that number.

Valerius being left without a colleague in the consulship, and having for some reasons delayed to choose one, began to be suspected by the people of aspiring at the sovereignty; and these suspicions were in some measure countenanced by his building a fine house on the steep part of the hill Palatinus, which overlooked the forum, and was by them considered as a citadel. But of this Valerius was no sooner informed, than he caused this house to be pulled down, and immediately called an assembly of the people for the election of a consul, in which he left them entirely free. They chose Lucretius; and, being ashamed of having suspected Valerius, they complimented him with a large ground-plot in an agreeable place, where they built him a house. The new consul died a few days after his promotion, so that Valerius was once more left sole governor. In the interval betwixt the death of Lucretius and the choice of another consul, Valerius gave the people so many striking proofs of his attachment to their interest, that they bestowed upon him the surname of *Poplicola*, or "popular;" nor was he ever called by another name afterwards.

When Poplicola's year of consulship expired, the Romans thought fit, in consequence of the critical situation of affairs, to elect him a second time, and joined with him *T. Lucretius*, the brother of the famous Lucretia. They began with restoring the census and lustrum; and found the number of Roman citizens, at or above the age of puberty, to amount to 130,000. As they apprehended an attack from the Latins on account of Tarquin, they were at great pains to fortify Sinquirinum or Singliuria, an important post; but, contrary to their expectations, the Latins remained quiet. An haughty embassy, however, was received from Porsena king of Clusium in Etruria, commanding them either to take back the Tarquins to Rome, or to restore them their estates. To the first of these demands the consuls returned an absolute refusal; and, as to the second, they answered, that it was impracticable; a part of those estates having been consecrated to Mars, and the rest divided among indigent people, from whom they could not be recovered. The imminent danger which now threatened the city, procured Valerius the honour of a third consulship; and with him was joined Horatius *Pulvilius*, who had enjoyed the dignity for a few months before in the interval betwixt the death of Lucretius and the expiration of the first consulate.

While the Romans were making the most vigorous preparations for defence, Porsena, attended by his son Arunx and the exiles, marched towards the city at the head of a formidable army, which was quickly joined by a considerable body of Latins under Mamilius, the son-in-law of Tarquin. The consuls and the senate took all care to supply the common people with provisions, lest famine should induce them to open the gates to Tarquin; and they desired the country people to lodge their effects in the fort Janiculum, which overlooked the city, and which was the only fortified place possessed by the Romans on that side the Tiber. Porsena, however, soon drove the Romans out of this fort; upon which the consuls made all their troops pass the river, and drew them up in order of battle to defend the bridge, while Porsena advanced to engage them. The victory was a long time doubtful; but at last the Romans fled. Horatius Cocles, nephew to the consul, with Sp. Lartius and T. Herminius, who had commanded the right wing, posted themselves at the entrance of the bridge, and for a long time bravely defended it: but at last, the defensive arms of Lartius and Herminius being broken, they retired; and then Horatius desiring them to advise the consuls from him to cut the bridge at the other end, he, for a while, sustained the attack of the enemy alone. At last, being wounded in the thigh, and the signal given that the bridge was almost broken down, he leaped into the river, and swam across it through a shower of darts. The Romans, in token of gratitude for this eminent service, erected a statue to him in the temple of Vulcan, gave him as much land as he himself with one yoke of oxen could plough in one day; and each of the inhabitants, to the number of 300,000, gave him the value of as much food as each consumed in a day. But, notwithstanding all this, as he had lost one eye, and from his wounds continued lame throughout the remainder of his life; these defects prevented his ever being raised to the consulate, or invested with any military command.

The city was not yet fully invested; but as it was very difficult to find provisions for such a multitude, the inhabitants soon began to be in want. Porsena being informed of their difficulties, told them that he would supply them with provisions if they would take back their old masters; but to this they nobly replied, that hunger was a less evil than slavery and oppression. The constancy of the Romans, however, was on the point of failing, when a young patrician, named *Mutius Cordus*, with the consent of the senate and consuls, undertook to assassinate Porsena. He got access to the Etrurian camp, disguised like a peasant, and made his way to the king's tent. It happened to be the day on which the troops were all reviewed and paid; and Porsena's secretary, magnificently dressed, was sitting on the same tribunal with the king. Mutius, mistaking him for Porsena, instantly leaped upon the tribunal and killed him. He then attempted to make his escape; but being seized and brought back, he owned his design; and with a countenance expressive of desperate rage and disappointment, thrust his hand which had missed the blow into a pan of burning coals which stood by, and there held it for a considerable time. On this, Porsena, changing his resentment into admiration, granted him his life and liberty, and even restored him the dagger with which he intended to have stabbed himself. Mutius took it with his left hand, having lost the use of the other; and from this time had the name of *Scævola*, or "left-handed." He then, in order to induce Porsena to break up the siege, invented a story that 300 young Romans, all of them as resolute as himself, had sworn to take away the life of the king of Etruria, or to perish in the attempt. This had the desired effect; Porsena sent deputies to Rome, whose only demands were, that the Romans should restore the estates of the Tarquins, or give them an equivalent, and give back the seven small towns which had been formerly taken from the Veientes.

Veientes. The latter of these demands was cheerfully complied with; but the former was still refused, until Porsena should hear the strong reasons they had to urge against it. A truce being agreed on, deputies were sent to the Etrurian camp to plead the Roman cause against the Tarquins; and the result of this negociation was, according to the majority of the Roman historians, that Porsena withdrew from his camp, and even supplied the Romans with provisions. Pliny, however, quotes the terms of the treaty dictated by the Etrurian king; and the truth is, that the Romans bought peace by the cession of so large a portion of their territory, that the Roman tribes were soon after reduced from thirty to twenty.

The story of Porsena's retreat is told very circumstantially. It is said, that Porsena wished to relieve the distresses of the Romans delicately, and, therefore, instead of giving them corn, he left his camp well stocked behind him at their disposal. The moveables and corn were sold by auction to private persons; and on this occasion the Romans took up the custom of making a proclamation by an herald, whenever any effects belonging to the public were to be sold, in the following words, *These are Porsena's goods.* The design of this was to preserve the memory of that prince's kindness. The senate, not satisfied with this, erected a statue of the king near the Comitium, and sent an embassy to him with a present of a throne adorned with ivory, a sceptre, a crown of gold, and a triumphal robe.

No sooner had the Romans escaped this danger, than the Sabines revolted, and continued the war for some time with great obstinacy: but being defeated in several engagements, they were at last obliged to submit; and scarce was this war ended, when another began with the Latins, who now declared for King Tarquin. Before they began this war, however, an embassy was sent to Rome, the purport of which was, that the Romans should raise the siege of Fidenæ which had revolted, and receive the Tarquins; who, on their part, should grant a general amnesty. The ambassadors were to allow the Romans a whole year to consider on these overtures; and to threaten them with a war in case they refused to comply with them. The chief view of Tarquin and his partisans in promoting this embassy was, to lay hold of that opportunity to raise a sedition in the city. To the ambassadors, therefore, of the Latins, he joined some of his own emissaries, who, on their arrival in the city, found two sorts of people disposed to enter into their measures; to wit, the slaves and the meaner citizens.

A conspiracy was accordingly formed to overthrow the republic; but it was discovered: and, by the decision of Sulpitius and the senate, several of the conspirators were punished with death.

But at length Rome was threatened with a far more dangerous attack than any that had been effected by the machinations of the Tarquins. The Latins, who possessed a very extensive and contiguous country, were engaged to espouse the cause of despotism; and Rome, after applying in vain to all the neighbouring countries for assistance, found herself reduced to the necessity of opposing, unaided, a force far greater than her own in numbers and more powerful from its unity; while her people were divided in various and distracted parties, some of whom were warmly attached to the dominion of the Tarquins. In this emergency, with the consent of the people, the senate decided on committing the state to one individual, and accordingly one of the consuls resigned, and left the other, T. LARTIUS, as *Dictator.*

Government thus entrusted to one hand, soon exhibited marks of promptitude and decision; a census was taken, and four armies formed from the common people. The Latins, more tardy in their endeavours, were, at first, worsted, and then suffered a suspension of hostilities for a year, in which time, Lartius resigned his dictatorship, and the consulship was occupied by ATRATINUS and ANGURINUS, during whose government, as well as while Rome was under the command of Lartius, the force of the Latins was weakened by the desertion of many of their citizens, who, ill treated by their nobles, found an hospitable reception with the Romans, and by the incorporation of nearly all the prisoners of war into the Roman armies. The Latin historians likewise boast, that this period was memorable by the proof it gave of the domestic virtues of the Romans; for a decree having been passed, with the consent of both nations, that women, intermarried with either country, might, if they would, return to their respective homes, nearly all the Roman women left their husbands to return home; while nearly all the Latin women remained with their Roman lords.

At the expiration of the truce [A. U. C. 257.] POSTHUMIUS and VIRGINIUS were consuls. The latter resigned, the former was created Dictator, and vigorous preparations of war were made both by Latins and Romans. Without detaining our readers with the particulars of the war, we shall state in general terms, that the skill and enthusiasm of the Romans triumphed over all disadvantages; and that, after several well-contested battles, they reduced the Latins to make peace, and to drive the royal family from Latium. Tarquin, thus deprived of all his allies, retired to Cumæ, and there died in the 95th year of his age.

Freed from the attacks of Tarquin, the Roman people now began that memorable struggle between the plebeians and patricians, which lasted with occasional intermissions until the end of the republic. Previous to the last great struggle with the Latins, the common people had refused to serve in the army until the senate had repealed a law which made debtors the slaves of their creditors; a law which pressed exceedingly hard on the common people, most of whom were indebted to the patricians. The decision of Lartius, the Dictator, had, however, triumphed over these malcontents; and they were incorporated in the army. Conscious of their power now that peace had returned, they pressed the senate boldly for a repeal of the obnoxious law. This was resisted. Of the consuls, one Appius Claudius, was against any concessions of the kind: while the other, Servilius, was devoted to the cause of the people.

During this divided state of the republic, the Volsci and Hernici, joined with the Sabines, appeared in arms and threatened Rome on either side. The first attack was made by the Volsci. Servilius induced the people to serve by a promise, that their debts should be remitted. The Romans were victorious; but the senate refused to fulfil the promise of Servilius, or to grant him a triumph.

Servilius usurped a triumph by force with the consent of the people; and this irregular proceeding is said to have been used afterwards as a precedent by Julius Cæsar, when he usurped the same honour after it had been refused to him by the republic. When the people found that Servilius could not obtain the remission of debts he had promised, they loaded him with indignities. He accordingly deserted them, and united himself with the party of Appius Claudius.

The people had no regard to the severe sentences of the two consuls. Whenever any plebeian was prosecuted for debt, the populace came in crowds into the court, and made so great a noise, that no one could hear the sentence pronounced. They no longer endeavoured to appease the creditors, and mollify the senate by intreaties; they insulted both, and, instead of the plebeians, the danger of imprisonment and slavery now fell on the patricians. Nothing now prevailed in Rome but force and violence. The people got together without being summoned, and the most mutinous held private assemblies among themselves.

In this state of affairs the date of the consulship expired, and the people chose two of the weakest of the senators, AULIUS VIRGINIUS and T. VETURIUS, for their new consuls. To these men the task devolved of executing the severe edicts of the senate; but they, affrighted by the people, suffered nocturnal meetings on the hills Esquilinus and Aventinus, to take place with impunity. The senators accused them of cowardice; the consuls retorted by demanding, that those who spoke so bravely, should, themselves, come

come forward and assist in quelling the popular tumult. Some of the patricians accordingly attended the consuls to the tribune. Here they began by calling on the people to enlist against the Sabines. They proceeded to call one of the ring-leaders of the faction by name, and desired him to enter the ranks. The man was silent; and the consuls desired the lictors to lay hold of him. The enraged populace beat off the lictors, rescued their comrade, and the patricians themselves escaped with difficulty the fury of the mob.

Complaints now came from the allies of Rome, that she deserted them to the fury of the Sabines, and the senate again assembled. The weak Virginius counselled a middle course; he was for remitting the debts of the victorious soldiers of the last campaign, and continuing the hard laws against others. Titus Lartius rejected this unjust division, and was for a general remission.

The unbending Appius Claudius opposed all remissions of debts whatsoever. He partly grounded his objections on his own determination not to be guilty of *inconsistency*. "What will the world think of me," Dionysius makes him say, "if I lay aside those opinions which I maintained with danger in my consulate?" His other objections were far weightier, and shew in a striking point of view the injustice of the popular demand in its full extent. "The contracts," said he, "made between creditors and their debtors have ever been in all places the main support of civil society." "All commerce depends on credit. And what Roman then would lend his money to a man, who had it in his power to take up arms, to prevent his repayment of it? But, it is said, the present business is that of appeasing the seditious, and prevailing on a mutinous populace to assist their country in extremity. And is there then no way of bringing them to their duty but by violating the laws? The nominating a Dictator is both as usual and an effectual remedy. Will the most mutinous hold it out against the authority of a man who is surrounded with lictors, and has power to punish the least act of disobedience with death, without appeal?" The method Appius proposed was thought dangerous by the oldest senators; but he had got a majority on his side. The patricians being the richest persons in Rome, were almost all creditors to the commons. Private interest, therefore, prevailed over the most reasonable fears, and MANLIUS VALERIUS, the brother of Poplicola, an aged patrician of moderate opinions, was chosen dictator. He once more prevailed upon the people to march against the common enemy; having previously obtained assurances from the senate that their grievances should be redressed. The dictator took the command of the army that was sent against the Sabines, the consuls of that sent against the Volsci and Æqui. Both were victorious, and marched to Rome, laden with spoils, and accompanied with numerous captives. The senate, expecting now to be called upon for the fulfilment of the dictator's promises, and fearing the power of the soldiery, desired the consuls to lead the army again against the Æqui, under pretence of reducing some small villages. They obeyed, but the dictator, whose authority did not depend on the senate, disbanded his army, and declared his soldiers free from the oath which they had taken; and as a further proof of his attachment to the plebeians, he chose out of that order 400, whom he invested with the dignity of knights. After this he claimed the accomplishment of the promises made by the senate: but instead of their performing them, he had the mortification to hear himself loaded with reproaches; on which he resigned his office as dictator, and acquainted the people with his inability to fulfil his engagements to them. No sooner were these transactions known in the army, than the soldiers, to a man, deserted the consuls and other officers, and retired to a hill called afterwards Mons Sacer, three miles from Rome, where, however, they observed an exact discipline, and offered no sort of violence to any one. The senate, after taking proper measures for the defence of the city, sent a deputation to the malcontents; but it was answered with contempt. In short, all things tended to a civil war, when at last matters were compromised by the institution of *Tribunes of the People*. This was effected by the care of one Brutus, a vulgar but popular man, of much shrewdness and boldness, who reminded his fellows that the promises of the senate were not to be trusted, and that they must have *security* for the promises that were made. He, accordingly, proposed the election of five magistrates, always out of the plebeians, who should become the legal representatives of the popular interest. Sicinius, who had led the soldiers to Mons Sacer, and Brutus, were the first Tribunes they had; three more were added to them, and entered on their office in the ides of December, in the year of Rome 260. The tribunes had power to prevent the passing of any law that might be prejudicial to the people, and their persons were declared sacred, insomuch that whoever offered the least violence to the person of a tribune was declared accursed, his effects were to be consecrated to Ceres, and he himself might be killed with impunity; and all the Romans were to engage themselves, in their own name and that of their posterity, never to repeal this law. The people, after these regulations, erected an altar to Jupiter the Terrible, on the top of the hill where their camp had stood; and when they had offered sacrifices to the god, and consecrated the place of their retreat, they returned to Rome, led by their new magistrates and the deputies of the senate.

The tribunes, immediately after their election, obtained permission from the senate to elect two persons as their ministers or assistants, who should ease them a little in the great multiplicity of their affairs. They were called plebeian ædiles; and afterwards came to have the inspection of the public baths, aqueducts, with many other offices originally belonging to the consuls, after which they were called simply ædiles.

All opposition to the making of regular levies being now at an end, the consul Cominius led an army against the Volsci. He defeated them in battle, and took from them Longula and Polusca; after which he besieged Corioli, a city strongly fortified, and which might be called their capital. He carried this place, and gained a victory over the Antiates, the same day, chiefly through the agency of Caius Marcius, an eminent patrician, who, when the troops detached by the consul to scale the walls of Corioli were repulsed in their first assault, rallied and led them on afresh to the charge, drove back the enemy within their walls, and, entering the city with them, made himself master of it. This exploit achieved, he with all expedition put himself in the foremost ranks of the consul's main army, that was just going to engage with the Antiates, who were come to the relief of the place; and there he behaved with equal bravery, and had equal success. He received as a reward, the tenth of the spoil, and the surname of *Coriolanus*.

A census and a lustrum closed the events of this memorable consulship. There appeared to be in Rome at this time no more than 110,000 men fit to bear arms; a number by many thousands less than at the last enrollment. Doubtless great numbers had run away to avoid being slaves to their creditors.

Under the following administration of T. GEGANIUS and P. MINUCIUS, Rome was terribly afflicted by a famine, occasioned chiefly by the neglect of ploughing and sowing during the late troubles; for the sedition had happened after the autumnal equinox, about sowing-time, and the accommodation was not made till just before the winter solstice. The senate dispatched agents into Etruria, Campania, the country of the Volsci, and even into Sicily, to buy corn. Those who embarked for Sicily met with a tempest which retarded their arrival at Syracuse; where they were constrained to pass the winter. At Cumæ, the tyrant Aristodemus seized the money brought by the commissaries; and they themselves with difficulty saved their lives by flight. The Volsci, far from being disposed to succour the Romans, would have marched against them, if a sudden and most destructive pestilence had not defeated their purpose. In Etruria alone the Roman commissaries met with success.

A considerable quantity of grain was sent from thence to Rome

Rome in barks: but this was in a short time consumed, and the misery became excessive. The senate compelled a colony to go to Velitræ, a city which had lately been depopulated by the Æqui, and a second to take possession of Norba, a city of Latium. But the people who remained in Rome being more and more pressed by hunger and want, grew daily more angry with the senate. At first they assembled in small companies to vent their wrath in abusive complaints; and at length, in one great body, rushed into the forum, calling out upon their tribunes for succour.

Having convened the people, Spurius Icilius, chief of the college of tribunes, inveighed most bitterly against the senate; and when he had ended his harangue, exhorted others to speak freely their thoughts: Brutus and Sicinius enumerated all the past insults which the people had suffered from the nobles; and the former concluded his speech with loudly threatening, that if the plebeians would follow his advice, he would soon oblige those men who had caused the present calamity to find a remedy for it; after which the assembly was dismissed.

The next day, the consuls, greatly alarmed at this commotion, and apprehending from the menaces of Brutus some very mischievous event, thought it advisable to convene the senators, that they might consider of the best means to avert the impending evil. The fathers could not agree in opinion. Some were for employing soft words and fair promises to quiet and gain over the most turbulent. But Appius's advice prevailed: which was, that the consuls should call the people together, assure them that the patricians had not brought upon them the miseries they suffered, and promise, on the part of the senate, all possible care to provide for their necessities; but at the same time should reprove the disturbers of the public peace, and threaten them with the severest punishments if they did not amend their behaviour.

When the consuls, towards the close of the day, having assembled the people, would have signified to them the disposition and intention of the senate, they were interrupted by the tribunes. A dispute ensued, in which no order or decency was observed on either side. Several speaking at the same time, and with great vociferation, no one could be well understood by the audience. The consuls judged, that being the superior magistrates, their authority extended to all assemblies of the citizens. On the other side, it was pretended, that the assemblies of the people were the province of the tribunes, as the senate was that of the consuls.

The dispute grew warm, and both parties were ready to come to blows; when Brutus having put some questions to the consuls, ended it for that time. Next day he proposed a law which was carried, that no person whatever should interrupt a tribune when speaking in an assembly of the people; by which means the influence and power of the popular party was greatly increased, and the tribunes became formidable opponents to the consuls and patricians. An opportunity soon offered for both parties to try their strength. A fleet of ships laden with corn from Sicily, a great part of which was a present from Gelon the king of that country to the Romans, and the rest purchased by the senate with the public money, arrived in port. But Coriolanus, who, of all the imperious nobles, seems to have been the haughtiest, inhumanly and unfairly insisted that the corn should not be distributed until the people became obedient to the assumptions of power demanded by the senate. In the factious state of the country, this proposal was of course very indignantly received. The tribunes accused him of aiming at the sovereignty, an attempt the people were ever ready to punish, and of having embezzled the plunder of Antium. These accusations were probably unfounded; but the people banished Coriolanus, and this traitor immediately took refuge with Tullus Atticus, the general of the Volscians, received a command in this enemy's army, and marched against his country. All the towns yielded to the attack of Tullus and Coriolanus; several even of the Roman troops deserted to their old and favourite leader, and Rome was invested. The deputations of the senate, the submission of the people, and the prayers of the ministers of religion, shook not in the least the determination of this vindictive patrician to trample on the ruins of his native city. At length his mother Vetruria, his wife, children, and several Roman ladies came to the Volscian camp to plead the cause of Rome. Coriolanus relented: he pretended, that the city was too strong to be taken, and raised the siege. The Volscians assassinated this double traitor, and afterwards gave him a magnificent funeral.

The Volsci and Æqui after this event fell out and fought a severe battle. Afterwards they retired unpursued by the Romans, whose commanders and consuls, Nautius and Furius, appear to have been utterly destitute of military spirit.

The next year (A.U. C. 266.) AQUILIUS TUSCUS and SICINIUS SABINUS were chosen consuls, and they began vigorously to carry on war against the Hernici, who, formerly their allies, had now joined the Volsci. The battles that occupied the period of this consulate were remarkable for their severity, the Volsci having learned by experience and by the instructions of Coriolanus much of the art of war. In one decisive battle they were entirely defeated, and their general, Tullus Atticus, slain: and this victory was entirely owing to the infantry, the Roman knights having actually dismounted and left their horses, for the purpose of more effectually attacking the enemy with the spear.

The year 267 introduced SPURIUS CASSIUS and PROCULUS VIRGINIUS to the cousulship. They were at first occupied with taking possession of those lands belonging to the Æqui and Volsci, which the victories of the preceding consuls had left almost defenceless. This being achieved, and peace proclaimed, there remained the disposal of these lands to be settled. Cassius proposed that the land should be equitably divided between the original proprietors and the Romans and Latins, their conquerors. Virginius and the populace were for taking the whole into the hands of the Romans, and Cassius, by way of diverting them from this unjust and impolitic measure, proposed that *those lands previously conquered, which had been usurped by some rich patricians*, should now fairly be divided amongst the people. This proposal was the origin of that AGRARIAN law for which the populace clamoured during the whole duration of the republic. Appius Claudius opposed the division of lands into small parcels, and advised that they should be publicly sold, and the proceeds put in the public treasury, by which means taxes might be lowered. But he did not object to the reclaiming of the usurped lands from the patricians. It was finally arranged that the conquered lands should be partly divided between the people and the treasury. That those lands which the Romans had conquered by their own unassisted power should belong to the Roman state and people; but that those lands which were recently taken from the Hernici should be enjoyed in part by the Latins as a reward for their assistance in the war; in part by the original proprietors, and partly by the indigent Romans. The care of apportioning these divisions was left to ten patricians called *decemvirs*.

In the next consulship, which was that of Q. FABIUS and S. CORNELIUS, two questors were appointed, who, in pursuance, as they gave out, of their duty, but rather, in truth, to indulge their party animosities, accused Cassius of attempting the sovereignty (an accusation the Roman mob was always ready to receive), and of depriving the citizens of their property, by stirring up the Latins and Hernici to demand a share of the conquered lands. The populace condemned their friend, and he was hurled from the Tarpeian rock.

To the new consuls the task of appointing the *decemvirs* had been entrusted, but they shewed no haste in the appointment. For the five succeeding years the consuls made their wars with the Volsci an excuse for evading the performance of their duty. The Volsci were during this period often victorious, and the parties of the patricians and plebeians still continued violent, and averse to each other. The choosing of the consuls was occasionally postponed for a long time, and the election usually ended by one consul being

being chosen from the popular, and the other from the aristocratic party. In the year of Rome 272, CÆSO FABIUS, of the high party, and SPURIUS FURIUS, in the interest of the commons, were consuls. They set out at the head of two armies to attack the Æqui and Veientes, but while the soldiers of Furius, devoted to their leader, ravaged the enemy's country and returned laden with plunder, the infantry of Fabius refused to fight, suffered the patrician cavalry to be cut to pieces by the Veientes, and then deserted their camp, and forced the consul to escort them back to Rome. During several years the strength of the enemies of the republic gained ground. Famine, indeed, and the very cogent argument, that only by union could they conquer, drove the Romans every now and then into the field; but the Sabines, Etrurians, and Volsci all united, and the ruin of the country seemed fast approaching. Still the imperious patricians refused to yield to the just demands of the people. The Fabian family especially, who for a long time held a share of the consulship, madly opposed all innovation. Yet they were brave, and deserved well of their country for their devotion, however culpable for stupidity: on one occasion the whole clan, upwards of 300 in number, marched against the enemy. They performed, the Roman historians say, prodigies of valour, were surrounded, and all killed.

It was in the year 280, during the consulate of L. EMILIUS and VOPISCUS JULIUS, when the enemies had been for a time beaten back, that one of the tribunes imperatively demanded the execution of the Agrarian law. But Genucius, the tribune who made this demand, was found dead in his bed, and if his death was not effected by the patrician party, several of them thought proper to hint as much, by way of intimidating the friends of the people, and a loud and general indignation became developed. This agitation was increased by an unjust attempt to scourge a valiant plebeian soldier named *Valero*. This man, for mere party purposes, was refused the usual promotion, and when he demanded it as his right, was condemned to be publicly whipped. The people beat off the lictor who attempted to put this sentence in force, and attacked the senators. In the next consulate they elected Valero tribune. After long struggles, and even serious scuffles between the popular party and Appius Claudius and his friends, Valero passed a law that the tribunes should be chosen by the tribes of the people, and not by the divisions into Curiæ, as made by Servius Tullius, this method having given too much influence to the nobility.

After several years of disorder at home and defeat abroad, the senate applied to the old resource of appointing a dictator. The man they pitched upon for this office was, QUINTUS CINCINNATUS. He was an old patrician, whose son had been arraigned before the people for misconduct during his consulship. Aware that with the enraged people accusation was a certain prelude to condemnation, the patricians contrived that his trial should be put off, and his father was bound by a heavy fine to produce him at his trial. The son fled, and the mulct so far ruined Cincinnatus that he was compelled to cultivate his little farm with his own hands. A deputation from the senate found him at his plough, and informed him that he was named dictator. In choosing Cincinnatus, the senate seem to have been actuated by the hope that a man in some measure removed from the influence of either party, might stand some chance of obedience from the refractory plebeians, without entirely yielding to the popular demands. He was victorious and laid down the dictatorship, but he was soon requested again to take it up, for the defeated enemies of Rome again attacked her, and the people refused to serve until the *Terentian law* was passed. This was a law to alter the penal code and to provide for its more efficient execution, all judgments having been long in the hands of the patricians, who had no written rules, but acted from their own notions of equity.

Cincinnatus was not so successful this time in silencing the populace, but he engaged them to defer for a short time the Terentian law, and they accepted in exchange permission to *double the number of the tribunes*, a most important victory over the aristocratic party.

It was during the tribuneship of Sicinius, a plebeian soldier, to whom all the army was attached and who had won several battles, that the senate yielded to the wish of the people concerning the Terentian law. It was agreed that ambassadors should be sent to the Greek cities in Italy, and to Athens, to bring home such laws from thence as by experience had been found most equitable and useful. For this purpose, three senators, Posthumius, Sulpicius, and Manlius, were fixed upon, and galleys assigned to convoy them, agreeable to the majesty of the Roman people. While they were upon this commission abroad, a dreadful plague depopulated the city at home, and supplied the interval of their absence with other anxiety than that of wishes for their return. In about a year the plague ceased, and the ambassadors returned, bringing home a body of laws, collected from the most civilized states of Greece and Italy, which being afterwards formed into ten tables, and two more being added, made that celebrated code called the Laws of the Twelve Tables.

The ambassadors were no sooner returned, than the tribunes required that a body of men should be chosen to digest their new laws into proper form, and to give weight to the execution of them. After long debates whether this choice should not be partly made from the people as well as the patricians, it was at last agreed that 10 of the principal senators should be elected, whose power, continuing for a year, should be equal to that of kings and consuls, and that without any appeal. The persons chosen were Appius and Genutius, who had been elected consuls for the ensuing year; Posthumius, Sulpicius, and Manlius, the three ambassadors; Sextus and Romulus, former consuls; with Julius Veturius, and Horatius, senators of the first consideration.

The decemviri being now invested with absolute power, agreed to take the reins of government by turns, and that each should dispense justice for a day.

These magistrates, for the first year, wrought with extreme application, and produced ten tables of laws; of these several fragments remain: they have been partly restored from old inscriptions, and partly found in the works of the Latin writers. We shall offer no apology to our readers for presenting them with these laws. Though tedious to superficial readers, they are far more interesting to the philosophical historian, than all the sieges, battles or romantic stories that ever adorned the annals of a country; for they exhibit the earliest efforts that Rome made towards that sound law which is founded in the immutable principles of justice. They have been, in truth, as Cicero says, of more value than the libraries of all the philosophers. Moreover these laws are specimens of the barbarous and inefficient language of the time; and they are valuable as proofs that the popular party were not, as we should at first sight be inclined to suppose, a noisy mob clamorous for uncertain and unfair advantages, but that the tribunes of Rome looked to something higher and better, than to an envious degradation of their superiors, and that their demands had in view rather to elevate the plebeian to his natural right, as a free citizen, and to restrain him only by the bonds of law and justice. It is necessary to premise, that from the imperfect state of the language, a great latitude has been taken in the translation of these laws. We have chiefly, but not invariably, followed the readings which the Fathers Catrou and Rouille have adopted, from a numerous list of learned authorities.

TABLE I.—OF LAW SUITS.

1. S'in jus vocat, atque eat.—If any one calls you before the judge, go immediately.

2. N'it antestamino: igitur em capito.—If the person you cite refuses to go with you before the judge, take some that are present to be witnesses of it, and you shall have a right to compel him to appear.

3. Si calvitur, pedem ve struit, manum endo jacito.—If he kicks or attempts to run off, seize him by force.

4. Si

4. Si morbus, ævitas ve, vitium escit, quin jus vocabit, jumentum dato. Si nolet, arceram ne sternito.—He whom to call to justice, be afflicted with disease, age, or infirmity, let him be carried in a jumentum (an open carriage). But if he refuse that, you are not obliged to provide him an arcera (a covered carriage).

5. Si ensiet, qui in jus vocatum vindicit, mi tito (mittito).—If there be any one who will be answerable for the person cited, let the latter depart.

6. Asiduo asiduus esto. Proletario, cui qui volet, vindex esto.—Only a rich man shall be security for a rich man. But any security shall be sufficient for one of the proletarii.

7. Endo via, rem uti paicunt orato.—The judge shall give judgment according to the agreement made between the two parties by the way. (This obscure law implies, we should conceive, that if the parties had agreed to admit the private arbitration of the judge, no public trial was necessary).

8. N'ita paicunt, in comitio, aut in foro, ab ortu ad meridiem, causam conscito cum perorant ambo præsentes.—If the person cited has made no agreement with his adversary, let the cause be heard in the forum or comitium, from sun rising till noon; and let both parties be present when it is heard.

9. Post meridiem præsenti stlitem addicito.—Let the judgment be given in the afternoon, though but one of the parties be present.

10. Sol occasus suprema tempestas esto.—Let all trials be ended (or postponed) at the going down of the sun.

11. Vades subvades—*extra quam si* morbus Sonticus—Votum, *absentia reipublicæ ergo*, aut status dies cum hoste *intercedat: namsi*, quid horum fuat judici, arbitrove, reove, unum, eo die defensus, esto.—Let him who does not appear in court, pay the penalty, unless he be hindered by some great fit of sickness, or by the performance of some vow, or by business of the republic's, or by some engagement with an enemy. If any one of these impediments be made to appear to the judge or arbritrator, or either of the parties, let the hearing be put off till another day.

Cui testimonium defuerit, is tertiis diebus, obportum, obvagulatum ito.—If any one wanteth witnesses, let him proclaim the same for three days at the gate (of the city, or according to some civilians, of his opponent's house).

TABLE II.—OF ROBBERIES.

1. Si nox furtum faxit, si im aliquis occisit, jure cæsus esto.—He that is attacked by a robber in the night, let him not be punished if he kills him.

2. Si luci furtum faxit, si im aliquis endo ipso capsit, verberator, illique cui furtum factum escit, addicitor. Servus virgis cæsus saxo dejicitor. Impubes, prætoris arbitratu verberator, noxiamque decernitor.—If robbing be committed in the day, and if the robber be taken in the fact, let him be beaten with rods and become his slave whom he robbed. If the robber be a slave already, let him be beaten with rods and thrown down headlong from the top of the capitol. If he be a child, under the age of puberty, let him be corrected, according to the prætor's discretion, and let reparation be made to the injured party.

3. Si se telo defensit, quiritato, endoque plorato, post deinde, si cæsi escint, se fraude esto.—When a robber attacks any person with arms, if the person attacked has cried out, and called for help, he shall not be punished if he kills the robber.

4. Si furtum lancelicio que conceptum escit, uti manifestum vindicator.—When upon a legal search, any stolen goods are found in an house, the robbery shall be punished as if openly and publicly committed.

5. Si adorat furto, quod nec manifestum escit, duplione decidito.—For robberies committed privately, the robber shall pay double the value of the things stolen.

6. Si injuria alienas arbores cæsit, in singulas 25 æris luito.—Whosoever shall cut down another's trees, shall pay 25 asses of brass for each tree (according to some, for every foot of timber so felled).

7. Qui frugem aratro quæsitam furtim nox pavit, secuit ve. suspensus cereri necator. Impubes prætoris arbitrio verberator noxiam ve duplione decernito.—If any one comes privately, by night, and treads down another man's field of corn, or reaps his harvest, let him be hanged up, and put to death as a victim devoted to Ceres. But if it be a child, under the age of puberty, let the prætor order him to be corrected as he shall think fit, or let double satisfaction be made for the damage done.

8. Si pro fure damnum decisum escit, furti ne adorato.—If a robber and the person robbed agree together upon terms of restitution, no farther action shall lie against the robber.

9. Furtivæ rei æterna auctoritas esto. Adversus hostem æterna auctoritas esto.—Prescription shall never be pleaded as a right to stolen goods, nor shall a foreigner have a right to the goods of any Roman citizen by the longest possession.

10. Si quid endo deposito, dolo malo factum escit, duplione luito.—If any one betrays his trust with respect to what is deposited in his hands, let him pay double the value of what was so deposited, to him who entrusted him with it.

11. Si vindiciam falsam tulit Prætor rei sive stlitis arbitros tris dato. Eorum arbitrio fructi duplione decidito.—If any one finds any of his goods in another man's possession, who became possessed of them by a breach of trust, let the prætor nominate three arbitrators to judge of it, and let the wrongful possessor pay double what he has gained by detaining them.

12. Si servus sciente domino, furtum faxit, noxiamve noxit, noxæ dedito.—If a slave has committed a robbery, or done a damage, with the privity and at the instigation of his master, let the master deliver up the slave to the person injured, by way of compensation.

TABLE III.—OF LOANS, AND THE RIGHT OF CREDITORS OVER THEIR DEBTORS.

1. Si quis unciario foenore amplius foenerassit quadruplione luito.—Let him who takes more than one per cent. interest for money, be condemned to pay four times the sum lent.

2. Æris confessi, rebus que jure judicatis, 30 dies justi sunto post deinde manus injectio esto. In jus ducito.—When any person acknowledges a debt, or is condemned to pay it, the creditor shall give his debtor 30 days for payment of it: after which he shall cause him to be seized and brought before a judge.

3. Ni judicatum facit, aut quips endo eo in jure vindicit, se cum educito, vincito, aut nervo, aut compedibus, 15 pondo ne majore, aut si volet minore vincito.—If the debtor refuses to pay his debt, and can find no security, his creditor may carry him home, and either tie him by the neck or put irons upon his feet, provided the chain does not weigh above 15 pounds; but it may be lighter if he pleases.

4. Si volet suo vivito, ni suo vivit, qui eum vinctum habebit, libras farris endo dies dato: si volet plus dato.—If the captive debtor will live at his own expence, let him; if not, let him who keeps him in chains allow him a pound of meal a day, or more if he pleases.

5. Nicum eo pacit 60 dies endo vinculis retineto. Inter ibi trinis nundinis continuis in comitium procitato, ærisque æstimiam judicati prædicato.—The creditor may keep his debtor prisoner 60 days. If in this time the debtor does not find means to pay him, he that detains him shall bring him out before the people three market days, and proclaim the sum which is due.

6. At si plures erunt rei, tertiis nundinis partes secanto. Si plus minus ve secuerint, se fraude esto; si volent, uls Tyberim peregre venundanto.—If the debtor be insolvent to several creditors, let his body be cut to pieces on the third market day. It may be cut into more or fewer pieces with impunity. Or, if the creditors consent to it, let him be sold to foreigners beyond the Tyber.

It is surprising how the Romans could submit to this most horrible law. It is, however, consoling to humanity to know that

that it was never put in force, and that it was afterwards abolished.

TABLE IV.—OF THE RIGHTS OF FATHERS OF FAMILIES.

1. Endo liberis justis jus vitæ, necis, venundandique potestas, patri esto.—Let a father have the power of life and death over his legitimate children, and let him sell them when he pleases.

2. Si pater filium ter venumduit, filius a patre liber esto. —But if a father has sold his son three times, let the son then be out of his father's power.

3. Pater ad insignem deformitatem puerum cito necato.— If a father has a child born that is monstrously deformed, let him kill him immediately.

4. Filius arte carens patris incuria, eidem vitæ necessaria subsidia, ne præstato.—Let not a son, whose father has so far neglected his education as not to teach him a trade, be obliged to maintain his father in want, otherwise let all sons be obliged to relieve their fathers.

5. E meretrice natus patrem ne alito.—Let not a bastard be obliged to support his father.

TABLE V.—OF INHERITANCE AND GUARDIANSHIP.

1. Pater familias uti legassit, super pecuniæ, tutelæve suæ rei, ita jus esto.—After the death of the father of a family, let the disposition he made of his money and the management of his property be observed.

2. At si intestato moritur; cui suus hæres nec escit, agnatus proximus familiam habeto. Si agnatus nec escit, gentilis familiam nancitor.—If he dies intestate and has no children to succeed him, let his nearest relation be his heir; if he has no near relation, let a man of his own name be his heir.

3. Si libertus intestato moritur, cui suus hæres nec exstabit, ast patronus, patronique liberi escint, ex ea familia, in eam familiam adducitor.—When a freed-man dies intestate, and without heirs, if his patron be alive, or has left children, let the effects of the freed-man go to the family of his patron.

4. Nomina inter hæredes pro portionibus hæreditariis ercta cita sunto. Cæterarum familiæ rerum ercto non cito, si volent, erctum citum faciunto. Prætor ad erctum ciendum arbitros tris dato.—After the death of a debtor, his debts shall be paid by his heirs in proportion to the share they have in his inheritance. After this they may divide the rest of his effects if they please, and the prætor shall appoint three arbitrators to make the division.

5. Si pater familias intestato moritur, cui impubis suus hæres escit, agnatus proximior tutelam nancitor.—If the father of a family dies intestate and leaves an heir under age, let the child's nearest relation be his guardian.

6. Si furiosus aut prodigus existat, ast ei custos nec escit, agnatorum gentiliumque in eo pecunia ve ejus potestas esto. —If any one becomes mad, or prodigal, and has nobody to take care of him, let a relation, or if he has none, a man of his own name have the care of his person and estate.

TABLE VI.—OF PROPERTY AND POSSESSION.

1. Cum nexum faciet, mancipiumque, uti lingua nuncupassit, ita jus esto.—When a man conveys his estate to another, let the terms of the conveyance create the right.

2. Statu liber emptori dando liber esto.—If a slave, who was to have been made free on paying a certain sum, be afterwards sold, let him be free when he fulfils that condition.

3. Rei vendita, transque data, emptori non adquiritor, donicum satisfactum esset.—Let not any piece of merchandize, though sold and delivered, belong to the buyer till he has paid for it.

4. Usus auctoritas fundi, biennium, cæterarum rerum annuus usus esto.—Let two years possession amount to a prescription for lands, and one for moveables.

5. Si qui in jure manu conserunt, utrisque superstitibus præsentibus, secundum eum qui possidet; ast si qui quem liberali causa manu asserat, secundum libertatem vindicias dato.—In litigated cases the presumption shall be always on the side of the possessor. And in disputes about liberty and slavery, the presumption shall always be on the side of liberty.

TABLE VII.—OF TRESPASSES AND DAMAGES.

1. Si quadrupes pauperiem faxit, dominus noxiæ æstimiam afferto: Si nolit, quod noxit dato.—If a beast does any damage, let its master pay the price of the damage. If he will not, let the beast be given up.

2. Tiguum junctum ædibus, vineæve concapes, ne solvito. Ast qui junxit, duplione damnator. Tigna quando que sarpta, donec dempta erunt, vindicato.—If any one uses your beam to join his house, or support his vine, do not pull it down; but make the possessor pay double the value of the thing stolen; and when the house is destroyed, or the pole taken out of the vineyard, then seize your own.

3. Qui aceram frumenti ad ædes positum dolo sciens incensit, vinctus, verberatus, igni necator. Ast si casu noxiam sarcito. Si nec idoneus escit, levius castigator.—Whoever shall maliciously set fire to another man's house, or an heap of corn near his house, shall be imprisoned, scourged and burnt to death. If he did it by accident, let him repair the damage. And if he be a poor man, let him be slightly corrected.

4. Si membrum rupsit ni cum eo pacit, talio esto.—If one breaks another's limbs, unless the matter is made up, the agressor shall have his limbs broken.

5. Qui os ex genetali fudit libero 300 servo 150 æris sunto.—If any one displaces a bone from its socket, let him pay three hundred pounds of brass, if the sufferer be a free man, and an hundred and fifty if he be a slave.

6. Si qui injuriam alteri faxit, 25 æris pænæ sunto.—For common assaults, the punishment shall be 25 asses of brass. (This law being found of little use, on account of the smallness of the penalty, was abolished, and the punishment left to the discretion of the prætor. It is related that one Lucius Neratinus used to run about the streets and assault every one he met, and that he had a servant behind with a sack of copper-money to pay the legal fine to the sufferers.)

7. Si qui pipulo occentassit, carmenve condidissit, quod infamiam faxit, flagitiumve alteri, fuste ferito.—Whoever slanders another by words or defamatory verses, and injures his reputation, shall be beaten with a club.

8. Qui se sirit testarier, libripensve fuerit, ni testimonium fariatur (fateatur) improbus intestabilisque esto.—Let him who has been once a witness, and refuses to bear witness again, though a public person, be deemed infamous, and made incapable of bearing witness any more.

9. Si falsam testimonium dicassit, saxo dejicitor.—Let every false witness be thrown down headlong from the capitol.

10. Si quis liberum hominem dolo sciens morti duit, quive malum carmen incantassit, aut malum venenum faxit, daitve, parricida esto.—Whoever shall wilfully kill a free man, or shall make use of magical words to hurt him, or shall have prepared poison for him, or given it to him, it is parricide (parricide here, as in the Roman law generally, means homicide).

11. Qui parentem necassit, caput obnubito, culeoque insutus in profluentem mergitor.—Let all parricides be thrown into the river sewed up in a leather bag, and with their heads veiled.

12. Si tutor dolo malo gerat, vituperato; quandoque finita tutela escit, duplione luito —The guardian who manages the affairs of his ward ill shall be reprimanded, and if he be found to have cheated him, he shall restore double

13. Patronus si clienti fraudem faxit, sacer esto.—A patron who shall have defrauded his client, shall be deemed execrable.

TABLE VIII.—OF ESTATES IN THE COUNTRY.

1. Ambitus parietis sextertius pes esto.—Let the space of two foot and a half of ground be always left between one house and another.

2. Sodales

2. Sodales legem quam volent, dum ne quid expublica lege corrumpant, sibi ferunto.—Societies may make what by-laws they please among themselves, provided they don't interfere with the public laws.

3. Si jurgant affines, finibus regundis, arbitros tris addicito.—When two neighbours have any dispute about their bounds, the prætor shall assign them three arbitrators.

4. Si arbor in vicinum fundum impendet 15 pedes altius sublucator.—When a tree planted in a field does damage to another field by its shade, let its branches be cut off 15 feet high.

5. Si glans in emem caduca siet, domino legere jus esto.—If the fruit of a tree falls in a neighbouring field, the owner of the tree may go and pick it up.

6. Si aqua pluvia manu nocet, prætor arcendæ aquæ arbitros tris addicito, noxæque domino cavetor.—If a man would make a drain to carry off the rain-water from his ground to his neighbour's, let the prætor appoint three arbitrators to judge of the damage the water may do, and prevent it.

7. Via in porrectum 8 pedum, in amfracto 16 pedum esto.—Roads shall be 8 foot wide, where they run straight, and where they turn 16.

8. Si via per amsagetes immunita escit, qua volet jumentum ducito.—If a road between two fields be bad, the traveller may drive through which field he pleases.

TABLE IX.—OF THE COMMON RIGHTS OF THE PEOPLE.

1. Privilegia ne irroganto.—Let not privilege be granted to any person.

2. Nexo soluto, forti, sanati, siremps jus esto.—Let both debtors who are escaped out of slavery, and strangers who have rebelled and returned to their duty, be restored to their ancient rights, as if they had never offended.

3. Si judex arbiterve jure datus, ob rem dicendam pecuniam accepsit, capital esto.—It is a capital crime for a judge or arbitrator to take money for passing judgment.

4. De capite civis Romani, nisi per maximum comitiatum ne ferunto.—Let all causes, relating to the life, liberty, or rights of a Roman citizen, be tried only in comitia by centuries.

5. Quæstores parricidii, qui de rebus capitalibus quærunt, a populo creantor.—Let the people appoint Quæstors, to take cognizance of all capital offences.

6. Si qui in urbe coetus nocturnas agitassit, capital esto.—Whoever shall hold seditious assemblies in the city by night, shall be put to death.

7. Si quis perduellem concitassit, civemque perduelli transducit, capital esto.—Let him who shall have solicited a foreigner to declare himself against Rome, or shall have delivered up a Roman citizen to a foreigner, lose his life.

8. Quod postrerum populus jussit, in jus ratum esto.—Let only the last laws the people make, be in force.

TABLE X.—OF FUNERALS, AND ALL CEREMONIES RELATING TO THE DEAD.

1. Hominem mortuum in urbe ne sepelito, neve urito.—Let no person be interred or body burnt, within the city.

2. Sumptus et luctus a deorum manium jure removeto.—Let all luxury and extravagant mourning be banished from funerals; let nothing hereafter forbidden be done at them.

3. Rogum ascia ne polito.—Let not the wood, with which funeral-piles are built, be cut with a saw.

4. Tribus riciniis ac 10 tibicinibus foris efferre jus esto.—Let the dead body be covered with no more than three costly habits, bordered with purple; and let no more than ten players on the flute be employed in celebrating the obsequies.

5. Mulieres genas ne radunto ne ve lessum funeris ergo, habento.—Let not the women tear their faces, or disfigure themselves, or make hideous outcries.

6. Homini mortuo ossa ne legito, quo post funus facias, extra quam si belli, endove hostico, mortuus escit.—Let not any part of a dead body be carried away, in order to perform other obsequies for the deceased, unless he died in war, or out of his country.

7. Servilis unctura, omnisque circumpotatio auferitor. Murata potio ne inditor.—Let no slaves be embalmed after death; let there be no drinking round a dead body; nor let any perfumed liquors be poured upon it.

8. Ne longæ coronæ, neve acerræ proferuntor.—Let no crowns, festoons, perfuming-pots, or any kinds of perfume, be carried to funerals.

9. Qui coronam parit ipse, pecunia ve ejus, virtutis ergo, arguitor; et ipsi mortuo parentibusque ejus, dum intus positus escit, forisque effertur, se fraude esto.—If the deceased had merited a crown in the public games by any exploit of his own, or the expertness of his slaves, or the swiftness of his horses, let his panegyric be made at his funeral; and let his relations have leave to put a crown upon his head, as well during the seven days he remains in the house, as when he is carried to be buried.

10. Uni plura funera ne facito, ne ve plures lectos sternito.—Let no man have more than one funeral made for him, or than one bed put under him.

11. Neve aurum addito. Ast si cui auro dentes vincti escint, im cum illo sepelire urere ve, se fraude esto.—Let no gold be used in any obsequies, unless the jaw of the deceased be tied up with a gold thread. In that case the corpse may be burnt, with the gold thread.

12. Rogum bustumve novum alienos ædes propius 60 pedes, si dominus nolet, ne adjicito.—For the future, let no sepulchre be built, or funeral pile raised within 60 feet of any house, without the consent of the owner of the house.

13. Fori bustive æterna auctoritas esto.—Prescription shall never be pleaded against a man's right to his burial place, or the entrance to it.

These tables were given forth by the decemvirs to the comitiæ in the most solemn manner, and were received with the Roman people with unanimous and enthusiastic approbation.

There were two more tables of laws proposed and engraved, but they were much objected to, and with difficulty passed. The first (the 11th of the twelve) related to superstitious observances, and forbade any man to have gods of his own. The second related to marriage, and was remarkable for ordaining that a year's cohabitation with a woman should be the same as marriage; and that patricians and plebeians should not intermarry

The administration of the Roman law was curious enough. The prætor was generally the magistrate, but the opinions of the tribunes and consuls had considerable weight in points of law. The practice of the professed lawyers, is thus amusingly described by Gibbon.—On the public days of the market or assembly, the masters of the art were seen walking in the forum, ready to impart the needful advice to the meanest of their fellow-citizens, from whose votes, on a future occasion, they might solicit a grateful return. As their years and honours increased, they seated themselves at home on a chair or throne, to expect with patient gravity the visits of their clients, who, at the dawn of day, from the town and country, began to thunder at their door. The duties of social life, and the incidents of judicial proceeding, were the ordinary subject of these consultations, and the verbal or written opinion of the *jurisconsults* was framed according to the rules of prudence and law. The youths of their own order and family were permitted to listen; their children enjoyed the benefit of more private lessons, and the Mucian race was long renowned for the hereditary knowledge of the civil law.

The decemviri having finished their important labours, it was expected that they should lay down their office; but having known the charms of power, they were now unwilling to resign it: they therefore pretended that some laws were yet wanting to complete their design, and intreated the senate for a continuance of their offices; to which that body assented. But they soon threw off the mask of moderation; and,

and, regardless either of the approbation of the senate or the people, resolved to continue themselves, against all order, in the decemvirate. A conduct so notorious produced discontents, and these were as sure to produce fresh acts of tyranny. The city was become almost a desert, with respect to all who had any thing to lose; and the decemvirs' rapacity was then only discontinued, when they wanted fresh objects to exercise it upon. In this state of slavery, proscription, and mutual distrust, not one citizen was found to strike for his country's freedom; these tyrants continued to rule without controul, being constantly guarded, not with their lictors alone, but a numerous crowd of dependents, clients, and patricians, whom their vices had confederated round them.

In this gloomy situation of the state, the Æqui and Volsci, those constant enemies of the Romans, undertook their incursions, resolved to profit by the intestine divisons of the people, and advanced within about 10 miles of Rome.

But the decemviri, being put in possession of all the military as well as of the civil power, divided their army into three parts; whereof one continued with Appius in the city, to keep it in awe; the other two were commanded by his colleagues, and were led, one against the Æqui, and the other against the Sabines. The Roman soldiers suffered themselves to be vanquished in the field, and shamefully abandoned their camp upon the approach of the enemy. Never was the news of a victory more joyfully received at Rome than the tidings of this defeat: the generals, as is always the case, were blamed for the treachery of their men: some demanded that they should be deposed; others cried out for a dictator to lead troops to conquest: but among the rest, old Sicinius Dentatus, the tribune, spoke his sentiments with his usual openness; and treating the generals with contempt, showed all the faults of their discipline in the camp, and of their conduct in the field. Appius, in the mean time, was not remiss in observing the disposition of the people. Dentatus, in particular, was marked out for vengeance, and under pretence of doing him particular honour, he was appointed legate, and put at the head of the supplies which were sent from Rome to reinforce the army. The office of legate was held sacred among the Romans, as in it were united the authority of a general, with the reverence due to the priesthood. Dentatus, no way suspecting his design, went to the camp with alacrity, where he was received with all the external marks of respect. But the generals soon found means of indulging their desire of revenge. He was appointed at the head of 100 men to go and examine a more commodious place for encampment, as he had very candidly assured the commanders that their present situation was wrong. The soldiers, however, who were given as his attendants, were assassins; wretches who had long been ministers of the vengeance of the decemviri, and who now engaged to murder him, though with all those apprehensions which his reputation, as he was called the *Roman Achilles*, might be supposed to inspire. With these designs, they led him from the way into the hollow bosom of a retired mountain, where they began to set upon him from behind. Dentatus, now too late, perceived the treachery of the decemviri, and was resolved to sell his life as dearly as he could; he therefore put his back to a rock, and defended himself against those who pressed most closely. Though now grown old, he had still the remains of his former valour, and killed no less than 15 of the assailants, and wounded 30. The assassins now therefore, terrified at his amazing bravery, showered in their javelins upon him at a distance; all which he received in his shield with undaunted resolution. The combat, though so unequal in numbers, was managed for some time with doubtful success, till at length his assailants bethought themselves of ascending the rock against which he stood, and thus poured down stones upon him from above. This succeeded; the old soldier fell beneath their united efforts, after having shown by his death that he owed it to his fortitude, and not his fortune, that he had come off so many times victorious. The decemviri pretended to join in the general sorrow for so brave a man, and decreed him a funeral, with the first military honours: but the greatness of their apparent distress, compared with their known hatred, only rendered them still more detestable to the people.

But a transaction, still more atrocious than the former, served to inspire the citizens with a resolution to break all measures of obedience, and at last to restore freedom. Appius, who still remained at Rome, sitting one day on his tribunal to dispense justice, saw a maiden of exquisite beauty, and aged about 15, passing to one of the public schools, attended by a matron, her nurse. Conceiving a violent passion for her, he resolved to obtain the gratification of his desire, whatever should be the consequence, and found means to inform himself of her name and family. Her name was Virginia, the daughter of Virginius a centurion, then with the army in the field; and she had been contracted to Icilius, formerly a tribune of the people, who had agreed to marry her at the end of the present campaign. Appius, at first, resolved to break this match, and to espouse her himself: but the laws of the Twelve Tables had forbidden the patricians to intermarry with the plebeians; and he could not infringe these, as he was the enacter of them. Nothing therefore remained but a criminal enjoyment; which, as he was long used to the indulgence of his passions, he resolved to obtain. After having vainly tried to corrupt the fidelity or her nurse, he had recourse to another expedient, still more guilty. He pitched upon one Claudius, who had long been the minister of his pleasures, to assert the beautiful maid was his slave, and to refer the cause to his tribunal for decision. Claudius behaved exactly according to his instructions; for entering into the school, where Virginia was playing among her female companions, he seized upon her as his property, and was going to drag her away by force, but was prevented by the people drawn together by her cries. At length, after the first heat of opposition was over, he led the weeping virgin to the tribunal of Appius, and there plausibly unfolded his pretensions. He asserted, that she was born in his house, of a female slave, who sold her to the wife of Virginius, who had been barren; that he had several credible evidences to prove the truth of what he said; but that, until they could come together, it was but reasonable the slave should be delivered into his custody, being her proper master. Appius seemed to be struck with the justice of his claims. He observed, that if the reputed father himself were present, he might indeed be willing to delay the delivery of the maiden for some time; but that it was not lawful for him, in the present case, to detain her from her master. He therefore adjudged her to Claudius, as his slave, to be kept by him till Virginius should be able to prove his paternity. This sentence was received with loud clamours and reproaches by the multitude: the women, in particular, came round Virginia, as if willing to protect her from the judge's fury; while Icilius, her lover, boldly opposed the decree, and obliged Claudius to take refuge under the tribunal of the decemvir. All things now threatened an open insurrection; when Appius, fearing the event, thought proper to suspend his judgment till the arrival of Virginius, who was then about 11 miles from Rome, with the army. The day following was fixed for the trial; and, in the mean time, Appius sent letters to the generals to confine Virginius, as his arrival in town might only serve to kindle sedition among the people. These letters, however, were intercepted by the centurion's friends, who sent him down a full relation of the design laid against his honour. Virginius, upon this, pretending the death of a near relation, got permission to leave the camp, and flew to Rome, inspired with indignation and revenge. Accordingly, the next day he appeared before the tribunal, to the astonishment of Appius, leading his weeping daughter by the hand, both habited in the deepest mourning. Claudius, the accuser, was also there, and began by making his demand. Virginius next spoke in turn: he represented that

that his wife had many children; that she had been seen pregnant by numbers; that, if he had intentions of adopting a supposititious child, he would have fixed upon a boy rather than a girl; that it was notorious to all, that his wife had herself suckled her own child; and that it was surprising such a claim should be now revived, after a 15 years' discontinuance. While the father spoke thus, Virginia stood trembling by, and, with looks of persuasive innocence, added weight to all his remonstrances. The people seemed entirely satisfied of the hardship of his case, but Appius, fearing what he said might have dangerous effects upon the multitude, interrupted him, under a pretence of being sufficiently instructed in the merits of the cause, and finally adjudged her to Claudius, ordering the lictors to carry her off. The lictors, in obedience to his command, soon drove off the throng that pressed round the tribunal; and now they seized upon Virginia, and were delivering her up into the hands of Claudius, when Virginius, who found that all was over, seemed to acquiesce in the sentence. He therefore mildly intreated Appius to be permitted to take a last farewell of one whom he had long considered as his child; and so satisfied, he would return to his duty with fresh alacrity. With this the decemvir complied, but upon condition that their endearments should pass in his presence. Virginius, with the most poignant anguish, took his almost expiring daughter in his arms, for a while supported her head upon his breast, and wiped away the tears that rolled down her face; at length from one of the shops that surrounded the forum, he snatched up a knife and buried the weapon in her breast; then holding it up, reeking with the blood of his daughter, "Appius (he cried) by this blood of innocence, I devote thy head to the infernal gods." Thus saying, with the bloody knife in his hand, and threatening destruction to whomsoever should oppose him, he ran through the city, wildly calling upon the people to strike for freedom, and from thence went to the camp, in order to spread a like flame through the army.

He no sooner arrived at the camp, followed by a number of his friends, but he informed the army of all that was done, still holding the bloody knife in his hand. He asked their pardon, and the pardon of the gods, for having committed so rash an action, but ascribed it all to the dreadful necessity of the times. The army, already predisposed, immediately with shouts echoed their approbation; and decamping, left their generals behind, to take their station once more upon Mount Aventine, whither they had retired about 40 years before. The other army, which had been sent to oppose the Sabines, displayed a like resentment, and came over in large parties to join them.

Appius, in the mean time, did all he could to quell the disturbances in the city; but finding the tumult incapable of controul, and perceiving that his mortal enemies, Valerius and Horatius, were the most active in opposition, at first attempted to find safety by flight; nevertheless, being encouraged by Oppius, who was one of his colleagues, he ventured to assemble the senate, and urged the punishment of all deserters. The senate, however, were far from giving him the relief he sought for; they foresaw the dangers and miseries that threatened the state, in case of opposing the incensed army; they therefore dispatched messengers to them, offering to restore their former mode of government. To this proposal all the people joyfully assented, and the army gladly obeyed. Appius, and Oppius one of his colleagues, both died by their own hands in prison. The other eight decemvirs went into voluntary exile; and Claudius, the pretended master of Virginia, was driven out after them.

The tribunes now grew more turbulent: they proposed two laws; one to permit plebeians to intermarry with patricians; and the other, to permit them to be admitted to the consulship. The senators received these proposals with indignation, and seemed resolved to undergo the utmost extremities rather than submit to enact them. However, finding their resistance only increase the commotions of the state, they at last consented to pass the law concerning intermarriages, hoping that this concession would satisfy the people. But they were to be appeased but for a very short time; for, returning to their old custom of refusing to enlist upon the approach of an enemy, the consuls were forced to hold a private conference with the chief of the senate; where, after many debates, Claudius proposed an expedient as the most probable means of satisfying the people in the present conjuncture. This was, to create six or eight governors in the room of consuls, whereof one half at least should be patricians. This project was eagerly embraced by the people; yet so fickle were the multitude, that though many of the plebeians stood, the choice wholly fell upon the patricians who offered themselves as candidates. These new magistrates were called military tribunes; they were at first but three, afterwards they were increased to four, and at length to six. They had the power and ensigns of consuls; yet that power being divided among a number, each singly was of less authority. The first that were chosen, only continued in office about three months, the augurs having found something amiss in the ceremonies of their election.

The military tribunes being deposed, the consuls once more came into office; and, in order to lighten the weight of business which they were obliged to sustain, a new office was created, namely, that of censors, to be chosen every fifth year. Their business was to take an estimate of the number and estates of the people, and to distribute them into their proper classes; to inspect into the lives and manners of their fellow-citizens; to degrade senators for misconduct; to dismount knights; and to turn down plebeians from their tribes into an inferior, in case of misdemeanour. The two first censors were Papirius and Sempronius, both patricians; and from this order they continued to be elected for near 100 years.

This new creation served to restore peace for some time among the respective orders; and the triumph gained over the Volscians, by Geganius the consul, added to the universal satisfaction that reigned among the people.

This calm, however, was but of short continuance: for, some time after, a famine pressing hard upon the poor, the usual complaints against the rich were renewed; and these, as before, proving ineffectual, produced new seditions. The consuls were accused of neglect in not having laid in proper quantities of corn: they, however, disregarded the murmurs of the populace, content with exerting all their care in attempts to supply the pressing necessities. But though they did all that could be expected from active magistrates, in providing and distributing provisions to the poor; yet Spurius Mælius, a rich knight, who had bought up all the corn of Tuscany, by far outshone them in liberality. This demagogue, inflamed with a secret desire of becoming powerful by the contentions in the state, distributed corn in great quantities among the poorer sort each day, till his house became the asylum of all such as wished to exchange a life of labour for one of lazy dependence. When he had thus gained a sufficient number of partizans, he procured large quantities of arms to be brought into his house by night, and formed a conspiracy, by which he was to obtain the command, while some of the tribunes, whom he had found means to corrupt, were to act under him, in seizing upon the liberties of his country. Minucius soon discovered the plot; and informing the senate thereof, they immediately formed the resolution of creating a dictator, who should have the power of quelling the conspiracy without appealing to the people. Cincinnatus, who was now 80 years old, was chosen once more to rescue his country from impending danger. He began by summoning Mælius to appear; who refused to obey. He next sent Ahala, his master of the horse, to force him; who, meeting him in the forum, and pressing Mælius to follow him to the dictator's tribunal, upon his refusal Ahala killed him upon the spot. The dictator applauded the resolution of his officer, and commanded the conspirator's goods to be sold, and his house to be demolished, distributing his stores among the people.

The tribunes of the people were much enraged at the death of Mælius: and, in order to punish the senate, at the next

next election, instead of consuls, insisted upon restoring their military tribunes. With this the senate were obliged to comply. The next year, however, the government returned to its ancient channel, and consuls were chosen.

The Veientes had long been the rivals of Rome; and had ever taken the opportunity of its internal distresses to ravage its territories. It was now therefore determined, that the city of Veii, whatever it should cost, should fall; and the Romans accordingly sat regularly down before it, prepared for a long and painful resistance. The strength of the place, or the unskilfulness of the besiegers, may be inferred from the continuance of the siege, which lasted for 10 years; during which time the army continued encamped round it, lying in winter under tents made of the skins of beasts, and in summer driving on the operations of the attack. Various was the success, and many were the commanders that directed the siege: sometimes all the besiegers' works were destroyed, and many of their men cut off by sallies from the town; sometimes they were annoyed by an army of Veians, who attempted to bring assistance from without. A siege so bloody seemed to threaten depopulation to Rome itself, by draining its forces continually away; so that a law was obliged to be made for all the bachelors to marry the widows of the soldiers who were slain. In order to carry it on with greater vigour, Furius Camillus was created dictator, and to him was intrusted the sole power of managing the long protracted war. Camillus, who, without intrigue or any solicitation, had raised himself to the first eminence in the state, had been made one of the censors some time before, and was considered as the head of that office; he was afterwards made a military tribune, and had in this post gained several advantages over the enemy. Conscious that he was unable to take the city by storm, he secretly wrought a mine into it with vast labour, which opened into the midst of the citadel, and by this means, like a second Troy, was the city of Veii taken, after a ten years siege.

Similar good fortune attended Camillus in another expedition against the Falisci; he routed their army, and besieged their capital city Falerii, which threatened a long and vigorous resistance. Here a schoolmaster, who had the care of the children belonging to the principal men of the city, having found means to decoy them into the Roman camp, offered to put them into the hands of Camillus, as the surest means of inducing the citizens to a speedy surrender. The general was struck with the treachery of a wretch whose duty it was to protect innocence, and not to betray it; and immediately ordered him to be stripped, his hands tied behind him, and in that ignominious manner to be whipped into the town by his own scholars. This generous behaviour in Camillus effected more than his arms could do: the magistrates of the town immediately submitted to the senate, leaving to Camillus the conditions of their surrender; who only fined them in a sum of money to satisfy his army, and received them under the protection and into the alliance of Rome.

Notwithstanding the veneration which the virtues of Camillus had excited abroad, they seemed but little adapted to bring over the respect of the turbulent tribunes at home. They accused him of various misdemeanours, as embezzling spoil, aiming at the sovereignty, &c., and he was banished.

The Romans soon found a more formidable enemy than ever they had met with. An inundation of Gauls, leaving their native woods, under the command of one Brennus, wasted every thing with fire and sword. The occasion of the irruption was this: Arunx, one of the chief men of Clusium in Etruria, had been guardian to a young lucumo, or lord of a lucumony, and had educated him in his house from his infancy. The lucumo, as soon as he was of age to feel the force of passion, fell in love with his guardian's wife; and, upon the first discovery of their intrigue, conveyed her away. Arunx endeavoured to obtain reparation for the injury he had received; but the lucumo, by his interest and money, gained over the magistrates: so that the injured guardian, finding no protectors in Etruria, resolved to make his application to the Gauls. The people among all the Celtic nations, to whom he chose to address himself, were the Senones; and, in order to engage them in his quarrel, he acquainted them with the great plenty of Italy, and made them taste of some Italian wines. Upon this the Senones resolved to follow him; and a numerous army was immediately formed, which passing the Alps, under the conduct of their Etrurian guide, and leaving the Celtæ in Italy unmolested, fell upon Umbria, and possessed themselves of all the country from Ravenna to Picenum. They were about six years in settling themselves in their new acquisitions, while the Romans were carrying on the siege of Veii. At length Arunx brought the Senones before Clusium, in order to besiege that place, his wife and her lover having shut themselves up there.

The senate, being unwilling to engage in an open war with a nation which had never offended them, sent an embassy of three young patricians, of the Fabian family, to bring about an accommodation between the two nations. They demanded of Brennus, the leader of the Gauls, What injury the Clusini had done him; or what pretensions any people from a remote country could have upon Etruria? Brennus answered, That his right lay in his sword, and that all things belonged to the brave; but that, without having recourse to this primitive law of nature, he had a just complaint against the Clusians, who, having more lands than they could cultivate, had refused to yield to him those they left untilled: and, he observed, "that the Romans had deprived the Sabines, the Albans, the Fidenates, the Æqui, and the Volsci, of the best part of their territories. Not that we accuse you of injustice; but it is evident, that you thought this to be the prime and most ancient of all laws, to make the weak give way to the strong. Forbear, therefore, to interest yourselves for the Clusini, or allow us to take the part of the people you have subdued."

The Fabii were highly provoked at so haughty an answer; but dissembling their resentment, desired leave to go into the town, under pretence of conferring with the magistrates. But they were no sooner there, than they began to stir up the inhabitants to a vigorous defence; nay, forgetting their character, they put themselves at the head of the besieged in a sally, in which Q. Fabius slew a chief of the Gauls. Hereupon Brennus, calling the gods to witness the perfidiousness of the Romans, and their violating the law of nations, immediately broke up the siege of Clusium, and marched leisurely to Rome, having sent a herald before him to demand that those ambassadors, who had so manifestly violated the law of nations, should be delivered up to him. The Roman senate was greatly perplexed between their regard for the law of nations and their affection for the Fabii. The wisest of the senate thought the demand of the Gauls to be just and reasonable; however, as it concerned persons of great consequence and credit, the conscript fathers referred the affair to the people assembled by Curiæ. As the Fabian family was very popular, the Curiæ were so far from condemning the three brothers, that, at the next election of military tribunes, they were chosen the first. Brennus, looking upon the promotion of the Fabii as a high affront on his nation, hastened his march to Rome.

As his army was very numerous, the inhabitants of the towns and villages through which he passed left their habitations at his approach; but he stopped nowhere, declaring that his design was only to be revenged on the Romans. The six military tribunes, to wit, Q. Fabius, Cæso Fabius, Caius Fabius, Q. Sulpitius, Q. Servilius, and Sextus Cornelius, marched out of Rome at the head of 40,000 men, without either sacrificing to the gods or consulting the auspices; essential ceremonies among a people that drew their courage and confidence from the propitious signs which the augurs declared to them. As most of the military tribunes were young, and men of more valour than experience, they advanced boldly against the Gauls, whose army was 70,000 strong. The two armies met near the river Allia, about 60 furlongs

furlongs from Rome. The Romans, that they might not be surrounded by the enemy, extended their wings so far as to make their centre very thin. Their best troops, to the number of 24,000 men, they posted between the river and the adjoining hills; the rest they placed on the hills. The Gauls first attacked the latter, who being soon put into confusion, the forces in the plain were struck with such terror that they fled without drawing their swords. In this general disorder, most of the soldiers, instead of returing to Rome, fled to Veii: some were drowned as they endeavoured to swim across the Tiber; many fell in the pursuit by the sword of the conquerors; and some got to Rome, which they filled with terror and consternation, it being believed there that all the rest were cut off. The day after the battle, Brennus marched his troops into the neighbourhood of Rome, and encamped on the banks of Anio. Thither his scouts brought him word, that the gates of the city lay open, and that not one Roman was to be seen on the ramparts. This made him apprehensive of some ambuscade, it being unreasonable to suppose that the Romans would abandon their city to be plundered and sacked without making any resistance. On this consideration he advanced slowly, which gave the Romans an opportunity to throw into the Capitol all the men who were fit to bear arms. They carried into it all the provisions they could get; and, that they might last the longer, admitted none into the place but such as were capable of defending it.

But while the rest of the citizens at Rome were providing for their safety, about 80 of the most illustrious and venerable old men, rather than fly from their native city, chose to devote themselves to death by a vow, which Fabius the high pontiff pronounced in their names. The Romans believed, that by these voluntary devotements to the infernal gods, disorder and confusion was brought among the enemy. Of these brave old men some were pontifices, others had been consuls, and others generals of armies, who had been honoured with triumphs. To complete their sacrifice with a solemnity and pomp becoming the magnanimity and constancy of the Romans, they dressed themselves in their pontifical, consular, and triumphal robes; and repairing to the forum, seated themselves there in their curule chairs, expecting the enemy and death with the greatest constancy.

At length Brennus having spent, three days in useless precautions, entered the city the fourth day after the battle. He found the gates open, the walls without defence, and the houses without inhabitants. Rome appeared to him like a mere desert; and this solitude increased his anxiety. He could not believe, either that all the Romans were lodged in the Capitol, or that so numerous a people should abandon the place of their nativity. On the other hand, he could nowhere see any armed men but on the walls of the citadel. However, having first secured all the avenues to the Capitol with strong bodies of guards, he gave the rest of his soldiers leave to disperse themselves all over the city and plunder it. Brennus himself advanced into the forum with the troops under his command, in good order: and there he was struck with admiration at the unexpected sight of the venerable old men who had devoted themselves to death. Their magnificent habits, the majesty of their countenance, the silence they kept, their modesty and constancy at the approach of his troops, made him take them for so many deities: for they continued as motionless as statues, and saw the enemy advance without showing the least concern. The Gauls kept a great while at an awful distance from them, being afraid to come near them. But at length one soldier bolder than the rest, having, out of curiosity, touched the beard of M. Papirius, the old man gave him a blow on the head with his ivory staff. The soldier in revenge immediately killed him; and the rest of the Gauls following his example, slaughtered all those venerable old men without mercy.

After this the enemy set no bounds to their rage and fury: They plundered all places, dragging such of the Romans as had shut themselves up in their houses into the streets, and there putting them to the sword, without distinction of age or sex. The soldiers set fire to the houses, demolished the temples and public edifices, and razed the walls to the ground.

In the mean time, Camillus raised the men of Ardea, and the Romans who inhabited the open country, attacked a detachment of Gauls, and defeated them. His next object was to open a communication with the senate besieged in the Capitol. To do this was very difficult, the place being invested on all sides by the enemy. However, one Pontius Cominius, a man of mean birth, but bold, and very ambitious of glory, undertook it. He put on a light habit, and providing himself with cork, to keep the longer above water, threw himself into the Tiber above Rome, in the beginning of the night, and suffered himself to be carried down with the stream. At length he came to the foot of the Capitol, and landed at a steep place where the Gauls had not thought it necessary to post any centinels. There he mounted with great difficulty to the rampart of the citadel; and having made himself known to the guards, he was admitted into the place, and conducted to the magistrates. The senate being immediately assembled, Pontius gave them an account of Camillus's victory; and in the name of all the Romans at Veii, demanded that great captain for their general. There was not much time spent in debates: the curiæ being called together, the act of condemnation which had been passed on Camillus was abrogated, and he named dictator with one voice. Pontius was immediately dispatched with the decree; and the same good fortune which had attended him to the Capitol accompanied him in his return.

While he was taking proper measures to raise the blockade of the citadel, some Gauls rambling round the place, perceived on the side of the hill the print of Pontius's hands and feet. They observed likewise, that the moss on the rocks was in several places torn up. From these marks they concluded, that somebody had lately gone up to and returned from the Capitol. The Gauls immediately made their report to Brennus of what they had observed; and that experienced commander laid a design, which he imparted to nobody, of surprising the place by the same way that the Roman had ascended. With this view he chose out of the army such soldiers as had dwelt in mountainous countries, and been accustomed from their youth to climb precipices. These he ordered, after he had well examined the nature of the place, to ascend in the night the same way that was marked out for them; climbing two a-breast, that one might support the other in getting up the steep parts of the precipice. By this means they advanced with much difficulty from rock to rock, till they arrived at the foot of the wall. They proceeded with such silence, that they were not discovered or heard, either by the centinels who were upon guard in the citadel, or even by the dogs that are usually awaked and alarmed at the least noise. But though they eluded the sagacity of the dogs, they could not escape the vigilance of the geese. A flock of these birds was kept in a court of the Capitol, in honour of Juno, and near her temple. Notwithstanding the want of provisions in the garrison, they had been spared out of religion; and as these creatures are naturally quick of hearing, they were alarmed at the first approach of the Gauls; so that running up and down, with their cackling and beating of their wings, they awaked Manlius, a gallant soldier, who some years before had been consul. He sounded an alarm, and was the first man who mounted the rampart, where he found two Gauls already upon the wall. One of these offered to discharge a blow at him with his battle axe; but Manlius cut off his right hand at one blow, and then threw the other headlong from the rock. He, in his fall, drew many others with him; and, in in the mean time, the Romans crowding to the place, pressed upon the Gauls, and tumbled them over one another. As the nature of the ground would not suffer them to make a regular retreat, or even to fly, most of them either fell by the swords of the enemy, or threw themselves down the precipice.

In acknowledgment of the important service Manlius had just

just rendered to the state, every soldier gave him part of the corn which he received sparingly from the public stock, and a little measure of wine out of his scanty allowance. The captain of the guard, who ought to have had an eye over the centinels, was condemned to die, and, pursuant to his sentence, thrown down from the top of the Capitol. The Romans extended their punishments and rewards even to the animals. Geese were ever after had in honour at Rome, and a flock of them always kept at the expence of the public, whilst dogs were held in abhorrence, and every year one of them impaled on a branch of elder.

The blockade of the Capitol had already lasted seven months; so that the famine began to be very sensibly felt both by the besieged and besiegers. A plague attacked the Gauls whilst Camillus scoured the country, and cut off all their foraging parties. In this dilemma, Brennus offered to receive a certain sum of gold and retire from the city. This was agreed to, but it is doubtful whether the money was paid, for the forces of Camillus increasing, he attacked the Gauls, and defeated them, and, as the Roman historians assert, left not a Gaul alive to carry the news to his country. It seems clear, however, that in all this, as well as in the famous story of his telling Brennus, that "Rome was to be ransomed with steel, and not with gold," there is much falsehood. It is certain, however, that the Gauls made a disastrous retreat, and the Romans were left to rebuild their city.

It was now proposed to entirely abandon their old ruined city, and make Veii the sole seat of the empire. The people were inclined to favour the project, Veii offering them a place fortified by art and nature, good houses ready built, a wholesome air, and a fruitful territory. Camillus, having assembled the curiæ, expostulated with them upon the matter; and, by arguments drawn from superstition and glory, prevailed upon them to lay aside all thoughts of leaving Rome. As it was necessary to have the resolution of the people confirmed by the senate, the dictator reported it to the conscript fathers, leaving every one at full liberty to vote as he pleased. While L. Lucretius, who was to give his opinion the first, was beginning to speak, it happened that the centurion, who with his company had been upon guard, and was then marching by the senate house, cried out aloud, "Plant your colours, ensign; this is the best place to stay in." These words were considered as dictated by the gods themselves; and Lucretius, taking occasion from them to urge the necessity of staying at Rome, "An happy omen, (cried he); I adore the gods who gave it." The whole senate applauded his words; and a decree was passed without opposition for rebuilding the city.

Rome was scarce restored, when her citizens were alarmed by the news that all her neighbours were combining to her destruction. The Æqui, the Volsci, the Etrurians, and even her old friends, the Latins and the Hernici, entered into an alliance against her, in hopes of oppressing her before she had recovered her strength. The republic, under this terror, nominated Camillus dictator a third time. This great commander, having appointed Servilius to be his general of horse, summoned the citizens to take arms, without excepting even the old men. The Volsci and Latins, when they understood that Camillus was at the head of an army newly arrived, were so terrified, that they shut themselves up in their camp, which they fortified with great trees cut down in haste. The dictator, observing that this barrier was of green wood, and that every morning there arose a great wind which blew full upon the enemy's camp, formed the design of taking it by fire. With this view he ordered one part of his army to go by break of day with fire-brands to the windward side of the camp, and the other to make a brisk attack on the opposite side. By this means the enemy were entirely defeated, and their camp taken. Camillus then commanded his men to extinguish the flames, in order to save the booty, with which he rewarded his army. He then left his son in the camp to guard the prisoners; and entering the country of the Æqui, made himself master of their capital city Bola. From thence he marched against the Volsci; whom he entirely reduced, after they had waged war with the Romans for the space of 107 years. Having subdued this untractable people, he penetrated into Etruria, in order to relieve Sutrium, a town in that country in alliance with Rome, and besieged by a numerous army of Etrurians. He did not reach the place before it had capitulated. The Sutrini, being greatly distressed for want of provisions, and exhausted with labour, had surrendered to the Etrurians, who were wholly taken up in plundering the city, without being upon their guard, or observing any discipline. The dictator fell upon and put most of them to the sword, and returned the city to the Sutrini.

Camillus having resigned his dictatorship, the republic chose six new military tribunes, Q. Quinctius, Q. Servius, L. Julius, L. Aquilius, L. Lucretius, and Ser. Sulpitius. During their administration the country of the Æqui was laid waste, in order to put it out of their power to revolt anew; and the two cities of Cortuosa and Contenebra, in the lucumony of the Tarquinienses, were taken from the Etrurians, and entirely demolished. At this time it was thought proper to repair the capitol, and add new works to that part of the hill where the Gauls had endeavoured to scale the citadel. These works were esteemed very beautiful, as Livy informs us, even in the time of Augustus, after the city was embellished with most magnificent decorations.

And now Rome being reinstated in her former flourishing condition, the tribunes of the people, who had been for some time quiet, began to renew their harangues, and revive the old quarrel about the division of the conquered land. The patricians had appropriated to themselves the Pomptin territory lately taken from the Volsci, and the tribunes laid hold of this opportunity to attack them anew. But the citizens being so drained of their money that they had not enough left to cultivate new farms and stock them with cattle, the declamations of the tribunes made no impression upon their minds; so that the project vanished. As for the military tribunes, they owned that their election had been defective; and, lest the irregularities of the former comitia should be continued in the succeeding ones, they voluntarily laid down their office. So that, after a short interregnum, during which M. Manlius, Ser. Sulpitius, and L. Valerius Potitus, governed the republic, six new military tribunes, L. Papirius, C. Sergius, L. Æmilius, L. Menenius, L. Valerius, and C. Cornelius, were chosen for the ensuing year, which was spent in works of peace. A temple which had been vowed to Mars during the war with the Gauls, was built, and consecrated by T. Quinctius, who presided over the affairs of religion. As there had hitherto been but few Roman tribes beyond the Tiber which had a right of suffrage in the comitia, four new ones were added, under the name of the *Stellatina*, *Tramontina*, *Sabatina*, and *Arniensis*; so that the tribes were now in all 25, which enjoyed the same rights and privileges.

The expectation of an approaching war induced the centuries to choose Camillus one of the military tribunes for the next year. His colleagues were Ser. Cornelius, Q. Servilius, L. Quinctius, L. Horatius, and P. Valerius. As all these were men of moderation, they agreed to invest Camillus with the sole management of affairs in time of war; and accordingly in full senate transferred all their power into his hands; so that he became in effect dictator. It had been already determined in the senate to turn the arms of the republic against the Etrurians; but, upon advice that the Antiates had entered the Pomptin territory, and obliged the Romans who had taken possession of it to retire, it was thought necessary to humble them before the republic engaged in any other enterprise. The Antiates had joined the Latins and Hernici near Satricum; so that the Romans, being terrified at their prodigious numbers, shewed themselves very backward to engage; which Camillus perceiving, he instantly mounted his horse, and riding through all the ranks of the army, encouraged them by a proper speech; after which he dismounted, took the next standard-bearer by the hand,

hand, led him towards the enemy, and cried out, Soldiers, advance! The soldiery were ashamed not to follow a general who exposed himself to the first attack; and therefore, having made a great shout, they fell upon the enemy with incredible fury. Camillus, in order to increase their eagerness still more, commanded a standard to be thrown into the enemy's battalions; which made the soldiers, who were fighting in the first ranks, exert all the resolution they could to recover it. The Antiates, not being able any longer to make head against the Romans, gave way, and were entirely defeated. The Latins and Hernici separated from the Volsci, and returned home. The Volsci, seeing themselves thus abandoned by their allies, took refuge in the neighbouring city of Satricum; which Camillus immediately invested, and took by assault. The latter threw down their arms, and surrendered at discretion. He then left his army under the command of Valerius; and returned to Rome to solicit the consent of the senate, and to make the necessary preparations for undertaking the siege of Antium.

But, while he was proposing this affair to the senate, deputies arrived from Nepet and Sutrium, two cities in alliance with Rome, demanding succours against the Etrurians, who threatened to besiege these two cities, which were the keys of Etruria. Hereupon the expedition against Antium was laid aside, and Camillus commanded to hasten to the relief of the allied cities, with the troops which Servilius had kept in readiness at Rome in case of an emergency. Camillus immediately set out for the new war; and, upon his arrival before Sutrium, found that important place not only besieged, but almost taken; the Etrurians having made themselves masters of some of the gates, and gained possession of all the avenues leading to the city. However, the inhabitants no sooner heard that Camillus was come to their relief, but they recovered their courage, and, by barricadoes made in the streets, prevented the enemy from making themselves masters of the whole city. Camillus in the mean time having divided his army into two bodies, ordered Valerius to march round the walls, as if he designed to scale them, while he with the other undertook to charge the Etrurians in the rear, force his way into the city, and shut up the enemy between the besieged and his troops. The Romans no sooner appeared than the Etrurians betook themselves to a disorderly flight through a gate which was not invested. Camillus's troops made a dreadful slaughter of them within the city, while Valerius put great numbers of them to the sword without the walls. From reconquering Sutrium, Camillus hastened to the relief of Nepet. But that city being better affected to the Etrurians than to the Romans, had voluntarily submitted to the former. Wherefore Camillus, having invested it with his whole army, took *it* by assault, put all the Etrurian soldiers without distinction to the sword, and condemned the authors of the revolt to die by the axes of the lictors. Thus ended Camillus's military tribuneship, in which he acquired no less reputation than he had done in the most glorious of his dictatorships.

In the following magistracy of six military tribunes, a dangerous sedition is said to have taken place through the ambition of Marcus Manlius, who had saved the capitol from the Gauls in the manner already related. But it was soon quelled, and according to some accounts, Manlius was precipitated from the capitol: this however is doubtful.

The Romans, having now triumphed over the Sabines, the Etrurians, the Latins, the Hernici, the Æqui, and the Volscians, began to look for greater conquests. They accordingly turned their arms against the Samnites, a people about 100 miles east from the city, descended from the Sabines, and inhabiting a large tract of southern Italy, which at this day makes a considerable part of the kingdom of Naples. Valerius Corvus and Cornelius were the two consuls, to whose care it first fell to manage this dreadful contention. A. U. C. 412.

Valerius was one of the greatest commanders of his time: he was surnamed Corvus, from a fable of his being assisted by a crow in a single combat, in which he fought and killed a Gaul of a gigantic stature. To his colleague's care it was consigned to lead an army to Samnium, the enemy's capital; while Corvus was sent to relieve Capua, the capital of the Campanians. The Samnites were the bravest men the Romans had ever yet encountered, and the contention between the two nations was managed on both sides with the most determined resolution. But the fortune of Rome prevailed; the Samnites at length fled, averring, that they were not able to withstand the fierce looks and the fire-darting eyes of the Romans. The other consul, however, was not at first so fortunate; for having unwarily led his army into a defile, he was in danger of being cut off, had not Decius, a tribune of the army, possessed himself of a hill which commanded the enemy: so that the Samnites, being attacked on either side, were defeated with great slaughter, no less than 30,000 of them being left dead upon the field of battle.

A war between the Romans and the Latins followed soon after; but as their habits, arms, and language, were the same, the most exact discipline was necessary to prevent confusion in the engagement. Orders, therefore, were issued by Manlius the consul, that no soldier should leave his ranks upon any provocation; and that he should be certainly put to death who should offer to do otherwise. With these injunctions, both armies were drawn out in array, and ready to begin; when Metius, the general of the enemy's cavalry, pushed forward from his lines, and challenged any knight in the Roman army to single combat. For some time there was a general pause, no soldier offering to disobey his orders, till Titus Manlius, the consul's own son, burning with shame to see the whole body of the Romans intimidated, boldly sallied out. Manlius killed his adversary; and then, despoiling him of his armour, returned in triumph to his father's tent, whom he found preparing and giving orders relative to the engagement. However he might have been applauded by his fellow-soldiers, his father ordered him to be led publicly forth before the army, and there to have his head struck off on account of his disobeying orders. His dead body was carried forth without the camp, and, being adorned with the spoils of the vanquished enemy, was buried with pomp.

In the mean time, the battle joined with mutual fury; and as the two armies had often fought under the same leaders, they combated with all the animosity of a civil war. Manlius commanded the right wing, and Decius led on the left. Both sides fought for some time with doubtful success: but, after a time, the left wing of the Roman army began to give ground. It was then that Decius who commanded there, resolved to devote himself for his country, and to offer his own life as an atonement to save his army. Thus determined, he called out to Manlius with a loud voice, and demanded his instructions, as he was the chief pontiff, how to devote himself, and the form of the words he should use. By his directions, therefore, being clothed in a long robe, his head covered, and his arms stretched forward, standing upon a javelin, he devoted himself to the celestial and infernal gods for the safety of Rome. Then arming himself, and mounting on horseback, he drove furiously into the midst of the enemy, carrying terror and consternation wherever he came, till he fell covered with wounds. In the mean time, the Roman army considered his devoting himself in this manner as an assurance of success; nor was the superstition of the Latins less powerfully influenced by his resolution; a total rout began to ensue: the Romans pressed them on every side; and so great was the carnage, that scarce a fourth part of the enemy survived the defeat. This was the last battle of any consequence that the Latins had with the Romans: they were forced to beg a peace, and two years after, their strongest city, Pædum, being taken, they were brought to an entire submission.

A disgrace which the Romans sustained about this time in their contest with the Samnites, made a pause in their good fortune,

fortune, and turned the scale for a while in the enemy's favour. The senate having denied the Samnites peace, Pontius, their general, was resolved to gain by stratagem what he had frequently lost by force. Accordingly, leading his army into a defile called Caudium, and taking possession of all its outlets, he sent 10 of his soldiers, habited like shepherds, with directions to throw themselves in the way the Romans were to march. The Roman consul met them, and taking them for what they appeared, demanded the route the Samnite army had taken; they, with seeming indifference, replied, that they were gone to Luceria, a town in Apulia, and were then actually besieging it. The Roman general, not suspecting the stratagem that was laid against him, marched directly by the shortest road, which lay through the defiles, to relieve the city; and was not undeceived till he saw his army surrounded, and blocked up on every side. Pontius thus having the Romans entirely in his power, first obliged the army to pass under the yoke, having been previously stripped of all but their garments; he then stipulated that they should wholly quit the territories of the Samnites, and that they should continue to live upon terms of former confederacy. The Romans were constrained to submit to this ignominious treaty, and marched into Capua disarmed and half naked. When the army arrived at Rome, the whole city was most surprisingly afflicted at their shameful return; nothing but grief and resentment was to be seen, and the whole city was put into mourning.

But this was a transitory calamity: the war was carried on as usual for many years; the power of the Samnites declining every day, while that of the Romans continually increased. Under the conduct of Papirius Cursor, who was at different times consul and dictator, repeated triumphs were gained. Fabius Maximus, An. 444. also had his share in the glory of conquering them; and Decius, the son of that Decius whom we saw devoting himself for his country about 40 years before, followed the example of his father, and rushed into the midst of the enemy, imagining that he could save the lives of his countrymen with the loss of his own.

The subjugation of so many warlike nations, after they had so long and successfully resisted the Roman armies, has been but obscurely accounted for by historians. It may be traced to two causes. The first was, that about the year 351, the soldiers, hitherto dependant on their own resources for equipment, and on plunder for pay, were exchanged for troops regularly paid by taxes, and whose arms were fabricated under the superintendence of the general. Their regular pay made them at all times prepared for war, and this standing army could, of course, be much more promptly called into action than the warlike populace with whom the senate had always to redress, as a preliminary step, some popular grievance. In the second place, the fear of the popular force had, since the time of Servius, rendered the patricians' cavalry very careless of strengthening the plebeian infantry; but after the establishment of the new system, this fear was of course no longer felt. The consequence was, that supported by an effective body of foot soldiers, the cavalry were able to perform movements far more decisive than when they had to trust to their own unaided efforts, and the enemies of Rome found that a well paid and disciplined army had taken the place of the impatient and desultory warriors who repulsed their foes in one campaign, and walked home the next; and that this new power followed up every advantage it gained, pursued and hunted down its defeated opponents, garrisoned the cities which it had taken, and, in a word, subjugated those possessions which the old Romans had been contented to overrun.

In this place it seems proper to enter into some account of the ARMS and TACTICS of the Romans. The *spear* had been introduced into the army by Servius Tullius, and had been by him allotted to the four first classes of the plebeians. It was originally about twenty-four feet in length, but was afterwards reduced to twenty-one feet, and was sometimes thrown, but more generally thrust against the enemy. The *shield*, at first a round piece of bull's hide, which of course, when wet, was useless; and at all times feeble, was changed by Romulus for a wooden defence, entitled the *scutum*. In the time of Camillus, the soldiers were required to add a rim of brass to their shields. It appears also, that the wood now rose, covered with leather; this was often called *clypeum*. The shield of the infantry was large, oblong, and calculated to defend the whole of the trunk of the body. The scutum of the cavalry was round, slightly convex; it must necessarily have been smaller than the shield of the infantry. The *sword* was a short cut and thrust sword, with a mere cross at the handle, for a guard, and obviously unfitted for any combat but the closest. The full robe of the Romans was diminished in fullness, and became the *sagum* or *chlamys* of the common soldier; or when of richer stuff, and fuller, the *paludimentum* of the general. To the defensive arms, Camillus added a steel cap, or helmet. Thus equipped, and laden with provisions, culinary utensils, and pioneers' tools (so heavily, that the Spaniards said the Romans were rather mules than soldiers), the infantry marched into the field. Their weighty baggage was now thrown into a heap, behind the army, and the ranks were formed either into a *phalanx*, or into *manipuli*, (battalions.) The phalanx is traced by Pliny as far as the heroic age, and it is evident that in all rude periods this must be the first constitution of an infantry. The bolder spirits, and those whose circumstances enable them to be well armed, form a line of effective force, which breaks and disorders the enemy, and the hinder ranks, only armed offensively, pursue and slaughter the flying foe, or take prisoners. The phalanx of the Romans is described by Polybius as irresistible. "It is a body of men," he says, "who keep their ranks so close, that each man is allowed but three feet space, for himself and his arms. Those who composed this formidable body of men were armed with *Larissæ;* pikes, which, when they first came into use, were sixteen cubits, that is twenty-four feet long. But afterwards they were reduced to fourteen cubits, that is twenty-one feet, that they might be the more manageable; when, therefore, those of the first line were presented, they stood out at least ten cubits towards the enemy, allowing four cubits for the soldiers to hold by; and consequently the pikes of the second, third, fourth, and fifth ranks were all long enough to reach before the first rank, some farther, some shorter, according to the distance of the ranks, from all which it is easy to conceive, adds Polybius, "what the force of the phalanx must have been, when it gave an assault upon the enemy." It is clear, however, that the fourth and fifth ranks could have been of no use whatever in the charge, and that when, as was often the case, the phalanx was ten or fifteen lines deep, the hindermost soldiers could only be useful to withstand attacks from the rear, or, on the other hand, to form into line, and attack the flank of the enemy; but the latter manœuvre they do not seem to have practised, and, indeed, the phalanx was less calculated to perform it than almost any other arrangement.

With the improvement of the arms of the Romans, this system was entirely abandoned. The phalanx had always been divided nominally into manipuli, but now a real division was made between them, and the army gradually assumed the form of a triple line, supported by a corps de reserve, and assisted by numerous light troops, for whose retreat their division into battalia formed a good security. This was the system of *legions* which conquered the world. The following description will set this matter in a clearer light. The Roman battalia were drawn up in three divisions, consisting of soldiers completely armed, as well to act offensively as defensively. The *Hastati*, so called from a sort of weapon like our own lances, composed the first line of divisions. In the second were the *Principes*, so called from the Latin word *princeps*, either because in the first ages of *Rome* they were placed at the head of the armies, or because they were preferred before the hastati. Varro tells us,

ROMAN COSTUME.

1 A roman soldier marching. 2 A senator. 3. 4. Horse & foot soldiers

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1826.

us, that their offensive weapon was the sword. The *Triarii* formed the third line of divisions; from whence they were called *Triarii* or *Tertiani*. Their weapon was a sort of lance, which the Roman historians call *Pilum*. These three orders of *Hastati, Principes,* and *Triarii* were divided into manipuli. Between these little battalions there were generally empty spaces left, in such a manner, that the manipuli of the second line, or principes, were posted directly opposite the spaces of the first or hastati, and those of the third over against the spaces in the second. By this means, the principes were ready to take the place of the hastati, whenever they should be repulsed by the enemy, and forced to retire through the spaces between each line, and each manipulus; and then it was the business of the *principes* to sustain the attacks of the enemy till the hastati rallied behind the third line. If the second line underwent the same fate as the first, it retreated through the spaces before mentioned, and was relieved by the *triarii;* and then, as the third attack was the last effort of the legion, all these bodies were so united as to make but one great battalion.

The following was commonly the order of their battles. As soon as the *legions* were drawn up in battalia, the consul ordered the light-armed infantry, which the *Roman* historians call *Leves, Rorarii,* and *Accensi,* to advance into the spaces between each manipulus. The rorarii and accensi seem to have been two different classes, both comprehended under the general name of *Leves;* at least we have reason to guess so from Livy's account, (B. 8.) They were dartmen and slingers, who skirmished at the head of the legions, and after they had made their first attack, retired through the spaces between the battalions, and returned to the charge a second or third time, till the battle was begun. The legions were flanked, both to the right and left, by the auxiliary infantry, which the people of *Latium,* among others, furnished. These foreign troops were drawn up in the same manner as the legions. They had their hastati, principes, and triarii, as we are told by Livy, (B. 8.) These were posted in three different lines, so as to flank the Roman legions which were in the centre. As for the cavalry, both that of the Romans and their auxiliaries was inferior in number to the infantry, in which the main strength of the army consisted; and the horse were generally posted in the wings, so as to cover the two flanks. They fought in *Turmæ,* or squadrons, which were drawn up at some distance from one another, that they might have the more liberty to wheel, and make the several motions which were in use. Each Turma contained thirty men, which were subdivided into three Decuriæ, (i. e. brigades of ten horsemen each,) with an officer at the head of them, who was called Decurio. It is uncertain whether these three tens were joined in one body, or posted at a distance from each other. The army was variously drawn up, sometimes in the form of a square, sometimes of a triangle; in a wedge; in a circle, that it might face every way; and even in a crescent, that it might enclose the enemy. A change took place in the situation of the manipuli under Scipio Africanus. He caused the principes and triarii to stand exactly behind the hastati instead of opposite their interstices. In the time of Julius Cæsar, the number of men in each manipulus was increased, and it was called a *cohort.*

The superiority of the legionary system over the phalanx, was clearly manifested in the wars between the Greeks and Romans, the former of whom were especially attached to the phalanx, and had long been used to its most effective evolutions. Still, however, it was broken by the lines of the Romans.

With the subjection of the Samnites, who had warred with Rome for nearly fifty years, peace returned, and with it the private disputes of the Romans. The old law of the debtor being made slave to the creditor, had caused a particular instance of oppression and brutality, and the popular indignation rose so high against Plotius, the offending creditor, that he was executed, and if the law was not annulled in form, its enforcement was abstained from, and the imprisoned debtors liberated. This, however, did not satisfy the people; they demanded an abrogation of the law, and this being refused, they left the city. To bring them back, HORTENSIUS, A. U. C. 466, was appointed dictator, and he made some very important concessions.

During the latter part of the fourth century, the LICINIAN and SEXTIAN laws had been wrung from the patricians. These laws, so named from Licinius and Sextus, the tribunes of the people, in the first place limited every man's possessions to 500 acres of land; secondly, released debtors from paying interest, (which meant, in those days, usury,) and thirdly, opened the consulship and other high offices of state to the plebeians as well as patricians. In the year 414, the plebeians obtained the important concession, that the people should *propose* instead of ratify the laws, and that senators and commons should be alike bound to obey those laws. But it was now complained that the senators and patricians did not submit to them. Hortensius declared, that for the future, whatever decrees were made in the comitia by tribes, should be equally observed both by the nobility and the people; and it is probable that better measures were now taken than formerly, to prevent the infractions of this law. Another law Hortensius made was in favour of the country people: they complained that justice was not administered at Rome on market-days; and that when any causes were depending, they were forced to leave their work, and come to the city to have them determined; and it was granted them that the market-days should no longer be vacation-days for the judges; that so they might have their causes heard before they returned home. The next grievance was that the senate still had a power to prevent popular enactments from taking place, by their veto. This, Hortensius deprived them of, and the minds of all became satisfied, and the respective parties assumed a degree of calmness and serenity long unknown to Rome.

The increasing dominion of the Romans began at length to alarm the remotest nations of Italy. The Tarentines especially resolved to check these dangerous usurpers, and, for the purpose of strengthening their own forces, invited over Pyrrhus, the famous king of Epirus. The necessity of this step was apparent from the manifest superiority the Roman forces displayed when opposed to those of the Tarentines.

Pyrrhus had no sooner arrived in Tarentum than he found the inhabitants engrossed with licentiousness and gaiety. They had expected that the Epirots alone were to brave the dangers of the war; but Pyrrhus resolved to reform them, and to put an end to the divisions which were fomented by their idleness and vices. He prohibited their feasts, their masquerades, and their plays. He put down the harangues and debates of their demagogues; and, selecting the strongest of the youth, he inured them to military exercises and the use of arms. The Tarentines could not brook such a system of severe and rigorous discipline; they complained loudly of their new ally, and even attempted to quit their country, but Pyrrhus made it a capital crime to abandon their territory, and increased the severity of his measures in proportion as they endeavoured to resist or evade them.

While Pyrrhus was thus disciplining the Tarentines, P. Valerius Lævinus, the Roman consul, entered Lucania and ravaged the country. Though Pyrrhus had not yet collected his contingents from the allies of the Tarentines, he yet ventured into the field, and advanced to the Roman camp on the banks of the Siris. Upon reconnoitring the camp from the opposite bank, and observing the entrenchments, and the good order which characterized the whole, he renounced his plan of attacking them, and waited in his own entrenchments for the reinforcements which he expected.

The Roman consul, however, was desirous of bringing Pyrrhus to a general engagement before the arrival of the confederate troops. He accordingly addressed his army, and drawing up his infantry on the banks of the Siris, the cavalry

cavalry were ordered to make a great detour in order to cross some unprotected part of the river. Having succeeded in passing the Siris, the cavalry attacked the troops which Pyrrhus had drawn up in front of the Roman infantry, and thus gave time to the latter to cross the river by bridges which had been prepared for them. In the mean time, Pyrrhus advanced with his army in the hopes of destroying the Romans during the hurry and disorder of forming on the banks of the river; but the Roman cavalry kept the Epirots in check till the infantry were formed. At this early period of the action, Pyrrhus astonished the Romans by his bravery and skill. He had a horse killed under him at the first onset, and as a report had gone abroad that he was slain, he rode through all his ranks before he began the general attack. The richness of his equipments having marked him out to the enemy, he exchanged his dress and his helmet with his favourite Megacles, and thus masked he attacked the Romans with a vigour to which they had not been accustomed. The Romans bore the onset with undaunted firmness. The Epirots and the Romans gave way by turns, and by turns were rallied, until Megacles, in the royal garb, was pursued by *Dexter*, a Roman knight, who slew him, and carried his dress and armour to the consul. When these were shown to the Epirots, they began to give way under the belief that their king had fallen; but Pyrrhus learning what had happened, rode bareheaded along the first lines of his army, and raised their hopes and their courage.

Lævinus now ordered his cavalry to advance; but the moment this was observed by Pyrrhus, he brought twenty elephants in front of his army, having towers on their backs full of archers. Awed by the sight of these animals, which they had never seen before, the courage of the Roman cavalry began to abate; but as they advanced nearer to them, their horses took fright at the strange noise of the elephants, and either threw their riders or carried them off at full gallop. Although the cavalry were thus thrown into disorder, and many of them slain by the darts of the archers, yet the infantry still maintained their position till Pyrrhus at the head of his Thessalian horse attacked them in a furious onset, and forced them to repass the river in disorder, and take refuge in Apulia. Although Pyrrhus remained master of the field, yet he lost in this engagement many of his best officers and soldiers, and was heard to confess that another such victory would compel him to return to Epirus. A. U. C. 473.

While he was engaged in burying the dead, with which the field of battle was covered, Pyrrhus is said to have observed that the Romans had all fallen by honourable wounds, and that the dead still grasped their swords in their hands. He remarked even in the faces of the slain a martial air and boldness of aspect which drew from him the celebrated exclamation, "Oh that Pyrrhus had the Romans for his soldiers, or the Romans Pyrrhus for their leader—together we should subdue the whole world."

After repairing the disasters of this bloody engagement, Pyrrhus followed the Romans into the territories of their allies, and after advancing even into the neighbourhood of Rome, he made himself master of the greater part of Campania. Here he was joined by the Samnites, the Lucanians, and the Messapians, and with these reinforcements he laid siege, to Capua. Lævinus, however, forced him to raise the siege, but Pyrrhus turning all on a sudden towards Rome by the Latin way, surprised Fregellæ, and passing through the territory of the Hernici, he arrived at Præneste. Here he is said to have obtained a sight of Rome from the top of a hill, and even to have driven a cloud of dust into the city. Titus Coruncanius the other consul, having returned from the reduction of Etruria with his victorious army, compelled Pyrrhus to raise the siege of Præneste, and to retrace his steps into Campania. Here he found Lævinus with a more powerful army than the one he had defeated. The Roman consul endeavoured to bring him to a battle, but Pyrrhus declined it, and terminated the campaign by retiring to Tarentum.

The knowledge which Pyrrhus had acquired of Roman valour, pointed out to him the prudence of seeking an honourable peace. The conditions, however, which he proposed, though by no means unfavourable to Rome, were nevertheless violently opposed by Appius Claudius, an old senator, who prevailed upon the conscript fathers to reject all offers of peace till the invader had quitted Italy.

Pyrrhus now prepared for a new campaign. The Roman army under the consuls, P. Sulpicius Saverrio and P. Decius Mus, marched into Apulia, and having found him encamped near Asculum, they fortified a position at the foot of the Appennines, separated from the enemy by a broad river which flowed through the plain. The Romans crossed the river, and drew up in order of battle on the plain; their centre, consisting of four legions, who were to engage the phalanx of the enemy, while the Roman cavalry and the light armed auxiliaries were placed in the wings. Pyrrhus so marshalled his troops that he had in the centre his phalanx, on the right wing his Epirots and Samnites, and on his left Lucanians, Bruttians, and Salentines. The Romans had provided chariots armed with scythes, and filled with soldiers carrying firebrands, to frighten the elephants and burn their wooden towers, and they directed a body of Apulians to attack Pyrrhus's camp during the battle. The contest at last began. The central phalanx of Pyrrhus sustained the furious attack of the four legions; but it was compelled to give way. Pyrrhus now marched round his elephants against the Roman cavalry which were thus thrown into disorder, the phalanx again returned to the charge, and drove back the Roman legion, who left their consul Decius among the dead. The preconcerted attack of the Apulians, however, upon the enemy's camp turned the fortune of the day. The king was obliged to send a strong body to defend it, and the Epirots thinking that their entrenchments were forced, lost their courage and began to retire. The whole army followed their example, and though Pyrrhus strove to rally them, yet his gallant exertions were fruitless, and after being severely wounded, he retired, and left the Romans in possession of the field. Unable to pursue the advantage which he had gained, Sulpicius recrossed the river, and returned to his camp; but when he found that Pyrrhus had retreated to Tarentum, he put his army into winter quarters in Apulia.

The Roman army again took the field under the command of the new consuls, C. Fabricius and Q. Emilius Pappus. Advancing into the territory of Tarentum, they came up with Pyrrhus, and while they were waiting for a favourable opportunity of giving battle, his physician Nicias brought a letter to Fabricius offering to poison his master. The consuls were so shocked with the proposal, that they wrote a letter to Pyrrhus informing him of the traitorous plans of those arround him. Grateful for this mark of kindness, Pyrrhus immediately released the Roman prisoners without ransom; but the consuls, unwilling to accept of a favour, sent back to Pyrrhus an equal number of Tarentines and Samnites. Unable to procure an honourable peace with the Romans, and sensible of his want of resources to withstand them, Pyrrhus accepted of an invitation from the Sicilians to assist them against the Carthaginians.

After the disastrous adventures of that expedition were at an end, he returned to Italy and was soon opposed to two Roman armies, under the consuls Curius Dentatus and Cornelius Lentulus. Having repulsed the vanguard of Pyrrhus, Dentatus drew up his army in the Taurasian fields, and gave battle to the enemy. The narrowness of the plain was unfavourable to the large army of Pyrrhus, and though one of his wings began to give way, yet that which he commanded drove back the Romans to their entrenchments by the aid of the armed elephants. Curius immediately ordered a corps of reserve to attack the elephants with torches in one hand, and swords in the other, and having put them to flight, the elephants broke into the phalanx of the Epirots and threw their ranks into the utmost confusion. The Romans took 1200 prisoners, and 8 elephants, and the loss

loss of Pyrrhus has been variously stated from 20,000 to 30,000 slain.

Finding it in vain to cope with the Romans, and having been disappointed in his demands of assistance from Greece, Pyrrhus arrived at Acroceraunium in Epirus, after an unsuccessful war of six years in Italy. He, however, left Milo with a strong garrison in Tarentum, and in order to remind him of his duty, he is said to have presented this general with a chair covered with the skin of Nicias.

Thus deserted by their great ally, the Tarentines hazarded a general battle with the Romans, but their army was almost exterminated in the engagement; and Rome thus became mistress of nearly all the remainder of Italy; this overthrow being soon followed by the submission of the Lucanians, Brutians, Tarentines, Sarcinates, Picentes, and Salentines.

Of these nations some were made subject to the republic, and had no laws but what they received from thence; others retained their old laws and customs, but in subjection to the republic; some were tributary, and others allies, who were obliged to furnish troops at their own expence when the Romans required. Some had the privilege of Roman citizenship, their soldiers being incorporated in the legions; while others had a right of suffrage in the elections made by the centuries. These different degrees of honour, privileges, and liberty, were founded on the different terms granted to the conquered nations when they surrendered, and were afterwards increased according to their fidelity, and the services they did the republic.

A new and distant scene of conquest now opened to the ambition of the Romans. Their fame spread beyond the confines of Italy, and other nations implored the support of that formidable valour which had defeated one of the first commanders of antiquity, and the combined forces of so many valiant nations.

The protection the Romans afforded to the Mamertines, who inhabited a portion of Syracuse, now involved them in a war with a new and more formidable enemy than they had yet encountered. This was Carthage, who, besides a dense and warlike population, and extensive dominions, had brought the art of naval tactics to a perfection far beyond the powers of the Romans. Carthage had long been the friend of Rome; and the two states had reciprocally received and conferred benefits in course of a convenient trade.

The wars with CARTHAGE having been fully described under that article, it remains only to notice here that the interval which elapsed between the first and second punic war, was employed by the Romans, in subduing the Boii and Ligurians. These were Gaulish nations, who had always been very formidable to the Romans, and now gave one of their consuls a notable defeat. However, he soon after sufficiently revenged himself, and defeated the enemy with great slaughter; though it was not till sometime after, and with a good deal of difficulty, that they were totally subdued. During this interval also, the Romans seized on the islands of Sardinia, Corsica, and Malta; in the year 219 B. C. the two former were reduced to the form of a province. Papirius, who had subdued Corsica, demanded a triumph; but not having interest enough to obtain it, he took a method entirely new to do himself justice. He put himself at the head of his victorious army, and marched to the temple of Jupiter Latialis, on the hill of Alba, with all the pomp that attended triumphant victors at Rome. He made no other alteration in the ceremony, but that of wearing a crown of myrtle instead of a crown of laurel, and this on account of his having defeated the Corsicans in a place where there was a grove of myrtles. The example of Papirius was afterwards followed by a great many generals to whom the senate refused triumphs.

The next year, when M. Æmilius Barbula and M. Junius Pera were consuls, a new war sprung up. Illyricum, a kingdom of Italy, which bordered upon Macedon and Epirus, was at this time governed by a woman named Teuta, the widow of King Agrons, and guardian to her son Pinæus, who was under age. Upon the complaints of the Italian merchants, and to protect the people of Issa, the senate sent two ambassadors to the Illyrian queen, Lucius and Caius Coruncanus, to demand of her that she would restrain her subjects from infesting the sea with pirates. She answered them haughtily, that she could only promise that her subjects should not for the future attack the Romans in her name, and by public authority: "but as for any thing more it is not customary with us (said she) to lay restraints on our subjects, nor will we forbid them to reap those advantages from the sea which it offers them." Your customs then (replied the youngest of the ambassadors) are very different from ours.

Hereupon the consuls, P. Posthumius Albinus and Cn. Fulvius Centumalus, embarked for Illyricum; Fulvius having the command of the fleet, which consisted of 100 galleys, and Posthumius of the land forces, which amounted to 20,000 foot, besides a small body of horse, and soon reduced the Illyrian forces. In the next consulate, Teuta was compelled to take refuge in a strong hold called Rhizon, and ask for peace. The Romans, however, refused to treat with her; but they made peace with the young king, on the condition of paying an annual tribute, and surrendering a part of his dominions.

Before this war was ended, the Romans were alarmed by new motions of the Gauls, and the great progress which the Carthaginians made in Spain. At this time also the fears of the people were excited by a prophecy said to be taken out of the Sibylline books, that the Gauls and Greeks should one day be in possession of Rome. This prophecy, however, the senate found means to elude, as they pretended, by burying two Gauls and two Greeks alive, and then telling the multitude that the Gauls and Greeks were now in the possession of Rome. The difficulties which superstition had raised being thus surmounted, the Romans made vast preparations against the Gauls, whom they seem to have dreaded above all other nations. Some say that the number of forces raised by the Romans on this occasion amounted to no fewer than 800,000 men. Of this incredible multitude 248,000 foot and 26,000 horse were Romans or Campanians; nevertheless, the Gauls, with only 50,000 foot and 20,000 horse, forced a passage through Etruria, and took the road towards Rome. Here they had the good fortune at first to defeat one of the Roman armies; but being soon after met by two others, they were utterly defeated, with the loss of more than 50,000 of their number. The Romans then entered their country, which they cruelly ravaged; but a plague breaking out in their army, obliged them to return home. This was followed by a new war, in which those Gauls who inhabited Insubria and Liguria were totally subdued, and their country reduced to a Roman province. These conquests were followed by that of Istria; Dimalum, a city of importance in Illyricum; and Pharos, an island in the Adriatic sea.

The second punic war for some time retarded the conquests of the Romans, and even threatened their state with entire destruction; but Hannibal being at last recalled from Italy, and entirely defeated at Zama, they made peace upon such advantageous terms as gave them an entire superiority over that republic, which they not long after entirely subverted, as has been related in the history of CARTHAGE.

The successful issue of the second punic war had greatly increased the extent of the Roman empire. They were now masters of all Sicily, the Mediterranean islands, and great part of Spain; and, through the dissensions of the Asiatic states with the king of Macedon, a pretence was now found for carrying their arms into these parts. The Gauls in the mean time, however, continued their incursions, but now ceased to be formidable; while the kings of Macedon, through misconduct, were first obliged to submit to a disadvantageous peace, and at last totally subdued (see MACEDON). The reduction of Macedon was soon followed by that of all Greece, either by the name of allies or otherwise: while Antiochus the Great, to whom Hannibal fled for protection, by an unsuccessful war first gave the Romans a footing in Asia.

Asia. Arrived at a height of power unparalleled in the annals of the world, Rome was now disturbed in her internal administration in a more serious manner that had ever yet happened. Though the Licinian law had declared that no one person should possess more than 500 acres of land, it was, in great numbers of instances, broken through, and no one had successfully attempted to correct this infraction of the laws.

At length Tiberius Sempronius Gracchus took upon himself the task of reforming these abuses. This young patrician was deemed the most accomplished youth in Rome. His extraordinary talents were heightened by a noble air, an engaging countenance, and all those natural graces of nature which recommend merit. He married the daughter of Appius Claudius, who had been formerly consul and censor, and was then prince of the senate. He continued for some time in the sentiments both of his own and his wife's family, and supported the interests of the patricians; but without openly attacking the popular faction. He was the chief author and negociator of a peace with the Numantines, which the senate disannulled, and condemned the consul, the quæstor, and all the officers who had signed it, to be delivered up to the enemy. The people, however, out of esteem for Gracchus, would not suffer him to be sacrificed. He now attached himself zealously to the cause of the people, stood for and obtained the tribuneship, and soon after, with the approbation of his father-in-law Appius Claudius, of P. Crassus, the pontifex maximus, and of Mutius Scævola, the most learned civilian in Rome, proposed a new agrarian law. This, as he first drew it up, was very mild: for it only enacted, that those who possessed more than 500 acres of land should part with the overplus; and that the full value of the said lands should be paid them out of the public treasury. The lands thus purchased by the public were to be divided among the poor citizens; and cultivated either by themselves or by freemen, who were upon the spot. Tiberius allowed every child of a family to hold 250 acres in his own name, over and above what was allowed to the father. Nothing could be more moderate, since by the Licinian law, he might have absolutely deprived the rich of the lands they unjustly possessed, and made them accountable for the profits they had received from them during their long possession. But the rich patricians exclaimed against it, and were continually mounting the rostra one after another, in order to dissuade the people from accepting a law, which, they said, would raise disturbances that might prove more dangerous than the evils which Tiberius pretended to redress by the promulgation of it. They also endeavoured to ruin his reputation. They gave out that he aimed at monarchy; and published pretended plots laid for crowning him king. But the people, without giving ear to such groundless reports, encouraged and supported their tribune.

When the day came on which this law was to be accepted or rejected by the people assembled in the comitium, Gracchus, after haranguing the mighty crowd which an affair of such importance had brought together, and exciting their minds to that warmth and emotion which was necessary, ordered the law to be read.

One of the tribunes, by name Marcus Octavius Cæcina, having been gained over by the patricians, declared against the proceedings of his colleague; and pronounced the word which had been always awful in the mouth of a tribune of the people, *Veto*, "I forbid it." As Octavius was a man of an unblameable character, and had hitherto been very zealous for the publication of the law, Gracchus was greatly surprised at this unexpected opposition from his friend. However, he kept his temper, and only desired the people to assemble again the next day to hear their two tribunes, one in defence of, the other in opposition to, the law proposed. The people met at the time appointed; when Gracchus, addressing himself to his colleague, conjured him by the mutual duties of their function, and by the bonds of their ancient friendship, not to oppose the good of the people, whom they were bound in honour to protect against the usurpation of the great. But Octavius, either out of shame, or from a principle of honour, continued immoveable in the party he had embraced.

Gracchus, therefore, had recourse to another expedient; which was to suspend all the magistrates in Rome from the execution of their offices. It was lawful for any tribune to take this step, when the passing of the law which he proposed was prevented by mere chicanery. After this, he assembled the people anew, and made a second attempt to succeed in his design. When all things were got ready for collecting the suffrages, the rich privately conveyed away the urns in which the tablets were kept. This kindled the tribune's indignation, and the rage of the people. The comitium was like to become a field of battle, when two venerable senators, Manlius and Fulvius, very seasonably interposed; and throwing themselves at the tribune's feet, prevailed upon him to submit his law to the judgment of the conscript fathers. This was making the senators judges in their own cause: but Gracchus thought the law so undeniably just, that he could not persuade himself that they would reject it; and if they did, he knew that the incensed multitude would no longer keep any measures with them.

The senate, who wanted nothing but to gain time, affected delays, and came to no resolution. There were indeed some among them, who were for paying some regard to the complaints of the tribune; but the far greater part would not hear of any composition whatsoever. Hereupon Gracchus brought the affair anew before the people, and earnestly intreated his colleague Octavius to drop his opposition, in compassion to the many unfortunate people for whom he interceded. But still Octavius was inflexible. Hereupon Gracchus resolved to deprive Octavius of his tribuneship, since he alone obstinately withstood the desires of the whole body of so great a people. Having therefore assembled the people, he told them, that since his colleague and he were divided in opinion, and the republic suffered by their division, it was the province of the tribes assembled in comitia to re-establish concord among their tribunes. "If the cause I maintain (said he) be, in your opinion, unjust, I am ready to give up my seat in the college. On the contrary, if you judge me worthy of being continued in your service in this station, deprive him of the tribuneship who alone obstructs my wishes. As soon as you shall have nominated one to succeed him, the law will pass without opposition." Having thus spoken, he dismissed the assembly, after having summoned them to meet again the next day.

And now Gracchus, being soured with the opposition he had met with from the rich, and from his obstinate colleague, and being well apprised that the law would pass in any form in which he should think fit to propose it, resolved to revive it as it was at first passed, without abating any thing of its severity. There was no exception in favour of the children in families; or reimbursement promised to those who should part with the lands they possessed above 500 acres. The next day the people being assembled, and Octavius, continuing obstinate, he was deposed, and the law passed as Gracchus had reframed it.

The people appointed triumvirs to hasten its execution. In this commission the people gave Gracchus the first place; and he had interest enough to get his father-in-law Appius Claudius, and his brother Caius Gracchus, appointed his colleagues. These three spent the whole summer in travelling through all the Italian provinces, to examine what lands were held by any person above 500 acres, in order to divide them among the poor citizens. When Gracchus returned from his progress, he found, by the death of his chief agent, that his absence had not abated either the hatred of the rich, or the love of the poor, toward him. As it plainly appeared that the deceased had been poisoned, the tribune took this occasion to apply himself again to his protectors, and implore their assistance against the violence and treachery of his enemies. The populace, more attached after this accident to their hero than ever, declared they would stand by him to the last drop of their blood; and thus their zeal

zeal encouraged him to add a new clause to the law, viz.: that the commissioners should likewise inquire what lands had been usurped from the republic. This was touching the senators in a most tender point; for most of them had appropriated to themselves lands belonging to the republic. After all, the tribune, upon a strict inquiry, found that the lands taken from the rich would not be enough to content all the poor citizens. But the following accident eased him of this difficulty, and enabled him to stop the murmurs of the malcontents among the people.

Attalus Philometer, king of Pergamus, having bequeathed his dominions and effects to the Romans, Eudemus the Pergamean brought his treasures to Rome at this time; and Gracchus immediately got a new law passed, enacting, that this money should be divided among the poor citizens who could not have lands; and that the disposal of the revenues of Pergamus should not be in the senate, but in the comitia. By these steps Gracchus most effectually humbled the senate; who, in order to discredit him among the people, gave out that Eudemus, who had brought the king's will to Rome, had left with Gracchus the royal diadem and mantle of Attalus, which the tribune was to use when he should be proclaimed king of Rome. But these reports only served to put Gracchus more upon his guard, and to inspire the people with an implacable hatred against the rich who were the authors of them.

When the day appointed for the election of new tribunes came, the people were ordered to assemble in the capitol in the great court before the temple of Jupiter. The tribes being met, Gracchus produced a petition, intreating the people to continue him one year longer in the office of tribune, in consideration of the great danger to which he was exposed, the rich having vowed his destruction as soon as his person should be no longer sacred. This was indeed an unusual request, it having been long customary not to continue any tribune in his office above a year. However, the tribes began to vote, and the two first declared for Gracchus. Hereupon the rich made great clamours; which terrified Rubrius Varro, who presided in the college of tribunes that day, to such a degree, that he resigned his place to Q. Mummius, who offered to preside in his room. But this raised a tumult among the tribunes themselves; so that Gracchus wisely dismissed the assembly, and ordered them to meet again the next day.

Next morning by break of day, Gracchus having assembled his friends, led them from his house, and posted one half of them in the comitium, while he went up himself with the other to the capitol. As soon as he appeared, the people saluted him him loud acclamations of joy. But scarcely was he placed in his tribunal, when Fulvius Flaccus, a senator, and friend to Gracchus, breaking through the crowd, came up to him, and gave him notice, that the senators, who were assembled in the temple of Faith, which almost touched that of Jupiter Capitolinus, had conspired against his life, and were resolved to attack him openly on his very tribunal. Hereupon Gracchus tucked up his robe, as it were, to prepare for a battle; and, after his example, some of his party seizing the staves of the apparitors, prepared to defend themselves, and to repel force by force. These preparations terrified the other tribunes; who immediately abandoned their places in a cowardly manner, and mixed with the crowd; while the priests ran to shut the gates of the temple, for fear of its being profaned. On the other hand, the friends of Gracchus, who were dispersed by parties in different places, cried out, *We are ready; What must we do?* Gracchus, whose voice could not be heard by all his adherents on account of the tumult, the clamours, and the confused cries of the different parties, put his hand to his head; which was the signal agreed on to prepare for battle. But some of his enemies, putting a malicious construction upon that gesture, immediately flew to the senate, and told the fathers, that the seditious tribune had called for the crown to be put upon his head. Hereupon the senators, fancying they already saw the king of Pergamus's diadem on the tribune's head, and the royal mantle on his shoulders, resolved to give the consul leave to arm his legions, treat the friends of Gracchus as enemies, and turn the comitium into a field of battle.

But the consul Mutius Scævola, who was a prudent and moderate man, refused to be the instrument of their rash revenge, and to dishonour his consulate with the massacre of a disarmed people. In consequence of this, Scipio Nasica exclaimed, "Since we are betrayed by our consul, let the friends of the republic follow us." Quitting the temple with many of the senators, he was joined by the friends of the patricians, armed with staves. Nasica at length came up with Gracchus, who, in his anxiety to escape, made a false step and fell down; but, in attempting to rise, he received a blow upon his head, and his enemies taking advantage of the accident, rushed in and put an end to his life. About 300 of his friends fell in this ferment, and their bodies, along with that of the tribune, were thrown into the Tiber. The rest of his abettors were either slain or banished, and Caius Billius, one of his most staunch adherents, was enclosed in a cask, along with snakes and vipers, where he was allowed to perish. The senate acquitted Nasica and his assistants, and justified by a decree the cruelties which had on this occasion been exercised.

These disturbances were for a short time interrupted by a revolt of the slaves in Sicily, occasioned by the cruelty of their masters; but they being soon reduced, the contests about the *Sempronian law*, as it was called, again took place. Both parties were determined not to yield; and, therefore, the most fatal effects ensued. The first thing of consequence, was the death of Scipio Africanus the Second, who was privately strangled in his bed by some of the partisans of the plebeian party, about 129 B. C. Caius Gracchus, brother to him who had been formerly killed, not only undertook the revival of the Sempronian law, but proposed a new one, granting the rights of Roman citizens to all the Italian allies, who could receive no share of the lands divided in consequence of the Sempronian law. The consequences of this were much worse than the former; the flame spread through all Italy; and the nations who had made war with the republic in its infancy, again commenced enemies more formidable than before. Fregellæ, a city of the Volsci, revolted; but being suddenly attacked, was obliged to submit, and was razed to the ground; which quieted matters for the present. Gracchus, however, still continued his attempts to humble the senate and the rest of the patrician body: the ultimate consequence of which was, that a price was set on his head, and that of Fulvius, his confederate, no less than their weight in gold, to any one who should bring them to Opimius, the chief of the patrician party. Thus the custom of proscription was begun by the patricians, of which they themselves soon had enough. Gracchus and Fulvius were sacrificed, but the disorders of the republic were not so easily cured. The intestine commotions were unexpectedly checked by a horde of barbarians from the north of Europe.

The Cimbri and Teutones, who inhabited the southern shores of the Baltic, left their own country in search of more genial settlements. Being repulsed by the Boii, a tribe of Gauls who lived near the Hercynian forest, they were thus driven towards the Roman provinces. The consul, Papirius Carbo, advanced against them with a powerful army, but he sustained a signal defeat, and was obliged to seek for shelter in the neighbouring forests. The victorious Cimbri carried their devastations into Transalpine Gaul, and after remaining there five or six years, they defeated another Roman army under the Consul Silanus. The Roman empire was now threatened with total destruction, and a new army was sent out under the Consul Mallius, and the Proconsul S. Cæpio. In consequence of a quarrel between these two generals, they divided their army, and thus exposed it to the most imminent danger. A detachment of Mallius' army was cut off by the Cimbri; and as soon as the disunion between the two generals became known to their enemies, it was resolved that the camp of Cæpio should be attacked by the Cimbri,

Cimbri, and that of Mallius by the Gauls. In both these attacks the assailants were successful, and no fewer than 80,000 of the citizens and allies of Rome, with 40,000 attendants, perished in these unfortunate engagements; and it is said, that only ten men and the two generals themselves were left to carry the sad intelligence to Rome. The Cimbri destroyed all their spoil, threw the gold and silver into the Rhone, drowned the horses of the Romans, and put to death all the prisoners. The consternation which this terrible overthrow occasioned, called forth all the energies of Rome. Every citizen capable of bearing arms was called into the field, fencing-masters were introduced into the Roman camp, and a powerful army was quickly raised, and placed under the command of the celebrated Marius. The first object of the Roman general was to meet the Ambrones and Teutones, who were marching into Italy over the western Alps. Having fallen in with this immense army, he defeated them with great slaughter, and is said to have left dead on the field no fewer than 100,000, whose bones were used to fence the vineyards of the peasantry.

The Cimbri had, by this time, entered Italy. The troops of Catullus and Sylla, intimidated by their terrible aspect, fled before them; and had the barbarians not waited for the arrival of the Teutones, they might have easily taken possession of Rome. By this delay, Marius had time to unite his forces with those of Catullus and Sylla, of which he received the chief command. This little army of 52,300 men did not hesitate to attack the Cimbri, who, when drawn up in a square, are said to have extended over thirty furlongs. The Cimbri had tied themselves together with cords fastened to their belts, to prevent them from flying. The Romans soon threw them into disorder, and, unable to quit one another, they were butchered in such crowds, that 120,000 were left on the field. Having taken 60,000 prisoners, the Romans had to contend with the Cimbrian women, who defended their camp with the utmost ferocity and valour.

No sooner was Rome delivered from this swarm of barbarians, than she began, as usual, to suffer from her own domestic commotions. While the disputes had been confined to the plebeians and patricians, they produced probably, on every occasion, an advance towards freedom and consequent prosperity. But when the senate called in the power of force against the Gracchi, they opened an avenue which soon led to their own downfall, and that of the republic likewise. Since force was appealed to, a third party appeared who, in this species of argumentation, were superior both to the citizens and their rulers, namely, the army. From this source little danger had been incurred, whilst it was composed of citizens, and whilst it was governed by leaders annually elected. But since it had become regular and mercenary, and since the necessities of distant and difficult wars had rendered its commanders in some measure permanent, it had become a most dangerous weapon against the cause of liberty. The first general who joined the plebeian party, was Marius; but he soon fell out with the demagogues of the city, and deserted them. Upon which the senate caused several of them to be massacred. The next disturbance was caused by the consuls, who, to prevent the Italians from usurping the rights of citizens, passed a law, commanding all those pretended citizens to return home. This was so much resented, that an universal defection took place. A scheme was then formed by M. Livius Drusus, a tribune of the people, to reconcile all orders of men; but this only procured his own assassination. His death was the signal for the *social* war. The Marsi, Peligni, Samnites, Campanians, and Lucanians, and in short all the provinces from the river Liris to the Adriatic, revolted at once, and formed themselves into a republic, in opposition to that of Rome. The haughty Romans were now made thoroughly sensible that they were not invincible: they were defeated in almost every engagement; and must soon have yielded, had they not fallen upon a method of dividing their enemies. A law was passed, enacting, that all the nations in Italy, whose alliance with Rome was indisputable, should enjoy the right of Roman citizens. This drew off several nations from the alliance; and at the same time, Sylla taking upon him the command of the Roman armies, fortune soon declared in favour of the latter.

The success of Rome against the allies served only to bring greater miseries upon herself. Marius and Sylla became rivals; the former adhering to the people, and the latter to the patricians. Marius associated with one of the tribunes named Sulpitius; in conjunction with whom he raised such disturbances, that Sylla was forced to retire from the city. Having thus driven off his rival, Marius got himself appointed general against Mithridates, king of Pontus; but the soldiers refused to obey any other than Sylla. A civil war immediately ensued, in which Marius was driven out in his turn, and a price set upon his head and that of Sulpitius, with many of their adherents. Sulpitius was soon seized and killed; but Marius made his escape. In the mean time, however, the cruelties of Sylla rendered him obnoxious both to the senate and people; and Cinna, a furious partisan of the Marian faction, being chosen consul, cited him to give an account of his conduct. Upon this Sylla thought proper to set out for Asia: Marius was recalled from Africa, whither he had fled; and immediately on his landing in Italy, was joined by a great number of shepherds, slaves, and men of desperate fortunes; so that he soon saw himself at the head of a considerable army.

Cinna, in the mean time, whom the senators had deposed and driven out of Rome, solicited and obtained a powerful army from the allies; and being joined by Sertorius, a most able and experienced general, the two, in conjunction with Marius, advanced towards the capital; and as their forces daily increased, a fourth army was formed under the command of Papirius Carbo. The senate raised some forces to defend the city; but the troops being vastly inferior in number, and likewise inclined to the contrary side, they were obliged to open their gates to the confederates. Marius entered at the head of a numerous guard, composed of slaves, whom he called his *Bardiæans*, and whom he designed to employ in revenging himself on his enemies. The first order he gave these assassins was, to murder all who came to salute him, and were not answered with the like civility. As every one was forward to pay his compliments to the new tyrant, this order proved the destruction of vast numbers. At last these Bardiæans abandoned themselves to such excesses in every kind of vice, that Cinna and Sertorius ordered their troops to fall upon them; which being instantly put in execution, they were all cut off to a man.

By the destruction of his guards, Marius was reduced to the necessity of taking a method of gratifying his revenge somewhat more tedious, though equally effectual. A conference was held between the four chiefs, in which Marius seemed quite frantic with rage. Sertorius endeavoured to moderate his fury; but, being overruled by Cinna and Carbo, a resolution was taken to murder without mercy all the senators who had opposed the popular faction. This was immediately put in execution. A general slaughter commenced, which lasted five days, and during which the greatest part of the obnoxious senators were cut off, their heads stuck upon poles over-against the rostra, and their bodies dragged with hooks into the forum, where they were left to be devoured by dogs. Sylla's house was demolished, his goods confiscated, and he himself declared an enemy to his country; however, his wife and children had the good fortune to make their escape. This massacre was not confined to the city of Rome. The soldiers, like as many bloodhounds, were dispersed over the country in search of those who fled. The neighbouring towns, villages, and all the highways, swarmed with assassins.

This slaughter being over, Cinna named himself and Marius consuls for the ensuing year; and these tyrants seemed resolved to begin the new year as they had ended the old one; but, while they were preparing to renew their cruelties, Sylla, having proved victorious in the east, sent a long letter to the senate, giving an account of his many victories, and

and his resolution of returning to Rome, not to restore peace to his country, but to revenge himself of his enemies, i. e. to destroy those whom Marius had spared. This letter occasioned universal terror. Marius, dreading to enter the lists with such a renowned warrior, gave himself up to excessive drinking, and died. His son was associated with Cinna in the government, though not in the consulship, and proved a tyrant no less cruel than his father. The senate declared one Valerius Flaccus general of his forces in the east, and appointed him a considerable army; but the troops all to a man deserted him, and joined Sylla. Soon after, Cinna declared himself consul a third time, and took for his colleague Papirius Carbo; but the citizens, dreading the tyranny of these inhuman monsters, fled in crowds to Sylla, who was now in Greece. To him the senate sent deputies, begging that he would have compassion on his country, and not carry his resentment to such a length as to begin a civil war: but he replied, that he was coming to Rome full of rage and revenge; and that all his enemies, if the Roman people consented to it, should perish either by the sword or the axes of the executioners. Upon this several very numerous armies were formed against him; but, through the misconduct of the generals who commanded them, these armies were everywhere defeated, or went over to the enemy. Pompey, afterwards styled *the Great*, signalized himself in this war, and embraced the party of Sylla. The Italian nations took some one side and some another, as their different inclinations led them. Cinna, in the mean time, was killed in a tumult, and young Marius and Carbo succeeded him; but the former having ventured an engagement with Sylla, was by him defeated, and forced to fly to Præneste, where he was closely besieged.

Thus was Rome reduced to the lowest degree of misery, when one Pontius Telesinus, a Samnite of great experience in war, projected the total ruin of the city. He had joined, or pretended to join, the generals of the Marian faction, with an army of 40,000 men; and therefore marched towards Præneste, as if he designed to relieve Marius. By this means he drew Sylla and Pompey away from the capital; and then, decamping in the night, overreached these two generals, and by break of day was within ten furlongs of the Collatine gate. He then pulled off the mask; and declaring himself as much an enemy to Marius as to Sylla, told his troops, that it was not his design to assist one Roman against another, but to destroy the whole race. "Let fire and sword (said he) destroy all; let no quarter be given; mankind can never be free as long as one Roman is left alive."—Never had this proud metropolis been in greater danger; nor ever had any city a more narrow escape. The Roman youth marched out to oppose him, but were driven back with great slaughter. Sylla himself was defeated, and forced to fly to his camp. Telesinus advanced with more fury than ever; but, in the mean time, the other wing of his army having been defeated by M. Crassus, the victorious general attacked the body where Telesinus commanded, and by putting them to flight, saved his country from the most imminent danger.

Sylla, having now no enemy to fear, marched first to Atemnæ, and thence to Rome. From the former city he carried 8000 prisoners to Rome, and caused them all to be massacred at once in the circus. His cruelty next fell upon the Prænestines, 12,000 of whom were massacred without mercy. Young Marius had killed himself, in order to avoid falling into the hands of such a cruel enemy. Soon after, the inhabitants of Norba, a city of Campania, finding themselves unable to resist the forces of the tyrant, set fire to their houses, and all perished in the flames. The taking of these cities put an end to the civil war, but not to the cruelties of Sylla. Having assembled the people in the comitium, he told them, that he was resolved not to spare a single person who had borne arms against him. This cruel resolution he put in execution with the most unrelenting rigour; and having at last cut off all those whom he thought capable of opposing him, Sylla caused himself to be declared perpetual dictator, or, in other words, absolute sovereign of Rome.

This revolution happened about 80 B. C., and from this time we may date the loss of Roman liberty. Sylla indeed resigned his power in two years; but new masters were already prepared for the republic. Cæsar and Pompey had eminently distinguished themselves by their martial exploits, and were already rivals. They were, however, for some time prevented from raising any disturbances by being kept at a distance from each other. Sertorius, one of the generals of the Marian faction, and the only one of them possessed either of honour or probity, had retired into Spain, where he erected a republic independent of Rome. Pompey and Metellus, two of the best reputed generals in Rome, were sent against him; but, instead of conquering, they were on all occasions conquered by him, and obliged to abandon their enterprize with disgrace. At last Sertorius was treacherously murdered; and the traitors, who after his death usurped the command, being totally destitute of his abilities, were easily defeated by Pompey; and thus that general reaped an undeserved honour from concluding the war with success.

The tranquillity of the republic was disturbed by Spartacus, a Thracian shepherd, who was one of the gladiators kept at Capua, in the house of Lentulus. Escaping from his confinement with thirty of his companions, he took up arms against the Romans. At the head of 10,000 men he laid waste the country, hiding himself at first in the solitary regions of Campania; but when his army had increased in numbers, and improved in discipline, he engaged the Romans in open battle, and defeated with great loss two consuls that were sent against him. Crassus was next placed at the head of a powerful army, and though he at first despaired of success, yet he at last succeeded in defeating Spartacus in a bloody engagement, and putting 12,000 of the slaves to the sword. Spartacus displayed great personal valour in this encounter. When wounded in the leg, he fought on his knees, wielding his sword in the one hand, and shielding himself with his buckler in the other; and when he was overpowered by an irresistible force, he breathed his last above a heap of Romans, who had fallen beneath his sword. A part of the army of Spartacus, however, rallied after their defeat, and, being routed by Pompey, this ambitious leader claimed too great a portion of the glory which was due to Crassus.

But while Pompey was thus aggrandising himself, the republic was on the point of being subverted by a conspiracy formed by Lucius Sergius Catiline. He was descended from an illustrious family; but having quite ruined his estate, and rendered himself infamous by a series of the most detestable crimes, he associated with a number of others in circumstances similar to his own, in order to repair their broken fortunes by ruining their country. Their scheme was to murder the consuls, together with the greatest part of the senators, set fire to the city in different places, and then seize the government. This design miscarried twice; but was not on that account dropped by the conspirators. Their party increased every day; and both Cæsar and Crassus, who since the departure of Pompey, had studied to gain the affections of the people as far as possible, were thought to have been privy to the conspiracy. At last, however, the matter was discovered by means of a young knight, who had indiscreetly revealed the secret to his mistress. Cataline then openly took the field, and soon raised a considerable army; but was utterly defeated and killed about 62 B. C.; and thus the republic was freed from the present danger.

In the mean time, Cæsar continued to advance in popularity and in power. Soon after the defeat of Cataline, he was created pontifex maximus; and after that was sent into Spain, where he subdued several nations that had never before been subject to Rome. On his return from Spain, he found the sovereignty divided between Crassus and Pompey, each of whom was ineffectually struggling to get the better of the other. Cæsar, no less ambitious than the other two, proposed that they should put an end to their differences, and take him for a partner in their power. In short, he projected a triumvirate, or association of three persons, (Pompey, Crassus, and himself), in which should be lodged the whole power of the senate and people; and in order to make their confederacy more lasting, they bound themselves by

by mutual oaths and promises to stand by each other, and suffer nothing to be undertaken or carried into execution without the unanimous consent of all the three.

The association of the triumvirs was for a long time kept secret; and nothing appeared to the people except the reconciliation of Pompey and Crassus, for which the state reckoned itself indebted to Cæsar. The first consequence of the triumvirate was the consulship of Julius Cæsar. But though this was obtained by the favour of Pompey and Crassus, he found himself disappointed in the colleague he wanted to associate with him in that office. He had pitched upon one whom he knew he could manage as he pleased, and distributed large sums among the people, in order to engage them to vote for him. The senate, however, and even Cato himself, resolved to defeat the triumvir at his own weapons; and having therefore set up another candidate, distributed such immense sums on the opposite side, that Cæsar, notwithstanding the vast riches he had acquired, was forced to yield. This defeat proved of small consequence. Cæsar set himself to engage the affections of the people; and this he did, by an agrarian law, so effectually, that he was in a manner idolized. The law was in itself very reasonable and just; nevertheless, the senate, perceiving the design with which it was proposed, thought themselves bound to oppose it. Their opposition, however, proved fruitless; the consul Bibulus, who shewed himself most active in his endeavours against it, was driven out of the assembly with the greatest indignity, and from that day became of no consideration; so that Cæsar was reckoned the sole consul.

The next step taken by Cæsar was to secure the knights, as he had already done the people; and for this purpose he abated a third of the rents which they annually paid into the treasury; after which he governed Rome with an absolute sway during the time of his consulate. The reign of this triumvir, however, was ended by his expedition into Gaul, where his military exploits acquired him the highest reputation.—Pompey and Crassus, in the mean time, became consuls, and governed as despotically as Cæsar himself had done. On the expiration of their first consulate, the republic fell into a kind of anarchy, entirely owing to the disorders occasioned by the two late consuls. At last, however, this confusion was ended by raising Crassus and Pompey to the consulate a second time. This was no sooner done, than a new partition of the empire was proposed. Crassus was to have Syria and all the eastern provinces, Pompey was to govern Africa and Spain, and Cæsar to be continued in Gaul, and all this for the space of five years. This law was passed by a great majority; upon which Crassus undertook an expedition against the Parthians, whom he imagined he should easily overcome, and then enrich himself with their spoils; Cæsar applied with great assiduity to the completing of the conquest of Gaul; and Pompey having nothing to do in his province, staid at Rome to govern the republic alone.

The affairs of the Romans were now hastening to a crisis. Crassus, having oppressed all the provinces of the east, was totally defeated and killed by the Parthians; after which the two great rivals, Cæsar and Pompey, were left alone, without any third person who could hold the balance between them, or prevent the deadly quarrels which were about to ensue. Matters, however, continued pretty quiet till Gaul was reduced to a Roman province. The question then was, whether Cæsar or Pompey should first resign the command of their armies, and return to the rank of private persons. As both parties saw that whoever first laid down his arms must of course submit to the other, both refused to disarm themselves. As Cæsar, however, had amassed immense riches in Gaul, he was now in a condition not only to maintain an army capable of vying with Pompey, but even to buy over the leading men in Rome to his interest. One of the consuls, named Æmilius Paulus, cost him no less than 1500 talents, or 310,625*l.* sterling; but the other, named Marcellus, could not be gained at any price. Pompey had put at the head of the tribunes, one Scribonius Curio, a young patrician of great abilities, but so exceedingly debauched and extravagant, that he owed upwards of four millions and a half of our money. Cæsar, by enabling him to satisfy his creditors, and supplying him with money to pursue his debaucheries, secured him in his interest; and Curio, without seeming to be in Cæsar's interest, found means to do him the most essential service. He proposed that both generals should be recalled; being well assured that Pompey would never consent to part with his army, or lay down the government of Spain with which he had been invested, so that Cæsar might draw from Pompey's refusal a pretence for continuing himself in his province at the head of his troops. This proposal threw the opposite party into great embarrassments; and while both professed their pacific intentions, both continued in readiness for the most obstinate and bloody war.—Cicero took upon himself the office of mediator; but Pompey would hearken to no terms of accommodation. The orator, surprised to find him so obstinate, at the same time that he neglected to strengthen his army, asked him with what forces he designed to make head against Cæsar? To which the other answered, that he needed but stamp with his foot, and an army would start up out of the ground. This confidence he assumed, because he persuaded himself that Cæsar's men would abandon him if matters came to extremities. Cæsar, however, though he affected great moderation, yet kept himself in readiness for the worst; and, therefore, when the senate passed the fatal decree for a civil war, he was not in the least alarmed. This decree was issued in the year 49 B. C. and was expressed in the following words: "Let the consuls for the year, the proconsul Pompey, the prætors, and all those in or near Rome who have been consuls, provide for the public safety by the most proper means." This decree was no sooner passed, than the consul Marcellus went, with his colleague Lentulus, to a house at a small distance from the town, where Pompey then was; and presenting him with a sword, "We require you (said he) to take upon you with this, the defence of the republic, and the command of her troops." Pompey obeyed; and Cæsar was by the same decree divested of his office, and one Lucius Domitius appointed to succeed him, the new governor being empowered to raise 4000 men in order to take possession of his province. Three of the tribunes who had been Cæsar's friends were driven out of Rome. They arrived in his camp disguised like slaves: he showed them to his army in this ignominious habit; and, setting forth the iniquity of the senate and patricians, exhorted his men to stand by their general under whom they had served so long with success; and finding by their acclamations that he could depend on them, he resolved to begin hostilities immediately.

The first design of Cæsar was to make himself master of Ariminum, a city bordering upon Cisalpine Gaul, and consequently a part of his province; but as this would be looked upon as a declaration of war, he resolved to keep his design as private as possible. At that time he himself was at Ravenna, from whence he sent a detachment towards the Rubicon, desiring the officer who commanded it to wait for him on the banks of that river. The next day he assisted at a show of gladiators, and made a great entertainment. Towards the close of the day he rose from table, desiring his guests to stay till he came back, which he said would be very soon; but, instead of returning to the company, he immediately set out for the Rubicon, having left orders to some of his most intimate friends to follow him through different roads, to avoid being observed. Having arrived at the Rubicon, which parted Cisalpine Gaul from Italy, the succeeding misfortunes of the empire occurred to his mind, and made him hesitate. Turning then to Asinius Pollio, "If I do not cross the river (said he), I am undone; and if I do cross it, how many calamities shall I by this means bring upon Rome!" Having thus spoken, he mused a few minutes; and then crying out, "The die is cast," he threw himself into the river, and crossing it, marched with all possible speed to Ariminum, which he reached and surprised before daybreak. From thence, as he had but one legion with him, he dispatched orders to the formidable army he had left in Gaul to cross the mountains and join him.

The activity of Cæsar struck the opposite party with the greatest

greatest terror; and indeed not without reason, for they had been extremely negligent in making preparations against such a formidable opponent. Pompey himself, no less alarmed than the rest, left Rome with a design to retire to Capua, where he had two legions whom he had formerly draughted out of Cæsar's army. He communicated his intended flight to the senate; but at the same time acquainted them, that if any magistrate or senator refused to follow him, he should be treated as a friend to Cæsar and an enemy to his country. In the mean time Cæsar, having raised new troops in Cisalpine Gaul, sent Marc Antony with a detachment to seize Aretium, and some other officers to secure Pisaurum and Fanum, while he himself marched at the head of the thirteenth legion to Auximum, which opened its gates to him. From Auximum, he advanced into Picenum, where he was joined by the twelfth legion from Transalpine Gaul. As Picenum readily submitted to him, he led his forces against Corfinium, the capital of the Peligni, which Domitius Ahenobarbus defended with thirty cohorts. But Cæsar no sooner invested it, than the garrison betrayed their commander, and delivered him up with many senators, who had taken refuge in the place, to Cæsar, who granted them their lives and liberty.

Pompey, thinking himself no longer safe at Capua after the reduction of Corfinium, retired to Brundusium, with a design to carry the war into the east, where all the governors were his creatures. Cæsar followed him close; and arriving with his army before Brundusium, invested the place on the land-side, and undertook to shut up the port by a stoccade of his own invention. But, before the work was completed, the fleet which had conveyed the two consuls with thirty cohorts to Dyrrhachium being returned, Pompey contrived to make his escape, with all his troops.

Cæsar seeing himself, by the flight of his rival, master of all Italy from the Alps to the sea, advanced towards Rome; and on his march wrote to all the senator then in Italy, desiring them to repair to the Capitol, and assist him with their counsel. Above all, he was desirous to see Cicero; but could not prevail upon him to return to Rome. As Cæsar drew near the capital, he quartered his troops in the neighbouring municipia; and then advancing to the city, out of a pretended respect to the ancient customs, he took up his quarters in the suburbs, whither the whole city crowded to see the famous conqueror of Gaul, who had been absent near ten years. And now such of the tribunes of the people as had fled to him for refuge reassumed their functions, mounted the rostra, and endeavoured by their speeches to reconcile the people to the head of their party. Marc Antony particularly, and Cassius Longinus, two of Cæsar's most zealous partisans, moved that the senate should meet in the suburbs, that the general might give them an account of his conduct. Accordingly, such of the senators as were at Rome assembled; when Cæsar made a speech in justification of all his proceedings, and concluded his harangue with proposing a deputation to Pompey, with offers of an accommodation in an amicable manner. He even desired the conscript fathers, to whom in appearance he paid great deference, to nominate some of their venerable body to carry proposals of peace to the consuls, and the general of the consular army; but none of the senators would take upon him that commission. He then began to think of providing himself with the necessary sums for carrying on the war, and had recourse to the public treasury. But Metellus, one of the tribunes, opposed him; alleging a law forbidding any one to open the treasury, but in the presence and with the consent of the consuls. Cæsar, however, threatened to kill him if he gave him any farther disturbance; which so terrified Metellus, that he withdrew. Cæsar took out of the treasury, an immense sum; some say, 300,000 pounds weight of gold. With this supply of money he raised troops all over Italy, and sent governors into all the provinces subject to the republic.

To Marc Antony he gave the command of the armies in Italy; to his brother, C. Antonius, the government of Illyricum; and to Licinius Crassus, that of Cisalpine Gaul. He gave the charge of the capital to Æmilius Lepidus, and he set over his fleets P. Cornelius Dolabella, and the younger Hortensius. As Pompey had placed governors over the same provinces, the flames of a civil war raged in almost every part of the world.

After settling his affairs at Rome, Cæsar hastened to Spain; but when he arrived in Transalpine Gaul, he found that Lucius Domitius Ahenobarbus had arrived at Marseilles with a squadron of seven galleys, and had taken possession of the city in the name of Pompey. He therefore built twelve galleys at Arles, and invested Marseilles with those legions which he left under the care of C. Trebonius. He likewise sent forward Q. Fabius with three legions, to take possession of the Pyrenees, and immediately followed him with the rest of his army. Having learned on his arrival that Africanus and Petreius had posted on a hill, near Lerida, their combined forces, consisting of 5 legions, 20 native cohorts, and 5000 horse, Cæsar encamped on a plain between the Segro and Cinca, and attempted to seize a small eminence between the enemy's camp and Lerida, from which they derived their provisions. After a severe conflict, which continued five hours, Africanus maintained his position. The failure of Cæsar in the first action, was followed by calamities of the most distressing kind. From the continued rains, the two rivers, between which Cæsar had encamped, swelled to such a degree that they broke down all his bridges, and inundated the neighbouring country. By this accident he could no longer receive supplies from the cities that had declared for him; though he attempted to rebuild his bridges, yet the force of the current would not permit it, and his army was on the eve of perishing with want.

The adherents of Pompey in Rome began to show their opinions when the intelligence of Cæsar's distresses reached the Capitol. Even Cicero, whom Cæsar himself had requested to remain neutral, set off for Dyrrachium, where Pompey received him in the most friendly manner.

The distress of Cæsar, however, was only temporary. The resources of his great mind increased with his calamities, and when he found it in vain to erect his bridges, he built a number of boats with singular expedition; and while Africanus was attempting to intercept the succours sent him from Gaul, he conveyed his boats during the night on carriages to a distance of twenty-two miles, when a large detachment passed the Segro, and pitching their camp on the opposite bank, erected a bridge in two days, and, saving the supplies from Gaul, relieved the necessities of the army. Thus preserved from the horrors of famine, Cæsar pursued the armies of Africanus and Petreius, and without coming to a general engagement, he forced them to lay down their arms, and thus possessed himself of all southern Spain. Varro, who commanded in farther Spain, followed the example of Africanus, and left Cæsar in the quiet possession of the whole kingdom.

Leaving Cassius with the legions as governor of Spain, Cæsar returned to Rome by way of Marseilles, which he found on the eve of surrendering to Trebonius. Upon his arrival at Rome, M. Æmilius Lepidus, one of the prætors, in opposition to the wishes of the senate, nominated Cæsar dictator, an office which he immediately accepted. During the eleven days which he held that office, he acquired by his moderation the affection of all classes. He recalled those who were banished, and conferred the rights of Roman citizens on all the Gauls beyond the Po. As dictator he presided at the election of the consuls, and resigning that office, he and Servilius Isauricus, one of his best friends, were elected consuls for the next year.

Determined to carry his arms into the east, he sent twelve legions to Brundusium. In the beginning of the year he arrived with five legions and 600 horse, in Chaonia in Epirus, and sent back two ships to bring over the rest of his army. Pompey was equally active in marshalling his forces; and had received reinforcements of extraordinary magnitude

magnitude both from Europe and from Asia. He had obtained one legion from Sicily, one from Crete, and two from Syria. The princes in alliance with Rome raised three thousand archers, six cohorts of slingers, and seven thousand horse. The free Asiatic cities joined him with their best troops; and he is said to have received succours from Arabia and Ethiopia, and even from the Indus and the Ganges. His own army comprehended almost all the Roman knights, and the flower of the young nobility; and his soldiers were principally veterans, accustomed to all the dangers and privations of war. His fleet consisted of about 500 ships, and his army was accompanied by the two consuls of the last year, and about 200 Roman senators. The cause of Pompey was therefore every where considered as the cause of the Roman commonwealth. Those who had hitherto remained neutral flocked to his standard; and all who were distinguished by their patriotism and their virtues had taken refuge in his camp. When Cæsar had landed in Epirus, he took Oricum and Cephalonia; and he was on the eve of marching to Dyrrachium, which contained Pompey's magazines, when he heard that thirty of the ships which he had sent back to Brundusium had been taken by Bibulus, one of Pompey's admirals, and that his troops at Brundusium were likely to fall into the hands of the enemy, who possessed all the harbours between Salonium and Oricum. Under these circumstances, Cæsar offered to make peace with Pompey, on the conditions that the armies of both should be disbanded in three days; that their former friendship should be solemnly renewed, and that they should return together into Italy. These terms were twice sent to Pompey, who refused to enter into any accommodation. Cæsar therefore advanced towards Dyrrhachium; but Pompey having entrenched himself in its immediate neighbourhood, he was disappointed in his expectations of taking it by surprise. The two hostile armies were unwilling to engage; and Cæsar, who was sensible of his great inferiority in numbers, sent the most urgent dispatches to Marc Antony to hasten to his assistance. Having received no reply to these demands, he disguised himself in the habit of a slave, and resolved, in the frail bark of a fisherman, to cross over to Brundusium, through the enemy's fleet; but the boat being driven back by contrary winds, he dispatched Posthumius with the most urgent orders to Marc Antony to bring over the troops at every hazard. These succours at last arrived under Marc Antony and Calenus, who landed them safely at Nyphœum. Pompey attempted in vain to prevent their junction with the main army, and no sooner had Cæsar collected his forces than he offered Pompey battle, and drew up his army in his sight. Pompey, however, declined the engagement, and encamping on a hill called Petra, which commanded the sea, he expected to be supplied with provisions from Greece and Asia, while his rival would be reduced to the necessity of procuring them from Epirus by a dangerous and expensive route.

Cæsar, who saw his design, conceived the bold plan of besieging Pompey in his camp. He drew round it a line of circumvallation, and hemmed in Pompey so completely, that his horses died for want of forage, though his troops were liberally provided for by sea. Cæsar's army suffered great distress for want of corn, but those of his men who had been in Sardinia made bread from an herb called *clœra*, which they steeped in milk. The diseases which broke out in Pompey's camp, and the want of forage, forced him to break through the line of the enemy. Embarking his archers, slingers, and light infantry, he marched at the head of sixty cohorts to attack the part of Cæsar's lines next the sea that were incomplete. The seventh legion who defended them gave way; and notwithstanding the succours that were sent by Marcellinus, Pompey was successful till a powerful body of troops under Marc Antony compelled him to retire. Cæsar now attempted to seize a post occupied by a legion of Pompey's troops. He accordingly attacked it with thirty-three cohorts, and in spite of the most powerful resistance, penetrated to the second entrenchment. Cæsar's right wing, however, mistook the entrance into the camp, and having separated from the left wing, were thrown into great disorder, which Pompey no sooner perceived, that he attacked them with his cavalry and completed the defeat. Cæsar attempted in vain to rally his routed soldiers, who left thirty-two Roman eagles in the hands of the enemy.

Mortified, but not disheartened by this severe defeat, Cæsar addressed his army with the most soothing eloquence, and retired to Apollonia. He thence marched to Macedon, with the view either of drawing Pompey into a general engagement, or of cutting off Scipio Metellus, Pompey's father-in-law. The news of his late defeat threw immense obstructions in his way; but having marched into Thessaly, the principal towns opened their gates to him.

The dilatory conduct of Pompey, though no doubt founded on thorough knowledge of the talents and situation of Cæsar, began to give umbrage to his own officers; and under the influence of these feelings, which had extended themselves even to the common soldiers, he resolved upon risking a general battle. With that view, he occupied the wide plain of Pharsalia between Pharsalus and Philippi, where he was joined by his father-in-law Metellus.

Pompey pitched his camp on the declivity of a mountain which was entirely inaccessible. Unwilling to attack his enemy in such a position, Cæsar resolved to decamp next day, and had just struck his tents when he learned that Pompey had quitted his entrenchments and advanced into the plain. He immediately halted his army, and drew them up in order of battle. The army of Cæsar did not exceed 22,000 foot and 5000 horse, while that of Pompey was above 45,000 foot and 7000 horse. In order to make up for this inequality in his cavalry, Cæsar had selected the strongest and the most active of his foot soldiers, and taught them to fight between the ranks of his cavalry. Pompey placed his veteran troops in the centre and two flanks of his army, and he distributed his new levies over the main body of the army. Scipio commanded the Syrian legions in the centre, Domitius Ahenobarbus led the Spaniards on the right wing, which was covered by the river Cnipus, while Pompey placed himself at the head of two legions on the left, where he had assembled all his horse, slingers, and archers, with the view of making the most vigorous attack from that quarter.

Cæsar's army was divided into three bodies. Domitius Calvinus commanded the centre, Marc Antony the left, and Cæsar the right wing, which was to be opposed to Pompey, and which consisted of his favourite tenth legion. The appearance of Pompey's cavalry in one spot, indicated to Cæsar the intentions of his rival. He therefore drew six cohorts from his rear, and concealing them behind his right, he instructed them to reserve their javelins till the approach of Pompey's cavalry. He then placed his own handful of cavalry on the right of the tenth legion, and commanded his third line to await his signal.

After encouraging their respective troops, Cæsar gave the signal for battle, and his army advanced, while that of Pompey had been instructed to receive the first shock without quitting their places. When Cæsar's line, advancing boldly to the combat, saw the enemy motionless, they suddenly halted, and during the pause which ensued, the hostile lines gazed at each other with inward horror, but with undisturbed serenity. After having breathed for a while, Cæsar's troops advanced with fury, discharging their javelins, and fighting with their swords. Pompey sustained the attack by similar weapons; but no sooner had he ordered his cavalry to charge, along with the archers and slingers, than Cæsar's men began to give way. The reserve of six cohorts, which Cæsar had prepared to resist this attack, now advanced, and it is absurdly stated that by striking at the faces of their pursuers, (the young Roman nobility, who valued themselves on their beauty,) the latter were so intimidated by the unsightly wounds which were inflicted on their companions, that they considered only how to defend their persons; and being put to the rout, fled in a most disorderly manner

to

to the mountains, leaving the archers and slingers to be cut to pieces by the enemy. The successful cohorts now advanced against the flank and rear of Pompey's left, which made a brave resistance, till Cæsar's third line attacked them in front, and forced them to fly to their camp. The auxiliaries had fled, while Pompey's right wing was fighting with great bravery; but Cæsar, seeing that the issue of the conflict was no longer doubtful, cried out to his men to pursue the strangers, but to spare the Romans. The auxiliary troops were slaughtered in great numbers; but the Romans laid down their arms, and received quarter. Notwithstanding this great overthrow of his enemy, Cæsar considered his victory as incomplete until he was in possession of Pompey's camp. He therefore marched on foot at the head of his army, and incited them to complete the victory which they had already achieved. The cohorts and the Thracian troops who defended the camp made a bold resistance; but they were driven from the trenches, and forced to take refuge in flight. As a strong body of the fugitives had retired to the mountains, Cæsar thought it necessary to pursue them; and, after various operations, he at last compelled them to surrender. When Cæsar saw the field covered with the bodies of his countrymen, he exclaimed to one who stood near, "They would have it so." He treated the vanquished with great humanity; and the honours which he acquired as a victor were soon rendered more glorious by the attributes of clemency and moderation by which he was ennobled. Cæsar lost about 2000 men, and Pompey 15,000. No fewer than 24,000 laid down their arms, and entered into Cæsar's army.

After this unfortunate event Pompey fled, and Cæsar followed him into Alexandria with about 4000 men; but he had no sooner landed, than he heard of Pompey's assassination by the king of Egypt, and was soon presented by one of the murderers with the head and ring of his great rival.

Disliking their alliance with the Romans, the Egyptians conceived the design of breaking off their allegiance. Photinus, the eunuch, not only behaved with disrespect to Cæsar, but he even attempted to murder him. Conscious of the inadequacy of his military force, Cæsar checked the resentment which these circumstances had raised; but he sent privately for the Roman legions which were nearest to Egypt. When these reinforcements arrived, Cæsar avowed his intention, as Roman consul, to settle the succession to the crown of Egypt, which was then contested between Ptolemy and his sister Cleopatra. Although the Roman senate had taken the part of Ptolemy, and had therefore concurred in the banishment of Cleopatra and her sister Arsinoe into Syria, yet Cæsar treated the question as undecided, and commanded Cleopatra and Ptolemy to appear before him to plead their cause. Enraged at this proposal, Photinus, the guardian of Ptolemy, sent an army of 20,000 men to besiege Cæsar in Alexandria. The Egyptians were soon repulsed; but Cæsar finding Alexandria too extensive to be defended by this small army, resolved to make a stand in the palace which commanded the harbour. Achillas, the Egyptian commander, attacked him in this position, and attempted to seize his fleet; but Cæsar set fire to the ships, and having afterwards taken the Isle of Pharos, &c. the key to the harbour, he was abundantly supplied with every thing, and resolved to oppose every attempt on the part of the enemy.

Although Cleopatra had raised an army in Syria, yet she trusted principally to the influence of her personal charms in engaging Cæsar in her cause. As all the avenues to the palace were occupied by the enemy, she got on board a small vessel and landed near the palace; she was wrapped up in a coverlet, and carried by one Aspolodorus into Cæsar's chamber, where she succeeded in interesting him in her cause. Arsinoe, who likewise aspired to the sovereignty, had, through the influence of one Ganymede, her confidant, created a strong interest in the Egyptians. She caused Achillas to be murdered, and giving the command to her favourite, she carried on the siege of Alexandria with renewed vigour. Ganymede gained several advantages over the besieged, and seizing a bridge which joined the Isle of Pharos to the main land, an action ensued, in which the Romans were panic-struck and thrown into confusion. Cæsar retired into a ship, into which he was followed by such crowds, that fearing it would sink, he threw himself into the sea and swam to the fleet before the palace.

As Cæsar had seized upon the young king, the Egyptians employed every kind of artifice to get him into their possession; and pretending a great anxiety for peace, they requested their king to ratify it by his signature. Cæsar saw through their schemes, but surrendered the king, who exerted himself in carrying on the war with new vigour.

Mithridates, king of Pontus, one of Cæsar's faithful allies, had collected a numerous army in Syria for the purpose of relieving him. He accordingly took Pelusium, and after defeating the Egyptians, joined his forces to those of Cæsar, and then attacking their camp, he put great numbers to the sword. Ptolemy, who had escaped on board a vessel, was drowned by the sinking of the ship; and Cæsar having thus obtained the mastery over his enemies, appointed Cleopatra and her younger brother joint sovereigns of Egypt, and banished Arsinoe and Ganymede from the country.

Seduced by the charms of the Egyptian queen, Cæsar abandoned himself for a while to the dissipations of peace; but when he proposed to accompany Cleopatra to Ethiopia, his brave troops remonstrated against his conduct, and being thus roused to a sense of duty, he tore himself from her arms, and marched against Pharnaces, king of Pontus, who had gained some advantages over Cneius Domitius Calvinus, governor of Asia.

Cæsar attacked him unexpectedly in his camp, and defeated him with great loss. He divided the spoils of the camp among the soldiers, and made Mithridates Pergameus, the king of Bosphorus, sovereign of Pontus. He now returned to Italy, and found Rome agitated by commotions which Marc Anthony had given rise to by the riotous and unprincipled life which he led. Cæsar, however, treated all parties with moderation and humanity; and when he had given tranquillity to the capital, and established his own authority, he set out on an expedition to Africa, where Scipio and Cato, aided by Juba, king of Mauritania, still supported the cause of Pompey. Having invested the city of Thapsus, and thus drawn to its relief Scipio and Juba, he brought on a general engagement, in which his enemies were totally overthrown. Juba and his general Petreius slew each other, and Scipio was killed in an attempt to escape into Spain. Cato retired to Utica, but finding his adherents unwilling to stand a siege, he stabbed himself with his sword.

The war in Africa being thus ended, Cæsar returned in triumph to Rome. The splendour of this triumphal procession exceeded every thing that had formerly been seen. The procession continued four days, one for Gaul, one for Egypt, a third for Asia, and a fourth for Africa. Every soldier received about £150, and every citizen ten bushels of corn, ten pounds of oil, and a sum equivalent to £2. The populace were entertained at 20,000 tables, and Rome was crowded with visiters from every part of Italy to witness the celebration of Cæsar's glory.

The popularity of Cæsar rose to the most unexampled pitch. He received the title of *imperator*, and father of his people; his person was declared sacred, and every species of incense was offered to this great warrior. Flattering as these marks of favour were to a mind like Cæsar's, there never was a sovereign who used his power with more wisdom and moderation. The first act of his authority was to repress vice, and promote private and public virtue. He restrained the luxuries of the rich by sumptuary laws, and he vested the power of judicature in the senate and the knights. From the midst of these wise regulations he was suddenly called into Spain, to oppose an army under the two sons of Pompey and Labienus. The insurgent leaders endeavoured to protract the war; but Cæsar at last forced them to a battle on the plains of Munda, where, after a desperate and bloody encounter,

encounter, Pompey was defeated with the loss of 30,000 men. Having thus acquired, by the force of his arms, the whole Roman empire, Cæsar returned to Rome the master of the world. He pardoned all who had carried arms against him; he allowed the people to nominate the consuls; he enlarged the number of the senators; and, with his usual liberality, he again set up the statues of Pompey. Besides these acts of moderation and political wisdom, he ornamented Rome with the most magnificent buildings; he rebuilt Carthage and Corinth; and he conceived many noble projects both of a pacific and a military character, which he was not destined to realise.

The senate, with an adulation which marked the degeneracy of the times, continued to load Cæsar with fresh honours, and he continued with equal vanity to receive them. They called one of the months of the year after his name; they stamped money with his image; they ordered his statue to be set up in all the cities of the empire; they instituted public sacrifices on his birth-day; and talked, even in his life-time, of enrolling him in the number of their gods. Antony, at one of their public festivals, foolishly ventured to offer him a diadem; but he put it back again, refusing it several times, and receiving at every refusal loud acclamations from the people. One day, when the senate ordered him some particular honours, he neglected to rise from his seat; and from that moment is said to have been marked for destruction. It began to be rumoured that he intended to make himself king; for though in fact he already was so, the people, who had an utter aversion to the name, could not bear his assuming the title. Whether he really designed to assume that empty honour must now for ever remain a secret; but certain it is, that the unsuspecting openness of his conduct marked something like a confidence in the innocence of his intentions. When informed by those about him of the jealousies of many persons who envied his power, he was heard to say, that he had rather die once by treason, than to live continually in the apprehension of it: and to convince the world how little he had to apprehend from his enemies, he disbanded his company of Spanish guards, which facilitated the enterprise against his life.

But though these usurpations of Cæsar had been successful beyond his most sanguine hopes, and though the baseness and servility of the senate and people exceeded any thing that could be ascribed either to fear or blindness—the spirit of republicanism was not quite dead in Rome. The memorable names of Brutus, Cassius, and many others, were associated with an act of assassination which has since served as a precedent for the execution of many traitorous sovereigns, and which, horrid as such an act is in itself, stands out in the fairest colours from the mass of malignant butcherings which deform the annals of most despotic governments. The motives of many of Cæsar's assassins were, doubtless, envy and jealousy; but there was in all an alloy of patriotism, and in Brutus, especially, if history can be trusted, we have a memorable example of a man who sacrificed his private interest and affections, and stifled the movements of his kind and benevolent nature for the sake of the general good—for the upholding of liberty.

The conspirators fixed the execution of their design for the ides of March, the day on which it was reported that Cæsar was to be offered the crown. The augurs had foretold that this day would be fatal to him; and the night preceding, he heard his wife Calphurnia lamenting in her sleep, and being awakened, she confessed to him that she dreamt of his being assassinated in her arms. These omens, in some measure, began to change his intentions of going to the senate, as he had resolved, that day; but one of the conspirators coming in, prevailed upon him to keep his resolution, telling him of the reproach which would attend his staying at home till his wife had lucky dreams, and of the preparations that were made for his appearance. As he went along to the senate, a slave, who hastened to him with information of the conspiracy, attempted to come near him, but could not for the crowd. Artemidorus, a Greek philosopher, who had discovered the whole plot, delivered to him a memorial, containing the heads of his information; but Cæsar gave it, with other papers, to one of his secretaries without reading it, as was usual in things of this nature. As soon as he had taken his place in the senate, the conspirators came near him, under a pretence of saluting him; and Cimber, who was one of them, approached in a suppliant posture, pretending to sue for his brother's pardon, who was banished by his order. All the conspirators seconded him with great earnestness; and Cimber, seeming to sue with still greater submission, took hold of the bottom of his robe, holding him so as to prevent his rising. This was the signal agreed on. Casca, who was behind, stabbed him, though slightly, in the shoulder. Cæsar instantly turned round, and with the style of his tablet wounded him in the arm. However, all the conspirators were now alarmed; and inclosing him round, he received a second stab from an unknown hand in the breast, while Cassius wounded him in the face. He still defended himself with great vigour, rushing among them, and throwing down such as opposed him, till he saw Brutus among the conspirators, who, coming up, struck his dagger in his thigh. From that moment, Cæsar thought no more of defending himself, but looking upon this conspirator, cried out, "et tu Brute!" Then covering his head, and spreading his robe before him in order to fall with greater decency, he sunk down at the base of Pompey's statue, after receiving three and twenty wounds, in the fifty-sixth year of his age.

As soon as the conspirators had dispatched Cæsar, they began to address themselves to the senate, in order to vindicate the motives of their enterprise, and to excite them to join in procuring their country's freedom; but all the senators who were not accomplices fled with such precipitation, that the lives of some of them were endangered in the throng. The people also being now alarmed, left their usual occupations, and ran tumultuously through the city; some actuated by their fears, and still more by a desire of plunder. In this state of confusion, the conspirators all retired to the capitol, and guarded its accesses by a body of gladiators which Brutus had in pay. It was in vain they alleged they only struck for freedom, and that they killed a tyrant who usurped the rights of mankind: the people, accustomed to luxury and ease, little regarded their professions, dreading more the dangers of poverty than of subjection.

The friends of the late dictator now began to find that this was the time for coming into greater power than before, and for satisfying their ambition under the veil of promoting justice. Of this number was Antony, whom we have already seen acting as a lieutenant under Cæsar. He was a man of moderate abilities and excessive vices; ambitious of power, but skilled in war, to which he had been trained from his youth. He was consul for this year; and resolved, with Lepidus, who was fond of commotions like himself, to seize this opportunity of assuming the sovereign power. Lepidus, therefore, took possession of the forum with a band of soldiers at his devotion; and Antony, being consul, was permitted to command them. Their first step was to possess themselves of all Cæsar's papers and money; and the next to convene the senate, in order to determine whether Cæsar had been a legal magistrate or a tyrannical usurper, and whether those who killed him merited rewards or punishments. There were many of these who had received their promotions from Cæsar, and had acquired large fortunes in consequence of his appointments: to vote him an usurper, therefore, would be to endanger their property; and yet to vote him innocent, might endanger the state. In this dilemma they seemed willing to reconcile extremes; wherefore they approved all the acts of Cæsar, and yet granted a general pardon to all the conspirators.

This decree was very far from giving Antony satisfaction, as it granted security to a number of men who were the avowed enemies of tyranny, and who would be foremost in opposing his schemes of restoring absolute power. As therefore

JULIUS CÆSAR.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis, 1826.

therefore the senate had ratified all Cæsar's acts without distinction, he formed a scheme upon this of making him rule when dead as imperiously as when he had done when living. Being, as was said, possessed of Cæsar's books of accounts, he so far gained upon his secretary as to make him insert whatever he thought proper. By these means, great sums of money, which Cæsar never would have bestowed, were here distributed among the people; and every man who was averse to republican principles was here sure of finding a gratuity. He then demanded that Cæsar's funeral obsequies should be performed, which the senate now could not decently forbid, as they had never declared him a tyrant. Accordingly, the body was brought forth into the forum with the utmost solemnity; and Antony began his operations upon the passions of the people, by the prevailing motives of private interest. He first read Cæsar's will, in which he had left Octavius, his sister's grandson, his heir, permitting him to take the name of Cæsar; and three parts of his private fortune Brutus was to inherit in case of his death. The Roman people were left the gardens which he had on the other side the Tiber, and every citizen, in particular, was to receive 300 sesterces. This last bequest not a little contributed to increase the people's affection for their late dictator; they now began to consider Cæsar as a father, who, not satisfied with doing them the greatest good while living, thought of benefiting them after his death. As Antony continued reading, the multitude began to be moved, and sighs and lamentations were heard from every quarter. Antony, seeing the audience favourable to his designs, now began to address the assembly in a more pathetic strain: he presented before them Cæsar's bloody robe, and as he unfolded it, took care they should observe the number of stabs in it: he then displayed an image, which to them appeared the body of Cæsar, all covered with wounds. The people could now no longer contain their indignation; they unanimously cried out for revenge: all the old soldiers who had fought under him, burnt, with his body, their coronets, and other marks of conquest with which he had honoured them. A great number of the first matrons in the city threw in their ornaments also, till at length, rage succeeding to sorrow, the multitude ran with flaming brands from the pile to set fire to the conspirators' houses. In this rage of resentment, meeting with one Cinna, whom they mistook for another of the same name who was in the conspiracy, they tore him in pieces. The conspirators themselves, however, being well guarded, repulsed the multitude with no great trouble; but perceiving the rage of the people, they thought it safest to retire to the city. Divine honours were then granted to Cæsar; and an altar was erected on the place where his body was burnt, to which afterwards was added a column inscribed, "To the father of his country."

In the mean time Antony, who had excited this flame, resolved to make the best of the occasion. Having gained the people by his zeal in Cæsar's cause, he next endeavoured to bring over the senate, by a seeming concern for the freedom of the state. He therefore proposed to recal Sextus, Pompey's only remaining son, who had concealed himself in Spain since the death of his father, and to grant him the command of all the fleets of the empire. His next step to their confidence, was a quelling the sedition of the people, who rose to revenge the death of Cæsar, and putting their leader Amathus to death, who pretended to be the son of Marius. He after this pretended to dread the resentment of the multitude, and demanded a guard for the security of his person. The senate granted his request; and under this pretext, he drew round him a body of 6000 resolute men, attached to his interest, and ready to execute his commands. Thus he continued every day making rapid strides to absolute power; all the authority of government was lodged in his hands and those of his two brothers alone, who shared among them the consular, tribunitian, and prætorian power. His vows to revenge Cæsar's death semed either postponed, or totally forgotten; and his only aim seemed to confirm himself in that power which he had thus artfully acquired. But an obstacle to his ambition seemed to arise from a quarter on which he least expected it. This was from Octavius of Octavianus Cæsar, afterwards called Augustus, who was the grand-nephew and adopted son of Cæsar, and was at Apollonia when his kinsman was slain. He was then about 18 years old, and had been sent to that city to improve himself in the study of Grecian literature. Upon the news of Cæsar's death notwithstanding the earnest dissuasions of all his friends, he resolved to return to Rome, to claim the inheritance, and revenge the death of his uncle. From the former professions of Antony, he expected to find him a warm assistant to his aims; and he doubted not, by his concurrence, to take signal vengeance on all who had a hand in the conspiracy. However, he was greatly disappointed. Antony, whose projects were all to aggrandize himself, gave him but a very cold reception, and, instead of granting him the fortune left him by the will, delayed the payment of it upon various pretences, hoping to check his ambition by limiting his circumstances. But Octavianus, instead of abating his claims, even sold his own patrimonial estate, to pay such legacies as Cæsar had left, and particularly that to the people. By these means he gained a degree of popularity, which his enemies vainly laboured to diminish, and which in fact he had many other methods to procure. His conversation was elegant and insinuating, his face comely and graceful, and his affection to the late dictator so sincere, that every person was charmed either with his piety or his address. But what added still more to his interest was the name of Cæsar, which he had assumed, and, in consequence of which, the former followers of his uncle now flocked in great numbers to him. All these he managed with such art, that Antony now began to conceive a violent jealousy for the talents of his young opponent, and secretly laboured to counteract all his designs. In fact, he did not want reason; for the army near Rome, that had long wished to see the conspirators punished, began to turn from him to his rival whom they saw more sincerely bent on gratifying their desires. Antony having procured also the government of Hither Gaul from the people, two of his legions that he had brought home from his former government of Macedonia, went over to Octavianus, notwithstanding all his remonstrances to detain them. This produced, as usual, interviews, complaints, recriminations, and pretended reconciliations, which only tended to widen the difference; so that, at length, both sides prepared for war. Thus the state was divided into three distinct factions; that of Octavianus, who aimed at procuring Cæsar's inheritance, and revenging his death; that of Antony, whose sole view was to obtain absolute power; and that of the conspirators, who endeavoured to restore the senate to its former authority.

Antony being raised by the people to his new government of Cisalpine Gaul, contrary to the inclinations of the senate, resolved to enter upon his province immediately, and oppose Brutus, who commanded a small body of troops there, while his army was yet entire. He accordingly left Rome, and marching thither, commanded Brutus to depart. Brutus, being unable to oppose him, retired with his forces; but being pursued by Antony, he was at last besieged in the city of Mutina, of which he sent word to the senate.

In the mean while, Octavianus, who by this time had raised a body of 10,000 men, returned to Rome; and being resolved, before he attempted to take vengeance on the conspirators, if possible to diminish the power of Antony, began by bringing over the senate to second his designs. In this he succeeded by the credit of Cicero, who had long hated Antony because he thought him the enemy of the state. Accordingly, by means of his eloquence, a decree was passed, ordering Antony to raise the siege of Mutina, to evacuate Cisalpine Gaul, and to await the further orders of the senate upon the banks of the Rubicon. Antony treated the order with contempt; and instead of obeying, began to show his displeasure at being hitherto so submissive. Nothing now therefore remained for the senate but to declare him an enemy to the state, and to send Octavianus, with the army he had raised, to curb his insolence. The latter was very ready to offer

offer his army for this expedition, in order to revenge his own private injuries, before he undertook those of the public. The two consuls, Hirtius and Pansa, joined all their forces; and, thus combined, they marched at the head of a numerous army, against Antony, into Cisalpine Gaul. After one or two ineffectual conflicts, both armies came to a general engagement; in which Antony was defeated, and compelled to fly to Lepidus, who commanded a body of forces in Further Gaul. This victory, however, which promised the senate so much success, produced effects very different from their expectations. The two consuls were mortally wounded, but Pansa, previous to his death, called Octavianus to his bedside, and advised him to join with Antony, telling him, that the senate only desired to depress both, by opposing them to each other. The advice of the dying consul sunk deep on his spirits; so that from that time he only sought a pretext to break with them. Their giving the command of a party of his army to Decimus Brutus, and their denying him a triumph soon after, served to alienate his mind entirely from the senate, and made him resolve to join Antony and Lepidus. He was willing, however, to try the senate thoroughly, before he came to an open rupture; wherefore he sent to demand the consulship, which was refused him. He then thought himself obliged to keep no measures with that assembly, but privately sent to sound the inclinations of Antony and Lepidus, concerning a junction of forces, and found them as eager to assist as the senate was to oppose him. Antony was, in fact, the general of both armies, and Lepidus was only nominally so, for his soldiers refused to obey him upon the approach of the former. But being assured of the assistance of Octavianus upon their arrival in Italy, they soon crossed the Alps with an army of 17 legions, breathing revenge against all who had opposed their designs.

The senate now began, too late, to perceive their error in disobliging Octavianus; and therefore gave him the consulship which they had so lately refused, and, to prevent his joining with Antony, flattered him with new honours, giving him a power superior to all law. The first use Octavianus made of his new authority was to procure a law for the condemnation of Brutus and Cassius; after which, he joined his forces with those of Antony and Lepidus.

The meeting of these three usurpers of their country's freedom was near Mutina, upon a little island of the river Panarus. Their mutual suspicions were the cause of their meeting in this place. Lepidus first entered, and, finding all things safe, made the signal for the other two to approach. Octavianus began the conference, by thanking Antony for his zeal in putting Decimus Brutus to death; who, being abandoned by his army, was taken as he was designing to escape into Macedonia, and beheaded by Antony's command. Their conference lasted for three days; and the result of it was, that the supreme authority should be lodged in their hands, under the title of the *triumvirate*, for the space of five years; that Antony should have Gaul; Lepidus, Spain; and Octavianus, Africa, and the Mediterranean islands. As for Italy, and the eastern provinces, they were to remain in common, until their general enemy was entirely subdued. But the last article of their union was a dreadful one. It was agreed that all their enemies should be destroyed; of which each presented a list. In these were comprised not only the enemies, but the friends of the triumvirate, since the partisans of the one were often found among the opposers of the other. Thus Lepidus gave up his brother Paulus to the vengeance of his colleague; Antony permitted the proscription of his uncle Lucius; and Octavianus delivered up the great Cicero. The most sacred rights of nature were violated; 300 senators, and above 2000 knights, were included in this terrible proscription; their fortunes were confiscated, and their murderers enriched with the spoil. Rome soon felt the effects of this infernal union, and the horrid cruelties of Marius and Sylla were renewed. As many as could escape the cruelty of the triumvirs, fled into Macedonia to Brutus, or found refuge with young Pompey, who was now in Sicily, and covered the Mediterranean with his numerous navy. Their cruelties were not aimed at the men alone; but the softer sex were in danger of being marked as objects either of avarice or resentment. They made out a list of 1,400 women of the best quality, and the richest in the city, who were ordered to give in an account of their fortunes, to be taxed in proportion. But this seemed so unpopular a measure, and was so firmly opposed by Hortensia, who spoke against it, that, instead of 1,400 women, they were content to tax only 400. However, they made up the deficiency, by extending the tax upon men; near 100,000, as well citizens as strangers, were compelled to furnish supplies to the subversion of their country's freedom. At last, both the avarice and vengeance of the triumviri seemed fully satisfied, and they went into the senate to declare that the proscription was at an end; and thus having deluged the city with blood, Octavianus and Antony, leaving Lepidus to defend Rome in their absence, marched with their army to oppose the conspirators, who were now at the head of a formidable army in Asia.

Brutus and Cassius, the principal of these, upon the death of Cæsar, being compelled to quit Rome, went into Greece, where they persuaded the Roman students at Athens, to declare in the cause of freedom; then parting, the former raised a powerful army in Macedonia and the adjacent countries, while the latter went into Syria, where he soon became master of 12 legions, and reduced his opponent Dolabella to such straits as to kill himself. Both armies soon after joining at Smyrna, the sight of such a formidable force began to revive the declining spirits of the party, and to re-unite the two generals still more closely, between whom there had been some time before a slight misunderstanding. In short, having quitted Italy like distressed exiles, without having one single soldier or one town that owned their command, they now found themselves at the head of a flourishing army, furnished with all the necessaries for carrying on the war, and in a condition to support a contest where the empire of the world depended on the event. This success in raising levies, was entirely owing to the justice, moderation, and great humanity of Brutus, who, in every instance, seemed studious of the happiness of his country.

It was in this flourishing state of their affairs, that the conspirators had formed a resolution of going against Cleopatra, who, on her side, had made great preparations to assist their opponents. However, they were diverted from this purpose by an information that Octavianus and Antony were now upon their march, with 40 legions to oppose them. Brutus now, therefore, moved to have their army pass over into Greece and Macedonia, and there meet the enemy; but Cassius so far prevailed as to have the Rhodians and Lycians first reduced, who had refused their usual contribution. This expedition was immediately put in execution, and extraordinary contributions were raised by that means, the Rhodians having scarce any thing left but their lives. The Lycians suffered still more severely; for having shut themselves up in the city of Xanthus, they defended the place against Brutus with such fury, that neither his art nor intreaties could prevail upon them to surrender. At length, the town being set on fire, by their attempting to burn the works of the Romans, Brutus, instead of laying hold on this opportunity to storm the place, made every effort to preserve it, intreating his soldiers to try all means of extinguishing the fire: but the desperate phrenzy of the citizens was not to be mollified. Far from thinking themselves obliged to their generous enemy for the efforts which were made to save them, they resolved to perish in the flames. Wherefore, instead of extinguishing, they did all in their power to augment the fire, by throwing in wood, dry reeds, and all kinds of fuel. Nothing could exceed the distress of Brutus upon seeing the townsmen thus resolutely bent on destroying themselves: he rode about the fortifications, stretching out his hands to the Xanthians, and conjuring them to have pity on themselves and their city; but, insensible to his expostulations, they rushed into the flames with desperate obstinacy, and the whole soon became an heap of undistinguishable

undistinguishable ruin. At this horrid spectacle, Brutus offered a reward to every soldier who would bring him a Lycian alive. The number of those whom it was possible to save from their own fury, amounted to no more than 150.

Brutus and Cassius met once more at Sardis, where, after the usual ceremonies were passed between them, they resolved to have a private conference together, when, after much altercation, they were at last perfectly reconciled. After which, night coming on, Cassius invited Brutus and his friends to an entertainment. Upon retiring home it was, that Brutus, as Plutarch tells the story, saw a spectre in his tent. It was in the dead of the night, when the whole camp was perfectly quiet, that Brutus was employed in reading by a lamp that was just expiring. On a sudden, he thought he heard a noise as if somebody entered; and looking towards the door, he perceived it open. A gigantic figure, with a frightful aspect, stood before him, and continued to gaze upon him with silent severity. At last Brutus had courage to speak to it: "Art thou a dæmon or a mortal man? and why comest thou to me?" "Brutus," replied the phantom, "I am thy evil genius; thou shalt see me again at Philippi." "Well, then," answered Brutus, without being discomposed, "we shall meet again." Upon which the phantom vanished; and Brutus, calling to his servants, asked if they had seen any thing; to which replying in the negative, he again resumed his studies. But as he was struck with so strange an occurrence, he mentioned it the next day to Cassius, who, being an Epicurean, and a man of sense, ascribed it to the effect of imagination too much exercised by vigilance and anxiety. Brutus appeared satisfied with this solution of his late terrors; and, as Antony and Octavianus were now advanced into Macedonia, they soon after passed over into Thrace, and advanced to the city of Philippi, near which the forces of the triumvirs were posted.

A battle soon ensued, inwhich the republicans were defeated, and Cassius killed. The first care of Brutus, when he became the sole general, was to assemble the dispersed troops of Cassius, and animate them with fresh hopes of victory. As they had lost all they possessed by the plundering of their camp, he promised them 2,000 denarii each man to make up their losses. This once more inspired them with new ardour; they admired the liberality of their general, and with loud shouts proclaimed his former intrepidity. Still, however, he had not confidence sufficient to face the adversary, who offered him battle the ensuing day. His aim was to starve his enemies, who were in extreme want of provisions, their fleet having been lately defeated. But his single opinion was overruled by the rest of his army, who now grew every day more confident of their strength, and more arrogant to their new general. He was, therefore, at last, after a respite of 20 days, obliged to comply with their solicitations to try the fate of the battle. Both armies being drawn out, they remained a long while opposite to each other without offering to engage. It is said, that he himself had lost much of his natural ardour by having again seen the spectre the night preceding: however, he encouraged his men as much as possible, and gave the signal for battle within three hours of sunset. Fortune again declared against him; and the two triumviri expressly ordered by no means to suffer the general to escape, for fear he should renew the war. Thus the whole body of the enemy seemed chiefly intent on Brutus alone, and his capture seemed inevitable. In this deplorable exigence, Lucilius his friend, resolved, by his own death, to effect the general's delivery. Upon perceiving a body of Thracian horse closely pursuing Brutus, and just upon the point of taking him, he boldly threw himself in their way, telling them that he was Brutus. The Thracians, overjoyed with so great a prize, immediately dispatched some of their companions, with the news of their success, to the army. Upon which, the ardour of the pursuit abating, Antony marched out to meet his prisoner; but the faithful Lucilius, advancing with a cheerful air, owned the deceit that he had put upon him. The triumvir, struck with so much fidelity, pardoned him upon the spot; and from that time forward loaded him with benefits, and honoured him with his friendship.

In the mean time Brutus, with a small number of friends, passed over a rivulet, and, night coming on, sat down under a rock which concealed him from the pursuit of the enemy. After taking breath for a little time, he sent out one Statilius to give him some information of those that remained; but he never returned, being killed by a party of the enemy's horse. Brutus judging very rightly of his fate, now resolved to die likewise, and spoke to those who stood round him to lend him their last sad assistance. None of them, however, would render him so melancholy a piece of service. At last one Strato, averting his head, presented the sword's point to Brutus; who threw himself upon it, and immediately expired.

From the moment of Brutus's death, the triumviri began to act as sovereigns, and to divide the Roman dominions between them. However, though there were apparently three, yet only two were actually possessed of power; since Lepidus was at first admitted merely to curb the mutual jealousy of Antony and Octavianus, and was possessed neither of interest in the army, nor authority among the people. Their first care was to punish those whom they had formerly marked for vengeance. The head of Brutus was sent to Rome to be thrown at the foot of Cæsar's statue. His ashes, however, were sent to his wife Portia, Cato's daughter, who afterwards killed herself by swallowing burning coals.

The power of the triumviri being thus established, Antony went into Greece, and spent some time at Athens, conversing among the philosophers, and assisting at their disputes in person. From thence he passed over into Asia, where all the monarchs of the east, who acknowledged the Roman power, came to pay him their obedience. In this manner he proceeded from kingdom to kingdom, attended by a crowd of sovereigns, exacting contributions and distributing favours. He presented the kingdom of Cappadocia to Sysenes, in prejudice of Ariarathes, only because he found pleasure in the beauty of Glaphyra, the mother of the former. He settled Herod in the kingdom of Judea, and supported him against every opposer. But among all the sovereigns of the east who shared his favours, none had so large a part as Cleopatra, the celebrated queen of Egypt.

It happened that Serapion, her governor in the island of Cyprus, had formerly furnished some succours to the conspirators; and it was thought proper that she should answer for his conduct on that occasion. Accordingly, having received orders from Antony to come and clear herself of this imputation of infidelity, she readily complied, if not conscious of the goodness of her cause, yet confident of the power of her beauty. She had already experienced the force of her charms upon Cæsar and Pompey's eldest son; and the addition of a few years since that time had not impaired their lustre. Antony was now in Tarsus, a city of Cilicia, when Cleopatra resolved to attend his court in person. She sailed down the river Cydnus, at the mouth of which the city stood, with the most sumptuous pageantry. Her galley was covered with gold; the sails were of purple, large, and floating in the wind. The oars of silver kept time to the sound of flutes and cymbals. She herself lay reclined on a couch spangled with stars of gold, and with such ornaments as poets and painters had usually ascribed to Venus. On each side were boys like cupids, who fanned her by turns; while the most beautiful nymphs, dressed like Nereids and Graces, were placed at proper distances around her. Upon the banks of the river were kept burning the most exquisite perfumes, while an infinite number of people gazed upon the sight. Antony was captivated with her beauty; and, leaving all his business to satisfy his passion, shortly after followed her into Egypt.

While he thus remained idle, Octavianus, who took upon him to lead back the veteran troops and settle them in Italy, was assiduously employed in providing for their subsistence. He had promised them lands at home, as a recompense for their past services; but they could not receive new grants, without

without turning out the former inhabitants. In consequence of this, multitudes of women, with children in their arms, whose tender years and innocence excited universal compassion, daily filled the temples and the streets with their distresses. Numbers of husbandmen and shepherds came to deprecate the conqueror's intention, or to obtain an habitation in some other part of the world. Amongst this number was Virgil the poet, who, in an humble manner, begged permission to retain his patrimonial farm: Virgil obtained his request; but the rest of his countrymen, of Mantua and Cremona, were turned out without mercy.

Italy and Rome now felt the most extreme miseries; the insolent soldiers plundered at will; while Sextus Pompey, being master of the sea, cut off all foreign communication, and prevented the people's receiving their usual supplies of corn. To these mischiefs were added the commencement of another civil war. Fulvia, the wife of Antony, who had been left behind him at Rome, had felt for some time all the rage of jealousy, and resolved to try every method of bringing back her husband from the arms of Cleopatra. She considered a breach with Octavianus as the only probable means of rousing him from his lethargy; and accordingly, with the assistance of Lucius, her brother-in-law, who was then consul, and entirely devoted to her interest, she began to sow the seeds of dissension. The pretext was, that Antony should have a share in the distribution of lands as well as Octavianus. This produced some negociations between them; Octavianus offered to make the veterans themselves umpires in the dispute. Lucius refused to acquiesce; and being at the head of more than six legions, mostly composed of such as had been dispossessed of their lands, he resolved to compel Octavianus to accept of whatever terms he should offer. Thus a new war was excited between Octavianus and Antony; or, at least, the generals of the latter assumed the sanction of his name. Octavianus, however, proved victorious: Lucius was hemmed in between two armies, and constrained to retreat to Perusia, a city of Etruria, where he was closely besieged by the opposite party. He made many desperate sallies, and Fulvia did all in her power to relieve him, but without success. He was at last, therefore, reduced to such extremity by famine, that he came out in person and delivered himself up to the mercy of the conqueror. Octavianus received him very honourably, and generously pardoned him and all his followers. Thus having concluded the war in a few months, he returned in triumph to Rome.

Antony, who, during this interval, was revelling in all the luxuries procured him by his insidious mistress, having heard of his brother's overthrow, and his wife's being compelled to leave Italy, was resolved to oppose Octavianus without delay. He accordingly sailed at the head of a considerable fleet from Alexandria to Tyre, from thence to Cyprus and Rhodes, and had an interview with Fulvia, his wife, at Athens. He much blamed her for occasioning the late disorders, testified the utmost contempt for her person, and, leaving her upon her death-bed at Sicyon, hastened into Italy to fight Octavianus. They both met at Brundusium; and it was now thought that the flames of a civil war were going to blaze out once more. The forces of Antony were numerous, but mostly newly raised; however, he was assisted by Sextus Pompeius, who in these oppositions of interests was daily coming into power. Octavianus was at the head of those veterans who had always been irresistible, but who seemed no way disposed to fight against Antony their former general. A negociation was therefore proposed; and a reconciliation was effected. All offences and affronts were mutually forgiven; and, to cement the union, a marriage was concluded between Antony and Octavia, the sister of Octavianus. A new division of the Roman empire was made between them; Octavianus was to have the command of the west, Antony of the east, while Lepidus was obliged to content himself with the provinces in Africa. As for Sextus Pompeius, he was permitted to retain all the islands he had already possessed, together with Peloponnesus: he was also granted the privilege of demanding the consulship in his absence, and of discharging that office by any of his friends. It was likewise stipulated to leave the sea open, and pay the people what corn was due out of Sicily. Thus a general peace was concluded, to the great satisfaction of the people, who now expected a cessation from all their calamities.

This calm seemed to continue for some time: Antony led his forces against the Parthians, over whom his lieutenant, Ventidius, had gained great advantages. Octavianus drew the greatest part of his army into Gaul, where there were some disturbances; and Pompey went to secure his newly ceded province to his interest. It was on this quarter that fresh motives were given for renewing the war. Antony, who was obliged by treaty to quit Peloponnesus, refused to evacuate it till Pompey had satisfied him for such debts as were due to him from the inhabitants. This Pompey would by no means comply with; but immediately fitted out a new fleet, and renewed his former enterprises, by cutting off such corn and provisions as were consigned to Italy. Thus the grievances of the poor were again renewed; and the people began to complain, that instead of three tyrants they were now oppressed by four.

In this exigence, Octavianus, who had long meditated the best means of diminishing the number, resolved to begin by getting rid of Pompey, who kept the state in continual alarms. He was master of two fleets; one of which he had caused to be built at Ravenna; and another which Menodorus, who revolted from Pompey, brought to his aid. His first attempt was to invade Sicily; but being overpowered in his passage by Pompey, and afterwards shattered in a storm, he was obliged to defer his designs to the ensuing year. During this interval he was reinforced by a fleet of 120 ships, given him by Antony, with which he resolved once more to invade Sicily on three several quarters. But fortune seemed still determined to oppose him. He was a second time disabled and shattered by a storm: which so raised the vanity of Pompey, that he began to style himself the *son of Neptune*. However, Octavianus was not to be intimidated by any disgraces; for having shortly refitted his navy, and recruited his forces, he gave the command of both to Agrippa, his faithful friend and associate in war. Agrippa proved himself worthy of the trust reposed in him: he began his operations by a victory over Pompey; and, though he was shortly after worsted himself, he soon after gave his adversary a complete and final overthrow. Thus undone, Pompey resolved to fly to Antony, from whom he expected refuge, as he had formerly obliged that triumvir by giving protection to his mother. Nevertheless, Titus, Antony's lieutenant, shortly after caused him to be slain.

The death of this general removed one very powerful obstacle to the ambition of Octavianus, and he resolved to take the earliest opportunity to get rid of the rest of his associates. An offence was soon furnished by Lepidus, that served as a sufficient pretext for depriving him of his share in the triumvirate. Being now at the head of 22 legions, with a strong body of cavalry, he idly supposed that his present power was more than an equivalent to the popularity of Octavianus. He therefore resolved upon adding Sicily, where he then was, to his province; pretending a right, as having first invaded it. His colleague sent to expostulate upon these proceedings; but Lepidus fiercely replied, "that he was determined to have his share in the administration, and would no longer submit to let one alone possess all the authority." Octavianus was previously informed of the disposition of Lepidus's soldiers; for he had, by his secret intrigues and largesses, entirely attached them to himself. Wherefore, without further delay, he with great boldness went alone to the camp of Lepidus, and with no other assistance than his private bounties, and the authority he had gained by his former victories, he resolved to depose his rival. The soldiers thronged round him with the most dutiful alacrity, while Lepidus hastened to prevent their defection.

But

But Octavianus, though he received a wound from one of the centurions, went, with great presence of mind, to the place where the military ensigns were planted, and, flourishing one of them in the air, all the legionary soldiers ran in crowds and saluted him as their general. Lepidus being thus abandoned by his men, divested himself of all the marks of his authority, which he could no longer keep, and submissively threw himself at the feet of Octavianus. This general spared his life, notwithstanding the remonstrances of his army; but deprived him of all his former authority, and banished him to Circæum.

Octavianus was received upon his return to Rome with universal joy; the senators met him at the gates, and conducted him to the capitol: the people followed, crowned with garlands of flowers: and after having returned thanks to the gods, waited upon him to his palace. There remained now but one obstacle to his ambition, which was Antony, whom he resolved to remove, and for that purpose began to render his character as contemptible as he possibly could at Rome. In fact, Antony's conduct did not a little contribute to promote the endeavours of his ambitious partner in the state. He had marched against the Parthians with a prodigious army; but was forced to return with the loss of the fourth part of his forces, and all his baggage. This extremely diminished his reputation; but his making a triumphal entry into Alexandria soon after, entirely disgusted the citizens of Rome. However, Antony seemed quite regardless of their resentment: totally disregarding the business of the state, he spent his time in the company of Cleopatra. This complication of vice and folly at length totally exasperated the Romans; and Octavianus, willing to take advantage of their resentment, took care to exaggerate all his defects. At length, when he found the people sufficiently irritated against him, he resolved to send Octavia, who was then at Rome, to Antony, as if with a view of reclaiming her husband; but, in fact, to furnish a sufficient pretext of declaring war against him, as he knew she would be dismissed with contempt.

Antony was now in the city of Leucopolis, revelling with his paramour, when he heard that Octavia was at Athens, upon her journey to visit him. This was very unwelcome news to him as well as to Cleopatra; who, fearing the charms of her rival, endeavoured to convince Antony of the strength of her passion. He frequently caught her in tears, which she seemed willing to hide; and often intreated her to tell him the cause, but this she feigned to wish to suppress. These artifices, with the ceaseless flattery and importunity of her creatures, prevailed so much upon Antony's weakness, that he commanded Octavia to return home without seeing her, and attached himself more closely to Cleopatra than before. His ridiculous passion now began to have no bounds. He resolved to own her for his wife, and entirely to repudiate Octavia. He accordingly assembled the people of Alexandria in the public theatre, where was raised an alcove of silver, under which were placed two thrones of gold, one for himself and the other for Cleopatra, There he seated himself, dressed like Bacchus, while Cleopatra sat beside him clothed in the ornaments and attributes of Isis, the principal deity of the Egyptians. On that occasion he declared her queen of all the countries which he had already bestowed upon her; while he associated Cæsario, her son by Cæsar, as her partner in the government. To the two children which he had by her himself he gave the title of *king of kings*, with very extensive dominions; and, to crown his absurdities, he sent a minute account of his proceedings to the two consuls at Rome. It was now necessary to act up to his imaginary dignity; new luxuries and pageantries were now therefore studied, and new marks of profusion found out: not less than £60,000 were lavished upon one single entertainment; it is said, upon this occasion, that Cleopatra dissolved a pearl of great value in vinegar, and drank it off. But we are told of one circumstance that might well repress their delights. He was suspicious of being poisoned in every meal; he feared Cleopatra whom he so much loved, and would eat nothing without having it previously tasted by one of his attendants.

In the mean time Octavianus had now a sufficient pretext for declaring war; and informed the senate of his intentions. However, he deferred the execution of his design for a while, being then employed in quelling an insurrection of the Illyrians. The following year was chiefly taken up in preparations against Antony, who, perceiving his design, remonstrated to the senate, that he had many causes of complaint against his colleague, who had seized upon Sicily without offering him a share; alleging that he had also dispossessed Lepidus, and kept to himself the province he had commanded; and that he had divided all Italy among his own soldiers, leaving nothing to recompense those in Asia. To this complaint Octavianus was contented to make a sarcastic answer; implying, that it was absurd to complain of his distribution of a few trifling districts in Italy, when Antony having conquered Parthia, he might now reward his soldiers with cities and provinces. The sarcasm upon Antony's misfortunes in Parthia so provoked him, that he ordered Canidius, who commanded his army, to march without intermission into Europe; while he and Cleopatra followed to Samos, in order to prepare for carrying on the war with vigour. When arrived there, it was ridiculous enough to behold the odd mixture of preparations for pleasure and for war. On one side all the kings and princes from Europe to the Euxine sea had orders to send him thither supplies both of men, provisions, and arms; on the other side, all the commedians, dancers, buffoons, and musicians of Greece, were ordered to attend him. Thus, frequently, when a ship was thought to arrive laden with soldiers, arms, and ammunition, it was found only filled with players and theatrical machinery. When news was expected of the approach of an army, messengers only arrived with tidings of a fresh quantity of venison. The kings who attended him endeavoured to gain his favour more by their entertainments than their warlike preparations; the provinces strove rather to please him by sacrificing to his divinity, than by their alacrity in his defence; so that some were heard to say, "What rejoicings would not this man make for a victory, when he thus triumphs at the eve of a dangerous war!" In short, his best friends now began to forsake his interests.

His delay at Samos, and afterwards at Athens, where he carried Cleopatra to receive new honours, was extremely favourable to the arms of Octavianus. This general was at first scarcely in a disposition to oppose him, had he gone into Italy; but he soon found time to put himself in a condition for carrying on the war, and shortly after declared it against him in form. All Antony's followers were invited over to join him, with great promises of rewards: but they were not declared enemies, partly to prevent their growing desperate, and partly to give a show of moderation to his own party. At length both found themselves in readiness to begin the war, and their armies were answerable to the empire they contended for. The one was followed by all the forces of the east; the other drew all the strength of the west to support his pretensions. Antony's force composed a body of 100,000 foot and 12,000 horse; while his fleet amounted to 500 ships of war. The army of Octavianus mustered but 80,000 foot, but equalled his adversary's in the number of cavalry; his fleet was but half as numerous as Antony's; however, his ships were better built, and manned with better soldiers.

The great decisive engagement, which was a naval one, was fought near Actium, a city of Epirus, at the entrance of the gulf of Ambracia. Antony ranged his ships before the mouth of the gulf; and Octavianus drew up his fleet in opposition. Neither general assumed any fixed station to command in; but went about from ship to ship wherever his presence was necessary. In the mean time, the two land armies, on opposite sides of the gulf, were drawn up, only as spectators of the engagement; and encouraged the fleets by their shouts to engage. The battle began on both sides with great ardour, and after a manner not practised upon former

mer occasions. The prows of their vessels were armed with brazen points; and with these they drove furiously against each other. In this conflict the ships of Antony came with greater force, but those of Octavianus avoided the shock with greater dexterity. On Antony's side, the sterns of the ships were raised in form of a tower; from whence they threw arrows from machines for that purpose. Those of Octavianus made use of long poles hooked with iron, and fire-pots. They fought in this manner for some time with equal animosity; nor was there any advantage on either side, except a small appearance of disorder in the centre of Antony's fleet. But all of a sudden Cleopatra determined the fortune of the day. She was seen flying from the engagement attended by 60 sail; struck, perhaps, with the terrors natural to her sex: but what increased the general amazement was to behold Antony himself following soon after, and leaving his fleet at the mercy of the conquerors.

The engagement, notwithstanding, continued with great obstinacy till five in the evening; when Antony's forces, partly constrained by the conduct of Agrippa, and partly persuaded by the promises of Octavianus, submitted to the conqueror. The land forces soon after followed the example of the navy; and all yielded to the conqueror, without striking a blow, the fourth day after the battle.

When Cleopatra fled, Antony pursued her in a five-oared galley; and coming along-side of her ship, entered, without seeing or being seen by her. She was in the stern, and he went to the prow, where he remained for some time silent, holding his head between his hands. In this manner he continued three whole days; during which, either through indignation or shame, he neither saw nor spoke to Cleopatra. At last, when they were arrived at the promontory of Tenarus, the queen's female attendants reconciled them, and every thing went on as before. Still, however, he had the consolation to suppose his army continued faithful to him; and accordingly dispatched orders to his lieutenant Canidius to conduct it into Asia. However, he was soon undeceived. When he arrived in Africa, he was informed of their submission to his rival. This account so transported him with rage, that he was hardly prevented from killing himself; but at length, at the entreaty of his friends, he returned to Alexandria, in a very different situation from that in which he had left it some time before. Cleopatra, however, seemed to retain that fortitude in her misfortunes which had utterly abandoned her admirer. Having amassed considerable riches by means of confiscation and other acts of violence, she formed a very singular and unheard of project; this was to convey her whole fleet over the isthmus of Suez into the Red Sea, and thereby save herself in another region beyond the reach of Rome, with all her treasures. Some of her vessels were actually transported thither, pursuant to her orders; but the Arabians having burnt them, and Antony dissuading her from the design, she abandoned it for the more improbable scheme of defending Egypt against the conqueror.—She omitted nothing in her power to put his advice in practice, and made all kinds of preparations for war; at least hoping thereby to obtain better terms from Octavianus. In fact, she had always loved Antony's fortunes rather than his person; and if she could have fallen upon a method of saving herself, though even at his expense, there is no doubt but she would have embraced it with gladness. She even still had some hopes from the power of her charms, though she was arrived almost at the age of 40; and was desirous of trying upon Octavianus those arts which had been so successful with the greatest men of Rome. Thus, in three embassies which were sent one after another from Antony to his rival in Asia, the queen had always her secret agents, charged with particular proposals in her name. Antony desired no more than that his life might be spared, and to have the liberty of passing the remainder of his days in obscurity. To these proposals Octavianus made no reply. Cleopatra sent him also public proposals in favour of her children; but at the same time privately resigned him her crown, with all the ensigns of royalty. To the queen's public proposal no answer was given; to her private offer he replied, by giving her assurances of his favour in case she sent away Antony or put him to death. These negociations were not so private but they came to the knowledge of Antony, whose jealousy and rage were now heightened by every concurrence. He built a small solitary house upon a mole in the sea; and there he passed his time, shunning all commerce with mankind, and professing to imitate Timon the man-hater. However his furious jealousy drove him even from this retreat into society; for hearing that Cleopatra had many secret conferences with one Thyrsus, an emissary from Octavianus, he seized upon him, and having ordered him to be cruelly scourged, he sent him back to his patron. At the same time he sent letters by him, importing, that he had chastised Thyrsus for insulting a man in his misfortunes; but withal he gave his rival permission to avenge himself, by scourging Hipparchus, Antony's freeman, in the same manner. The revenge, in this case, would have been highly pleasing to Antony, as Hipparchus had left him to join the fortunes of his more successful rival.

Meanwhile, the operations of the war were carried vigorously forward, and Egypt was once more the theatre of the contending armies of Rome. Gallus, the lieutenant of Octavianus, took Paretonium, which opened the whole country to his incursions. On the other side, Antony, who had still considerable forces by sea and land, wanted to take that important place from the enemy. He therefore marched towards it, flattering himself, that as soon as he should show himself to the legions which he had once commanded, their ancient general would revive. He approached therefore, and exhorted them to remember their former vows of fidelity. Gallus, however, ordered all the trumpets to sound, in order to hinder Antony from being heard, so that he was obliged to retire.

Octavianus himself was in the mean time advancing with another army before Pelusium, which by its strong situation, might have retarded his progress for some time. But the governor of the city, either wanting courage to defend it, or previously instructed by Cleopatra to give it up, permitted him to take possession of the place; so that Octavianus had now no obstacle in his way to Alexandria, whither he marched with all expedition. Antony, upon his arrival, sallied out to oppose him, fighting with great desperation, and putting the enemy's cavalry to flight. This slight advantage once more revived his declining hopes; and, being naturally vain, he re-entered Alexandria in triumph. Then going, all armed as he was, to the palace, he embraced Cleopatra, and presented her a soldier who had distinguished himself in the late engagement. The queen rewarded him very magnificently; presenting him with an head-piece and breast-plate of gold. With these, however, the soldier went off the next night to the other army. Antony could not bear this defection without fresh indignation; he resolved, therefore, to make a bold expiring effort by sea and land, but previously offered to fight his adversary in single combat. Octavianus too well knew the inequality of their situations to comply with this forlorn offer; he only, therefore, coolly replied, that Antony had ways enough to die besides single combat.

The evening before the day appointed for the last desperate attempt, he ordered a grand entertainment to be prepared. At day-break he posted the few troops he had remaining upon a rising ground near the city: from whence he sent orders to his galleys to engage the enemy. There he waited to be a spectator of the combat; and, at first, he had the satisfaction to see them advance in good order; but his approbation was soon turned into rage, when he saw his ships only saluting those of Octavianus, and both fleets uniting together, and sailing back into the harbour. At the very same time his cavalry deserted him. He tried, however, to lead on his infantry; which were easily vanquished, and he himself compelled to return into the town. His anger was now ungovernable; he could not help crying out aloud

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AUGUSTUS CÆSAR.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1826.

as he passed, that he was betrayed by Cleopatra, and delivered by her to those who, for her sake alone, were his enemies. In these suspicions he was not deceived; for it was by secret orders from the queen that the fleet had passed over to the enemy.

Cleopatra had, for a long while, dreaded the effects of Antony's jealousy; and had, some time before, prepared a method of obviating any sudden sallies it might produce. Near the temple of Isis she had erected a building, which was seemingly designed for a sepulchre. Hither she removed all her treasure and most valuable effects, covering them over with torches, faggots, and other combustible matter. This sepulchre she designed to answer a double purpose; as well to screen her from the sudden resentments of Antony, as to make Octavianus believe that she would burn all her treasures in case he refused her proper terms of capitulation. Here, therefore, she retired from Antony's present fury; shutting the gates, which were fortified with bolts and bars of iron; but in the mean time gave orders that a report should be spread of her death. This news, which soon reached Antony, recalled all his former love and tenderness. He now lamented her death with the same violence he had but a few minutes before seemed to desire it; and called one of his freedmen, named *Eros*, whom he had by oath engaged to kill him whenever fortune should drive him to this last resource. Eros being now commanded to perform his promise, this faithful follower drew the sword, as if going to execute his orders; but turning his face, plunged it into his own bosom, and died at his master's feet. Antony for a while hung over his faithful servant, and, commending his fidelity, took up the sword, with which stabbing himself in the belly, he fell backward upon a little couch. Though the wound was mortal, yet the blood stopping, he recovered his spirits, and earnestly conjured those who were come into the room to put an end to his life; but they all fled, being seized with fright and horror. He therefore continued in agonies for some time; till he was informed by one of the queen's secretaries that his mistress was still alive. He then earnestly desired to be carried to the place where she was. They accordingly brought him to the gate of the sepulchre; but Cleopatra, who would not permit it to be opened, appeared at the window, and threw down cords in order to pull him up. In this manner, assisted by her two female attendants, she raised him all bloody from the ground; and while yet suspended in the air, he continued stretching out his hands to encourage her. Cleopatra and her maids had only just strength sufficient to raise him; and at last, with much straining, they effected their purpose, and carried him to a couch, on which they gently laid him. Here she gave way to her sorrow, tearing her clothes, beating her breast, and kissing the wound of which he was dying. She called upon him as her lord, her husband, her emperor, and seemed to have forgot her own distresses in the greatness of his sufferings. Antony entreated her to moderate the transports of her grief, and asked for some wine. After he had drank, he entreated Cleopatra to endeavour to preserve her life, if she could do it with honour; and recommended Proculus, a friend of Octavianus, as one she might rely on to be her intercessor. Just as he had done speaking, he expired; and Proculus made his appearance by command of Octavianus, who had been informed of Antony's desperate conduct. He was sent to try all means of getting Cleopatra into his power; his master having a double motive for his solicitude on this occasion; one, to prevent her destroying the treasures she had taken with her into the tomb; the other, to preserve her person as an ornament to grace his triumph. Cleopatra, however, was upon her guard, and would not confer with Proculus, except through the gate, which was well secured. In the mean time, while he designedly drew out the conference to some length, and had given Gallus, one of his fellow-soldiers, directions to carry on the conversation in his absence, he entered with two more by the window at which Antony had been drawn up. As soon as he had entered, he ran down to the gate; and one of the women crying out, that they were taken alive, Cleopatra, perceiving what had happened, drew a poniard, and attempted to stab herself; but Proculus prevented the blow, and gently remonstrated that she was cruel in refusing so good a prince as his master was the pleasure of displaying his clemency. He then forced the poniard out of her hand, and examined her clothes to be certain she had no poison about her. Thus leaving every thing secured, he went to acquaint his master with his proceedings.

Octavianus was extremely pleased at finding her in his power; he sent Epaphroditus to bring her to his palace, and to watch her with the utmost circumspection. He was likewise ordered to use her, in every respect, with that deference and submission which were due to her rank, and to do every thing in his power to render her captivity agreeable. She was permitted to have the honour of granting Antony the rites of burial, and furnished with every thing she desired, that was becoming his dignity to receive, or her love to offer. Yet still she languished under her new confinement. Her excessive sorrow, her many losses, and the blows she had given her bosom, produced a fever which she seemed willing to increase. She resolved to abstain from taking any nourishment, under the pretence of a regimen necessary for her disorder; but Octavianus being made acquainted with the real motive by her physician, began to threaten her with regard to her children, in case she persisted. This was the only punishment that could now affect her; she allowed herself to be treated as they thought proper, and received whatever was prescribed for her recovery.

In the mean time Octavianus made his entry into Alexandria: taking care to mitigate the fears of the inhabitants, by conversing familiarly as he went along with Areus, a philosopher, and a native of the place. The citizens, however, trembled at his approach; and when he placed himself upon the tribunal, they prostrated themselves, with their faces to the ground, before him, like criminals who waited the sentence of their execution. Octavianus presently ordered them to rise; telling them, that three motives induced him to pardon them. His respect for Alexander, who was the founder of their city; his admiration of its beauty; and his friendship for Areus, their fellow-citizen. Two only of particular note were put to death upon this occasion; Antony's eldest son Antyllus, and Cæsario, the son of Julius Cæsar; both betrayed into his hands by their respective tutors, who themselves suffered for their perfidy shortly after. As for the rest of Cleopatra's children, he treated them with great gentlenesss, leaving them to the care of those who were entrusted with their education, who had orders to provide them with every thing suitable to their birth. When Cleopatra was recovered from her late indisposition, he came to visit her in person. She had been preparing for this interview, and made use of every method she could think of to propitiate the conqueror, and to gain his affection; but in vain. However, at his departure, Octavianus imagined that he had reconciled her to life, and to the indignity of being shown in the intended triumph, which he was preparing for on his return to Rome; but in this he was deceived. Cleopatra, all this time, had kept a correspondence with Dolabella, a young Roman of high birth, in the camp of Octavianus; who, perhaps, from compassion, or stronger motives, was interested in the misfortunes of that princess. From him she learnt the intentions of Octavianus, and that he was determined to send her off in three days, together with her children, to Rome. She now therefore determined upon dying; but previously intreated permission to pay her oblations at Antony's tomb. This request being granted her, she was carried with her two female attendants to the stately monument where he was laid. There she threw herself upon his coffin, bewailed her captivity, and renewed her protestations not to survive him. She then crowned the tomb with garlands of flowers; and having kissed the coffin a thousand times, she returned home to execute her fatal resolution. Having bathed, and ordered a sumptuous banquet, she attired herself in the most splendid manner. She then feasted as usual; and soon after

after ordered all but her two attendants, Charmion and Iras, to leave the room. Then, having previously ordered an asp to be secretly conveyed to her in a basket of fruit, she sent a letter to Octavianus, informing him of her fatal purpose, and desiring to be buried in the same tomb with Antony. Octavianus, upon receiving this letter, instantly dispatched messengers to prevent her, but they arrived too late. Upon entering the chamber, they beheld Cleopatra lying dead upon a gilded couch, arrayed in her royal robes. Near her, Iras, one of her faithful attendants, was stretched lifeless at the feet of her mistress; and Charmion herself, almost expiring, was settling the diadem upon Cleopatra's head. She died at the age of thirty-nine, after having reigned twenty-two years. Her death put an end to the monarchy in Egypt, which had flourished there from time immemorial.

Octavianus seemed much troubled at Cleopatra's death, as it deprived him of a principal ornament in his intended triumph. However, the manner of it a good deal exalted her character among the Romans, with whom suicide was considered as a virtue. Her dying request was complied with, her body being laid by Antony's, and a magnificent funeral prepared for her and her two faithful attendants.

And now Octavianus was at the height of his wishes, sole sovereign, sole master, of the whole Roman empire. But, on the other hand, the many dangers which attend an usurped power, appearing to him in a stronger light than ever, filled his mind with a thousand perplexing thoughts. The natural aversion of the Romans to a kingly government, their love of liberty, and the ides of March, when his father Julius was murdered in full senate by those very men whom he thought the most devoted to his person, made him fear there might arise another Brutus, who, to restore liberty to his country, might assassinate him on his very throne. The passion of fear outweighed in his soul the charms of a diadem, and inclined him to follow the example of Sylla, who, having laid down the authority he had usurped, died peaceably in his bed in the midst of his enemies. In this dilemma, he consulted his two most intimate friends, Agrippa and Mæcenas. Agrippa enlarged on the many and almost inevitable dangers which attend monarchy, insupportable to a free people, and to men educated in a commonwealth, and he exhorted Octavianus to convince the world, by restoring liberty to his country, that the only motive for his taking up arms was to revenge his father's death.

Mæcenas, on the other hand, remonstrated to him, that he had done too much to go back; that, after so much bloodshed, there could be no safety for him but on the throne; that, if he divested himself of the sovereign power, he would be immediately prosecuted by the children and friends of the many illustrious persons whom the misfortunes of the times had forced him to sacrifice to his safety; that it was absolutely necessary for the welfare and tranquillity of the republic, that the sovereign power should be lodged in one person, not divided among many, &c. Octavianus adopted the advice of Mæcenas, and under the modest title of *Imperator* or *Commander*, disguised an assumption of despotic power which annihilated for ever the republic of Rome. Yet was this extensive usurpation effected only to the most consummate art, and by the deepest apparent respect for popular feelings.

The reformation of the senate was one of the first steps in which the new tyrant professed himself the father of his country. He was elected censor; and, in concert with his faithful Agrippa, he examined the list of the senators, expelled a few members, whose vices or whose obstinacy required a public example, persuaded near two hundred to prevent the shame of an expulsion by a voluntary retreat, raised the qualification of a senator to about ten thousand pounds, created a sufficient number of patrician families, and accepted for himself the honourable title of Prince of the Senate, which had always been bestowed, by the censors, on the citizen the most eminent for his honours and services. But whilst he thus restored the dignity, he destroyed the independence of the senate. The principles of a free constitution are irrecoverably lost, when the legislative power is nominated by the executive.

Before an assembly thus modelled and prepared, Augustus pronounced a studied oration, which displayed his patriotism, and disguised his ambition. "He lamented, yet excused, his past conduct. Filial piety had required at his hands the revenge of his father's murder, the humanity of his own nature had sometimes given way to the stern laws of necessity, and to a forced connexion with two unworthy colleagues: as long as Antony lived, the republic forbad him to abandon her to a degenerate Roman, and a barbarian queen. He was now at liberty to satisfy his duty and his inclination. He solemnly restored the senate and people to all their ancient rights; and wished only to mingle with the crowd of his fellow citizens, and to share the blessings which he had obtained for his country."

It would require the pen of Tacitus (if Tacitus had assisted at this assembly) to describe the various emotions of the senate; those that were suppressed, and those that were affected. It was dangerous to trust the sincerity of Augustus; to seem to distrust it, was still more dangerous. The respective advantages of monarchy and a republic have often divided speculative inquirers; the present greatness of the Roman state, the corruption of manners, and the licence of the soldiers, supplied new arguments to the advocates of monarchy; and these general views of government were again warped by the hopes and fears of each individual. Amidst this confusion of sentiments, the answer of the senate was unanimous and decisive. They refused to accept the resignation of Augustus; they conjured him not to desert the republic which he had saved. After a decent resistance the crafty tyrant submitted to the orders of the senate, and consented to receive the government of the provinces, and the general command of the Roman armies, under the well-known names of Proconsul and Imperator. But he would receive them only for ten years. Even before the expiration of that period, he hoped that the wounds of civil discord would be completely healed, and that the republic, restored to its pristine health and vigour, would no longer require the interposition of so extraordiary a magistrate. The memory of this comedy, repeated several times during the life of Augustus, was preserved to the last ages of the empire, by the peculiar pomp with which the perpetual monarchs of Rome always solemnized the tenth years of their reign.

Without any violation of the principles of the constitution, the general of the Roman armies might receive and exercise an authority, almost despotic over the soldiers, the enemies, and the subjects of the republic. With regard to the soldiers, the jealousy of freedom had, even from the earliest ages of Rome, given way to the hopes of conquest, and a just sense of military discipline. The dictator, or consul, had a right to command the service of the Roman youth; and to punish an obstinate or cowardly disobedience by the most severe and ignominious penalties, by striking the offender out of the list of citizens, by confiscating his property, and by selling his person into slavery. The most sacred rights of freedom, confirmed by the Porcian and Sempronian laws, were suspended by the military engagement. In his camp the general exercised an absolute power of life and death; his jurisdiction was not confined by any forms of trial, or rules of proceeding, and the execution of the sentence was immediate and without appeal. The choice of the enemies of Rome was regularly decided by the legislative authority. The most important resolutions of peace and war were seriously debated in the senate, and solemnly ratified by the people. But when the arms of the legions were carried to a great distance from Italy, the generals assumed the liberty of directing them against whatever people, and in whatever manner they judged most advantageous for the public service. It was from the success, not from the justice, of their enterprizes, that they expected the honours of a triumph. In the use of victory, especially after they were no longer controlled by the commissioners of the senate, they exercised the most unbounded despotism. When Pompey commanded in the east, he rewarded

rewarded his soldiers and allies, dethroned princes, divided kingdoms, founded colonies, and distributed the treasures of Mithridates. On his return to Rome, he obtained, by a single act of the senate and people, the universal ratification of all his proceedings. Such was the power over the soldiers, and over the enemies of Rome, which was either granted to, or assumed by the generals of the republic. They were, at the same time, the governors, or rather monarchs, of the conquered provinces, united the civil with the military character, administered justice as well as finances, and exercised both the executive and legislative power of the state.

Within six days after Augustus had been compelled to accept so very liberal a grant, he resolved to gratify the pride of the senate by an easy sacrifice. He represented to them, that they had enlarged his powers, even beyond that degree which might be required by the melancholy condition of the times. They had not permitted him to refuse the laborious command of the armies and the frontiers; but he must insist on being allowed to restore the more peaceful and secure provinces, to the mild administration of the civil magistrate. In the division of the provinces, Augustus provided for his own power, and for the dignity of the republic. The proconsuls of the senate, particularly those of Asia, Greece, and Africa, enjoyed a more honourable character than the lieutenants of the emperor, who commanded in Gaul or Syria. The former were attended by lictors, the latter by soldiers. A law was passed, that wherever the emperor was present, his extraordinary commission should supersede the ordinary jurisdiction of the governor; a custom was introduced, that the new conquests belonged to the imperial portion; and it was soon discovered, that the authority of the prince, the favourite epithet of Augustus, was the same in every part of the empire.

In return for this imaginary concession, Augustus obtained an important privilege, which rendered him master of Rome and Italy. By a dangerous exception to the ancient maxims, he was authorised to preserve his military command, supported by a numerous body of guards, even in time of peace, and in the heart of the capital. His command, indeed, was confined to those citizens who were engaged in the service by the military oath; but such was the propensity of the Romans to servitude, that the oath was voluntarily taken by the magistrates, the senators, and the equestrian order, till the homage of flattery was insensibly converted into an annual and solemn protestation of fidelity.

Although Augustus considered a military force as the firmest foundation, he wisely rejected it, as a very odious instrument of government. It was more agreeable to his temper as well as to his policy, to reign under the venerable names of ancient magistracy, and artfully to collect, in his own person, all the scattered rays of civil jurisdiction. With this view, he permitted the senate to confer upon him, for his life, the powers of the consular and tribunitian offices, which were, in the same manner, continued to all his successors. The consuls had succeeded to the kings of Rome, and represented the dignity of the state. They superintended the ceremonies of religion, levied and commanded the legions, gave audience to foreign ambassadors, and presided in the assemblies both of the senate and people. The general control of the finances was intrusted to their care; and though they seldom had leisure to administer justice in person, they were considered as the supreme guardians of law, equity, and the public peace. Such was their ordinary jurisdiction; but whenever the senate empowered the first magistrate to consult the safety of the commonwealth, he was raised by that degree above the laws, and exercised, in the defence of liberty, a temporary despotism. The character of the tribunes was, in every respect, different from that of the consuls. The appearance of the former was modest and humble; but their persons were sacred and inviolable. Their force was suited rather for opposition than for action. They were instituted to defend the oppressed, to pardon offences, to arraign the enemies of the people, and, when they judged it necessary, to stop, by a single word, the whole machine of government. As long as the republic subsisted, the dangerous influence, which either the consul or the tribune might derive from their respective jurisdiction, was diminished by several important restrictions. Their authority expired with the year in which they were elected; the former office was divided between two, the latter among ten persons; and, as both in their private and public interest they were averse to each other, their mutual conflicts contributed, for the most part, to strengthen rather than to destroy the balance of the constitution. But when the consular and tribunitian powers were united, when they were vested for life in a single person, when the general of the army was, at the same time, the minister of the senate and the representative of the Roman people, it was impossible to resist the exercise, nor was it easy to define the limits, of his Imperial prerogative.

To these accumulated honours, the policy of Augustus soon added the splendid as well as important dignities of supreme pontiff, and of censor. By the former he acquired the management of the religion, and by the latter a legal inspection over the manners and fortunes, of the Roman people. If so many distinct and independent powers did not exactly unite with each other, the complaisance of the senate was prepared to supply every deficiency by the most ample and extraordinary concessions. The emperors, as the first ministers of the republic, were exempted from the obligation and penalty of many inconvenient laws: they were authorized to convoke the senate, to make several motions in the same day, to recommend candidates, for the honours of the state, to enlarge the bounds of the city, to employ the revenue at their discretion, to declare peace and war, to ratify treaties; and by a most comprehensive clause, they were empowered to execute whatsoever they should judge advantageous to the empire, and agreeable to the majesty of things private or public, human or divine.

To resume, in a few words, the system of the imperial government, as it was instituted by Augustus, and maintained by those princes who understood their own interest and that of the people, it may be defined an absolute monarchy disguised by the forms of a commonwealth. The masters of the Roman world surrounded their throne with darkness, concealed their irresistible strength, and humbly professed themselves the unaccountable ministers of the senate, whose supreme decrees they dictated and obeyed.

The history of ROMAN LITERATURE, as it existed under the republic, may be comprised in a short compass. To Dunlop's history, we refer for full particulars, and shall content ourselves with introducing from a very good analysis of that work, contained in the Edinburgh Review, the more important heads of the subject. The earliest specimen of Latin in existence, is, it appears, an old song, or carmen, used by the priests at sacrifices. This remarkable monument of antiquity which had been inscribed on a stone in the time of the Emperor Heliogabalus, was discovered on opening the foundations of the sacristy of St. Peter's, in the year 1778 and is as follows:

Enos Lases juvate,
Neve luerve Marmar sins incurrer ein pleores.
Satur fufere Mars; limen sali sta Berber.
Semunes alternei advocapit conctos.
Enos Marmor juvato,
Triumpe! Triumpe!

The words are interpreted thus: "Nos, Lares, juvate, neve luem (anciently luerem), Mamers, sinas, incurrare in flores. Satur fueris, Mars: pestem (λυμον) maris siste, Mars. Semones alterni advocate cunctos. Nos, Mamuri, juvato. Triumphe! Triumphe!"—This hymn, the preface to which (Sacerdotes januis clusis, acceptis libellis, tripodaverunt in verba hœc: Enos, &c.) alludes to the dances that accompanied it, was probably somewhat modernized by the artist who engraved it on the stone upon which it was found,

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as it is considerably less barbarous than some of the fragments of the laws of Nuna and Servius Tullius, preserved by Festus, and wants several of the characteristics by which they are distinguished. As the oldest monument extant of the Latin language, it is nevertheless curious and interesting, particularly from the number of words, in so brief a composition, which are obviously of Greek original. In the second line we have *ein*, which is clearly the Greek preposition εν; in the third limen from λυμη, the same as λοιμος, pestis,—*sali*, *sal*, by metathesis, from αλς,—sta, from ιστημι,—and *Berber* analagous to the Lacedæmonian *Herher*, derived from 'Αρης, Mars. The reader will also remark the use of the letter *s* where *r* was afterwards employed, as *Lases* for *Lares*; a peculiarity which remains in almost all the monuments of a posterior date, down to the time of Appius Claudius Cæcus; and he will no doubt be struck with the regularity of the verbs, *juvate* and juvato, as contrasted with *advocapit* for *advocate*, or *jam duo capit*, as Herman has rendered it.

The remains of the ancient laws, and particularly the Decemviral constitutions which we have already given, exhibit a number of archaisms, eminently deserving of notice from the incidental light they reflect on some of the more recondite analogies of the language, and from their furnishing us with the means of comparing and estimating the nature and extent of the changes afterwards introduced. In some respects, indeed, the diction of these ancient laws possesses a richness of intonation, not to be found in the Latin of a more modern and polished age. This arises from the frequent use of diphthongs, which were afterwards resolved, the subjunctive, or prepositive letter being dropped at the pleasure of the writer. Thus *omneis ceiveis* became, optionally, either *omnes eives*, or *omnis eivis*. Horace, in his courtly epistle to Augustus, ridicules the people for their attachment to the Laws of the Twelve Tables, which, he says, they were ready to swear had been dictated by the muses from the Alban mount; but it is impossible to read the sonorous and majestic lines of Lucretius, the nearest approach which Latin has made to the lofty cadence and deep-toned rythm of the Greek, without a feeling of regret that the Doric music of the ancient language should have been sacrificed to the caprice of an age of fastidious refinement.

But after making due allowance for all these distinguishing peculiarities, of which Lucretius alone knew how to take advantage, it cannot be denied, that, at this period, the language was full of anomalies, extremely perplexing to us who have no other guide to its interpretation but analogy, and which it was reserved for the illustrious writers who succeeded in a great measure to remove. The chief of these consisted in the irregularity and uncertainty of the tenses of the verb, which in these older monuments, appear to follow no general law, though afterwards reduced, we know not how, to a system of so much perfection. So prevalent is this anomaly, that the meaning must be almost invariably determined from the position of the tense, in relation to other words of the clause or sentence, and not from its form. The same observation does not apply to the flexions of nouns, which are generally more regular, though it seems impossible to account for the letter *d* being affixed, in a great variety of instances, to such cases as end with a vowel; thus *parieidad*, *plebed*, *frauded*; more especially as the same thing frequently occurs in the imperative active verbs—*datod*, *removetod*, *sumitod*, *estod*, for example. *Quips* for *quis*, is more easily explained, being a compound of *quei* and the original form *ipse*, which is probably a verbal derivative from επω, dico. *Endo*, for *in*, seems to be εν τω, and *im* is the regular accusative for *is*, as is evident from the adverb *interim*. The forms of the substantive verb, which is composed of the *debris* of three different verbs, are also deserving of careful examination by the scientific philologist: but we must leave these minute criticisms, and content ourselves with more general and cursory views of the progress of the language to the perfection and symmetry which in a latter age it was destined to attain. From the promulgation of the Decemviral Laws, till the time of Scipio Barbatus, who was consul in the 456th year of Rome, an interval of more than a century and a half, not a vestige of written monument has been preserved: the next specimen of the language that we meet with being the epitaph on the tomb-stone of this distinguished Roman, discovered so late as the year 1780. It is incribed on a plain but handsome sarcophagus, formed of the stone which the Italians call *peperino*, has no other ornaments but triglyphs, and is the oldest sepulchral monument to which an approximate date can be assigned. "Cornelius Lucius Scipio Barbatus, Graiuod patre prognatus, fortis vir sapiensque, quojus forma virtutei parisuma fuit. Consol Censor Aidilis quei fuit apud vos; Taurasia, Cisauna, Samnio cepit; subicit omne Loucana opsidesque abdoucit." War having been declared on the Lucanians in the year of Rome 464, it follows, that the date of this inscription must be posterior to that event.

About thirty years after the death of Scipio Barbatus, and during the first punic war, a pillar, afterwards so celebrated by the name of the *Columna Rostrata*, was erected to the consul C. Duillius Nepos, in commemoration of the great naval victory gained by him over the Carthaginians, and with an inscription engraved on the pedestal, setting forth the services of the successful commander. A short time before the breaking out of the third punic war, the shaft of this column was entirely demolished by lightning (tota ad imum fulmine discussa est); but the pedestal happily remained uninjured. In this dilapidated state it continued till about the reign of Claudius, when the inscription, which had been effaced, was repaired, or rather engraved anew, and the orthography probably retouched. We meet with no further notice of the *Columna Rostrata* till the year 1565, when the part of the pedestal containing the inscription was disinterred from among the ruins in the vicinity of the Capitol; but it had sustained so much injury, that many of the words were totally obliterated, and others so much effaced, as to be nearly, if not altogether, illegible. These by combining the conjectures of Lipsius, Giacconius, Gauges de Goze, and Funccius, Schœll has, we think, succeeded in restoring; but as our present object is to exhibit the state of the Latin language at the different epochs of which authentic memorials have been preserved, we shall content ourselves with transcribing, as specimens, a few of the words which have been completely deciphered. And here we remark, that in this interesting monument (in the parts of it which are confessedly antique) we discover nearly all the peculiarities which we had occasion to notice, when speaking of the laws of the Twelve Tables. Thus, we have *exemet*, *cepet*, *ornavet*, for exemit, cepit, ornavit; *puenandod*, *marid*, *dictatored*, for pugnando, mari, dictatore; *Cartacinienseis*, *lecioneis*, for Carthageniensis, legiones; *exfociont*, for effugiunt; *navebos* for navibus; *olorum* for illorum; *Poenieas* for Punicas; *sumas*, *numei*, *clase*, for summas, nummi, classe; *capitom*, *captom*, *poplom*, for capitum, captum, populum, &c. Hence it appears, that the short *e* still continued in use for the short *i*; the short *o* for the short *u*; the diphthong *ei* for the long *i*; and the diphthong *oe* for the long *u*; that in ablatives of the first, second and third declensions, the terminal *d* was retained; that double letters had not yet been introduced; but that, by the comparative regularity observed in the flexions of nouns and verbs, a considerable improvement had taken place in the general structure of the language.

We have now arrived at the period when the Latin language passed, as it were, *per saltum*, from the rude and fluctuating state of a mere spoken dialect, in which it had so long continued, and assumed the character and consistency of a written language; and when purified from the barbarisms by which it had hitherto been disfigured, and refined by its application to the works of genius supplied by a foreign, but kindred literature, it acquired that severe majesty and lofty rythm, which harmonize so perfectly with the Roman

Roman character. To what cause are we to ascribe an improvement so sudden, a revolution so extraordinary? The answer is evident—to the conquest of Magna Græcia, and the intercourse opened to the Romans with the Greek colonies of Sicily. In the article ITALY, we have shown, that from the earliest times, the different Hellenic tribes discharged their redundant population on Italy. At a later period, this determination led to the establishment of regular settlements in the southern parts of the peninsula, particularly on the coast which sweeps around the gulf of Tarentum. Most of these colonies date from the century in which Rome was founded; and one (Cumæ), was still more ancient. Importing along with them the manners and institutions of the parent country, and retaining in the fine congenial climate of southern Italy, all the vigour and elasticity of the Greek character, they soon made rapid advances in wealth and power, and attained great eminence in science, literature, and philosophy. Crotona was immortalized by the presence and instruction of Pythagoras, to whom it is believed, the true or Copernican system of the world was known. Herodotus, the father of history, and Lysias, whose orations are models of attic simplicity and elegance, were, in early youth, among the original founders of the colony of Thurium, which rose on the ruins of the voluptuous Sybaris. The eclectic school of philosophy, the parent of so much genius and virtue, was founded in Magna Græcia. Archytas of Tarentum, the friend and disciple of Plato, was distinguished for his attainments in the sciences which treat of number and quantity, as well as for mechanical inventions. History and poetry were cultivated with an ardour and success worthy of the Grecian name. Lycus of Rhegium was the civil, and Glaucus of the same city, the literary historian of Magna Græcia. Orpheus of Crotona wrote a poem on the Argonautic expedition; Ibicus of Rhegium was celebrated for his lyric productions; and the titles of two hundred and fifty comedies written by Alexis of Thurium, and said to have been composed in the happiest vein of the middle comedy of the Greeks, have been collected by the industry of Meursius. Locri produced a celebrated legislator, Zaleucas, whose laws continued in force for two centuries. But their progress in luxury was at least equal to their advances in literature and refinement. Luxury, which, in great states, is merely symptomatic of the general diffusion of wealth, and at once the effect and cause of prosperity, is, in small states, an undoubted index of decay and ruin. *Hinc patria proditiones, hinc rerum publicarum eversiones, hinc cum hostibus clandestina colloquia nasci; nullum denique scelus, nullum malum facinus esse, ad quod suscipiendum non libido voluptatis impellerit.* Involved in a contest with the Romans, in which they were aided by the genius and military talents of Pyrrhus, they found means to protract the struggle, till at length in the year of Rome 482, the capture of Tarentum decided the fate of Magna Græcia, of which the Romans now became masters. Many of the victors remained in the conquered provinces, while, on the other hand, such of its inhabitants as were most remarkable for their genius or literary acquirements repaired to Rome, where they fixed their residence. Seven years after this event the first punic war broke out, and Sicily, as is well known, became the scene of the great struggle between Carthage and Rome. None of the Greek colonies had risen to a greater pitch of splendour than Syracuse, a city founded by the Dorians of Corinth in the 19th year of Rome. This capital had reached the zenith both of political and literary renown, more than a century before the first Carthaginian war, on the termination of which in 572 part of Sicily was ceded to the Romans. But the troubles which broke out on the death of Hiero II., the zealous and stedfast ally of the Romans, involved the Syracusians in a war with that people, which cost them their liberty, in the year of Rome, 541. The name of Archimedes alone—a name which, in the history of science, is entitled to take its place next to Newton himself—would have immortalized Syracuse, while the existence of such a man proves the estimation in which science was held, and the zeal with which it was cultivated. Lucretius has pronounced the panegyric of Empedocles of Agrigentum. Epicharmus, the founder of the regular drama in Sicily, supplied Plautus with models which he thought worthy of imitation; while the pastoral poetry of Theocritus remains to attest the progress which had been made in that species of writing. So great, indeed, was the estimation in which learning was held, that even the great Dionysius was a patron and a competitor in the paths of literature.

The vivifying influence of the conquest of Greece on the Roman literature, was strikingly manifested in the almost immediate change which took place in the language. Let the following passage, the longest we possess in connection, and forming part of a hymn to Diana, recited by the chorus in the tragedy of *Ino* (one of the plays of Livius Andronicus), be compared with the latest of the inscriptional fragments we have submitted to the reader; and let it be also remembered, that between the conquest of Magna Græcia, of which Livius was a native, and the representation of the drama of which it formed a portion, less than forty years intervened.

> "Et jam purpureo suras include cothurno,
> Baltheus et revocet volucres in pectore sinus;
> Pressaque jam graveda crepitent tibi terga pharetra;
> Dirige *odorisequos* ad cæca cubilia canes."

Absolutely considered, the merit of these lines is not great; compared with the *carmina incondita* of the previous age, it is perfectly prodigious, and indicative of a rapidity of improvement without parallel in the history of language.

Nævius, a native of Campania, succeeded Livius, whom he closely imitated in his tragedies; but he was less celebrated for his tragic than his comic productions, which must have possessed considerable originality, as they appear to have lashed, with unsparing severity, the vices and follies of the great men of Rome. Judging from the scanty fragments of his plays which have reached our time, it does not appear that he, in any degree, surpassed his predecessor in poetical talent, or in the art of versification. It was reserved for Ennius, whom the Latin writers have therefore, by common consent, pronounced the Father of Roman Song, to exhibit a higher degree of the former, and a vast improvement in the latter. This illustrious person was a native of Magna Græcia, being born at Rudiæ, near Tarentum, in the year of Rome 515, that is a year after the representation of the first piece of Livius Andronicus. Like Æschylus, the great father of the Grecian stage, he was a soldier before he became an author. We are informed, by Silius Italicus, that he served as a centurion in the Calabrian levies, which, in the year 538, accompanied Titus Manlius to the war waged in Sardinia against the abettors of the Carthaginian cause. Here he became acquainted with Cato, the Censor, whom he is said to have instructed in Greek, and by whom he was brought to Rome, in the year 550, where he found employment and means of subsistence, in teaching the young patricians the glorious language of his native country, and contributed greatly to diffuse among the upper classes, a taste for literature. Hence, without entering into any minute criticism, it must be evident to all who are conversant with the history of Roman literature, that in the hands of Ennius, the language began to assume its destinctive and peculiar character; that he was the first who developed the power and harmony of the noble hexameter, or heroic line, so happily adapted to the genius of the language; and that, though in general, little more than a mere translator or imitator, he had the art and skill to infuse into his translations and imitations, much of the native force and spirit of the great originals from whom he borrowed.

That well known period in the history of literature called the AUGUSTAN age, may be said to extend from the death of Sylla to that of Augustus. In the articles POETRY AND ORATORY, we have already given such full accounts of the

 authors

authors who adorned this epoch, that any further details in this place must necessarily be repetitions. We may remark, however, than in no other department of knowledge than the two just mentioned did the Romans make any important progress. In regard to philosophy at least, their pretensions cannot be ranked very high. Of physical science they were altogether destitute. And of their most celebrated writings, or what they dignified with the name of Moral Philosophy—those, for example, of Cicero—besides that they were only transfusions from the Greek, we should hardly, in the present day, allow that they were of the nature of science or philosophy at all. Though moral precepts are enforced with persuasive elegance, and practical questions of morals discussed in our Spectators and Ramblers, we are not accustomed to rank these popular productions among our works of philosophy. But, unless where he enters upon the trite and puerile questions,—whether the *summum bonum* consists in pleasure, or in the absence of pain,—whether it consists in virtue along with riches and pleasure, or in virtue alone;—or where he undertakes to prove that all opinions are doubtful, and that, with regard to the human mind, there is no such thing as truth or falsehood, frivolities which still less deserve the name of philosophy, and are of kin to those with which the human mind is uniformly caught in the infancy of civilization,—the writings of Cicero certainly ought not to be considered as of a higher cast than the serious papers in the Spectator, or the moral sermons of Blair.

From the time of Augustus, it is universally allowed that literature, among the Romans, degenerated and declined. The causes of this, present an object of inquiry to which great attention has been called, and from which the most important practical conclusions may be deduced. The great change which had taken place in the condition of the Romans, was the loss of liberty; and although their rude and ill constructed republic was a most imperfect instrument of government, the difference in the state of the human mind, under a free and a despotic constitution, was prodigious. It is one of the most decisive experiments which has ever been made upon human nature; and upon the circumstances on which its degradation or its excellence really depend. The disadvantages under which the Romans laboured from the defective construction of their republican government, nourished in them many vices, and retarded their progress in improvement. But the despotism to which they afterwards submitted, speedily eradicated from their minds every amiable and respectable quality, and reduced them to almost the lowest, and most disgusting condition of human nature. Without this great experiment, it might have been deemed impossible, that a people who had once attained a high degree of civilization, could, without any external calamity, and merely by the vices of their government, sink back to a condition in many respects inferior to that of the barbarian; a condition which, had it been described to us without any intimation of their former state, we should have regarded as one of the first removes from the savage life; displaying the ignorance, the falsehood, the sordid misery of the savage, without his manliness and constancy. The most instructive circumstance by far in the history of the Greeks and Romans, and one of the most instructive which the annals of the human race present, is the contrast exhibited between the qualities which they displayed under an ill-regulated liberty, and the qualities engendered in them by despotism.

Few words will here be sufficient for describing the decline and fall of literature under the horrid system of misrule to which the Roman world became subject, after the loss of the republican government. According to the natural order of things, the astonishing success which attended the literary efforts of the Augustan writers, ought to have excited the flame of ambition, and multiplied the candidates for fame. But the calamities of the times, calamities produced by the government alone, repressed the generous impulse; and notwithstanding the improved state of education, and the taste for reading and for literary pursuits which the Augustan age must have produced, the succeeding generations passed away with little addition to the stores of literature. The satires of Juvenal, and the historical writings of Tacitus, are perhaps the only productions which display any vigour of genius, or of thought, subsequent to the age of Horace and Livy. A sort of mental torpor seems to have come upon the human race; every motive for exertion died away; and men took refuge in stupidity and indifference from the evils of the oppression which they had not manliness to shake off.

It is curious enough, that even poetry, which seems more ready to flourish under unfavourable circumstances than any other branch of literature, gradually disappeared under the second barbarity of Roman despotism, and left nothing behind excepting some chronicles, for the most part contemptible, of passing events. Towards the latter period of the existence of Rome, her literature presented only tedious treatises on metaphysical theology, or conpilations and reflexions on law; the former class deservedly forgotten; the latter as deservedly memorable.

III. THE ROMAN EMPIRE.

The first war which engaged the attention of the Roman emperor, was that against the Cantabrians and Asturians, two Spanish nations, who had never yet yielded to the Roman power. In that war, the Romans met with a formidable resistance, and it was with great difficulty that they succeeded in subjugating these warlike nations.

The reputation of Augustus, not only as a warrior, but as a legislator and statesman, had extended to the remotest kingdoms. Phrahates, king of Parthia, offered to enter into a treaty with him on his own terms; and Porus, king of India, sent to him three ambassadors, intrusted with a letter in the Greek language, informing him that he held dominion over 600 kings, and that he valued so highly the friendship of Augustus, that he would meet him at any place he should appoint, and would assist him in any right cause. Of these three ambassadors, two died on the journey; the third, who was a Gymnosophist, and named Zarmar, met Augustus at Samos, and accompanying him to Athens, he there burnt himself in his presence.

The Roman empire had now extended itself far beyond those limits which nature had assigned it. Rome, venerable from its antiquity, distinguished by its literature, by its arts, and by its arms, was indeed a powerful centre, capable of holding together, and of drawing into its vortex the most distant and scattered elements; but the equilibrium which it enjoyed was one of tottering stability, which one impulse might disturb, and which one irruption might for ever destroy. That stable poise which tends to right itself when it is disturbed, and which can arise only in a state consolidated by common interests, and held together by the framework of equal laws, was unknown to Rome in her best days, and has perhaps been witnessed only as a phenomenon of modern legislation. The wide spread dominions of the Romans embraced many heterogeneous elements. Bounded by states little raised above savage life, frequent incursions were made into its remote provinces; and encouraged by success, the Germans in the north of Europe made a formidable irruption into Gaul. Though at first repulsed with loss, yet they had set the example of disobedience; and the Rhæti, who lived near the Lake of Constance, entered Italy, laying waste every territory through which they passed, and putting man, woman, and child to the sword. Drusus, the second son of the empress Livia, was sent out against the invaders, and gained a complete victory over them; and the remnant of that army having been joined by the Vindelici and Norici, were reduced by Tiberius, Drusus's elder brother, and yielded to the Roman power. In order to maintain these tribes in subjection, Augustus established two colonies in Vindelici, and constructed a road from thence into Noricum and Rhætia. For the defence of these colonies he built two cities, *Drysomagus* and *Augusta Vindelicorum*, now Nimeguen and Augsburg.

Augustus was now raised to the spiritual honour of Pontifex

TIBERIUS CÆSAR.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1826.

tifex Maximus; an office which was filled by all his successors; and in this new capacity he improved the calendar, and burned 2000 pontifical books, reserving only those of the Sybilline oracles.

Agrippa, who, since the elevation of Augustus, had held the important situation of governor of Rome, died of a violent fever in Campania, and was succeeded in the government of Rome by Tiberius. Augustus, however, commanded him to divorce his wife Agrippina, and to marry Julia, the wife of Agrippa, and the daughter of the emperor, whose abandoned conduct had been kept a secret only from her father.

Although Agrippa had subdued the Pannonians, yet the news of his death had inclined them to shake off the Roman yoke, and Tiberius and Drusus were sent to subdue them. After having achieved several brilliant victories in Germany, Drusus was carried off by a violent fever; and Tiberius, after reducing the Pannonians, succeeded to the chief command in Germany, where he obtained several victories which restored the general tranquillity. On his return to Rome, Tiberius received the honour of a triumph, and was appointed to the tribuneship for five years; but disgusted probably by the debaucheries of his wife Julia, or offended at the honours and titles which Augustus had conferred on his grand-children, he asked leave to quit Rome, and retired to Rhodes. Notwithstanding the remonstrance of his mother Livia, and the positive refusal of Augustus to comply with his request, Tiberius persisted in his resolution, and, confining himself to his apartment, he refused for whole days to take any food. Augustus finding it without avail to resist so implacable a temper, permitted him to retire to Rhodes. Tiberius, however, soon repented of the rashness of this scheme, and requested leave to return to Rome; but Augustus compelled him to remain at Rhodes for seven years; and though Livia obtained for him the appointment of the emperor's lieutenant in these countries, yet Tiberius during the whole of his stay at Rhodes appeared only in the character of a private individual.

A peace, profound in its character, and universal in its extent, now reigned throughout the known world. The temple of Janus itself was shut, the signal of peace and tranquillity, with the sight of which Rome had never once been blessed since the days of Numa Pompilius. At this moment of general happiness, the Saviour of the world was born in Judea, 753 years after the foundation of Rome. About three years after this event Tiberius was permitted to return to Rome, but was not allowed to hold any public situation. The death, however, of Lucius and Caius Cæsar, the two grandsons of Augustus, on whom he had conferred the title of princes of the Roman youth, opened to Tiberius the prospect of being one day the sovereign of Rome. Although it was suspected that Livia had carried them off by poison, yet Tiberius had shown such unaffected sorrow at their death, that Augustus adopted him as his son.

A second irruption of the barbarous hordes of the north again disturbed the empire. Three legions and six cohorts, under Quintilius Varus, were almost entirely cut to pieces in Germany by Arminius, a brave but crafty general; and, when Varus saw that every thing was lost, he and several of his officers put themselves to death. His head was afterwards sent by the insurgent general to Augustus, who was almost driven frantic by the defeat. He allowed his hair and his beard to grow for many months; he tore his garments, and in fits of distraction, he beat his head against the wall, exclaiming, Oh! Varus, restore me my legions.

To retrieve this disaster, Tiberius was sent into Germany, where he performed many brilliant exploits; upon which he was honoured with a triumph by the Romans, and by Augustus with his friendship. Tiberius was now assumed by Augustus as his colleague, and having sent Germanicus against the northern hordes, Augustus accompanied Tiberius during a part of his journey; but having been taken ill at Pola in Campania, he died in the 76th year of his age, and 56th of his power, having held the sovereign authority for 44 years.

We have seen that the downfall of the Roman republic was effected by the attacks of those commanders who ruled with fearful sway a lawless and mercenary soldiery. The same disastrous genius infested nearly every period of the duration of the empire. The authority of the senate and the people being annihilated, and the regal succession not being settled on the plain and evident, though absurd qualification of birth, the army continually intruded their rude and ignorant favourites into the palace, and supported and deserted them by turns as their whimsical caprices, or sordid interests, dictated. Hence the major part of the history of the Roman empire is a detail of almost incredible vices. We can, however, scarcely attach entire faith to all that is recorded of the Roman emperors. We must rather consider the useless crimes of which they are accused as the productions of popular rumours, gladly seized on by partial historians who had, in a country where all free discussion was denied, no opportunity of gaining any other, or correcter, evidence.

TIBERIUS CÆSAR ascended the vacant throne of Augustus. The latter had nominated him his successor, and left him a large part of his fortune. It has been suspected that he was on the point of retracting these legacies in favour of his grandson, but some poisoned figs administered by the hand of Livia secured Tiberius from this destruction of his hopes.

Tiberius began his reign by acts of cruelty and deceit. After causing Agrippa Posthumius to be murdered by a military tribune, he affected to hesitate about the acceptance of the supreme power. The two consuls, however, having first reluctantly taken the oath of fidelity to him as emperor, administered it to the senate, the people, and the soldiers; yet notwithstanding all this eagerness in his service, Tiberius declared that he would only hold the empire till the conscript fathers should, in their great wisdom, think proper to give repose to his old age.

The festivities and consequent relaxation of discipline in which the Roman armies were permitted to indulge on the accession of Tiberius, gave rise to two revolts of a most alarming nature. Percennius, a common soldier, and known in Rome as the ringleader of hissing parties in the theatre, had excited his fellow soldiers by inflammatory speeches. Tiberius himself wrote to the insurgents; but finding his remonstrances unavailing, he sent his son Drusus to try the influence of persuasion and of force. The insurgents, however, massacred several of their officers; and it was only by the effect of an eclipse of the moon on their superstitious feelings that they were brought to submission. Drusus availed himself of this favourable incident, and having condemned and executed some of the ringleaders, the mutiny was completely subdued with the timely aid of some violent storms which had alarmed their fears.

The revolt which took place in Germany almost at the same time, and from the same causes, assumed a more inveterate character. When the insurgents had gone so far as to drown several of the centurions in the Rhine, Germanicus hastened from Gaul to restore subordination. Unable, however, to effect any change, he thought it prudent to send home his wife Agrippina, who was then pregnant, along with her infant son Claudius.

No sooner was Agrippina seen, with her infant in her arms, preparing to seek for refuge from the treachery of Roman soldiers, than an impression was made on the feelings of the insurgents which no arguments could have produced. Some of them now ran to prevent her from quitting the army, while others went to Germanicus and entreated him to recal his wife. Having seized and massacred their own ringleaders, all the legions except two returned to their allegiance. Cæcina, who commanded these two legions, having misunderstood a message from Germanicus, called out those who had not joined the insurgents, and led them to the massacre, of the disaffected. Germanicus was distressed at this piece of cruelty, and endeavoured to obviate its effects by performing every mark of respect to the dead bodies.

Having thus brought his army to a proper sense of their duty,

duty, Germanicus erected a bridge over the Rhine, and marched across with 12,000 legionaries, 26 cohorts of allies, and about 2400 cavalry. There he fell in with the Marsi, and surprising them in the midst of a festivity and debauch, he slaughtered the whole army, and laid waste the country for fifty miles round with fire and sword. He next entered the country of the Cotti, and having, after some resistance, burnt their villages and towns, he destroyed their capital and returned to the Rhine.

Germanicus was now called to oppose the army of Arminius, who had cut to pieces the Romans under Varus. Having marched against them while besieging Segestes, an ally of the Romans, he routed their forces, and took many prisoners, among whom was Thusneldis, the wife of Arminius, whom he had carried off against the will of her father Segestes. Enraged at the loss of one to whom he was deeply attached, Arminius arrayed all the neighbouring kingdoms against the Romans. In this war various battles were fought, in which both parties were successful by turns. But the Romans had gained so few advantages, that they retired into winter quarters.

In his next expedition, for which he had made vast preparations, Germanicus was more successful. He marched against Arminius, who was encamped on the opposite bank of the Weser; and who had resolved to dispute the passage of the river. Cariovalda, the leader of the Batavian auxiliaries, crossed the river, and was slain in an ambuscade, which had been laid for him by the enemy. Stertinius and Æmilius, having hastened to the assistance of the Batavians, Germanicus in the mean time passed the river, and defeated the Germans with such slaughter, that the country for ten miles round was covered with arms and with dead bodies. After another victory, Germanicus put an end to the campaign. He sent some of his legions into winter quarters by land, while he embarked with the rest in order to return by sea; but a violent storm arising, his fleet, of a thousand vessels, was dispersed in all directions. Some of them were swallowed up in the ocean, others were dashed against the rocks, while many were driven to distant and barren shores, where the men either died of hunger, or protracted a miserable existence, by feeding on the flesh of the dead horses which had been thrown overboard, to lighten the sinking vessels. Many of the troops, however, were saved, and a considerable number of the ships recovered; those who had been driven on the coast of Britain having been generously sent back. After several other successful expeditions against the Germans, Germanicus was recalled by Tiberius. He was afterwards appointed along with Piso to the government of Syria, but he died of poison, which was supposed to have been administered to him by his colleague. Tiberius punished Piso with death, but it is said that the act for which it was inflicted relieved him from a rival whom he feared.

Tiberius now threw off the mask which the dread of Germanicus seems to have compelled him to wear. He diminished the authority of the senate, as well as the liberties of the people. He assumed to himself even the right of interpreting and of enforcing the laws. In this state of affairs, Sejanus, by birth a Volscian, but possessed of the rank of a Roman knight, had insinuated himself into the confidence of Tiberius. He made him captain of the prætorian guards; and no sooner did Sejanus find himself in this situation of power and influence than he began to aspire to the sovereignty. After debauching Livia, Drusus's wife, he prevailed upon her to remove her husband by slow poison. Finding it difficult to make any attempt on the children of Germanicus, both from the chastity of their mother, and the fidelity of their governors, he conceived the deep plan of removing Tiberius from the city, by which he might have more frequent opportunities of carrying on his designs. Tiberius's love of indolence and licentiousness of every kind led him to prefer a country life, remote from business and from observation. Sejanus artfully represented to him the dangers and troubles which might arise from the seditious temper of the Roman populace; and having already experienced the fatigues of attending the senate, the emperor retired into Campania, under the pretence of dedicating temples to Jupiter and Augustus. He varied his residence from one place to another; but he dwelt principally in the island of Capræa, on the coast of Campania, where he buried himself in the most unlawful and infamous pleasures. To his other vices he added those of gluttony and drunkenness; and the power of drinking off five bottles of wine at a sitting, was deemed a qualification for the prætorship. As he became more adandoned, he became more cruel and suspicious. Spies and informers were placed in every society; and this machinery was skilfully directed to his own purposes by Sejanus, who wrought upon the emperor's fears. The sons of Germanicus alone stood in the way of Sejanus's ambition. He contrived to render them obnoxious to the emperor by stories of their ambition; while he frightened them in return by reports of cruelties which were intended against them. He succeeded at last in getting the two princes, Nero and Drusus, declared enemies to the state, and afterwards starved to death in a prison. From that hour the rise of this favourite was unexampled. He enjoyed the entire confidence of Tiberius, and possessed omnipotent power over the senate. Statues without number were erected to him, crowds of idolaters offered incense at his shrine; and never was there a despot with more absolute authority, or more the object of dread, than Sejanus. The rapidity of his rise, and the elevation to which he had attained, seem to have been designed as a contrast to the precipitancy of his degradation, and the depth of his fall. He was at once accused of treason by Satrius Secundus, and the accusation was seconded by Antonia, the mother of Germanicus. Tiberius was satisfied of its truth; but, destitute of courage, he still pretended to entertain for him his usual respect. He even granted him new honours, and made him his colleague in the consulship; and while he commanded the senate to put him in prison, he ordered soldiers to guard him, and prepared ships to favour his escape. The senate, however, went beyond their orders, and consigned him to execution. He was now deserted by all. The people loaded him with insults and execrations, and after his execution, his body was dragged through the streets, and his whole family put to death.

This event seems to have roused in Tiberius a passion for executions. He filled the prisons with the supposed accomplices of Sejanus, and he ordered all the accused to be put to death without examination. Out of twenty senators whom he elected as his council, he put to death sixteen; and he at last seems to have inflicted tortures and even death for his own amusement. While the tyrant was thus glutting himself with Roman blood, and feasting his eyes on the torments and agonies of his victims, the provinces of his empire were left under the protection of avaricious lieutenants, who were more intent upon the accumulation of wealth than anxious for the safety of the state. The barbarians harassed the provinces on all sides. The Dacians and Sarmatians seized upon Mœsia; the Germans desolated Gaul; and Armenia fell under the dominion of the King of Parthia. Though sunk in vice and pleasures, the monster yet seems to have been distressed at these encroachments upon his power; he named Caligula his successor, and retired to Misenum, where he one day fell into a succession of fainting fits, which all around him believed would prove fatal. His favourite Macro, looking for new honours, advised Caligula to secure the succession. The court congratulated Caligula, the prætorian soldiers acknowledged him, and the multitude had added their applause, when the unexpected recovery of Tiberius struck terror and alarm into all parties. Sorrow for the dying emperor again sat on every countenance. Caligula, expected to exchange an empire for a grave; when Macro again converted his mourning into joy by smothering the dying emperor with pillows, or, as others say, by cutting him off with poison. Thus was terminated the base career of Tiberius, in the 78th year of his age, and the 22d of his reign, A. D. 37.

In the 18th year of the reign of Tiberius, our Saviour suffered crucifixion under Pontius Pilate, the Roman governor of Jerusalem, who is said to have sent to Tiberius an account

CALIGULA CÆSAR.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1826.

count of his passion, resurrection, and miracles. The emperor, struck with the singularity of the statements, reported them to the senate, and desired that Christ should be ranked among the Gods of Rome. The senate, declined his request, and even ventured to command all Christians to leave the capital. Tiberius, however, is said to have issued another edict which threatened all who accused them with death, and thus permitted them to reside unmolested in Rome.

CALIGULA succeeded to the empire under auspices the most favourable. His father, Germanicus, had been adored by the army and the people, and he himself had been bred among soldiers, and had shared in their toils. The congratulations of the senate and of the people met him as he advanced to Rome, mourning over the dead body of Tiberius. Remote sovereigns courted his alliance, and the whole world seems to have given him the credit of every virtue.

The early conduct of Caligula did not belie these extravagant expectations. He revived the institutions of Augustus that Tiberius had ruined. He reformed abuses; he punished the corruption of governors; he banished the Spintriæ; and restored the election of magistrates by popular suffrage.

That such a character should at once change into a cruel and capricious tyrant, without any apparent motive, disposes us to place some confidence in the assertion, that a disorder which took place after his accession to power, had destroyed his intellects. Acts of individual cruelty were the first symptoms of his insanity. One Politus had loyally devoted himself to death if the emperor should recover, and another, Secundus, had vowed to fight in the amphitheatre on the same account. No sooner had the emperor recovered, than he compelled them both to fulfill their vows. Gemellus, who had been left by his grandfather Tiberius co-heir with Caligula, was ordered and compelled to put himself to death. Silenus, the emperor's father-in-law, was the next victim, and Gercinus, a senator of great probity, shared the same fate, for refusing to give false witness against Silenus. Among the numerous victims of his suspicion and avarice, was Macro, to whom Caligula was indebted for his sceptre.

The absurd vanities of Caligula are as astonishing as his cruelties. He ordered divine honours to be paid to him, and he assumed the names of such of the gods as were at the time most agreeable to him. He decapitated the statues of Jupiter and some of the other deities, and ordered his own head to be put upon their trunks. He seated himself between Castor and Pollux, and commanded their worshippers to pay their adoration to him; and he finally added their temple to his palace in the form of a portico, in order that the gods might become his porters.

He was not less notorious for the depravation of his appetites than for his ridiculous presumptions. There was scarcely a lady of any quality in Rome that escaped his lewdness; and, indeed, such was the degeneracy of the times, that there were few ladies who did not think this disgrace an honour. He committed incest with his three sisters, and at public feasts they lay with their heads upon his bosom by turns. Of these he prostituted Livia and Agrippina to his vile companions, and then banished them as adulteresses and conspirators against his person. As for Drusilla, he took her from her husband Longinus, and kept her as his wife. Her he loved so affectionately, that, being sick, he appointed her as heiress of his empire and fortune; and as she happened to die before him, he made her a goddess.

On one occasion, being present at the nuptials of Livia Orestilla with Piso, as soon as the solemnity was over, he commanded her to be brought to him as his own wife, and then dismissed her in a few days. He soon after banished her upon suspicion of cohabiting with her husband after she was parted from him. He was enamoured of Lollia Paulina, upon a bare relation of her grandmother's beauty; and thereupon took her from her husband, who commanded in Macedonia; notwithstanding which, he repudiated her as he had done the former, and likewise forbade her future marrying with any other. The wife who caught most firmly upon his affections was Milonia Cæsonia. She continued with him during his reign; and he loved her so ridiculously, that he sometimes showed her to his soldiers dressed in armour, and sometimes to his companions stark naked.

But of all his vices, his prodigality was the most remarkable, and that which in some measure gave rise to the rest. The luxuries of former emperors were simplicity itself, when compared to those which he practised. He contrived new ways of bathing, where the richest oils and most precious perfumes were exhausted with the utmost profusion. He found out dishes of immense value; and had even jewels, as we are told, dissolved among his sauces.

For several days together he flung considerable sums of money among the people. He ordered ships of a prodigious bulk to be built of cedar, the stems of ivory inlaid with gold and jewels, the sails and tackling of various silks. He caused an infinite number of ships to be fastened to each other, so as to make a floating-bridge from Baiæ to Puteoli, across an arm of the sea three miles and a half broad. The ships being placed in two rows, in form of a crescent, were secured to each other with anchors, chains, and cables. Over these were laid vast quantities of timber, and upon that earth, so as to make the whole resemble one of the streets of Rome. He next caused several houses to be built upon his new bridge, for the reception of himself and his attendants.

Expenses like these, it may be naturally supposed, must have exhausted the most unbounded wealth; in fact, after reigning about a year, Caligula found his revenues totally exhausted; and a fortune of about 18,000,000 of our money, which Tiberius had amassed together, entirely spent. Now, therefore, his prodigality put him upon new methods of supplying the exchequer; and as before his profusion, so now his rapacity became boundless. He put in practice all kinds of rapine and extortion; while his principal study seemed to be the inventing new imposts and illicit confiscations. Every thing was taxed, to the very wages of the meanest tradesman. He caused freemen to purchase their freedom a second time; and poisoned many who had named him for their heir, to have the immediate possession of their fortunes. He kept a gaming-house, in which he himself presided, scrupling none of the meanest tricks in order to advance his gains.

His insupportable and capricious cruelties produced many secret conspiracies against him; but these were for a while deferred, upon account of his intended expedition against the Germans and Britons, which he undertook in the third year of his reign. Instead of conquering Britain, he only gave refuge to one of its banished princes; and this he described in a letter to the senate, as taking possession of the whole island. Instead of conquering Germany, he only led his army to the sea shore in Batavia. There disposing his engines and warlike machines with great solemnity, and drawing up his men in order of battle, he went on board his galley, with which coasting along, he commanded his trumpets to sound, and the signal to be given as if for an engagement; upon which, his men having had previous orders, immediately fell to gathering the shells that lay upon the shore into their helmets, terming them the *spoils of the conquered ocean, worthy of the palace and the capitol.*

After numberless instances of folly and cruelty in this expedition, he entered the city with an ovation; while the senate passed the whole day in acclamations in his praise, and speeches filled with the most excessive flattery. On one occasion, Protogenes, who was one of the most intimate and the most cruel of Caligula's favourites, coming into the house, was fawned upon by the whole body of the senate, and particularly by Proculus. Whereupon Protogenes with a fierce look, asked how one who was such an enemy to the emperor could be such a friend to him? There needed no more to excite the senate against Proculus. They instantly seized upon him, and violently tore him in pieces.

The continuation of this horrid reign was cut short by Cassius Cherea, a tribune of the prætorian bands. This was

was a man of experienced courage, an ardent admirer of freedom, and consequently an enemy to tyrants. Besides the motives which he had in common with other men, he had received repeated insults from Caligula, who took all occasions of turning him into ridicule, and impeaching him of cowardice, merely because he had an effeminate voice. He therefore secretly imparted his designs to several senators and knights, whom he knew to have received personal injuries from Caligula, or to be apprehensive of those to come.

While these were deliberating upon the most certain and speedy method of destroying the tyrant, an unexpected incident gave new strength to the conspiracy. Pompedius, a senator of distinction, having been accused before the emperor, of having spoken of him with disrespect, the informer cited one Quintilia, an actress, to confirm his accusation. Quintilia, however, was possessed of a degree of fortitude not easily found. She denied the fact with obstinacy; and being put to the torture at the informer's request, she bore the severest torments of the rack with unshaken constancy. But what is most remarkable of her resolution is, that she was acquainted with all the particulars of the conspiracy; and although Cherea was appointed to preside at her torture, she revealed nothing: on the contrary, when she was led to the rack, she trod upon the toe of one of the conspirators, intimating at once her knowledge of the confederacy, and her own resolution not to divulge it. In this manner she suffered until all her limbs were dislocated; and in that deplorable state was presented to the emperor, who ordered her a gratuity for what she had suffered. Cherea could now no longer contain his indignation at being thus made the instrument of a tyrant's cruelty. He therefore proposed to the conspirators to attack him as he went to offer sacrifices in the capitol, or while he was employed in the secret pleasures of the palace. The rest, however, were of opinion, that it was best to fall upon him when he should be unattended; by which means they would be more certain of success. After several deliberations, it was at last resolved to attack him during the continuance of the Palatine games, which lasted four days; and, accordingly, Cherea, on the fourth day, stabbed him as he was going to the bath. With him, his wife and infant daughter also perished; the one being stabbed by a centurion, the other having its brains dashed out against the wall. His coin was also melted down by a decree of the senate; and such precautions were taken, that all seemed willing, that neither his features nor his name might be transmitted to posterity.

As soon as the death of Caligula was made public, it produced the greatest confusion in all parts of the city. The conspirators, who only aimed at destroying a tyrant without attending to a successor, had all sought safety by retiring to private places. In this interval of suspense, the German guards finding it a convenient time to pillage, gave a loose to their licentiousness, under a pretence of revenging the emperor's death. All the conspirators and senators that fell in their way received no mercy: Asprenas, Norbanus, and Anteius, were cut in pieces. However, they grew calm by degrees, and the senate was permitted to assemble, in order to deliberate upon what was necessary to be done in the present emergency.

In this deliberation, Saturninus, who was then consul, insisted much upon the benefits of liberty; and talked in raptures of Cherea's fortitude, alleging that it deserved the highest reward. This was a language highly pleasing to the senate. Liberty now became the favourite topic; and they even ventured to talk of extinguishing the very name of Cæsar. Impressed with this resolution, they brought over some cohorts of the city to their side, and boldly seized upon the capitol. But it was now too late for Rome to regain her pristine freedom; the populace and the army opposed their endeavours. The former were still mindful of their ancient hatred to the senate; and remembered the donations and public spectacles of the emperors with regret. The latter were sensible they could have no power but in a monarchy; and had some hopes that the election of the emperor would fall to their determination. In this opposition of interests, and variety of opinions, chance seemed at last to decide the fate of the empire. Some soldiers happening to run about the palace, discovered Claudius, Caligula's uncle, lurking in a secret place, where he had hid himself through fear. Of this personage, who had hitherto been despised for his imbecility, they resolved to make an emperor: and accordingly carried him upon their shoulders to the camp, where they proclaimed him at a time he expected nothing but death.

The senate perceiving that force alone could settle the succession, passed a decree, confirming him in the empire; and went soon after in a body, to render him their compulsive homage. Cherea was the first who fell a sacrifice to the jealousy of this new monarch. He met death with all the fortitude of an ancient Roman; desiring to die by the same sword with which he had killed Caligula. Lupus, his friend, was put to death with him; and Sabinus, one of the conspirators, laid violent hands on himself.

CLAUDIUS was 50 years old when he began to reign. The complicated diseases of his infancy had, in some measure, affected all the faculties both of his body and mind. Not that he was entirely destitute of understanding, since he had made a tolerable proficiency in the Greek and Latin languages, and even wrote a history of his own time; which, however destitute of other merit, was not contemptible in point of style. Nevertheless, with this share of erudition, he was unable to advance himself in the state, and seemed utterly neglected until he was placed all at once at the head of affairs. The commencement of his reign gave the most promising hopes of a happy continuance. He began by passing an act of oblivion for all former words and actions, and disannulled all the cruel edicts of Caligula. He forbade all persons, upon severe penalties, to sacrifice to him as they had done to Caligula; was assiduous in hearing and examining complaints, and frequently administered justice in person. He took a more than ordinary care that Rome should be continually supplied with corn and provisions, securing the merchants against pirates. He was not less assiduous in his buildings, in which he excelled almost all that went before him. He constructed a wonderful aqueduct, called after his own name, much surpassing any other in Rome, either for workmanship or plentiful supply. It brought water from 40 miles distance, through great mountains, and over deep valleys; being built on stately arches, and furnishing the highest parts of the city. He made also an haven at Ostia; a work of such immense expense, that his successors were unable to maintain it. But his greatest work of all was the draining of the lake Fucinus, which was the largest in Italy, and bringing its water into the Tiber, in order to strengthen the current of that river. For effecting this, among other vast difficulties, he mined through a mountain of stone three miles broad, and kept 30,000 men employed for 11 years together.

To this solicitude for the internal advantages of the state, he added that of a watchful guardianship over the provinces. He restored Judea to Herod Agrippa, which Caligula had taken from Herod Antipas, his uncle, the man who had put John the Baptist to death, and who was banished by order of the present emperor. Claudius also restored such princes to their kingdoms as had been unjustly dispossessed by his predecessors; but deprived the Lycians and Rhodians of their liberty, for having promoted insurrections, and crucified some citizens of Rome.

He even undertook to gratify the people by foreign conquest. The Britons, who had, for near 100 years, been left in sole possession of their own island, began to seek the mediation of Rome, to quell their intestine commotions. But for a particular account of the exploits of the Romans in this island, see the article ENGLAND.

But though Claudius gave, in the beginning of his reign, the highest hopes of a happy continuance, he soon began to lessen his care for the public, and to commit to his favou-

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CLAUDIUS CÆSAR.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis, 1826.

rites all the concerns of the empire. The chief of his directors was his wife Messalina: whose name became a common appellation to women of abandoned characters. She was not less remarkable for her cruelties than her lusts. Subordinate to her were the emperor's freedmen; Pallas, the treasurer; Narcissus, the secretary of state; and Callistus, the master of the requests. These entirely governed Claudius; so that he was only left the fatigues of ceremony, while they were possessed of all the power of the state.

It would be tedious to enumerate the various cruelties which these insidious advisers obliged the feeble emperor to commit: those against his own family will suffice. Appius Silanus, a person of great merit, who had been married to the emperor's mother-in-law, was put to death upon the suggestions of Messalina. After him he slew both his sons-in-law, Silanus and Pompey, and his two nieces the Livias, one the daughter of Drusus, the other of Germanicus; and all without permitting them to plead in their defence, or even without assigning any cause for his displeasure. Great numbers of others fell a sacrifice to the jealousy of Messalina and her minions; who bore so great a sway in the state, that all offices, dignities, and governments, were entirely at their disposal. Every thing was put to sale: they took money for pardons and penalties; and accumulated, by these means, such vast sums, that the wealth of Crœsus was considered as nothing in comparison. One day, the emperor complaining that his exchequer was exhausted, he was ludicrously told, that it might be sufficiently replenished if his two freedmen would take him into partnership. Still, however, during such corruption, he regarded his favourites with the highest esteem, and even solicited the senate to grant them peculiar marks of their approbation. These disorders in the ministers of government, did not fail to produce conspiracies against the emperor. Statius Corvinus and Gallus Asinius formed a conspiracy against him. Two knights, whose names have not been told, privately combined to assassinate him. But the revolt which gave him the greatest uneasiness, and which was punished with the most unrelenting severity, was that of Camillus, his lieutenant-general in Dalmatia. This general, incited by many of the principal men of Rome, openly rebelled against him, and assumed the title of *emperor*. But his fears upon this occasion were soon removed: for the legions which had declared for Camillus, being terrified by some prodigies, shortly after abandoned him. The cruelty of Messalina and her minions upon this occasion seemed to have no bounds. They so wrought upon the emperor's fears and suspicions, that numbers were executed without trial or proof; and scarce any, even of those who were but suspected, escaped, unless by ransoming their lives with their fortunes.

By such cruelties as these, the favourites of the emperor endeavoured to establish his and their own authority: but in order to increase the necessity of their assistance, they laboured to augment the greatness of his terrors. He now became a prey to jealousy and disquietude. Being one day in the temple, and finding a sword that was left there by accident, he convened the senate in a fright, and informed them of his danger. After this he never ventured to go to any feast without being surrounded by his guards, nor would he suffer any man to approach him without a previous search. Thus wholly employed by his anxiety for self-preservation, he entirely left the care of the state to his favourites, who by degrees gave him a relish for slaughter. From this time he seemed delighted with inflicting tortures; and on a certain occasion continued a whole day at the city Tibur, waiting for a hangman from Rome, that he might feast his eyes with an execution in the manner of the ancients. Such was his extreme stupidity, that he would frequently invite those to supper whom he had put to death but the day before; and often denied having given orders for an execution, but a few hours after pronouncing sentence. Suetonius assures us, that there were no less than 35 senators, and above 300 knights, executed in his reign; and that such was his unconcern in the midst of slaughter, that one of the tribunes bringing him an account of a certain senator who was executed, he quite forgot his offence, but calmly acquiesced in his punishment.

Messalina, after appearing for some years insatiable in her desires, at length fixed her affections upon Caius Silius, the most beautiful youth in Rome. Her love for the young Roman seemed to amount even to madness. She obliged him to divorce his wife Junia Syllana, that she might entirely possess him herself. She made him accept of immense treasures and valuable presents; cohabiting with him in the most open manner, and treating him with the most shameless familiarity. The very imperial ornaments were transferred to his house; and the emperor's slaves and attendants had orders to wait upon the adulterer. Nothing was wanting to complete the insolence of their conduct, but their being married together; and relying upon the emperor's imbecility for their security, when he retired to Ostia, they celebrated their nuptials with all the ceremonies and splendor which attend the most confident security. It seems, that some time before, there had been a quarrel between Messalina and Narcissus, the emperor's first freedman. This subtle minister, therefore, desired nothing more than an opportunity of ruining the empress, and he judged this to be a most favourable occasion. He first made the discovery by means of two concubines who attended the emperor, who were instructed to inform him of Messalina's marriage as the news of the day, while Narcissus himself stepped in to confirm their information. Finding it operated upon the emperor's fears as he could wish, he resolved to alarm him still more by a discovery of all Messalina's projects and attempts. He aggravated the danger, and urged the expediency of speedily punishing the delinquents. Claudius hastened to Rome; Silius was executed in his presence, and Messalina dispatched by command of Narcissus, who feared her having an interview with the emperor. It is said, that this stupid despot was informed of her death in the midst of his banquet; but that he showed not the least appearance of emotion. He continued at table with his usual tranquillity; and the day following, while he was sitting at dinner, he asked why Messalina was absent.

Claudius being now a widower, declared publicly, that as he had hitherto been unfortunate in his marriages, he would remain single for the future, and that he would be contented to forfeit his life in case he broke his resolution. However the resolutions of Claudius were but of short continuance. He soon married Agrippina, the daughof his brother Germanicus. This woman was more practised in vice than even the former empress. Her cruelties were more dangerous, as they were directed with greater caution: she had poisoned her former husband, to be at liberty to attend the calls of ambition; and, perfectly acquainted with all the infirmities of Claudius, only made use of his power to advance her own. However, as the late declaration of Claudius seemed to be an obstacle to his marrying again, persons were suborned to move in the senate, that he should be compelled to take a wife, as a matter of great importance to the commonwealth; and some more determined flatterers than the rest left the house, as with a thorough resolution, that instant, to constrain him. However, such was the detestation in which the people in general held these incestuous matches, that though they were made lawful, only one of the tribunes, and one of the emperor's freedmen, followed his example.

Claudius having now received a new director, submitted with more implicit obedience than in any former part of his reign. Agrippina's chief aims were to gain the succession in favour of her own son Nero, and to set aside the claims of young Britannicus, son to the emperor and Messalina. For this purpose she married Nero to the emperor's daughter Octavia, a few days after her own marriage. Not long after this, she urged the emperor to strengthen the succession in imitation of his predecessors, by making a new adoption; and caused him to take in her son Nero, in some measure to divide the fatigues of government. Her next care was

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to increase her son's popularity, by giving him Seneca for a tutor.

In the 12th year of Claudius's reign, she persuaded him to restore liberty to the Rhodians, of which he had deprived them some years before; and to remit the taxes of the city of Ilium, as having been the progenitor of Rome. At length her imperious temper began to grow insupportable to him, and he was heard to declare, when heated with wine, that it was his fate to suffer the disorders of his wives, and to be their executioner. This expression sunk deep on her mind, and engaged all her faculties to prevent the blow. Her first care was to remove Narcissus, whom she hated upon many accounts, but particularly for his attachment to Claudius. This minister, for some time, opposed her designs; but at length thought fit to retire, by a voluntary exile, into Campania. The unhappy emperor, thus exposed to all the machinations of his insidious consort, seemed entirely regardless of the danger that threatened his destruction. His affection for Britannicus was perceived every day to increase, which served also to increase the vigilance and jealousy of Agrippina. She now, therefore, resolved not to defer a crime which she had meditated a long while before; namely, that of poisoning her husband. She for some time, however, debated with herself in what manner she should administer the poison; as she feared too strong a dose would discover her treachery, and one too weak might fail of its effects. At length she determined upon a poison of singular efficacy to destroy his intellects, and yet not suddenly to terminate his life. As she had been long conversant in this horrid practice, she applied to a woman called *Locusta*, notorious for assisting on such occasions. The poison was given to the emperor among mushrooms, a dish he was particularly fond of. Shortly after having eaten, he dropped down insensible; but this caused no alarm, as it was usual with him to sit eating till he had stupified all his faculties, and was obliged to be carried off to his bed from the table. However, his constitution seemed to overcome the effects of his potion, when Agrippina resolved to make sure of him: wherefore she directed a wretched physician, who was her creature, to thrust a poisoned feather down his throat, under pretence of making him vomit; and thus dispatched him.

The reign of this emperor, feeble and impotent as he was, produced no great calamities in the state, since his cruelties were chiefly levelled at those about his person. The list of the inhabitants of Rome at this time amounted to six millions eight hundred and forty-four thousand souls. The general character of the times was that of corruption and luxury: but the military spirit of Rome, though much reaxed from its former severity, still continued to awe mankind.

Claudius being destroyed, Agrippina took every precaution to conceal his death from the public, until she had settled her measures for securing the succession. A strong guard was placed at all the avenues of the palace, while she amused the people with various reports; at one time giving out that he was still alive; at another, that he was recovering. In the meanwhile, she made sure of the person of young Britannicus, under a pretence of affection for him. At last, when all things were adjusted, the palace gates were thrown open, and Nero, accompanied by Burrhus, prefect of the prætorian guards, issued forth to receive the congratulations of the people and the army. The cohorts then attending, proclaimed him with the loudest acclamations. He was carried in a chariot to the rest of the army; wherein having made a speech proper for the occasion, and promising them a donation, in the manner of his predecessors, he was declared emperor by the army, the senate, and the people.

NERO'S first care was, to show all possible respect to the deceased emperor, in order to cover the guilt of his death. His obsequies were performed with a pomp equal to that of Augustus; the young emperor pronounced his funeral oration, and he was canonized among the gods.

Nero, though but 17 years of age, began his reign with the general approbation of mankind. As he owed the empire to Agrippina, so in the beginning he submitted to her directions with the most implicit obedience. On her part, she seemed resolved on governing with her natural ferocity, and considered her private animosities as the only rule to guide her in public justice. Immediately after the death of Claudius, she caused Silanus, the pro-consul of Asia, to be assassinated upon very slight suspicions, and without even acquainting the emperor with her design. The next object of her resentment was Narcissus, the late emperor's favourite; a man equally notorious for the greatness of his wealth and the number of his crimes. He was obliged to put an end to his life by Agrippina's order, though Nero refused his consent.

This bloody onset would have been followed by many severities of the same nature, had not Seneca and Burrhus, the emperor's tutor and general, opposed. These worthy men, although they owed their rise to the empress, were above being the instruments of her cruelty. They, therefore, combined together in an opposition; and, gaining the young emperor on their side, formed a plan of power, at once the most merciful and wise. The beginning of this monarch's reign, while he continued to act by their counsels, has always been considered as a model for succeeding princes to govern by. The famous emperor Trajan used to say, "That for the first five years of this prince all other governments came short of his."

In the mean time, Agrippina, who was excluded from any share in government, attempted, by every possible method, to maintain her declining power. Perceiving that her son had fallen in love with a freed-woman, named *Acte*, and dreading the influence of a concubine, she tried every art to prevent his growing passion. However, in so corrupt a court, it was no difficult matter for the emperor to find other confidants. The gratification of his passion, therefore, in this instance, only served to increase his hatred for the empress. Nor was it long before he gave evident marks of his disobedience, by displacing Pallas her chief favourite. It was upon this occasion that she first perceived the total declension of her authority; which threw her into the most ungovernable fury. In order to give terror to her rage, she proclaimed that Britannicus, the real heir to the throne, was still living, and in a condition to receive his father's empire, which was now possessed by an usurper. She threatened to go to the camp, and there expose his baseness and her own, invoking all the furies to her assistance. These menaces served to alarm the suspicions of Nero; who, though apparently guided by his governors, yet had begun to give way to his natural depravity. He, therefore, determined upon the death of Britannicus, and contrived to have him poisoned at a public banquet. Agrippina, however, still retained her natural ferocity: she took every opportunity of obliging and flattering the tribunes and centurions. Whereupon Nero commanded her German guard to be taken from her, and obliged her to lodge out of the palace. He also forbade particular persons to visit her, and went himself but rarely and ceremoniously to pay her his respects. She now, therefore, began to find, that, with the emperor's favour, she had lost the assiduity of her friends. She was even accused by Silana of conspiring against her son, and of designing to marry Plautius, a person descended from Augustus, and making him emperor. A short time after, Pallas, her favourite, together with Burrhus, were arraigned for a similar offence, and intending to set up Cornelius Sylla. These informations being proved void of any foundation, the informers were banished; a punishment which was considered as very inadequate to the greatness of the offence.

As Nero increased in years, his crimes seemed to increase in equal proportion. He now began to find a pleasure in running about the city by night, disguised like a slave. In imitation of the emperor's example, numbers of profligate young men infested the streets likewise; so that every night the city was filled with tumult and disorder. However, the

NERO CLAUDIUS CÆSAR.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1826.

the people bore all these levities, which they ascribed to the emperor's youth, with patience, having occasion every day to experience his liberality, and having also been gratified by the abolition of many of their taxes. The provinces also were no way affected by these riots; for except disturbances on the side of the Parthians, which were soon suppressed, they enjoyed the most perfect tranquillity.

But those sensualities, which, for the first four years of his reign, produced but few disorders, in the fifth became alarming. He publicly abandoned Octavia, his present wife, and took possession of Poppea, the wife of his favourite Otho, a licentious woman. She began her arts by urging him to divorce his present wife, and marry herself: she reproached him as a pupil, who wanted not only power over others, but liberty to direct himself. She insinuated the dangerous designs of Agrippina; and, by degrees, worked on him to contemplate matricide without horror. His cruelties against his mother began rather by various circumstances of petty malice than by any downright injury. He encouraged several persons to tease her with litigious suits; and employed some of the meanest of the people to sing satirical songs under her windows: but, at last, he resolved on putting her to death. His first attempt was by poison; but this failing, a ship was contrived in so artificial a manner as to fall to pieces in the water; on board of which she was invited to sail to the coasts of Calabria. However, this plot was as ineffectual as the former. He therefore caused a report to be spread, that she had conspired against him, and that a poniard was dropped at his feet by one who pretended a command from Agrippina to assassinate him. In consequence of this, he applied to his governors Seneca and Burrhus, for their advice how to act, and their assistance in ridding him of his fears. Seneca kept a profound silence; but Burrhus, with more resolution, refused to be perpetrator of so great a crime; alleging, that the army was entirely devoted to all the descendants of Cæsar, and would never be brought to imbrue their hands in the blood of any of his family. In this embarrassment, Anicetus, the contriver of the ship abovementioned, offered his services, which Nero accepted, with the greatest joy, crying out, "That then was the first moment he ever found himself an emperor." This freedman, therefore, taking with him a body of soldiers, surrounded the house of Agrippina, and then forced open the doors. The executioners having dispatched her with several wounds, left her dead on the couch, and went to inform Nero of what they had done. Some historians say, that Nero came immediately to view the body; that he continued to gaze upon it with pleasure, and ended his horrid survey, by coolly observing, that he never thought his mother had been so handsome.—However this be, he vindicated his conduct next day to the senate; who not only excused, but applauded his impiety.

Nero now gave a loose to his appetites, that were not only sordid but inhuman. There seemed an odd contrast in his disposition; for while he practised cruelties which made mankind shudder with horror, he was fond of those amusing arts, music and poetry. But chariot-driving was his favourite pursuit. He never missed the circus, when chariot-races were to be exhibited there; till at last, he inclosed a space of ground in the valley of the Vatican, where he first exhibited only to some chosen spectators, but shortly after invited the whole town. The praises of his flattering subjects only stimulated him still more to these unbecoming pursuits; so that he now resolved to assume a new character, and to appear as a singer upon the stage.

His passion for music, as was observed, was no less natural to him than the former, but as it was less manly, so he endeavoured to defend it by the example of some of the most celebrated men, who practised it with the same fondness. He had been instructed in the principles of this art from his childhood; and upon his advancement to the empire, he had put himself under the most celebrated masters. He patiently submitted to their instructions, and used all those methods which singers practise, either to mend the voice, or improve its volubility. Yet, notwithstanding all his assiduity, his voice was but a wretched one, being both feeble and unpleasant. However, he was resolved to produce it to the public, such as it was; for flattery, he knew, would supply every deficiency. His first public appearance was at games of his own institution, called juveniles; where he advanced upon the stage, tuning his instrument to his voice with great appearance of skill. A group of tribunes and centurions attended behind him; while his old governor Burrhus stood by his pupil, with indignation in his countenance, and praises on his lips.

He was desirous also of becoming a poet. For this purpose, he got together several persons, who were considered as great wits at court, and who attended him with verses, and the whole of their compositions being tacked together, by his direction, was called a poem.

He was at length resolved to make the tour of his empire, and give the most public display of his abilities wherever he came. The place of his first exhibition, upon leaving Rome, was Naples. His flatterers say that the crowds were so great, and the curiosity of the people so earnest in hearing him, that they did not perceive an earthquake that happened while he was singing. His desire of gaining the superiority over the other actors was truly ridiculous: he made interest with his judges, reviled his competitors, and formed private factions to support him. While he continued to perform, no man was permitted to depart from the theatre, upon any pretence whatsoever. An old senator, named *Vespasian*, afterwards emperor, happening to fall asleep upon one of these occasions, very narrowly escaped with his life.

After being fatigued with the praises of his countrymen, Nero resolved upon going over into Greece, to receive new theatrical honours. At the Olympic games he drove a chariot with 10 horses; but being unable to sustain the violence of the motion, he was driven from his seat. The spectators, however, gave their unanimous applause, and he was crowned as conqueror. In this manner he obtained the prize at the Isthmian, Pythian, and Nemean games. The Greeks were not sparing of their crowns; he obtained 1800 of them. An unfortunate singer happened to oppose him on one of these occasions, and exerted all the powers of his art, which, it appears, were prodigious. But he seems to have been a better singer than a politician; for Nero ordered him to be killed on the spot. These absurdities were for a time checked by a tremendous conflagration which broke out in Rome, during the emperor's absence, and destroyed nearly all the city, with its stately palaces, porticoes and temples, and, what was of far greater importance, many of the paintings, sculptures and writings of Greece.

Nero on this occasion seemed to have lost that barbarity which has been so pertinaciously attributed to him: he laid open for the distressed poor the field of Mars, and all the great edifices erected by Agrippa, and even his own gardens. He likewise caused tabernacles to be reared in haste for the reception of the forlorn populace; from Ostia, too, and the neighbouring cities, were brought, by his orders, all sorts of furniture and necessaries, and the price of corn was considerably lessened. But these bounties, however generous and popular, were bestowed in vain, because a report was spread abroad, that, during the time of this general conflagration, he mounted his domestic stage, and sung the destruction of Troy, comparing the present desolation to the celebrated calamities of antiquity; and a second conflagration breaking out in certain buildings belonging to Tigellinus, they were both ascribed to Nero; and it was conjectured, that, by destroying the old city, he aimed at the glory of building a new one, and calling it by his name. Of the fourteen quarters into which Rome was divided, four remained entire, three were laid in ashes, and, in the seven others, there remained here and there a few houses, miserably shattered, and half consumed. Among the many ancient and stately edifices which the rage of the flames utterly consumed, Tacitus reckons the temple dedicated by Servius Tullius; the temple and great altar consecrated by Evander to Hercules; the chapel

chapel vowed by Romulus to Jupiter Stator; the court of Numa, with the temple of Vesta, and in it the tutelar gods peculiar to the Romans.

Upon the ruins of the demolished city, Nero founded a palace, which he called his golden house; though it was not so much admired on account of an immense profusion of gold, precious stones, and other ornaments, as for its vast extent, containing fields, wildernesses, artificial lakes, orchards, vineyards, &c. The entrance of this stately edifice was wide enough to receive a colossus, representing Nero, 120 feet high: the galleries, which consisted of three rows of tall pillars, were each a full mile in length. The house, itself, historians say, was tiled with gold, and the walls were covered with the same metal, (by which they probably mean that it was gilt.) Pliny tells us, that this palace extended quite round the city. Nero, it seems, did not finish it; for the first order Otho signed was, as we read in Suetonius, for fifty millions of sesterces to be employed in perfecting the golden palace which Nero had begun.

The projectors of the plan were Severus and Celer, two bold and enterprising men, who soon after put the emperor upon a still more expensive and arduous undertaking, namely, that of cutting a canal through hard rocks and steep mountains, from the lake Avernus to the mouth of the Tiber, 160 miles in length, and of such breadth that two galleys of five ranks of oars might pass abreast. His object in this was to open a communication between Rome and Campania, free from the troubles and dangers of the sea, but his great undertaking failed.

After the city was burnt, Nero attempted to cast the blame on the Christians, who had begun to increase rapidly in Rome; and he thus excited against them a dreadful persecution. The cruelties which Nero exercised against the Christians were soon extended to all ranks of the community. These atrocities took their rise in a conspiracy which was organised by Piso, a man of great integrity and influence, and which seems to have embraced some of the leading men in the state. Through the rash zeal of a woman, named Epicharis, the plot to which he was a party was allowed to transpire. Confessions were extorted from some of the inferior agents; but Epicharis could not be brought, either by scourging or burning, to disclose a single name. In consequence, however, of the information which was obtained, Piso, Vestinus the consul, Lateranus, Fennius Rufus, Subrius Flavius, and Sulpicius Asper, with many other persons of distinction, suffered death. Seneca, who had retired into private life, and his nephew Lucan the poet, were also accomplices, and fell victims to their hatred of Nero. The suspicions of Nero fell upon persons of all ranks, and in all parts of the neighbourhood of Rome; and every day groupes of victims were dragged to the palace, to receive their sentence from the tyrant himself; who, accompanied by his favourite and profligate minister Tigellinus, presided personally at the torture. The provinces did not escape from these scenes of cruelty; and the governors seem to have done homage to the imperial tyrant, by an imitation of his atrocities. The cruelties exercised in Judea, by Florus, a bloody and avaricious ruler, excited a revolt among the Jews, which set an example that was speedily followed.

His general, Corbulo, who had carried on a successful war against the Parthians, during the greater part of Nero's reign, and who finally subjugated that people, fell a sacrifice to the cruelty of Nero; and his empress Poppæa, whom he kicked in her pregnancy, miscarried, and died by the blow.

The detestation which these actions excited, prepared the public mind for the overthrow of Nero's power. Julius Vindex, who commanded the Roman legions in Gaul, impelled only by his hatred of tyranny, openly raised the standard of revolt; and when he heard that Nero had offered a reward of ten millions of sesterces for his head, he boldly replied, "Whoever brings me Nero's head, shall have the possession of mine." This daring and disinterested leader proclaimed Sergius Galba emperor. Galba, venerable by his age, and pre-eminent for wisdom and courage, was then governor of Spain; and though he was at first unwilling to occupy such a dangerous elevation, yet he was induced to join his forces with those of Vindex.

No sooner did Nero hear of Galba's resolution, than he rent his garments, and swore that he was undone. He threatened to massacre all the governors of provinces, to murder every Gaul, to poison the senate, burn the city, and turn adrift the lions among the people. The absurdity of these threats was equalled only by the folly which was exhibited in his preparations to execute them. Instead of raising armies, and providing for their equipment, he constructed waggons for the easy conveyance of his musical instruments, and he equipped his concubines in the drapery of Amazons. The spirit of insurrection in the mean time was quickly propagated among the legions in Germany, Africa, and Lusitania. Virginius Rufus, who commanded on the Upper Rhine, hesitated for a while to take any active part, and during that time, his legions, without his knowledge, attacked and defeated the Gauls with great slaughter. Mortified at this circumstance, Vindex put himself to death; but distressing as this event was to the insurgents, it was attended with no general consequences. Nero had so completely abandoned his cause, that he provided himself with poison, and prepared to make his escape into Egypt. His confidential servants were sent off to equip a fleet at Ostia; but when Nero requested the tribunes and centurions to accompany him, he could not find a single person to follow his fortunes. Agitated and perplexed, he retired to his couch; but waking in the middle of the night, and finding that his guards had deserted him, he sent for his friends to obtain their advice. No friend, however, was to be found. He went from house to house; but every door was shut against him. He besought one of his gladiators to take away his life; but no hand would raise itself to dispatch the tyrant. He was now on the eve of plunging himself into the Tiber, when Phaon, one of his freedmen, offered him his country house as a place of refuge. Nero gratefully accepted the offer, and, attended by four of his domestics on horseback, he made many escapes, and at last reached the back of Phaon's house, which he entered by a small hole in the wall. When Nero was here reposing upon a wretched pallet, and sustaining himself with brown bread and a cup of water, the senate were declaring Galba emperor, and condemning their oppressor to suffer the rigour of the ancient laws. When he learned from one of Phaon's slaves that he was thus to die, and that he was to be scourged to death with his body naked, and his head fixed to a pillory; and when he heard the soldiers actually approaching to the house, he planted a dagger at his throat, and contrived, with the aid of his secretary, Epaphroditus, to inflict a mortal wound. Thus he expired in the 32d year of his age, and the 14th of his reign. A. D. 68.

Although GALBA obtained the imperial power under circumstances most favourable, yet being in the 72d year of his age, he wanted that strength of frame which the arduous duties of his situation so imperiously demanded. An attempt to assassinate him, and a partial revolt in his own army, conspired with the death of Vindex, to make him repent of his elevation; and it is said that he seriously thought of putting an end to his existence. When he heard, however, of the death of Nero, he assumed the title and badges of power.

During Galba's journey towards Rome, an event occurred which displayed the severity more than the justice of the emperor. A body of sailors, to whom Nero had promised certain advantages, assembled round Galba about three miles from Rome, to request a fulfilment of that promise, and urging it in a disrespectful manner, and even taking up arms, Galba dispersed them with a body of horse, and killed no fewer than 7000. When Galba was settled in Rome, he began by dismissing the German cohort, by replenishing the exhausted exchequer, and by putting down those vices which had polluted the preceding reign. Under the system of economy which was now pursued, many acts of meanness and

GALBA CÆSAR.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis, 1826.

OTHO CÆSAR.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1826.

VITELLIUS CÆSAR.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis.1826.

and even of avarice were observed; and the people, accustomed to partake in the splendid shows and prodigalities of their emperors, had neither virtue to admire, nor patience to endure the retrenchments of Galba. His popularity was slightly retrieved by the public execution of Locusta, and various other instruments of Nero's cruelty, who were dragged in fetters through the city; but this act of justice was again neutralised by the pardon of Tigellinus and Helotus, who are said to have procured it by bribes of enormous magnitude, even though the people cried aloud for vengeance upon those atrocious murderers.

The Roman legions in different provinces of the empire, being bound by no tie to the interests of Galba, exhibited various symptoms of disaffection. The army commanded by Vitellius, an ambitious leader, openly refused to obey any other orders than those of the senate, and even sent a request to that body that they would choose another emperor.

When the news of this commotion reached Galba, he resolved to adopt an heir to the throne, who should have no other claim than his virtues and his talents. Otho urged to Galba his claims to this situation; but the emperor wished to attend only to merit, and fixed upon Piso Lucinianus as his successor. This young man deserved the choice which thus fell upon him: but the senate and the army had not been accustomed to admire the moral and intellectual qualities which formed the ground of Piso's appointment. An opening was therefore left for the ambition of Otho, who resolved to obtain by force that appointment which Galba had refused as a reward for his services. By bribes and harangues and by exaggerating the cruelties and avarice of Galba, he succeeded in a few days in gaining the affection of the soldiers, who proclaimed him emperor, and carried him with their drawn swords into the camp. Galba was confounded with this intelligence, but being deceived by a rumour of Otho's death, he rode into the forum, accompanied by several of his followers, when a body of Otho's cavalry attacked the imperial party. Though at first irresolute from the flight of his adherents, Galba, recovering his energy, bent forwards his head on the approach of the assassins, and commanded them to strike it off if it would be of advantage to the people. This command was speedily obeyed, A. D. 69, and his head, fixed on the point of a lance, was carried in triumph round the camp of OTHO. The new emperor, like all his predecessors, began his reign with acts of clemency and justice. Though Marcius Celsus had been the favourite of Galba, and had adhered to the cause of his master, yet Otho raised him to the highest honours as a reward of his fidelity. He next gratified the just desire of the people by putting Tigellinus to death, and by restoring the estates of those whom the latter had banished or plundered.

The legions of Vitellius, whom that general had attached to his interests by great promises as well as by actual presents, proclaimed him emperor, and spread terror throughout the capital. A. D. 77. Valens and Cæcina having united their forces, attacked Otho's army near Bedriacum, and, after a well-contested battle, succeeded in putting it to flight, when the emperor put an end to his own life.

After the battle, VITELLIUS was declared emperor by the senate, and having pardoned the adherents of Otho, he travelled to Rome in all the splendour and magnificence which he could command. After haranguing the senate and the people, and receiving the homage which his liberal promises had drawn forth, he quietly settled himself in his palace, to enjoy his gluttony and luxurious habits. A dinner which was given to him by his brother Lucius on his arrival in the capital, consisted of 2000 dishes of fish, and 7000 of fowl. One of the dishes, called the shield of Minerva, was an olio compounded of the sounds of the fish named scarri, the brains of woodcocks and pheasants, the tongues of rare birds, and the spawn of lampreys from the Caspian.

Vitellius seems, like his predecessors, to have been a most capricious and inhuman barbarian. It is related, that he poisoned a friend whom he went to see, that was labouring under a severe fever; that he executed two sons for entreating him to spare the life of their father; and that once when a Roman knight was dragged to execution, and expected to ward off the blow by declaring that he had made the emperor his heir, Vitellius obtained a sight of the deed, and having found that he was only heir with another, he executed both the knight and the legatee.

These deeds at last offended the army; the legions of the east began the revolt; and VESPASIAN, while he was carrying on the siege of Jerusalem, was proclaimed emperor of Rome.

When Vespasian's army entered Italy under the command of Antonius Primus, Vitellius made considerable preparations for resistance. His army commanded by Valens and Cæcina, met the troops of Vespasian near Cremona, but when a battle was expected, Cæcina went over to Vespasian. The army however took and imprisoned Cæcina, and attacked Antonius; and the battle which lasted all night, was renewed in the morning, when Vitellius's army was defeated with a loss of 30,000 men. The routed troops, taking refuge in Cremona, liberated Cæcina, and, through his intercession, were forgiven by the conqueror. The approach of Vespasian's army to Rome was opposed by a few troops who guarded the passes of the Appennines; but when Vitellius heard of the revolt of his fleet, he offered to Vespasian to resign the empire. At this crisis one Sabinus seized the capitol; but Vitellius's soldiers laid it in ashes.

Antonius, inattentive to the messages and offers of Vitellius, advanced towards Rome. He attacked it on three sides, drove the besieged into the city, and slaughtered them in great numbers.

Vitellius fled to some sequestered hiding-place, from which he was soon taken by the victorious enemy. The miserable emperor, in the expectation of protracting his existence, requested that he might be kept in prison till the arrival of Vespasian, as he had important secrets to communicate to him. His appeal, however, was in vain. The soldiers binding his hands and putting a halter round his neck, led him half naked into the forum; loading him with curses and reproaches. They tied his hair backwards, and put the point of his sword beneath his chin to prevent him from hiding his face. Some threw mud upon him, and others struck him, while some ridiculed the redness of his face, and the magnitude of his belly. Having reached the place of execution, they killed him by blows, and, dragging the body through the streets, they tossed it into the Tiber. Thus terminated the eight months' reign of Vitellius, when he had reached the 57th year of his age.

The senate and the army concurred in declaring Vespasian emperor; and messengers were sent to him in Egypt to request him to return. In the mean time Claudius Civilis, who had a command in Germany, revolted, and after maintaining a warlike attitude for some time, and resisting the arms of Cerealis, Vespasian's general, he was at last obliged to make peace with his country. These events were followed by an irruption of the Sarmatians, who passed the Iser, and with the rapidity of a torrent overran the country, destroyed several garrisons, and routed an army commanded by Fonteius Agrippa. Rubrus Gallus, however, succeeded in driving them back into their settlements, in which they were for a while retained by forts and garrisons.

Having intrusted Titus with the siege of Jerusalem, Vespasian set off for Rome; and he was met many miles from the city by the senate, and half of the inhabitants, who for the first time expressed a sincere delight in having an emperor of tried virtue. While Rome was thus made happy by the succession of Vespasian, Titus returned from India in triumph; and the triumphal arch which was erected at that grand celebration exists almost entire in modern Rome.

Having quieted every commotion, Vespasian had the satisfaction of shutting the temple of Janus, which had been open for six years; he restored the ancient discipline of the army; he shortened and improved the proceedings in courts of justice; and it has been said, that during his long reign, no individual suffered from an unjust or severe decree.

Vespasian

Vespasian extended his fostering arm to the arts and sciences, and to the restoration of the public buildings, and the improvement of the city. He settled 100,000 sesterces on the teachers of rhetoric. He patronised Josephus, the Jewish historian, and Quintilian the orator; and Pliny, the natural historian, was held by him in the highest regard. He patronised both the fine and the useful arts; and he invited to his capital, and took under his patronage, the most celebrated masters and artificers from every part of the world. He restored the capitol to its original splendour; he built the celebrated amphitheatre, whose ruins still attest its former grandeur; and he founded several new cities, and repaired others that had suffered from the devastations of his predecessors. The clemency of Vespasian was not less than his wisdom. He provided a match in a noble family for the daughter of Vitellius his enemy, and he himself gave her a handsome dowry; and when plots were organised against him, he refused to punish the conspirators. The only exceptions to this mild and forgiving temper occurred in the case of Julius Sabinus, who had proclaimed himself emperor at Vitellius's death. This rash commander, after being defeated by Vespasian's army, concealed himself for nine years in a cave, where he was attended by his faithful wife Empona, who provided for all his necessities. Sabinus was at last discovered, and carried prisoner to Rome, and Vespasian caused him to be executed. With all his virtues, Vespasian had the fault of avarice, and this was of course attended with extortion and rapacity. He revived taxes that had fallen into disuse; he is said to have drawn profit from the purchase and sale of commodities; and he has been loaded with the more serious charge of sharing in the plunder of the governors, whom he had set over the provinces. Nevertheless, he took great precautions to provide for the safety of his remotest dominions, and only two insurrections took place in his reign. These were confined principally to the Alani, a rude tribe, who, quitting their deserts, passed into Media and Armenia, and defeated Tiridates with great slaughter. Titus, however, having been sent to punish them, they retired to the river Tanais, from which they came. During the reign of Vespasian, Petilius Cerealis and Julius Frontinus subjugated a considerable part of Britain; and Agricola, who went out towards the end of Vespasian's reign, completed the conquest of that island.

After a reign of ten years, Vespasian was seized with an illness at Campania, which soon carried him off. A. D. 79.

After some slight opposition from his brother Domitian, who alleged that his father's will had been altered, TITUS was declared emperor. Though in his youth he was fond of pleasure and dissipation, yet no sooner did he ascend the throne than he became a pattern of regularity and moderation. His generosity and love of justice, his hatred of informers, his anxiety to prevent dissensions, his obliging disposition, and his readiness, on all occasions, to do good, procured for him the enviable appellation of the Delight of Mankind. His courtesy and readiness to do good have been celebrated even by Christian writers; his principal rule being never to send any petitioner dissatisfied away. One night, recollecting that he had done nothing beneficial to mankind the day preceding, he cried out among his friends, "I have lost a day." A sentence universally known.

In this reign, an eruption of Mount Vesuvius did considerable damage, overwhelming many towns, and sending its ashes into countries more than 100 miles distant. Upon this memorable occasion, Pliny, the naturalist, lost his life; for being impelled by too eager a curiosity to observe the eruption, he was suffocated in the flames. There happened also about this time a fire at Rome, which continued three days and nights successively, which was followed by a plague, in which 10,000 men were buried in a day. The emperor, however, did all that lay in his power to repair the damage sustained by the public; and, with respect to the city, declared that he would take the whole loss of it upon himself. For the success of his generals in Britain, Titus was saluted emperor the 15th time; but he did not long survive his honours, being seized with a violent fever at a little distance from Rome. Perceiving his death to approach, he declared, that during the whole course of his life he knew but of one action which he repented of; but that action he did not think proper to express. Shortly after, he died (not without suspicion of treachery from his brother Domitian, who had long wished to govern) in the 41st year of his age, having reigned two years two months and twenty days. A. D. 81.

The love which all ranks of people bore to Titus, facilitated the election of his brother DOMITIAN, notwithstanding the ill opinion many had already conceived of him.

In the beginning of his reign he appeared equally remarkable for his clemency, liberality, and justice. He carried his abhorrence of cruelty so far, as at one time to forbid the sacrificing of oxen. His liberality was such, that he would not accept of the legacies that were left him by such as had children of their own. His justice was so great, that he would sit whole days and reverse the partial sentences of the ordinary judges. He appeared very careful and liberal in repairing the libraries which had been burnt, and recovering copies of such books as had been lost, sending on purpose to Alexandria to transcribe them. These fair promises, however, were soon blighted. His mind became engrossed with the pursuits of archery and gaming, and his principal ambition was in entertaining the public with extensive exhibitions; and presiding in ostentatious pomp, for the purpose of distributing rewards. His solitary hours were spent in killing flies, and stabbing them with a bodkin; and when one of his servants, Vibius, was asked if the emperor was disengaged, he is said to have replied, that he was not even occupied with a fly. His next passion seems to have been for military reputation, which led him to envy the glory of his generals. The success of Agricola in Britain, in overcoming Galgacus, and determining the insular nature of the country, and in discovering and subjugating the Orkneys, particularly called forth his envy. He recalled him to Italy, under the pretence of appointing him to the government of Syria; but upon his return, he was received with coolness, and having some time afterwards been taken ill in retirement, where he died, Domitian was suspected of having hastened his death. In order to make himself a great general, the emperor marched into Gaul on a pretended expedition against the Catti, but though he never saw an enemy, he took to himself the honour of a triumph, and entered the capital at the head of a number of slaves, whom he had decked in the habiliments of Germans.

In this condition of the empire, the Sarmatians, aided by several Asiatic tribes, made a formidable irruption into it, and cut off a Roman legion with its general. The Dacians, under the guidance of their king Decebalus, were even more successful, and defeated the Romans in many engagements. The energies of the state were at last roused, and the barbarians driven back. Domitian, elated with the result, entered Rome in triumph a second time, and assumed the name of *Germanicus*. He was particularly terrible to the senate and nobility, the whole body of whom he frequently threatened entirely to extirpate. At one time he surrounded the senate house with his troops to the great consternation of the senators. At another, he resolved to amuse himself with their terrors in a different manner. Having invited them to a public entertainment, he received them all very formally at the entrance of his palace, and conducted them into a spacious hall, hung round with black, and illuminated by a few melancholy lamps, that diffused light only sufficient to show the horrors of the place. All around were to be seen nothing but coffins, with the names of each of the senators written upon them, together with other objects of terror, and instruments of execution. While the company beheld all the preparations with silent agony, several men, having their bodies blackened, each with a drawn sword in one hand and a flaming torch in the other, entered the hall, and danced round them. After some time, when the guests expected nothing less than instant death, well knowing Domitian's capricious

VESPASIAN CÆSAR.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1826.

TITUS CÆSAR.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1826.

DOMITIAN CÆSAR.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1826.

Pricious cruelty, the doors were set open, and one of the servants came to inform them, that the emperor gave all the company leave to withdraw.

The predictions of Chaldeans and astrologers, concerning his death, gave him most violent apprehensions, and kept him in the most tormenting disquietude. As he approached towards the end of his reign, he would permit no criminal, or prisoner, to be brought into his presence, till they were bound in such a manner as to be incapable of injuring him; and he generally secured their chains in his own hands. His jealousies increased to that degree, that he ordered the gallery in which he walked to be set round with a pellucid stone, which served as a mirror to reflect the persons of all such as approached him from behind. Every omen and prodigy gave him fresh anxiety.

But a period was soon to be put to this monster's cruelty. Among the number of those whom he at once caressed and suspected, was his wife Domitia, whom he had taken from Ælius Lama, her former husband. This woman, however, was become obnoxious to him, for having placed her affections upon one Paris, a player; and he resolved to dispatch her, with several others that he either hated or suspected. It was the tyrant's method to put down the names of all such as he intended to destroy in his tablets, which he kept about him with great circumspection. Domitia, fortunately happening to get a sight of them, was struck at finding her own name in the catalogue of those fated to destruction. She showed the fatal list to Norbanus and Petronius, præfects of the prætorian bands, who found themselves set down; as likewise to Stephanus, the comptroller of the household, who came into the conspiracy with alacrity. Parthenius also, the chief chamberlain, was of the number. These, after many consultations, determined on the first opportunity to put their design in execution; and at length fixed on the 18th day of September for the completion of their attempt. Domitian was in some measure apprehensive of that day; in consequence of a prediction, and as he had been ever timorous, so he was now more particularly upon his guard. He had some time before secluded himself in the most secret recesses of his palace; and at midnight was so affrighted as to leap out of his bed, inquiring of his attendants what hour of the night it was. Upon their falsely assuring him that it was an hour later than that which he was taught to apprehend, quite transported, as if all danger was past, he prepared to go to the bath. Just then, Parthenius his chamberlain came to inform him that Stephanus the comptroller of his household required to speak to him upon an affair of the utmost importance. The emperor having given orders that his attendants should retire, Stephanus entered with his hand in a scarf, which he had worn thus for some days, the better to conceal a dagger, as none were permitted to approach the emperor except unarmed.—He began by giving information of a pretended conspiracy, and exhibited a paper in which the particulars were specified. While Domitian was reading the contents with eager curiosity, Stephanus drew his dagger, and struck him in the groin. The wound not being mortal, Domitian caught hold of the assassin, and threw him upon the ground, calling out for assistance. But Parthenius, with his freedman, a gladiator, and two subaltern officers, now coming in, ran all furiously upon the emperor, and dispatched him with many wounds. In the mean time, some of the officers of the guard being alarmed, came to his assistance, but too late to save him; however, they slew Stephanus on the spot.

When it was publicly known that Domitian was slain, the joy of the senate was so great, that being assembled with the utmost haste, they began to load his memory with every reproach. His statues were commanded to be taken down; and a decree was made, that all his inscriptions should be erased, his name struck out of the registers of fame, and his funeral omitted. The people, who now took little part in the affairs of government, looked on his death with indifference; the soldiers alone, whom he had loaded with favours, and enriched by largesses, sincerely regretted their benefactor. The senate, therefore, resolved to provide a successor before the army could have an opportunity of taking the appointment upon themselves: and Cocceius NERVA was chosen to the empire the very day on which the tyrant was slain.

Nerva was of an illustrious family; as most say, by birth a Spaniard, and about 65 years old when he was called to the throne. He was, at that time, the most remarkable man in Rome, for his virtues, moderation, and respect to the laws; and he owed his exaltation to the blameless conduct of his former life. When the senate went to pay him their submissions, he received them with his accustomed humility; while Arius Antonius, his most intimate friend, having embraced him with great familiarity, congratulated him on his accession to the empire; and indeed no emperor had ever shewn himself more worthy of the throne than Nerva; his only fault being that he was too indulgent, and often made a prey by his insidious courtiers.

However, an excess of indulgence and humanity were faults that Rome could easily pardon, after the cruelties of such an emperor as Domitian. Being long accustomed to tyranny, she regarded Nerva's gentle reign with rapture, and even gave his imbecility the name of benevolence. Upon coming to the throne, he solemnly swore that no senators of Rome should be put to death by his command, during his reign, though they gave ever so just a cause. He conferred great favours, and bestowed large gifts upon his particular friends. His liberality was so extensive, that, upon his first promotion to the empire, he was constrained to sell his gold and silver plate, with his other rich moveables, to enable him to continue his liberalities. He released the cities of the empire from many severe impositions, which had been laid upon them by Vespasian; took off a rigorous tribute, which had been laid upon carriages; and restored those to their property who had been unjustly dispossessed by Domitian.

During his short reign he made several good laws. He particularly prohibited the castration of male children; which had been likewise condemned by his predecessor, but not wholly removed. He put all those slaves to death who had, during the last reign, informed against their masters. He permitted no statues to be erected to honour him, and converted into money such of Domitian's as had been spared by the senate. He sold many rich robes, and much of the splendid furniture of the palace, and retrenched several unreasonable expenses at court.

A life of such generosity and mildness was not, however, without its enemies. Calpurnius Crassus, with some others, formed a dangerous conspiracy to destroy him; but Nerva would use no severity: he rested satisfied with banishing those who were culpable, though the senate were for inflicting more rigorous punishments. But the most dangerous insurrection against his interest was from the prætorian bands; who, headed by Casparius Olianus, insisted upon revenging the late emperor's death, whose memory was still dear to them from his frequent liberalities. Nerva, whose kindness to good men rendered him still more obnoxious to the vicious, did all in his power to stop the progress of this insurrection; he presented himself to the mutinous soldiers, and, opening his bosom, desired them to strike there, rather than be guilty of so much injustice. The soldiers, however, paid no regard to his remonstrances; but seizing upon Petronius and Parthenius, slew them in the most ignominious manner. Not content with this, they even compelled the emperor to approve of their sedition, and to make a speech to the people, in which he thanked the cohorts for their fidelity. So disagreeable a constraint upon the emperor's inclinations was, in the end, attended with the most happy effects, as it caused the adoption of Trajan to succeed him in the empire. Nerva perceived that in the present turbulent disposition of the times, he stood in need of an assistant in the empire, who might share the fatigues of government and contribute to keep the licentious in awe. For this purpose, setting aside all his own relations, he fixed upon Ulpius

TRAJAN, an utter stranger to his family, who was then governor in Upper Germany, to succeed him.

The adoption of this admirable man, proved so great a curb to the licentiousness of the soldiery, that they continued in perfect obedience during the rest of his reign: and Casparius being sent to him, was by his command either banished, or put to death.

The adopting Trajan was the last public act of Nerva. In about three months after, having put himself in a violent passion with one Regulus, a senator, he was seized with a fever, of which he shortly after died, after a short reign of one year four months and nine days. He was the first foreign emperor who reigned in Rome, and justly reputed a prince of great generosity and moderation. He is also celebrated for his wisdom, though with less reason, the greatest instance he gave of it during his reign, being in the choice of his successor.

Trajan's family was originally from Italy, but he himself was born at Seville in Spain. He very early accompanied his father, who was a general of the Romans, in his expeditions along the Euphrates and the Rhine; and while yet very young, acquired a considerable reputation for military accomplishments. He enured his body to fatigue; he made long marches on foot; and laboured to acquire that skill in war which was necessary for a commander. When he was made general of the army in Lower Germany, which was one of the most considerable employments in the empire, it made no alteration in his manners or way of living; and the commander was in no way different from the private tribune, except in his superior wisdom and virtues. The great qualities of his mind were accompanied with all the advantages of person. Upon being informed of the death of Nerva, he prepared to return to Rome, whither he was invited by the united intreaties of the state. He therefore began his march with a discipline that was for a long time unknown in the armies of the empire. The countries through which he passed were neither ravaged nor taxed, and he entered the city, not in a triumphant manner, but on foot, attended by the civil officers of the state. His application to business, his moderation to his enemies, his modesty in exaltation, his liberality to the deserving, and his frugality in his own expenses; have all been the subject of panegyric among his contemporaries. Upon giving the prefect of the prætorian bands the sword, according to custom, he made use of this remarkable expression, "Take this sword, and use it, if I have merit, for me; if otherwise, against me." After which he added, That he who gave laws was the first who was bound to observe them. The first war he was engaged in after his coming to the throne was with the Dacians, who, during the reign of Domitian, had committed ravages upon the provinces of the empire. He therefore raised a powerful army, and with great expedition marched into those barbarous countries, where he was vigorously opposed by Decebalus, the Dacian king, who, for a long time, withstood his boldest efforts; but was at last last entirely reduced, and his kingdom made a Roman province.

Having thus given peace and prosperity to the empire, Trajan continued his reign, loved, honoured, and almost adored, by his subjects. He adorned the city with public buildings; he freed it from such men as lived by their vices; he entertained persons of merit with the utmost familiarity; and so little feared his enemies, that he could scarcely be induced to suppose that he had any.

It had been happy for this great prince's memory, if he had shown equal clemency to all his subjects: but, about the ninth year of his reign, he was persuaded to look upon the Christians with a suspicious eye. The extreme veneration which he professed for the religion of the empire, set him sedulously to oppose every innovation; and the progress of Christianity seemed to alarm him. A law had for some time before been passed, in which all Heteriæ, or societies dissenting from the established religion, were considered as illegal, being imputed nurseries of imposture and sedition. Under the sanction of this law, the Christians were persecuted in all parts of the empire. Great numbers of them were put to death, as well by popular tumults as by edicts and judicial proceedings. However, the persecution ceased after some time; for the emperor having advice from Pliny, the proconsul in Bithynia, of the innocence and simplicity of the Christiaus, and of their inoffensive and moral way of living, he suspended their punishments. But a total stop was put to them upon Tiberianus the governor of Palestine's sending him word, that he was wearied out with executing the laws against the Galileans, who crouded to execution in such multitudes, that he was at loss how to proceed. Upon this information, the emperors gave order, that the Christians should not be sought after; but if any offered themselves, that they should suffer. In this manner the rage of persecution ceased, and the emperor found leisure to turn the force of his arms against the Armenians and Parthians, who now began to throw off all submission to Rome.

While he was employed in these wars, there was a dreadful insurrection of the Jews in all parts of the empire. This people took the advantage of Trajan's absence in the east to massacre all the Greeks and Romans whom they got into their power, without reluctance or mercy. This rebellion first began in Cyrene, a Roman province in Africa; from thence the flame exteuded to Egypt, and next to the island of Cyprus. These places were in a manner dispeopled with ungovernable fury. Their barbaritics are reported to have been such, that they ate the flesh of their enemies, wore their skins, sawed them asunder, cast them to wild beasts, made them kill each other, and studied new torments by which to destroy them. However, these cruelties were of no long duration: the governors of the respective provinces making head against their tumultuous fury, soon treated them with a retaliation of cruelty. In Cyprus a law was enacted, by which it was made capital for any Jew to set foot on the island.

During these bloody transactions, Trajan was prosecuting his successes in the east. His first march was into Armenia, the king of which country had disclaimed all alliance with Rome, and received the ensigns of royalty and dominion from the monarch of Parthia. However, upon the news of Trajan's expedition, his fears were so great, that he abandoned his country to the invaders; while the greatest part of his governors and nobility submitted to the emperor. He next marched into the dominions of the king of Parthia. He reduced Mesopotamia into the form of a Roman province. From thence he went against the Parthians, marching on foot at the head of his army; in this manner crossing the rivers, and conforming to all the severities of discipline which were imposed on the meanest soldier. His successes against the Parthians were great and numerous. He conquered Syria and Chaldea, and took the famous city of Babylon. Here, attempting to cross the Euphrates, he was opposed by the enemy, who were resolved to stop his passage: but he secretly caused boats to be made upon the adjoining mountains; and bringing them to the water side, passed his army with great expedition, not, however, without great slaughter on both sides. From the rapid streams of the Tigris, he advanced to the city of Ctesiphon, which he took, and opened himself a passage iuto Persia, where he made many conquests that were rather splendid than serviceable. After subduing all the country bordering on the Tigris, he marched southward to the Persian gulf, where he subdued a monarch who possessed a considerable island made by the divided streams of that river. Here, winter coming on, he was in danger of losing the greatest part of his army by the inclemency of the climate and the inundations of the river. He, therefore, with indefatigable pains, fitted out a fleet, and sailing down the Persian gulf, entered the Indian ocean, conquering even to the Indies, and subduing a part of them to the Roman empire. He was prevented from pursuing further conquests in this distant country, both by the revolt of many of the provinces he had already subdued, and by the scarcity of provisions, which

which seemed to contradict the reports of the fertility of the countries he was induced to invade. The inconveniences of increasing age also contributed to damp the ardour of this enterprise, which at one time he intended to pursue to the confines of the earth. Returning, therefore, along the Persian gulf, and sending the senate a particular account of all the nations he had conquered, the names of which alone composed a long catalogue, he prepared to punish those countries which had revolted from him. He began by laying the famous city of Edessa, in Mesopotamia, in ashes, and in a short space of time not only retook all those places which had before acknowledged subjection, but conquered many other provinces, so as to make himself master of the most fertile kingdoms of Asia. In this train of successes he scarce met with a repulse, except before the city of Atra, in the deserts of Arabia. Wherefore judging that this was a proper time for bounding his conquests, he resolved to give a master to the countries he had subdued. He established accordingly a king over the kingdom of Albania, near the Caspian sea. Then placing governors and lieutenants in other provinces, he resolved to return to his capital in a more magnificent manner than any of his predecessors had done before him. He accordingly left Adrian general of all his forces in the east; and continued his journey towards Rome, where the most magnificent preparations were made for his arrival. But he had not proceeded farther than the province of Cilicia, when he found himself too weak to travel in his usual manner. He therefore caused himself to be carried on ship-board to the city of Seleucia, where he died of apoplexy, having been once before attacked by that disorder. During the time of his indisposition, his wife Plotina constantly attended near him; and, knowing the emperor's dislike to Adrian, it is thought forged the will, by which he was adopted to succeed.

Trajan died in the 63d year of his age, after a reign of nineteen years six months and fifteen days. How highly he was esteemed by his subjects appears by their manner of blessing his successors, always wishing them the fortune of Augustus and the goodness of Trajan. His military virtues, however, upon which he chiefly valued himself, produced no real advantages to his country; and all his conquests disappeared, when the power was withdrawn that enforced them.

ADRIAN was by descent a Spaniard, and his ancestors were of the same city where Trajan was born. He was nephew to Trajan. When Trajan was adopted to the empire, Adrian was a tribune of the army in Mæsia, and was sent by the troops to congratulate the emperor on his advancement. However, his brother-in-law, who desired to have an opportunity of congratulating Trajan himself, supplied Adrian with a carriage that broke down on the way. But Adrian was resolved to lose no time, and performed the rest of the journey on foot. This assiduity was very pleasing to the emperor; but he disliked Adrian for several more prevailing motives. His kinsman was expensive, and involved in debt. He was, besides, inconstant, capricious, and apt to envy another's reputation. These were faults that, in Trajan's opinion, could not be compensated either by his learning or his talents; his great skill in the Greek and Latin languages, his intimate acquaintance with the laws of his country and the philosophy of the times, being no perfections to the warlike Trajan.

Upon Adrian's election, his first care was to write to the senate, excusing himself for assuming the empire without their previous approbation; imputing it to the hasty zeal of the army, who rightly judged that the senate ought not long to remain without a head. He then began to pursue a course quite opposite to that of his predecessor, taking every method of declining war, and promoting the arts of peace. For this reason he abandoned all the conquests which Trajan had made, judging them to be rather an inconvenience than an advantage to the empire; and making the river Euphrates the boundary of the empire, placed the legions along its banks, to prevent the incursions of the enemy.

Leaving Severus governor of Syria, he now took his journey by land to Rome. Upon his approach to the city, he was informed that a magnificent triumph was preparing for him; but this he modestly declined, desiring that the honours might be paid to Trajan's memory, which had been designed for him. In consequence of this command, a most superb triumph was decreed, in which Trajan's statue was carried as the principal figure in the procession, an honour never before conferred on the dead; and moreover his ashes were placed in a golden urn, upon the top of a column a hundred and forty feet high; charged with the particulars of all his exploits in basso-relievo, which is still remaining.

It was difficult for any man to appear to advantage after Trajan; yet Adrian was one of the most remarkable of the Roman emperors, for the variety of his endowments. He was highly skilful in all the exercises both of body and mind. He composed with great beauty, both in prose and verse; he pleaded at the bar, and was one of the best orators of his time. He was deeply versed in the mathematics, and no less skilful in physic. In drawing and painting, he was equal to the greatest masters; an excellent musician, and sung to admiration. Besides these qualifications, he had an astonishing memory; he knew the names of all his soldiers, though ever so long absent. He could dictate to one, confer with another, and write himself, all at the same time. He was remarkably expert in military discipline; strong and very skilful in arms, both on horseback and foot; and frequently killed wild boars, and even lions, in hunting.

His moral virtues were not inferior to his other accomplishments. Upon his exaltation to the empire, he forgave an infinite number of debts due to the treasury, from individuals and provinces; and he gave the estates of condemned persons to the public, instead of appropriating them to himself. His moderation and clemency appeared by pardoning the injuries which he had received when he was a private man. He had so great a veneration for the senate, and was so careful of not introducing unworthy persons into it, that he told the captain of his guard, when he made him a senator, that he had no honour in his gift equal to what he then bestowed.

These virtues, however, were contrasted by a strange mixture of vices, most of which arose from a weakness of resolution. Thus he is represented as proud and vainglorious; and he permitted the persecution against the Christians.

Adrian was scarcely settled on the throne, when several of the northern barbarians, the Alani, the Sarmatians, and the Dacians, began to make devastations on the empire. These hardy nations, by their desultory incursions, began to be truly formidable to Rome. Adrian wished to have contracted the limits of the empire, that he might be freed from their attacks; but his friends dissuading him, he contented himself with breaking down the bridge over the Danube, which his predecessor had built, sensible that the same passage which was open to him, was equally convenient to his barbarous neighbours.

While he was employed in compelling these nations to submission, a conspiracy, concerted by four persons of consular dignity, was discovered against his life; but their designs being detected, the conspirators were put to death, by order of the senate. Adrian took great pains to clear himself from the imputation of having had any hand in their execution; but, in order entirely to suppress the murmurs of the people upon this head, he distributed large sums of money among them, and entertained them with magnificent shows in the amphitheatre.

After a short stay at Rome, which was employed in regulating public affairs, he prepared to visit and take a view of his whole empire. He therefore took with him a splendid court, and a considerable force, and entered the province of Gaul, where he numbered the inhabitants. From Gaul he went into Germany, from thence to Holland, and then passed over into Britain. There, reforming many abuses, and reconciling the natives to the Romans, for the better security

security of the southern parts of the kingdom, he built a wall of wood and earth, extending from the river Eden in Cumberland, to the Tyne in Northumberland, to prevent the incursions of the Picts, and other barbarous nations to the north. From Britain, returning through Gaul, he directed his journey to Spain, where he was received with great joy, as being a native of that country. There, wintering in the city of Tarragona, he called a meeting of the deputies from all the provinces, and ordained many things for the benefit of the nation. From Spain, returning to Rome, he continued there for some time, in order to prepare for his journey into the east, which was hastened by a new invasion of the Parthians. His approach compelling the enemy to peace, he pursued his travels without molestation. Arriving in Asia Minor, he turned out of his way to visit the famous city of Athens. In this place he remitted the severity of the Christian persecution, at the suggestion of Granianus, the pro-consul of Asia; and even thought of receiving Christ among the number of the gods. After a winter's continuance at Athens, he went over into Sicily, and visited Ætna, and the other curiosities of the place. Returning from thence once more to Rome, after a short stay, he prepared ships and crossed over into Africa. There he spent much time in regulating abuses, and reforming the government; in deciding controversies, and erecting magnificent buildings. Among the rest, he ordered Carthage to be rebuilt; calling it, after his own name, Adrianople. Revisiting Rome, where he stayed but a very little time, he travelled a second time into Greece, passed over into Asia Minor, from thence he went into Syria, and then traversed Palestine, Arabia, and Egypt, where he caused Pompey's tomb to be rebuilt and beautified.

About this time a dangerous irruption of the barbarous nations to the northward of the empire took place; entering Media with great fury, and passing through Armenia, they carried their devastations as far as Cappadocia. Adrian, preferring peace upon any terms, to an unprofitable war, with singular impolicy, bought them off by large sums of money; so that they returned peaceably into their native wilds, to enjoy their plunder, and meditate fresh invasions.

The emperor having now spent thirteen years in travelling through his dominions, returned to Rome. The people received him with the loudest demonstrations of joy; and, though he now began to grow old, he remitted not the least of his former assiduity and attention to the public welfare. His chief amusement was in conversing with the most celebrated men in every art and science, frequently boasting that he thought no kind of knowledge inconsiderable, or to be neglected either in his private or public capacity. Yet he seemed to affect universal excellence; and even envied all, who aspired at an equal reputation in any of the arts with himself. It is said that he ordered Apollodorus, the architect, to be put to death only for too freely remarking upon the errors of some structure erected from the emperor's designs. Favorinus, however, a man of great reputation for philosophy, happening one day to dispute with him upon some philosophical subject, had the good sense to acknowledge himself overcome. His friends blamed him for thus giving up the argument, when he might easily have pursued it with success: "How," replied Favorinus, "would you have me contend with a man who is master of thirty legions?" But whatever might have been Adrian's weakness in aiming at universal reputation, he was in no part of his reign remiss in attending the duties of his exalted station. He forbade masters to kill their slaves, as had been before allowed; but ordained that they should be tried by the laws enacted against capital offences.—A law so just, had he done nothing more, deserved to have ensured his reputation with posterity, and to have made him dear to mankind.

Daily, at last, finding his strength diminishing, he resolved upon adopting a successor; and after many deliberations, he made choice of Lucius Commodus, whose bodily infirmities, however, rendered him unfit for a trust of such importance. Of this, after some time, Adrian seemed sensible, declaring, that he repented of having chosen so feeble a successor, and saying, "that he had leaned against a mouldering wall." However, Commodus soon after dying, the emperor immediately adopted Marcus Antoninus, afterwards surnamed the Pius; but previously obliged him to adopt two others, namely, Marcus Aurelius and Lucius Verus, all of whom afterwards succeeded to the empire.

While he was thus careful in appointing a successor, his bodily infirmities daily increased; and at length, his pain becoming insupportable, he vehemently desired that some of his attendants would dispatch him. Antoninus, however, would by no means permit any of his domestics to be guilty of so great an impiety, but used all the arts in his power to reconcile the emperor to sustain life, but with so little effect, that Adrian frequently cried out in his agonies, "How miserable a thing it is to seek death, and not to find it!" In this deplorable situation, he resolved on going to Baiæ, where the tortures of his diseases increasing, they affected his understanding, so that he gave orders that several persons should be put to death; which, however, Antoninus took care to prevent. Continuing, for some time, in excruciating pain, the emperor was at last resolved to observe no regimen, often saying, "that kings died merely by the multitude of their physicians." This conduct served to hasten that death he seemed so earnestly to desire; and it was probably joy upon its approach which dictated the celebrated stanzas which are so well known, in repeating which he expired, after a prosperous reign of twenty-two years, A. D. 139.

ANTONINUS, who now succeeded to the imperial throne, was born in the city of Nesinis in Gaul. His father was a nobleman of an ancient family, who had enjoyed the highest honours of the state. At the time of the death of Adrian, he was above fifty years old, and had passed through many of the most important offices of the state, with great integrity and application. His virtues in private life were only rendered more conspicuous by his exaltation. He was distinguished for justice, clemency, and moderation; for purity of morals, and piety to the gods.

In the beginning of his reign, he made it his particular study, to promote only the most deserving to employments; he moderated many imposts and tributes, and commanded that all should be levied without partiality or oppression. His liberality was such, that he even parted with all his own private fortune in relieving the distresses of the necessitous. He seldom incurred any expences by travelling, and avoided all idle pageantry and ostentation. By this frugal conduct, he was the better enabled to suppress all the insurrections that happened during his reign, either in Britain, in Dacia, or in Germany. Thus he was at once reverenced and loved by mankind; being accounted rather a patron, and father of his subjects, than a master and commander. Ambassadors were sent to him from the remotest parts of Hyrcania, Bactria, and India, to solicit his alliance and friendship; and some desiring him to appoint them a king, whom they seemed proud to obey. He shewed not less paternal care towards the oppressed Christians; in whose favour he declared, "that if any should proceed to disturb them, merely upon the account of their religion, that such should undergo the same punishment which was intended against the accused."

He took care that his courtiers should not sell their favours, nor take any gratuity from their suitors. In the time of a great famine in Rome, he provided for the wants of the people, and maintained great numbers with bread and wine during its continuance. When any of his subjects attempted to inflame him with a passion for military glory, he would answer, "that he more desired the preservation of one subject than the destruction of a thousand enemies."

While this exemplary prince was employed in making mankind happy, he was seized with a violent fever at Lorium, where he ordered his friends and principal officers to attend him. In their presence he confirmed the adoption of Marcus Aurelius without naming Lucius Verus, who had been joined by Adrian with him in the succession; then commanding

commanding the golden statue of fortune, which was always in the chamber of the emperors, to be removed to that of his successor, he expired, in the seventy-fifth year of his age, after a prosperous reign of twenty-two years and almost eight months, during which he had rather studied to defend the Roman empire than to enlarge its boundaries, to render his people happy than to make them feared.

The loss of such an emperor may naturally be supposed to have excited universal sorrow. His adopted son, Marcus AURELIUS, pronounced his funeral eulogy; and, though left sole successor to the throne, admitted Lucius VERUS as his associate and equal. Thus Rome, for the first time, saw itself governed by two sovereigns, of equal power, but of very different merit and pretensions. Aurelius was the son of Annius Verus, of an ancient and illustrious family, which claimed its origin from Numa. Lucius Verus was the son of Commodus, who had been adopted by Adrian, but died before he succeeded to the throne. Aurelius was as remarkable for his virtues and accomplishments, as his partner in the empire was for his ungovernable passions and debauched morals. The one was an example of the greatest wisdom; the other, of ignorance, indolence, and dissipation.

Scarcely were the two emperors settled on the throne, when the empire was attacked on every side by the barbarians. The Catti invaded Germany and Rhætia, ravaging all with fire and sword; but were, after some time, repelled by Victorinus.

The Britons likewise revolted, but were repressed by Califurnius: but the Parthians, under their king Vologesus, made an irruption more dreadful than either of the former; destroying the Roman legions in Armenia; then entering Syria, and driving out the Roman governor. In order to stop the progress of this barbarous invasion, Verus, in person, took the command of the army.

Upon his entering Antioch, he resolved to give an indulgence to every appetite, without attending to the fatigues of war. There, in one of its beautiful suburbs, called Daphne, he rioted in excesses unknown even to the voluptuous Greeks; leaving all the glory of the field to his lieutenants, who were sent to repress the enemy. These, however, fought with great success: Statius Priscus took Artazata; Martius put Vologesus to flight, took Seleucia, plundered and burnt Babylon and Ctesiphon, and demolished the magnificent palace of the kings of Parthia. In a course of four years, during which the war continued, the Romans penetrated far into the Parthian country, and entirely subdued it; but upon their return, their army was dreadfully reduced by pestilence and famine. Verus, however, resolved to enjoy the honours of a triumph, so hardly earned by others. Wherefore, having appointed a king over the Armenians, and finding the Parthians entirely subdued, he assumed the title of Armenicus and Parthicus; and then returned to Rome in the greatest pomp and splendour.

During the course of this long expedition, Aurelius was sedulously intent upon distributing justice and happiness to his subjects at home. He first applied himself to the regulation of public affairs, and to the correcting of such faults as he found in the laws and policy of the state. In this endeavour, he shewed such singular respect for the senate, that the commonwealth seemed in a manner once more revived under his equitable administration. While thus gloriously occupied, he was daily mortified with accounts of the enormities of his colleague. The return of Verus was still more fatal to the empire; for his army carried back the plague from Parthia, and disseminated the infection into all the provinces through which it passed; while all the barbarous nations surrounding the empire, the Germans, the Sarmatians, the Quadi, and Marcomanni, taking advantage of its various calamities, made irruptions even into Italy.

Aurelius began his endeavours by marching against the Marcomanni and Quadi, taking Verus with him, who reluctantly left the sensual delights of Rome for the fatigues of a camp. They came up with the Marcomanni near the city of Aquileia, and, after a furious engagement, routed their whole army; then pursuing the fugitives across the Alps, overcame them in several contests, and at last, entirely defeating them, returned into Italy without any considerable loss.

As the winter was far advanced, Verus was determined upon going from Aquileia to Rome: in this journey he was seized with an apoplexy which put an end to his life, at the age of thirty-nine years, having reigned nine in conjunction with Aurelius. A. D. 171.

Aurelius, who had hitherto felt the fatigues of governing not only an empire, but of controlling his unworthy colleague, being now left to himself, began to act with greater diligence and success than ever. He left Rome to finish the war against the Marcomanni, who joining with the Quadi, the Sarmatians, the Vandals, and other barbarous nations, renewed hostilities with unusual rage and devastation. They had some time before attacked Vindex, præfect of the prætorian bands, and in a general battle near the Danube, destroyed no less than twenty thousand of his men. They even pursued the Romans as far as Aquileia, and would have taken the city, had not the emperor led his troops in person to oppose them. Aurelius having repulsed the enemy, continued his endeavours to prevent them from making future inroads. He spent in this laborious undertaking no less than five years, supporting the most dreadful fatigues, and supplying, by the excess of his courage, the defects of a delicate constitution. The stoic philosophy in which he was imbued, had taught him a simplicity of living, and a contempt of danger, which served as an example to the whole army. At length Aurelius so wearied out the enemy with repeated attacks, that he constrained them to accept of such terms of peace as he thought fit to propose, and thus returned in triumph to Rome.

This business being settled, he resumed his usual endeavours to benefit mankind by a further reformation of the internal policy of the state. He ordered that no inquiry should be made after the fortune of deceased persons who had been dead five years. He moderated the public expences, and lessened the number of shows and sports which were exhibited on the amphitheatre. He particularly took the poor under his protection; and found such pleasure in relieving their wants, that he considered his ability to supply the dictates of his compassion, as one of the greatest happinesses of his life. He laboured incessantly to restrain the luxuries of the great, prohibiting the use of chariots and litters to persons of inferior station, and endeavouring by all means to correct the disorders of women.

But his laudable endeavours were soon interrupted by a renewal of the former wars. The barbarians no sooner perceived his army withdrawn, than they took up arms once more, and renewed their ravages with greater fury than before. They had now drawn over to their side all the nations from Illyricum, to the furthest parts of Gaul. Aurelius, therefore, again saw himself surrounded with difficulties; his army had before been wasted by the plague, and frequent engagements, and his treasures entirely exhausted. In order to remedy these inconveniences, he increased his forces by enlisting slaves, gladiators, and the banditti of Dalmatia.

To raise money, he sold all the moveables belonging to the empire, and all the rich furniture which had been deposited in the cabinets of Adrian. This sale, which continued for two months, produced so considerable a sum, as to defray all the expenses of the war. His next effort was to march forward, and cross the Danube by a bridge of boats. He then attacked the enemy, gained several advantages, burnt their houses and magazines of corn, and received the submissions of such as had inconsiderately joined in the invasion.

The detail of his campaigns is little interesting, but one battle deserves to be particularised. It was begun by the enemy's slingers

slingers across a river, which induced the Romans to ford it, and make a great slaughter of those who attempted to defend its banks on the opposite side. The enemy, anticipating a pursuit, retired, having previously left some bodies of archers, covered by a squadron of horse, to skirmish with the Romans as if they designed to stop their progress. The Romans, with inconsiderate valour, attacking this forlorn hope, pursued them among a chain of barren mountains; where they found themselves unexpectedly blocked up on every side. However, they continued fighting, notwithstanding the disadvantage of the place; but the enemy prudently declined engaging, not willing to leave that victory to chance, which they expected from delay. At length, the excessive heat of the inclosed situation, long-continued fatigue, and a violent thirst, totally disheartened the Roman legions: they could neither fight nor retreat. In this deplorable exigence, while sorrow and despair were their only companions, Aurelius ran through their ranks, and in vain endeavoured to rekindle their hopes and their courage. Nothing was heard but groans and lamentations; nothing seen but marks of terror and desolation. At this dreadful juncture, and just as the barbarians were ready to fall upon them, we are assured, by some writers, that the solemn prayers of a Christian legion then serving among them, produced such a fall of rain, as instantly refreshed the fainting army. The same clouds also which brought the Romans such seasonable relief, at the same time discharged such a terrible storm of hail, accompanied with thunder, against the enemy, as astonished and confounded them; and made them an easy prey to the renovated courage of the legions of Aurelius.

Such are the circumstances of an engagement, acknowledged by pagan as well as Christian writers, only with this difference, that the latter ascribe the victory to their own, the former to the prayers of their emperor. Aurelius, however, seemed so sensible of miraculous assistance, that he immediately relaxed the persecutions against the Christians, and wrote to the senate in favour of their religion. After many violent conflicts, the barbarians sent to sue for peace; and obtained conditions more or less severe, as the emperor found them more or less disposed to revolt. But while Aurelius was engaged in making final arrangements in this quarter, a fresh rebellion called him to the defence of his dominions at home.

Avidius Cassius was one of the emperor's most favourite generals, and had been chiefly instrumental in obtaining the Roman successes in Parthia. His principal merit seemed to consist in his restoring the old discipline, and in pretending a violent regard for the commonwealth in its ancient form. But, in fact, all his seeming regard for freedom, was only to seize upon the liberties of his country for his own aggrandisement. Wherefore, finding the eastern army willing to support his pretensions, he proclaimed himself emperor in Syria. One of his chief artifices to procure popularity was, his giving out that he was descended from the famous Cassius, who had conspired against Cæsar; and, like him, he pretended, that his aims were for the re-establishment of the commonwealth of Rome. He also caused it to be rumoured that Aurelius was dead, to whose memory he affected to shew the greatest respect. By such pretences, he united a large body of men under his command, and, in a short time, brought all the countries from Syria to Mount Taurus under his subjection. These preposterous beginnings served to increase the emperor's activity, but not his apprehensions. He prepared to oppose him without any marks of uneasiness for the event; telling his soldiers, "that he would freely yield his empire to Avidius, if it should be judged conducive to the public good; for, as to his own part, the only fruits he had from exaltation, were incessant labour and fatigue."

In the mean time, Avidius strained every nerve to lure partisans, and in particular he endeavoured to win over the Greeks; but the love which all mankind bore the good emperor, frustrated his expectations in this quarter; and from this moment the tide of his fortune seemed to turn. His officers and soldiers soon began to regard him with contempt; and at last slew him, in less than four months after their revolt. His head was brought to the emperor, who received it with regret, and ordered it an honourable interment. The rest of the conspirators were treated with great lenity; some few were banished, but recalled soon after.

Aurelius next visited Athens, where he conferred many honours on the inhabitants, and established professors in all the sciences, with munificent salaries for the encouragement of learning. Upon his landing in Italy, he quitted his soldier's habit, as also did his army, and made his entry into Rome in the gown which was usually worn in peace. As he had been absent almost eight years, he distributed to each citizen eight pieces of gold, and remitted all the debts due to the treasury for sixty years past. At the same time he nominated his son Commodus to succeed him in the empire, and made him a partner in his triumphal entry. He then retired for some time to a country seat, where he expected, in the decline of life, to rest from future toils; but news was soon brought him, that the Scythians, and other barbarous nations of the north, were again in arms, and invading the empire with furious impetuosity. He, therefore, once more resolved to expose his aged person in the defence of his country, and made speedy preparations to oppose the barbarians. He requested the senate, for the first time, to advance money out of the public treasury; and though it was in his power to take what sums he thought proper without their consent, yet he would not violate an apparent right.

In the progress of his campaigns he fought several battles, and generally prevailed by his prudence and courage. He built many forts, and so disposed his garrisons, as to keep all his barbarous neighbours in awe; but in the third year of the war, he was seized with the plague at Vienna, and died in the fifty-ninth year of his age, having reigned nineteen years and some days.

COMMODUS mounted, A. D. 181, the throne, with a partiality gained by his father's merits. But though he owed the empire to the adoption of Aurelius, many were of opinion, that he was the spurious issue of a gladiator; the wanton character of his mother Faustina, having, perhaps, given rise to the report. He was now about nineteen years of age; his person was comely and robust: he was expert in all manly exercises; and threw the javelin, and shot from the bow with such wonderful address, as almost exceeds credibility.

Happy had it been for mankind, had he cultivated the mental exercises with as much attention as those of the body. His whole reign, however, is but a tissue of wantonness and folly, cruelty and injustice, rapacity and corruption.

Though he behaved well for a short time after his accession, the levity of his temper, and the corrupt example of his favourite companions, soon led him to the basest and meanest pursuits. He went with his associates to taverns, and brothels; spent the day in feasting, and the night in the most abominable debaucheries. He sometimes went about the markets in a frolic, with small wares as a petty chapman; sometimes he imitated a horse-courser, and at other times drove his own chariot in the habit of a slave.

The principal objects of his favour were also the companions of his pleasures or the ministers of his cruelty. He took little care of the government, committing all the conduct of it to one Perennius, a person chiefly remarkable for his avarice and cruelty. In consequence of the enormities of this minister, a conspiracy was formed against Commodus in the beginning of his reign, in which his sister Lucilla, with her husband Pompeianus, were principally concerned. The person employed to kill the emperor was one Quintianus, who, coming up to him in a dauntless manner, and holding up his dagger, cried out, "The senate sends thee this." But this unguarded manner of proceeding frustrated his aim; for one of the guards instantly seizing his arm, prevented the fatal blow, and he soon after made a discovery of all his accomplices,

accomplices. Lucilla, Pompeianus, and Quintianus, were executed: many other persons, wholly innocent, shared the same fate.

In this manner Perennius proceeded, sacrificing numbers of the senate, as pretended conspirators, but in reality with a view of monopolising their estates and fortunes. At last, having grown extremely rich, he began to think of gaining the empire for himself, and made some progress in the attempt; but his design becoming apparent, Commodus seemed to awaken from his lethargy, and ordered both him and his sons to immediate execution.

Two conspiracies, thus discovered and punished, only served to render the emperor more cruel and suspicious; and these cruelties begot new revolts. One Maturnus, at the head of a numerous banditti, wasted Spain and Gaul, and resolved to attempt the empire itself. In order to effect this, he ordered some of his soldiers to mix with the emperor's guards, and then assassinate him; but his own party, in hopes of advantage, betrayed their employer, and he was executed, with many others, soon after. If any person desired to be revenged on an enemy, by bargaining with Commodus for a sum of money, he was permitted to destroy him in such manner as he thought proper. He commanded a person to be cast to the wild beasts, for reading the life of Caligula in Suetonius: he ordered another to be thrown into a burning furnace, for accidentally over-heating his bath: and he would sometimes, in a frolic, cut off men's noses, under a pretence of shaving their beards.

In the midst of these cruelties his vanity never forsook him. He, at one time, commanded himself to be styled Hercules, the son of Jupiter; and, the better to imitate that hero, he carried a club and dressed himself in a lion's skin. But to amuse the imagination as far as possible, and that he might appear to destroy giants and monsters, as the former had done, he dressed up several poor men and cripples, who were found begging in the streets, like monsters, giving them sponges to throw at him instead of stones, till falling furiously among them with his club, he destroyed them all. When tired of the Herculean habit, he assumed that of an Amazon; and at last became so abandoned as to forsake his palace and live in a fencing school.

During these irregularities and excesses, which it is astonishing mankind could be so pusillanimous as to endure, the barbarians on the frontiers of the empire were daily gaining ground: and, though his lieutenants were successful against the Britons, the Moors, the Dacians, the Germans and Pannonians, yet the empire was daily declining, since their numbers seemed to increase by defeat, so that neither treaties could bind, nor victories repel them. In the mean time, the emperor's actions were become so odious to all mankind, and so contemptible to the citizens of Rome, that his death was ardently desired. At length, resolving to fence naked before the people as a common gladiator, Lætius his general, Electus his chamberlain, and Marcia a concubine, of whom he always appeared excessively fond, remonstrated with him on the indecency of such behaviour. Their advice, however, was attended with no other effect, than that of incensing him against them, and inciting him to their destruction. It was his method, like that of Domitian, to set down the names of all such as he intended to put to death, in a roll, which he carefully kept by him. However, happening to lay the roll on his bed, while he was bathing in another room, it was taken up by a little boy. The child, after playing with it for some time, brought it to Marcia, who was instantly alarmed at the contents. She immediately discovered her terrors to Lætius and Electus, who perceiving their dangerous situation, instantly determined on the tyrant's death.

After some deliberation, it was agreed upon to dispatch him by poison. In consequence of this, a draught was administered to him by the hands of Marcia, which beginning to operate, threw him into a heavy slumber; but finding him awake soon after, and taken with a violent vomiting, she hastily introduced one of the proscribed, named Narcissus, who, in order to save himself, assisted Marcia in strangling the emperor, A. D. 192.

The assassination of Commodus was conducted with such secrecy and expedition, that few were, at that time, acquainted with the real circumstances of his death. His body was wrapped up as a bale of useless furniture, and carried through the guards, most of whom were either drunk or asleep.

Commodus was succeeded by Publius Helvius PERTINAX, whom the conspirators had fixed upon to supply his place. This remarkable person had passed through such varieties of condition, that he received the title of the tennis-ball of fortune. Descended from an obscure family, and either a slave, or the son of a manumitted slave, he followed, for some time, the profession of drying wood and preparing charcoal. He had received, however, a considerable portion of learning; and after keeping a little shop in the city, he became a school-master, and actually taught the Greek and Roman languages in Etruria. He then followed the profession of the law, and afterwards entered upon a military life, when he distinguished himself so highly by his valour and intrepidity, that he was made a captain of a cohort in the Parthian war. After passing through the usual gradations of preferment, in Britain and Mæsia, he obtained the command of a legion under Aurelius. He was afterwards made consul by Aurelius for his eminent services. He was next intrusted with the government of Mæsia, and he was at last made governor of Rome. In the reign of Commodus he was sent into exile; but he was soon after recalled and selected to reform the abuses in the army in Britain. During a sedition which took place among the legions, he was left for dead among the slain; but having recovered from this calamity, he punished the mutineers, and restored the discipline of the army. In Africa, to which he was next removed, the sedition of the troops had nearly proved fatal to him, and being now fatigued with a life of such labour and danger, he returned, and lived in retirement in Rome. Commodus, however, made him præfect of the city, and he filled this situation when Lætius entered his apartment, and announced to him that he was emperor of Rome. Pertinax, unwilling to accept of such a trust, urged the pleas of old age and increasing infirmities; but his refusal was not listened to, and he was immediately carried to the camp and proclaimed emperor.

The anticipations which had been formed of Pertinax, were in no respect disappointed. By strict discipline and wise regulations, he restrained the licentiousness of the prætorian bands, and protected the citizens against their insolence. He punished those who had a share in corrupting the late emperor, whose ill-gotten property he sold for the benefit of the public. He sold as slaves most of the buffoons and jesters of Commodus; particularly those who had obscene names. He attended all the meetings of the senate; and such was his devotion to business, that the meanest applicant could at any time command an audience of him. He melted the silver statues which had been erected to Commodus; and having sold his concubines, horses, and arms, he raised so large a sum that it enabled him to abolish all the taxes which that emperor had laid upon the rivers, harbours, and roads in the empire.

The reformation which Pertinax had introduced among the prætorian bands, excited against him, as might have been expected, the hatred of these insolent soldiers. They therefore resolved to depose him; and having declared an ancient senator of the name of Maternus emperor, they attempted to carry him to the camp to be proclaimed. Unwilling, however, to concur in such a design, he escaped from their power: and having first gone to the emperor, he afterwards fled from the city. Undismayed by this refusal, the insurgents nominated another senator, of the name of Falco, who was more compliant; and whom the senate would have ordered for execution, had not Pertinax interposed

posed his authority, and repeated his resolution, that no senator should suffer in his reign.

The prætorian soldiers, however, were determined to gain their object; and they openly avowed their design of seizing upon the emperor. Having assembled, therefore, in the streets, they marched to the palace. Terrified at their approach, many of the emperor's attendants forsook him, while those who remained steady, urged him to fly for protection to the people. He scorned this advice, and marching to face the rebels, and advancing in the midst of them, he boldly asked them if they who were bound to defend the emperor had come to betray him and to shed his blood? Confounded with this act of personal heroism, the rebels began to retire, when one Thrasinus, a Tungrian, struck him with his lance on the breast, and exclaimed, "the soldiers send you this." The emperor, muffling his head in his robe, and calling upon Jupiter to avenge his death, sunk and expired. A. D. 193.

Rome was now placed in the most deplorable condition. Her slavish population had shown their submission to any emperor, however detestable and cruel, provided he administered to their own pleasures; and they had now reached that acme of vice, at which a good man was considered unfit, as well as unable to govern them. It was not to be wondered at, therefore, that the empire was soon exposed to sale by a public proclamation of the army. Only two competitors appeared for the sceptre of the world. Sulpicianus, prefect of the city, and son-in-law to Pertinax, got first to the camp, and made liberal promises to the soldiers. He was, however, soon supplanted by Didius JULIANUS, an eminent lawyer, who had amassed an enormous fortune by his avarice. He produced immense sums of ready money, and having been received into the camp by a soldier, and being declared the highest bidder, the empire was knocked down to him. Attended by the conductors of the sale, who amounted to about 10,000 men, Julianus entered the city. Although the people hissed him as he passed, and refused to sanction his elevation, yet the senate concurred with the army, and Didius was acknowledged emperor in the 57th year of his age. Having acquired the imperial diadem by purchase, Didius resolved to use it for his pleasure. He gave himself no trouble about the affairs of state, but resigned himself to indolence and repose. The soldiers, however, began to discover his avarice, and to view him with detestation. He was loaded with curses whenever he left the palace, and saluted with the appellation of a thief, as having stolen the empire. The good natured monarch, however, bore all this with the greatest gentleness and forbearance. He bowed and smiled to those who insulted him, and was always ready to submit to the humours and caprices of the people.

A portion of the Roman spirit, however, seems still to have lingered among the provinces. The governor of Syria, Pescennius Niger, and Septimius Severus, who commanded the German legions, resolved to aspire to the throne. They both held out Pertinax as their model; and Septimius Severus, an African by birth, assumed his name and vowed to revenge his death. Niger was proclaimed emperor by his troops; and the different kings and potentates in Asia sent ambassadors to acknowledge his title. Content with this homage, he made no efforts to secure the empire, but devoted himself to a luxurious life at Antioch.

Septimius, however, proceeded more cautiously. Having assumed Albinus, who commanded in Britain, as his partner, and secured the strong-holds in Germany, he marched to Rome at the head of his army. At the urgent request of Didius, the senate proclaimed him a traitor; but all the attempts of the emperor were unable to organize an effective force, and, perplexed with opposite counsels, he waited the approach of his rival. When Severus had advanced near to Rome, Didius, with the consent of the senate, sent ambassadors to offer him a share in the concern; but when the general rejected this offer, the senate immediately assembed, and having passed a decree depriving Didius of the empire, they proclaimed SEVERUS in his place. Didius was ordered by the senate to be slain, and, when the executioners had performed their office, after great remonstrances and wailing on the part of Didius, they stuck up his head in the court of justice, where he had formerly carried on his professional pursuits.

Before Severus entered Rome, he ordered the prætorian soldiers who had sold the empire, to come out unarmed to meet him. Having no alternative but compliance, they marched out with laurels in their hands to welcome his approach; but the emperor, after reproaching them for their crimes, ordered them to be stripped of their military equipments, deprived of the title and rank of soldiers, and banished to the distance of 100 miles from Rome. He then made his entrance into the city. The streets were strewed with flowers, and he senate received him with open arms, and granted him every honour and title that he desired, while he in return promised to govern with justice and moderation. In order to secure adherents, he seized all the children of those who occupied situations of authority in the east, and kept them as hostages for the good conduct of their fathers. He next supplied the city with corn, and hastened to Syria to attack Niger, who still reigned in the east under the title of Augustus. After many obstinate engagements between the rival sovereigns, a decisive battle took place on the plains of the Issus, in which Niger was totally defeated with the loss of 20,000 men. The head of Niger was cut off, and carried on the point of a lance to Severus, who exercised the greatest severity against the adherents of his rival. The Parthians, and several of the neighbouring nations, had taken up arms in defence of Niger; but Severus defeated them in several decisive battles.

Having thus established peace, and even enlarged the empire, Severus resolved to get rid of Claudius Albinus, whom he had assumed as his partner in the empire at a time when he dreaded his influence and power. Under the guise of messengers carrying dispatches, he sent assassins into Britain to murder Albinus; but the general, being informed of their designs, assumed a warlike attitude, and proclaimed himself emperor. These rival leaders met each other in Gaul; a desperate engagement took place, which continued from morning till night with variable though equal success. The troops of Severus at last gave way; and he himself falling from his horse, the rival army raised the shouts of victory. A body of reserve, however, under Lætus, one of Severus's officers, who intended to destroy both parties and assume the sovereignty, restored the fury of the battle, and enabled Severus to rally his troops, and make a desperate charge against Albinus. This attack was made with such skill and bravery, that the army of Albinus was pursued into the city of Lyons, and he himself taken prisoner and slain.

In order to establish himself in the power which he had now acquired, Severus distributed rewards and honours in the most profuse manner among his troops, and having given the charge of the government to one Plautianus, whose daughter his son Caracalla had married, he undertook an expedition against the Parthians. In this campaign he subjugated Armenia, and making himself master of Seleucia, Babylon, and Ctesiphon, he subdued the kingdom of Parthia. From Parthia he advanced to the south of Asia, and, after visiting the tomb of Pompey the Great, granted a senate to Alexandria.

During the absence of Severus, Plautianus conceived the design of seizing the empire; and no sooner had Severus returned, than Plautianus engaged a tribune of the prætorian bands, whom he commanded to assassinate both Severus and his son Caracalla. The tribune lost no time in communicating the intelligence to Severus, who treated it as a plot devised by the enemies of his favourite. The tribune at last requested permission to bring Plautianus to the emperor's apartment, and having informed him that he had slain both Severus and Caracalla, Plautianus was ordered to follow him to the palace. Conducted at midnight to the place of murder,

murder, he found Severus encircled by his friends, and ready to receive him. Confounded at the sight, he confessed his designs. The emperor was disposed to pardon him; but Caracalla, heedless of the supplications of the criminal, ran him through the body with his sword.

As the Roman arms had suffered some checks in Britain, Severus resolved to recover the territory which had been lost. After visiting some cities in Italy, and appointing Caracalla and Geta his successors in the empire, he was accompanied by his two sons, and, when he landed in the island, he left Geta in the south, and marched with Caracalla against the Caledonians. Pursuing the inhabitants through their extensive marshes, and their dense forests, he lost about 50,000 men in this toilsome warfare; but his success was such that the enemy sued for peace, and surrendered a considerable part of their country.

He then built a wall across the island, extending from Bowness, or *Tunnocelum*, on the Solway Firth, to Cousin's house, or *Segedunum*, near the mouth of the river Tyne, a distance of 68 English miles. The wall was built of freestone, and had a ditch on its north side. It was twelve feet high and eight broad, and contained a great number of fortresses of different kinds. By this barrier the conquered provinces were protected against the incursions of the Caledonians, and the emperor retired to York. Caracalla attempted to murder his father; and the old man was so shocked with the brutality of his son, that he called him into his presence, and offering him a naked sword, exclaimed, "If you are ambitious of reigning alone, imbrue now your hands in your father's blood, and let not the world witness your want of filial tenderness." Caracalla was not greatly disturbed by this reproof. He seems to have prevailed upon the soldiers to revolt, and to proclaim him emperor; but the moment Severus, who had now lost the use of his feet, heard of these steps, he ordered himself to be put into his litter, and demanded the presence of Caracalla, and the tribunes and centurions. Confounded with the energy and boldness of their emperor, they implored his pardon on their knees; upon which he exclaimed, "It is the head that governs, and not the feet." Feeling that his disorder daily gained strength, he called for poison; but his attendants having refused it, he ate to excess, which put an end to his life in the 66th year of his age, and the 18th of his reign, A. D. 210.

Though noted for his severity and cruelty, and destitute of the common feelings of humanity, yet Severus has gained a high name for his military talents, his attention to business, and his temperance and simplicity of character. He was fond of literature, and was celebrated by his wit as well as by his learning. He is said to have composed a history of his own reign, which was praised for its correctness and truth.

His sons, CARACALLA and GETA, left joint heirs to the empire, very early began to shew a mutual hatred to each other. Their only agreement was in resolving to deify their father; but soon after each sought to attach the senate and army to his own particular interest. In disposition, as well as views, they differed extremely: Caracalla was fierce and cruel to an extreme degree; Geta was mild and merciful: so that Rome soon found the dangerous effects of being governed by two princes of equal power and contrary inclinations.

But this opposition was of no long continuance; for Caracalla, being resolved to govern alone, furiously entered Geta's apartment, and, followed by ruffians, slew him in his mother's arms. Having committed this fratricide, he issued, with great haste, from the palace, crying out, "that his brother would have slain him; and that he was obliged, in self-defence, to retaliate the intended injury." He then took refuge among the prætorian cohorts, and, in a pathetic tone, began to implore their protection; and, in order to strengthen his interest, promised to bestow upon them the largesses usually given upon the election of new emperors. By such persuasives, the soldiers were induced to proclaim him sole emperor, and to stigmatise the memory of his brother Geta as a traitor, and an enemy to the commonwealth. The senators were soon after prevailed on, either through favour or fear, to approve of what had been done by the army; and Caracalla, now invested with undivided power, in order to render his crime more detestable, by the grossest hypocrisy, affected to mourn for his brother, and ordered him to be adored as a god.

The enormities of Domitian and Nero, were soon exceeded by this monster. Lætius, who first advised him to murder his brother, was the first who fell a sacrifice to his jealousy: his own wife, Plautina, followed; and Papinian, the renowned civilian, was beheaded for refusing to write in vindication of his cruelty, and answering the emperor's request, by observing, "that it was much easier to commit a parricide than to defend it." He commanded all governors to be slain whom his brother had appointed, and destroyed not less than two thousand of his adherents. Whole nights were spent in the execution of his bloody decrees; and the dead bodies of people of all ranks, were carried out of the city in carts, where they were burnt in heaps, without the customary rites. Upon a certain occasion, he ordered his soldiers to set upon a crowded audience in the theatre, only for discountenancing a charioteer, whom he happened to favour. Perceiving himself hated by the people, he publicly declared, "that he could insure his own safety, though not their love; so that he neither valued their reproaches, nor feared their hatred."

This safety, in which he so much confided, was the protection of his soldiers. He had exhausted the treasury, drained the provinces, and committed a thousand acts of rapacity, merely to keep them stedfast in his interests; and now he resolved to lead them upon a visit through all the provinces of the empire. He first went into Germany, where, to oblige the natives, he dressed himself in the habit of the country. From thence he travelled into Macedonia, where he pretended to be a great admirer of Alexander the Great; and among other extravagances, caused a statue of that monarch to be made with two faces; one of which resembled Alexander, and the other himself. He was so corrupted by flattery, that he called himself Alexander; and affected the walk and gesture of that hero. Shortly after, arriving in Lesser Asia, as he was viewing the tomb of Achilles, he felt the desire of imitating him in something: and one of his freedmen happening to die at that time, he used the same ceremonies that were performed at the tomb of Patroclus. Passing from thence into Egypt, he cut off numbers at once, in the amphitheatre at Alexandria, only for having passed some jests upon his person.

Going from thence into Syria, he invited Artabanus, king of Parthia, to a conference, desiring his daughter in marriage, and promising him the most honourable reception. In consequence of this, that king met him on a spacious plain, unarmed, and only attended with a vast concourse of his nobles. This was what Caracalla desired. Regardless of his promise, or the law of nations, he instantly surrounded him with armed troops, let in wild beasts among his attendants, and made a most terrible slaughter among them, Artabanus himself escaping with the utmost difficulty. For this vile treachery, Caracalla assumed the surname of Parthicus.

Upon his return to Rome, as if to show how far ingenuity in vice and progress in crime could be carried, he became enamoured of the mother of Geta, and the wife of his father, and publicly married her.

However, though he disregarded shame, he was not insensible of fear. He was ever uneasy, in the consciousness of being universally hated; and was continually consulting astrologers concerning his future destiny. Among others, he sent one of his confidants, named Maternianus, with orders to consult all the astrologers in the city concerning his end. Maternianus considered this as a proper time to get rid of Macrinus, a man of considerable eminence, who was daily supplanting him in his master's favour. He therefore informed him by letter, as if from the astrologers, that Macrinus had a design against his life; and they consequently advised him to put the conspirator to death. This letter, amongst

amongst many others, happened to be delivered to the emperor, as he was preparing for a chariot race. However, as it never was his custom to interrupt his pleasures for his business, he gave the pacquet to Macrinus himself to peruse; and to inform him of the contents, when more at leisure. When Macrinus came to the letter which regarded himself, he was unable to contain his surprise and terror; and secreting it, set about concerting in reality, what he had been invidiously accused of, in order to secure himself. At length, he unbosomed himself to one Martial, a man of great strength, and a centurion of the guards, who hated the emperor from various motives, particularly for the death of a brother. Macrinus, therefore, prevailed upon him to attempt the tyrant's destruction, the first favourable opportunity. Accordingly, as the emperor was riding out one day, near a little city called Carræ, he happened to withdraw himself privately, with only one page to hold his horse. Martial eagerly laid hold of the occasion, and running to him hastily, as if he had been called, gave Caracalla a mortal wound in the back. Having performed this daring deed, Martial, unconcernedly, returned to his troop; but retiring, by insensible degrees, he endeavoured to secure himself by flight. His companions, however, soon missing him, and the page giving information of what had been done, he was pursued and cut in pieces.

During the reign of this execrable tyrant, which continued six years, the empire was every day declining; the soldiers were entirely masters of every election; and as there were so many opposite interests, Caracalla, by balancing them by military force, destroyed all discipline among the soldiers, and all subordination in the state.

The military, who, in fact, had now monopolised all power to themselves, after a suspense of two days, fixed upon MACRINUS, who took all possible methods to conceal his being privy to Caracalla's murder. The senate confirmed their choice shortly after; and likewise that of his son Diadumenus, whom he took as a partner in the empire. Macrinus was fifty-three years old when he was invested with the purple: he was of obscure parentage; some say, by birth a Moor. Little is recorded of this emperor, except his engaging in a bloody though undecided battle, with Artabanus, king of Parthia, who came to take vengeance for the injury he had sustained in the late reign; however, this monarch, finding his real enemy dead, was content to make peace, and returned into Parthia. Something is also said of the severity of Macrinus's discipline: for to such a pitch of licentiousness was the Roman army now arrived, that the most gentle inflictions were looked upon as severity. It was this attempt at discipline, however, together with the artifices of Mœsa, grandmother to Heliogabalus, the natural son of Caracalla, that caused the emperor's ruin. Heliogabalus was priest of a temple dedicated to the Sun, in Emesa, a city of Phœnicia, and though but fourteen years old was greatly loved by the army, for the beauty of his person, and the memory of his father, whose indulgence they gratefully remembered. This was soon perceived by the grandmother, who, being very rich in gold and jewels, gave liberal presents among them, while they frequently repaired to her temple, both from the garrison in the city, and the camp of Macrinus. This intercourse growing every day more frequent, and the soldiers being disgusted with the severities of Macrinus, they began to think of electing Heliogabalus in his stead. Accordingly, sending for him to their camp, he was immediately proclaimed; and such were the hopes of his virtues, that all men began to espouse his interest.

Macrinus, who at this time was pursuing his pleasures at Antioch, on hearing of the insurrection, thought it sufficient to send his lieutenant Julian, with some legions, against the revolters. However these, like the rest, soon declared for Heliogabalus, and slew their general. Macrinus now resolved to march against the mutinous legions. The combatants met on the frontiers of Syria, and, after a bloody battle, Macrinus was put to flight. Desirous of getting to Rome, he travelled with secrecy and expedition through Asia Minor; but he fell ill at Chalcedon, and being overtaken by his pursuers, he was put to death, along with his son Diadumenus, after a reign of fourteen months.

The succession of HELIOGABALUS to the empire having been ratified by the senate and citizens of Rome, he was invested with the usual titles, and at the age of fourteen put in possession of absolute power. Surrounded by flatterers, who found it their interest to gratify him in all his propensities, however wild, Heliogabalus was soon initiated into all the profligacy of the times; and he is described by the Roman historian as a monster of sensuality and vice. All the prostitutes of Rome assembled in his palace, and the most infamous of the mob became the imperial favourites. He appointed his grandmother Mæsa, and his mother Sæmias his colleagues in the empire; and, in order to dignify the sex, to which he was so much attached, he created a female senate, over which his mother presided, and the object of which was to arrange the fashions which were to prevail in the empire. He next raised to the honours of the consulship his own horse, whom he fed with gilded oats; and he forced his subjects to worship the god Heliogabalus, which was a large black stone of a conical shape. To this deity temples were raised, and the shrines of the gods were plundered to deck that of the newly invented divinity. His prodigality was such, that he considered nothing worth eating that was bought at a moderate price. His supper commonly cost 6000 crowns; and on some occasions so much as 60,000. He dressed himself in gold and purple clothes, and never wore the same dress twice. His apartments were furnished with the richest stuffs, covered with gold and jewels. His mats consisted of the down of hares, or the soft feathers from beneath the wings of partridges; his carpets were made of gold and silver tissue, and his shoes were covered with precious stones, to attract the notice of the populace.

Annoyed with these excesses, his mother Mæsa, conceiving that she might diminish his power, by sharing it with a colleague, proposed to him to adopt his cousin german, Alexander Severus, and to make him a partner in his throne. Heliogabalus agreed to the request; but was soon desirous of undoing what he had done. The virtues of Alexander, however, had endeared him to the soldiers; and when Heliogabalus attempted to deprive him of the throne, the prætorian soldiers resented the attempt, and would have killed the emperor as he was walking in his garden had he not saved himself by flight. The seditious spirit however continued; and the soldiers insisted upon guarding Alexander, and upon prohibiting any of the emperor's favourites from contaminating him with their society. Heliogabalus was alarmed with the mutinous spirit of his guards, and made preparations for his death suitable to his general habits. He erected a tower with gold and mother-of-pearl steps, from which he might precipitate himself if necessary. He kept about his person cords of purple, silk, and gold, for the purpose of strangling himself; he provided golden swords and daggers to stab himself with; and he had different poisons kept in boxes of emerald. In this state of mind he suspected the senate of having designs against him, and he banished them from the city; he attempted to poison Alexander, but the mutiny of the soldiers prevented him from carrying it into effect; and when he thus found himself threatened on all sides, he meditated new cruelties against his enemies. The soldiers resolved to put an end to such a system. They followed him into his palace; pursued him from room to room; and at last found him hid in a privy, from which he was dragged into the street, and ignominiously put to death. They loaded his body with weights, and cast it into the Tiber. His mother, and many of the partners of his crimes, were at the same time put to death.

Alexander SEVERUS was unanimously declared emperor by the senate and the people, and he was every way deserving of that high honour. Though possessed of absolute power at

at the age of sixteen, yet his mother Mammea, one of his advisers, was distinguished for her talents and virtues, and exerted every nerve to make the reign of her son honourable to himself, and useful as well as glorious for the empire. One of the first steps of Alexander was to reform the abuses of the preceding reign; to punish with severity every magistrate that took bribes; and to reward all those whose conduct was marked with justice and integrity. The humanity of the emperor was not inferior to his justice. He put down the luxuries of his predecessor, and did every thing in his power to promote morality, and to repress those licentious pleasures which had debased his subjects.

Under this beneficent sway, the Christians, who had suffered so many persecutions in Rome, were themselves protected; and in a dispute between the Christians and a company of cooks respecting a piece of public ground, which the one party wished as a place of worship, while the other meant to employ it in the exercise of their profession, the emperor decided in his rescript, "that it was better that God should be worshipped there in any manner, than that the spot should be devoted to drunkenness and debauchery."

The personal accomplishments of this monarch have been highly extolled by historians. He was not only a patron of literature, but he devoted his leisure hours to the study of the Greek and Latin historians, orators, and poets. He was skilled in mathematics, geometry, and music. In painting and sculpture he had great knowledge, and as a poet he is said to have had few rivals.

In the arts of war as well as in those of peace, Alexander was pre-eminent. The tranquillity of the empire having been disturbed by the Persians, Alexander placed himself at the head of his army and marched into the East, A. D. 234. He routed the Persians with great slaughter in a decisive battle; he took the cities of Ctesiphon and Babylon, and thus regained the territory which had been lost. When he returned to Antioch, his mother Mammea sent for the celebrated Origen, to receive instructions from him respecting the principles of Christianity, and after various communications with her, she sent him back with a proper guard, to his native city of Alexandria. The generals of Alexander who commanded in other provinces, were equally successful. Furius Celsus subdued the Mauritanians in Africa; Varius Macrinus obtained great successes in Germany; and Junius Palmatus triumphed in Armenia.

Notwithstanding these successes, however, the empire was overrun by hordes from Upper Germany, and the north of Europe, who crossed the Rhine and the Danube in such swarms that they carried consternation even into the heart of Rome. Alexander increased his army and marched against them in person. He obtained various successes over the enemy; but the strict discipline which the state of his troops had rendered necessary, displeased his army, and excited a mutiny among the legions encamped about Moguntia, who had been accustomed to every kind of licence during the corruptions of the preceding reign. They openly declared that they were under the dominion of a woman without liberality, and a boy without spirit; and they announced their design of electing an emperor who needed no assistance on his throne. These dissentions were fomented by an old general Maximinus, who held frequent communications with the troops. Resolved to destroy Alexander, they sent an executioner into his tent, who cut off his head, and put to death his mother and all his friends. As soon as the army heard of his fate, they punished with immediate death all who had been concerned in the murder, with the exception only of MAXIMINUS, the principal abettor of the sedition, who was proclaimed emperor. His father was a Thracian shepherd, and he himself exercised the same humble profession. Having frequently led his countrymen against the barbarians and robbers who infested the plains on which his flocks grazed, he had acquired a knowledge of irregular warfare, and was inflamed with a passion for military glory. He therefore entered the Roman army, where he soon became as remarkable for his courage and discipline, as he was for his strength and gigantic stature. He was nearly eight feet and a half high, and his form was equally strong and symmetrical. He was capable of drawing a load which two oxen could not move. He could break the thigh-bone of a horse by a kick, and strike out its teeth with a blow. He generally ate forty pounds of flesh every day, and drank six gallons of wine, without being exposed to the charge of intemperance. Maximinus first displayed his strength at the public games which the emperor Septimius Severus was celebrating on the birth-day of his son Geta. The giant had requested permission to contend for the prizes, but Severus allowed him to combat only with slaves. In running he outstripped sixteen one after the other. He kept up with the emperor on horseback, and after being thus fatigued, he overcame seven of the most active soldiers. These feats of strength indueed the emperor to take him into his body guards. In Caracalla's reign he was made a centurion; and in consequence of his good conduct and strict discipline, he was raised to the rank of a tribune. When Macrinus succeeded to the empire, Maximinus refused to serve him, and retired to Thrace, where he purchased land and carried on some commercial pursuits. He returned to Rome on the accession of Heliogabalus, but the effeminacy of the emperor soon made him quit the court. The emperor Alexander afterwards received him in the kindest manner, and gave him the command of the fourth legion, consisting of new raised troops, which he commanded with great honour against the Germans, having acquired the character of being the bravest and the most virtuous soldier in the Roman army. The ambition of power, or rather the possession of it, seems to have altered his nature. The base ingratitude to Alexander with which he marked the commencement of his new life, was followed by a system of tyranny and brutality which had scarcely been equalled even in the reigns of his most detested predecessors.

The senate having refused to ratify his election, he determined to reign without their concurrence. He put to death all the senators who were obnoxious to him, and resolved to force an unwilling obedience from every rank in the state. He slew the rich for the purpose of obtaining their estates. He persecuted the Christians; and, ashamed of the obscurity of his extraction, he put to death all those who were acquainted with him in early life. No fewer than 400 persons are said to have been sacrificed to the bare suspicion of their having conspired against his life. They were exposed not merely to death but to torments; and the imperial monster is said to have entertained himself by killing some with blows; by exposing others to wild beasts; by nailing them on crosses, and by enclosing them in the bellies of animals newly slain.

In his military capacity he now showed his early spirit, and his bravery and his skill remained the same. He defeated the Germans in several engagements, and cutting down the standing corn, and laying waste the country with fire and sword for 450 miles round, he wished to impress upon the Germans the punishment of rebellion. The soldiers were deeply attached to him, not only from the increase of pay which he allowed them in these expeditions, but from the zeal with which he partook of all the duties of a common soldier, being constantly found in the points of danger, and fighting as an individual soldier while he commanded as a general.

Notwithstanding this general popularity of Maximinus, he had lost the affections of his subjects, and many partial but ill-devised conspiracies were formed against him. The plot contrived by Magnus, of abandoning the emperor to the enemy, by breaking down a wooden bridge after he had crossed it, was discovered, and on this ground alone he put to death above 4000 of his troops.

In the African provinces, the spirit of discontent arose to a still higher pitch. Roused by his cruelties and inordinate exactions, they first slew his procurator, and then proclaimed a new emperor. The person on whom this choice fell was GORDIAN, the proconsul of Africa, who had now reached his

his 80th year, and whose talents and virtues were well known in the empire. The soldiers and the people literally forced upon him this unexpected honour; and he and his son, who was then forty-six years of age, were declared emperors. Gordian lost no time in acquainting the senate with these events. He assured them of his aversion to such an office, and stated that he would retain his authority no longer than till he had freed the empire of its present oppressor. The senate and the people unanimously confirmed the election of Gordian. They declared Maximinus an enemy and traitor. They displaced his governors, and commanded the provinces to acknowledge Gordian.

No sooner did Maximinus hear of these transactions, than he threw himself into a fury which nothing could control. He is said to have raged like a wild animal, and to have beat his head upon the wall; but when he recovered from this fit of distraction, he harangued his army, promised them the estates of his enemies, and resolved to march to Rome to deal out slaughter and revenge. During his progress through the provinces, he learned with joy that Capelianus, the governor of Numidia, had continued faithful to his cause, that he had slain the younger Gordian in battle and destroyed his army, and that the elder Gordian had strangled himself when he heard of the death of his son.

These unlooked-for events, while they raised the hopes of the tyrant, produced the most terrible consternation in Rome. Without the aid of Gordian, and without time to prepare effectually for their defence, the senate assembled in the temple of Jupiter, and after the most solemn deliberation, they elected PUPIENUS and BALBINUS joint emperors.

Accustomed to the government of provinces, and the command of armies, the new emperors raised levies with the utmost expedition; and Pupienus marched at the head of them to oppose the entrance of Maximinus. No sooner had they left the city, than two of Maximinus's soldiers who had entered the senate-house were slain by two of the senators. The prætorian troops took offence at this event. Rome became the scene of a bloody tumult, and the city was set on fire by the soldiers.

The news of his having been deposed by the senate, threw Maximinus into the most violent rage. He hurried on his army for the purposes of revenge; but instead of finding repose, food, and supplies, in the fertile vales of Italy, he was obstructed by the strong holds of the country, into which the senate had taken the precaution of carrying every kind of sustenance. Aquileia, which he expected to enter without opposition, was defended by Crispinus and Menophilis, who ordered scalding pitch and sulphur to be thrown down upon the scaling parties, and thus forced them to abandon the assault. Dreading the cruelties of Maximinus, the old men and women were seen fighting on the ramparts; and the women are said to have cut off their hair to furnish the soldiers with bow-strings. The enraged emperor attributed the resistance of the besieged to the incapacity of his own generals, and put many of them to death; and the discontent which this occasioned soon swelled into a mutiny, from the famine and fatigue with which the troops were exhausted. The mutineers were at first afraid to attack a man of such gigantic strength, but having enlisted his own body-guards in their cause, they slew both him and his son when they were asleep at noon in their tent; and thus freed the empire from the greatest scourge with which it had yet been afflicted. Maximinus perished in the third year of his usurpation, in the sixty-fifth year of his age. His body was left to be devoured by dogs and birds of prey, A. D. 238.

Rome being thus freed from her alarms before her armies met those of the usurper, Pupienus returned to Rome to enjoy the tranquillity of peace. He was received with the greatest rejoicings, thanksgivings were offered up for the deliverance of the city, and whole hecatombs blazed on the altars. The Persians having begun to make aggressions against the Romans, Pupienus was preparing to march against them with a powerful army, when events of a more serious nature claimed his attention. Although both the emperors were distinguished by their wisdom and experience, yet the fiend of jealousy seems to have early conspired to separate them. Pupienus was universally allowed to surpass his colleague, both as a soldier and a statesman; but as he was the son of a blacksmith, Balbinus considered himself as his superior both from his opulence and from his family. The petty dissentions which from these causes took place between the rival emperors, emboldened the prætorian guards to effect a change in the government, which they had long contemplated. They therefore attacked the palace when the emperors were returning from the capitoline games. Perceiving the approach of the troops, and anticipating its object, Pupienus sent for the German guards, who were stationed round Balbinus; but whether Balbinus wished to leave his colleague unprotected, or whether he prudently retained the guards for his own defence, he refused to send any assistance to Pupienus. The prætorian troops meeting with no resistance, seized both the emperors, and dragging them to the camp, they put them to death, and left their bodies in the streets.

While the tumult which was thus excited was at its height, the mutineers met accidentally with GORDIAN, the grandson of their late emperor, in the street. This amiable young man, then in his sixteenth year, promised, by his virtues and talents, to retrieve the Roman character. The senate and the people concurred with the army in his election. His governor and instructor, Misitheus, who had been celebrated for his eloquence and public virtues, was entrusted with the most responsible offices in the state. The emperor married his daughter, Furia Sabina Tranquillina, and followed the advice of his father-in-law in every question of importance. They reformed the various abuses which had crept into the government; they restored the antient discipline of the army; they endeavoured to reconcile the soldiers and the citizens, and they laid up stores of provisions in the chief towns of the empire, in order that, upon any emergency, a large army could be maintained for fifteen days.

Having thus established himself in the good opinion of his subjects, Gordian marched into the east to attack Sapor king of Persia, who had seized upon Antioch, and plundered Syria and the adjoining provinces. During his march to the east, he fell in with an army of the Gauls in Mæsia, who had endeavoured to settle in Thrace; and after many successful conflicts, he compelled them to retreat into their own territories. He next advanced against the Persians; and after defeating the army of Sapor, he obtained possession of several of the most flourishing cities in the east. The senate decreed a triumph to Gordian, and selected Misitheus as the guardian of the state. This able and upright minister, however, who had been made prætorian prefect, and who had a principal share in the success of the Roman arms, died very suddenly, and was supposed to have been poisoned by one Philip, an Arabian, who succeeded him as prætorian prefect. Misitheus bequeathed all his possessions to the Romans. The good fortune of Gordian seems to have left him at the death of his father-in-law. The army was not supplied with provisions as before; and Philip artfully took advantage of the discontent which was thus occasioned. He contrived to have himself raised to equal power with Gordian; and having attained this elevation, he assassinated his colleague, who died in the twenty-second year of his age, and the sixth of his reign. The senate honoured the remains of Gordian with a splendid funeral on the confines of Persia; and they decreed that his descendants should be freed from all the heavy taxes of the state.

PHILIP was now, A.D. 244, proclaimed emperor by the army; and their choice was with some reluctance confirmed by the voice of the senate, who gave him the title of Augustus. Philip ascended the throne at the age of forty; and he associated with him as the partner of his power, his son, who was only six years of age. His father, who was an Arabian, had been captain of a band of robbers, and had no doubt brought up his son to the same adventurous profession. Philip conceived a desire to visit the scenes of his early exploits

exploits, and before he set off from Rome, he went into Arabia, and laid the foundation of a city, to which he gave the name of Philippopolis. Leaving Mesopotamia a prey to the Persians, he returned to Rome, where he was received with respect and submission, though not with the usual acclamations of the people. He soon, however, rendered himself popular. As the thousandth year of Rome fell in the reign or Philip, he caused the secular games to be celebrated with a magnificence corresponding to the joy of this event. The people were entertained with games and shows. The theatre of Pompey was crowded for three days and three nights in succession, and two thousand gladiators bled at once in the circus to administer to the amusement of the people.

The Goths having invaded the empire, Marinus, the lieutenant of Philip, was sent against them with a powerful army. This ambitious general, however, betrayed his trust, and was declared emperor by his troops; but in a short time the very persons who conferred upon him this dignity, took it from him and put him to death. Decius, whom Philip had appointed to succeed Marinus in Pannonia, was now offered the imperial dignity by his soldiers; but he appeared to assume the honour with reluctance, and wrote to Philip that he took the title merely to secure it to its rightful possessor, to whom he waited only for a favourable opportunity of resigning it. Distrusting these professions, Philip marched with the forces he was able to collect; but when his army had arrived at Verona, a general revolt took place in favour of Decius. A sentinel attacked the emperor in person, and cleft his head in two by a cut of his sword. Philip, who had reached the forty-fifth year of his age, and had reigned about five years, was succeeded by Decius.

Cneius Metius DECIUS was universally acknowledged emperor by the senate and the people. The senate held him in such high estimation, that they gave him the title of Trajanus; and in the opinion of historians, he seems to have merited this exalted surname. He permitted the office of censor to be revived; and Valerian, a man of the strictest morals, was elevated to that office. Decius endeavoured to watch over the interests of the inferior classes of the people, while he guarded the dignity of the patrician orders; but Rome had now arrived at such a state, that no individual talents, and no high example of virtue, could save her from destruction. The rapid spread of the Christian religion, and the constant disputes which were carried on between the Christian and the Pagan inhabitants, created divisions at home, while the growing insolence and audacity of the barbarian hordes of the north, threatened the destruction of the empire from without. The persecution of the Christians, which arose from the first of these causes, was carried on with unrelenting hatred. Thousands were put to death; and every species of cruelty was resorted to in order to reduce their numbers and their influence. An irruption of the Goths into Thrace and Mæsia, seemed to follow as a punishment for this persecution. Decius went at the head of a powerful army to oppose them; and, after an obstinate engagement, he succeeded in destroying 30,000 of the barbarians. In following up his success, he was led into a defile by the treason of his own general, Gallus, where the king of the Goths had been instructed to assail him. In this position of danger, the brave emperor, after seeing his son fall by an arrow, and the whole of his army routed, resolved to die on the field of battle which he had lost. Spurring on his horse, he plunged into a marsh, where he was instantly swallowed up, and his body never more seen. This event happened in the fiftieth year of his age and the third of his reign.

The remnant of the Roman army which had survived this disgraceful battle, proclaimed Gallus HOSTILIUS the successor of Decius. Though descended from an honourable family, he seems to have been as destitute of military courage as he was of private honour. Instead of arraying the strength of Rome against the invaders, he purchased peace by an ignominious tribute to the Goths, and returned to the capital to devote himself to indolence and licentiousness. The Goths, however, whose friendship he had bought, soon forgot their bargain, and rushed in upon the eastern provinces. The Persians and Scythians were encouraged by their example, and spread their desolating armies over Syria and Mesopotamia. While the distant members of the empire were thus wasted and plundered, disorders equally fatal were raging at its heart. The Christians were persecuted with new malignity; a frightful pestilence, which seems to have been widely extended, scourged the empire for several years; and a civil war now added its horrors to these already existing evils.

After conquering the Goths, Æmilianus, the Roman general, was proclaimed emperor by his troops. Gallus marched into the east to oppose him; and in a battle which took place in Mæsia, Gallus, and along with him his son Volusian, was slain in the 47th year of his age, and the third of his reign.

Æmilianus now expected to be acknowledged emperor by the senate; but they refused to confer upon him this honour, and, when their refusal was made known, the army stationed in Rhætia proclaimed their general, Valerian, emperor. The prospect of a civil war between these two competitors, induced the army of Æmilianus to put their own commander to death, and to concur in the general attachment to Valerian.

Publius Licinius VALERIAN was raised to the empire at the age of 78, and united the suffrages of all classes of the Roman people. That moderation, however, and those virtues which had distinguished him in private life, did not display themselves to great advantage when he came to the supreme power. He wanted courage in his military operations, and, though he affected to be the patron of science, yet he does not seem to have bestowed any essential favours on men of true genius or merit. Valerian, however, made many good attempts to reform the abuses of government; but he left a blot upon the character of his reign, by his malevolent persecution of the harmless Christians. The incursions of the northern hordes called Valerian into the field, and the invasion of Syria by Sapor, king of Persia, compelled him to undertake an expedition for its relief. His arms, however, were unsuccessful in Mesopotamia; and when he wished to have a private conference with Sapor, he was treacherously taken prisoner, and carried in triumph to the capital, A. D. 260. Here he exposed him in public to the insults of the people. He loaded him with ridicule and indignities of every kind, and he used the captive monarch as a footstool whenever he mounted on horseback. After a captivity of seven years, Sapor at last put out his eyes, and ordered him to be flayed alive, and salt to be thrown over his mangled body, till he perished in the greatest torment. His skin is said to have been afterwards tanned and painted red, and nailed up in one of the temples of Persia as a warning to the future emperors of Rome.

The success of the Persian arms inspired all the northern nations with the hopes of subjugating Rome. While the Goths and Scythians ravaged Pontus and Asia, the Franks and Alemanni carried fire and sword into Rhætia, and advanced as far as Ravenna. The Sarmatians and the Quadi about the same time entered Dacia and Pannonia, and other barbarous tribes invaded Spain, and took possession of many of their strong holds.

In this crisis GALLIENUS, the son of Valerian, was chosen emperor by universal consent. Hastening from Gaul into Italy he drove out the barbarians, and delivered Rome from the terrors of an invasion. Regillianus, who commanded in Dacia and Pannonia, was equally successful, and even beat them in several engagements in one day.

A general of the name of Ingenuus, who commanded in Pannonia, was proclaimed emperor by his troops; but Gallienus lost no time in marching against him, and having come up with him in Illyricum, he defeated his army, and Ingenuus was either slain by his troops after the battle, or took away his own life to avoid the enmity of Gallienus.

The cruelties which the emperor exercised after this battle were of the most intolerable kind; he ordered all males, whether old or young, to be destroyed; he slew all who had either spoken ill of him, or had wished him ill; and he commanded one of his officers, Verianis Celis, in a letter which still exists, to tear, kill, and cut in pieces without mercy. In consequence of these cruelties, the soldiers who had served under Ingenuus, and the inhabitants of Mæsia, proclaimed Q. Nonius REGILLIANUS emperor.

This general, who was born in Dacia, is said to have been a descendant of king Decabalus, who was conquered by Trajan. He had acquired great reputation as a soldier, and had defeated the Sarmatians in several battles after he was proclaimed emperor. He did not, however, possess long the imperial honours; having been killed by his own troops in the year of our Lord 262.

The facility of being now made an emperor, and the short period during which that honour was held, brought forward a number of generals who were proclaimed by their respective armies. These candidates for the imperial purple were nineteen. The following is a list of them: Regillianus, Ingenuus, Cyriades, Macrinus, Balista, Udenatus, Zenobia queen of Palmyra, Posthumius, Lollianus, Victorinus, and his mother Victoria, Marius and Tetricus, Aureolus, Saturninus, Trebellianus, Piso, Valens, Æmilianus, and Celsus.

Though the name of tyrant has been applied to these aspiring individuals, yet their ambition was in general called forth by the infamous cruelties of Gallienus, and many of them were men pre-eminent by their virtues as well as by their talents, who had been compelled by their soldiers to receive the empty title. The enemies of the emperor being thus divided, none of his rivals had strength enough to resist the arms of Gallienus, who still maintained the diadem, while all his nineteen opponents suffered by some violent death.

The defenders of the state being thus occupied with their own objects of ambition, the common enemies of Rome were permitted to ravage the empire on all sides; and the ablest and most patriotic of the Roman generals being thus left without support, and obliged to introduce barbarians into the service, were compelled to enter into the most dishonourable treaties with their invaders.

An unlooked for event, however, restored for a while the drooping spirits of Rome. While Gallienus was besieging one of his rivals, Aureolus, in Milan, he was murdered by Martian, one of his own generals, and Flavius Claudius was nominated his successor,—an appointment which was gladly confirmed both by the senate and the people.

Flavius CLAUDIUS was supposed by some to be a Dalmatian, by others to be a Trojan, and by some a son of the emperor Gordian. In the 55th year of his age, he had to retrieve the almost desperate affairs of the empire. Strong in body, vigorous in intellect, temperate in his desires, and a severe dispenser of punishment, this man seemed destined to recall the ancient glories of the Roman name. After defeating Aureolus near Milan, he conducted a numerous army against the Henuli, the Trutangi, and the Virturgi, who had descended the Danube in 2000 ships, and being well supplied with ammunition and provisions, spread an universal alarm through all the adjacent provinces. The Goths had already desolated Greece, and pillaged Athens; and the cruelties and devastations which they there committed, inspired the Romans with fresh alarm. Claudius, however, marched against them with an army every way disproportionate to them, and he either cut to pieces, or took prisoners, the whole of their vast army, which amounted to above 300,000. Every province was supplied with slaves from the captives, and every house was filled with the arms which were taken. His success inspired with courage the Roman soldiers, and the Goths were defeated in all the frontiers of the empire. After subduing the revolted Germans, Claudius carried his arms against Tetricus and Zenobia, two of the nineteen sovereigns who still exercised a sort of imperial authority in the east. He was seized, however, with a pestilential fever near Sirmium, in Pannonia, where he died in a few days, after a virtuous and glorious reign of nearly two years. The historians of Rome represent Claudius as uniting the piety of Antoninus with the valour of Trajan and the moderation of Augustus; the senate addressed to him when alive, these words, *Claudi Auguste, tu frater, tu pater, tu amicus, tu bonus senator, tu vere princeps.*

The senate, however, would probably have said as much, or more, to the greatest of tyrants.

Immediately after the lamented death of Claudius, the army made choice of Aurelian, who was at that time master of the horse, and esteemed the most valiant commander of his time. However, his promotion was not without opposition on the part of the senate, as QUINTILLIUS, the brother of the deceased emperor, put in his claim, and was, for a while, acknowledged at Rome. But his authority was of a very short duration; for finding himself abandoned by those who at first instigated him to declare for the throne, he prevented the severity of his rival, by a voluntary death.

AURELIAN, being now universally acknowledged by all states of the empire, assumed the command with a greater share of power than his predecessors had for some time enjoyed. He was born of mean and obscure parentage in Dacia, and was about fifty-five years old at the time of his coming to the throne. The early part of his life he had spent in the army, and had risen through all the gradations of military duty. He was of unshaken courage and amazing strength; for in one single engagement, he killed forty of the enemy with his own hand, and above nine hundred at several different times.

The whole of this enterprising monarch's reign was spent in repressing the irruptions of the northern nations, in humbling every other pretender to the empire, and punishing the monstrous irregularities of his own subjects. He defeated the Marcomanni, a fierce and terrible nation of Germany, that had invaded Italy, in three several engagements; and at length totally destroyed the whole army. He was no less successful against Zenobia, the queen of the East, a woman of the most heroic qualifications, who had long disclaimed the Roman power, and established an empire of her own. To oppose this extraordinary woman, Aurelian passed his army over into Asia, and surmounting all the obstructions that were opposed against him, he at length sat down before Tyana, a city of Cappadocia, which seemed resolved to hold out against him, and actually for some time stopped his progress. The unexpected obstinancy of the besieged, served not a little to enrage the emperor, who was naturally precipitate and furious. He vowed, that upon taking the city, he would so punish the inhabitants, as not to leave a dog alive among them. After some time the city was taken; and when the whole army expected the plunder of so wealthy a place, and reminded him of his former protestations, he restrained their impetuosity, and only ordered all the dogs in the place to be destroyed. He afterwards pretended that he was restrained from satiating his resentment on the inhabitants, by an apparition of the famous Apollonius, who warned him not to destroy his birth-place. This excuse was no doubt fictitious; but we can easily pardon such a falsehood.

From Tyana he marched to meet the enemy, who waited his approach near the city of Emesa in Syria. Both armies were very powerful and numerous: the one trained up under the most valiant leader of his time; the other led on by a woman, who seemed born to control the pride of man. The battle was long and obstinate: victory for some time inclined to the side of the Asiatics; but the perseverance of Aurelian's generals at last carried the day; and Zenobia was obliged to fly to Palmyra for safety. The conqueror soon pursued her thither, and did all in his power to induce her submission; but the haughty queen refused his proffered terms of life and security with scorn, relying on the succours which she expected from the Persians, the Saracens, and the Armenians. However, Aurelian's diligence surmounted every obstacle; he intercepted the Persian auxiliaries and dispersed them; the Saracens shared the same fate; and the Armenians were, by

by plausible promises, induced to espouse his interest. Thus Zenobia, deceived in her expected succours, and despairing of relief, attempted to escape into Persia, but was taken in her flight. The city of Palmyra likewise submitted to the conqueror; and Longinus, the celebrated critic, and secretary to the queen, was by Aurelian's order put to death, which he met with a sublimity equal to his writings. Zenobia was reserved to grace Aurelian's triumph, and was afterwards allotted such lands, and such an income, as served to maintain her in almost all her former splendour.

Aurelian having thus restored peace to the empire, endeavoured to bring back justice also. He was very rigid in punishing the crimes of the soldiery; and took care that the peasantry should not be plundered, upon any pretence, of the smallest article of their property.

However he frequently degenerated into cruelty; but the vices of the times, in some measure, required it. In the punishments he inflicted on the guilty, or those who were reputed so, the Christians were sharers. Against these he drew up several letters and edicts, preparatory to a very severe persecution; but, if we may believe the credulous historians of the times, he was deterred, just as he was going to sign them, by a thunderbolt, which fell so near his person, that his escape was judged miraculous.

His severities, at last, were the cause of his destruction. Menestheus, his principal secretary, having been threatened by him, began to consider how he might elude the premeditated blow. For this purpose he forged a roll of the names of several persons, whom he pretended the emperor had marked out for death, adding his own, to strengthen him in the confidence of the party. The scroll, thus contrived, was shewn with an air of the utmost secrecy to some of the persons concerned; and they, to procure their safety, immediately agreed with him to destroy the emperor. This resolution was soon put into execution; for, as Aurelian passed with a small guard from Uraclea in Thrace towards Byzantium, the conspirators set upon him, and put him to death. He was slain in the sixtieth, or, as some say, the sixty-third year of his age, after a very active reign of almost five years.

The death of Aurelian was so unexpected, and he had taken off such a number of competitors, that no one declared himself a candidate in the army, and, on the other side, the senate declined the election, so that a space of near eight months elapsed in the interchange of mutual deference. At length, however, the senate made choice of TACITUS, a man of great merit, but not ambitious of the honour of empire: he accepted with reluctance the reins of government, being at that time seventy-five years old.

One of the first acts of his government was to punish those who had conspired against the late emperor; particularly Menestheus, who was impaled alive, and his body thrown to wild beasts. During this reign, the senate seemed to have exercised a considerable share of authority. Upon endeavouring to obtain the consulship for his brother Probus, the senate refused their consent; at which he seemed no way moved, but calmly remarked, that they best knew whom to choose. This moderatron prevailed in all the rest of his conduct: he was extremely temperate; his table was plain, and furnished with nothing expensive; he even prohibited his empress from wearing jewels, and forbade the use of gold and embroidery. He was fond of learning, and the memory of such men as had deserved well of their country; particularly the works of his namesake Tacitus, the historian, were greatly honoured by him. He commanded that they should be placed in every public library throughout the empire, and that many copies of them should be transcribed at the public charge.

A reign begun with such moderation and justice, only wanted continuance to have made the empire happy; but after enjoying the empire about six months, he died of a fever in his march to oppose the Persians and Scythians, who had invaded the eastern parts of the empire.

On the demise of Tacitus, the army seemed divided in the choice of an emperor: one part of it chose Florian, brother to the deceased, but the majority were for some time undetermined. They alleged, in their conferences with each other, the necessity of electing one eminent for valour, honesty, piety, clemency, and *probity*: but the last virtue being that chiefly insisted upon, the whole army, as if by common consent, cried out that Probus should be the emperor. He was accordingly confirmed in this dignity, with all the usual solemnities; and Florian, his opponent, finding himself quite deserted, opened his arteries, and bled to death.

PROBUS was forty-four years old when he ascended the throne: he was born of noble parentage at Sirmium in Pannonia, and bred up a soldier from his youth. He began early to distinguish himself for his discipline and valour; being frequently the first man that in besieging towns scaled the walls, or that burst into the enemy's camp. He was equally remarkable for single combats, and saving the lives of many eminent citizens. Nor were his activity and courage, when elected to the empire, less apparent than in his private station. Every year now produced only new calamities to the empire; and fresh irruptions on every side threatened universal desolation; to oppose which, all the abilities of Probus were scarcely sufficient. He hastened, however, with an army to repress the Germans in Gaul, of whom he slew four hundred thousand; he then marched into Dalmatia, to oppose and subdue the Sarmatians. From thence he led his forces into Thrace, and compelled the Goths to sue for peace: He afterwards turned his arms towards Asia, subdued the province of Isauria; and, marching onwards, conquered a people called the Blemii, who, leaving their native forests of Æthiopia, had possessed themselves of Arabia and Judea. Narsius also, the king of Persia, submitted at his approach; and upon his return into Europe, he divided the depopulated parts of Thrace among its barbarous invaders:—a circumstance that afterwards produced great calamities in the empire.

The diligence of Probus was not less conspicuous in suppressing intestine commotions. Saturnius, being compelled by the Egyptians to declare himself emperor, was defeated and slain. Proculus also, a person remarkable only for his great attachment to women, set up against the emperor, but being compelled to fly, was at length delivered up by the Germans. At the same time Bonosus, equally remarkable as a votary to Bacchus, rebelled, and being overcome, hanged himself in despair. Probus, when he saw him, immediately after his death, could not avoid pointing at the body, and saying, "There hangs not a man, but a bottle."

Notwithstanding every effort to give quiet to the empire, the barbarians who surrounded it kept it in continual alarms. The Goths and Vandals, finding the emperor engaged in quelling domestic disputes, renewed their accustomed inroads, and once more felt the punishment of their presumption. They were conquered in several engagements, and Probus returned in triumph to Rome. His active temper, however, would not suffer him to continue at rest while he had an enemy left to conquer. In his last expedition, he led his soldiers against the Persians, and going through Sirmium, the place of his nativity, he there employed several thousand of his soldiers in draining a fen that was incommodious to the inhabitants. The troops, however, disliking the labour of this task, mutinied, and attacked Probus as he was passing into one of the towns of Illyricum. The emperor escaped into an iron tower, which he had built for the purpose of watching the operations in the marshes; but having none of his guards along with him, he was overpowered and murdered in the 50th year of his age, and the seventh of his reign. The news of this event occasioned great consternation in Rome. Both his friends and his enemies deplored his loss; and the very army who had murdered him erected a monument over his body, with the inscription, "Hic Probus imperator, vere Probus, situs est, victor omnium gentium barbarorum, victor etiam tyrannorum."

Probus was succeeded by Aurelius CARUS, the prætorian prefect, who was proclaimed by the army; he appointed his

his two sons, Carinus and Numerianus, to assist him in his duties; and after bringing to punishment the murderers of Probus, he was called upon to repel an attack from the Sarmatians, and also from the Persians. After defeating the former in a decisive battle, he conducted his army into Persia, and marching to the very walls of Ctesiphon, he overthrew the Persian army with great loss. He did not live, however, to enjoy this success, for he and many of his attendants were killed by a stroke of lightning in his tent. The distress of his youngest son, Numerianus, is said to have been so great, that he brought on a severe disease in his eyes by excessive weeping, and was obliged to accompany the army shut up in a close litter. Aper, his father-in-law, conceived the design of aiming at the sovereignty. He hired an assassin to murder Numerianus in his litter; and in order to conceal the deed, he announced that Numerianus was unable to bear the light, and the deception was kept up till the smell of the dead body discovered the treachery of Aper. An uproar was immediately excited in the army. Dioclesian was chosen emperor, and with his own hand slew Aper. Carinus, however, the other brother, still resisted the election of Dioclesian, and the rival armies having met in Dalmatia, Dioclesian was victorious, and Carinus was slain by a tribune of his own army, whose wife he had seduced.

The reign of DIOCLESIAN is an æra in the history of the Roman empire.

This hero, originally a slave, became successively a soldier, an officer, the governor of Mæsia, consul of Rome, and commandant of the guards of the palace: changing his servile name of Diocles, or Docles, to the Roman majesty of Dioclesianus, he assumed the sceptre of the world, and, surrounded by fierce opponents from abroad, and ambitious and invidious generals at home, he retained it with safety and honour for the space of twenty-one years. Yet Gibbon remarks, "that his abilities were useful rather than splendid; that he had a vigorous mind, improved by the experience and study of mankind; dexterity and application in business; a judicious mixture of liberality and economy, of mildness and rigour; profound dissimulation under the disguise of military frankness; steadiness to pursue his ends; flexibility to vary his means; and, above all, the great art of submitting his own passions, as well as those of others, to the interest of his ambition, and of colouring his ambition with the most specious pretences of justice and public utility. Like Augustus, Dioclesian may be considered as the founder of a new empire. Like the adopted son of Cæsar, he was distinguished as a statesman rather than as a warrior; nor did either of those princes employ force, whenever their purpose could be effected by policy."

The victory of Dioclesian was remarkable for its mildness. A people accustomed to applaud the clemency of the conqueror, if the usual punishments of death, exile, and confiscation were inflicted with the least degree of moderation, beheld, with pleasing astonishment, a civil war, the flames of which were extinguished in the field of battle. Dioclesian received into his confidence Aristobulus, the principal minister of the house of Carus, respected the lives, the fortunes, and the dignity of his adversaries, and even continued in their respective stations the greater number of the servants of Carinus.

After the example of Marcus, he gave himself a colleague in the person of MAXIMIAN. By associating a friend and a fellow-soldier to the labours of government, Dioclesian, in a time of public danger, provided for the defence both of the East and of the West. Maximian, born a peasant, ignorant of letters, careless of laws, a rustic in appearance and manners, had distinguished himself on every frontier of the empire. Insensible, moreover, to pity, and fearless of consequences, he was the ready instrument of every act of cruelty which the policy of his artful colleague might at once suggest and disclaim. As soon as a bloody sacrifice had been offered to prudence or to revenge, Dioclesian, by his seasonable intercession, saved the remaining few whom he had never designed to punish, gently censured the severity of Maximian, and enjoyed the comparison of a golden and an iron age, which was universally applied to their opposite maxims of government. Notwithstanding the difference of their characters, the two emperors maintained, on the throne, that friendship which they had contracted in a private station, and the turbulent spirit of Maximian, confessed the ascendant of reason over brutal violence.

The first exploit of Maximian, was his suppression of the peasants of Gaul, who, under the appellation of Bagaudæ, or rebels, had risen in a general insurrection. The Gallic nobles, justly dreading their revenge, either took refuge in the fortified cities, or fled from the wild scene of anarchy, and the peasants reigned without controul, whilst two of their most daring leaders had the folly and rashness to assume the imperial ornaments. Their power soon expired at the approach of the legions. The strength of union and discipline obtained an easy victory over a licentious and divided multitude. A severe retaliation was inflicted on those who were found in arms: the affrighted remnant returned to their respective habitations, and their unsuccessful effort for freedom, served only to confirm their slavery.

Maximian had no sooner recovered Gaul from the hands of the peasants, than he lost Britain by the usurpation of Carausius. Ever since the rash but successful enterprize of the Franks under the reign of Probus, their daring countrymen had constructed squadrons of light brigantines, in which they incessantly ravaged the provinces adjacent to the ocean. To repel these desultory incursions, it it was found necessary to create a naval power; and the judicious measure was prosecuted with prudence and vigour. Gessoriacum, or Boulogne, in the straights of the British channel, was chosen by the emperor for the station of the Roman fleet; and the command of it intrusted to Carausius, a Menapian of the meanest origin, but who had long signalized his skill as a pilot, and his valour as a soldier. The integrity of the new admiral corresponded not with his abilities. When the German pirates sailed from their own harbours, he connived at their passage, but he diligently intercepted their return, and appropriated to his own use an ample share of the spoil which they had acquired. The wealth of Carausius was, on this occasion, very justly considered as an evidence of his guilt; and Maximian had already given orders for his death. But the crafty Menapian foresaw and prevented the severity of the emperor. By his liberality he had attached to his fortunes the fleet which he commanded, and secured the barbarians in his interest. From the port of Boulogne he sailed over to Britain, persuaded the legion, and the auxiliaries which guarded that island, to embrace his party, and boldly assuming, with the imperial purple, the title of Augustus, defied the justice and the arms of his injured sovereign.

When Britain was thus dismembered from the empire, its importance was sensibly felt, and its loss sincerely lamented. The Romans celebrated, and perhaps magnified, the extent of that noble island, and above all regretted the large amount of the revenue of Britain, whilst they confessed, that such a province well deserved to become the seat of an independent monarchy. During the space of seven years, it was possessed by Carausius; and fortune continued propitious to a rebellion, supported with courage and ability. The British emperor defended the frontiers of his dominions against the Caledonians of the North; invited, from the continent, a great number of skilful artists, and displayed on a variety of coins that are still extant, his taste and opulence. Born on the confines of the Franks, he courted the friendship of that formidable people, by the flattering imitation of their dress and manners. The bravest of their youth he enlisted among his land or sea forces; and in return for their useful alliance, he communicated to the barbarians the dangerous knowledge of military and naval arts. Carausius still preserved the possession of Boulonge and the adjacent country. His fleets rode triumphant in the channel, commanded the mouths of the Seine and of the Rhine, ravaged the coasts of the ocean, and diffused

diffused beyond the columns of Hercules the terror of his name. Under his command, Britain, destined in a future age to obtain the empire of the sea, already assumed its natural and respectable station of a maritime power.

By seizing the fleet of Boulogne, Carausius had deprived his master of the means of pursuit and revenge. And when, after a vast expense of time and labour, a new armament was launched into the water, the Imperial troops, unaccustomed to that element, were easily baffled and defeated by the veteran sailors of the usurper. This disappointed effort was soon productive of a treaty of peace. Dioclesian and his colleague, who justly dreaded the enterprising spirit of Carausius, resigned to him the sovereignty of Britain, and reluctantly admitted their perfidious servant to a participation of the Imperial honours. It was at length perceived by the Roman emperors, that their distant possessions required for their preservation other supporters, and, to secure the interested co-operation of these assistants, as well as to secure themselves against fresh usurpers of the purple, Dioclesian and Maximian adopted the resource of Cæsars, or secondary emperors. Two generals, of approved merit, received an equal share of authority; Galerius, surnamed Armentarius, from his original profession of a herdsman, and Constantius, who from his pale complexion had acquired the denomination of Chlorus. In describing the country, extraction, and manners of Maximian, we have already delineated those of Galerius, who was often, and not improperly, styled the younger Maximian, though in many instances both of virtue and ability, he appears to have possessed a manifest superiority over the elder. The birth of Constantius was less obscure than that of his colleagues. Eutropius, his father, was one of the most considerable nobles of Dardania, and his mother was the niece of the emperor Claudius. Although the youth of Constantius had been spent in arms, he was endowed with a mild and amiable disposition, and the popular voice had long since acknowledged him worthy of the rank which he at last attained. To strengthen the bonds of political, by those of domestic union, each of the emperors assumed the character of a father to one of the Cæsars, Dioclesian to Galerius, and Maximian to Constantius; and each obliging them to repudiate their former wives, bestowed his daughter in marriage on his adopted son. These four princes distributed among themselves the wide extent of the Roman empire. The defence of Gaul, Spain, and Britain, was intrusted to Constantius; Galerius was stationed on the banks of the Danube, as the safeguard of the Illyrian provinces. Italy and Africa were considered as the department of Maximian; and for his peculiar portion, Dioclesian reserved Thrace, Egypt, and the rich countries of Asia. Every one was sovereign within his own jurisdiction; but their united authority extended over the whole monarchy, and each of them was prepared to assist his colleagues with his counsels or presence. The Cæsars, in their exalted rank, revered the majesty of the emperors, and the three younger princes invariably acknowledged, by their gratitude and obedience, the common parent of their fortunes. The suspicious jealousy of power found not any place among them; and the singular happiness of their union has been compared to a chorus of music, whose harmony was regulated and maintained by the skilful hand of the first artist. This important measure was carried into execution about six years after the association of Maximian and Dioclesian.

The naval talents of Constantius soon enabled him to make an effectual attack on the power of Carausius, but the ultimate event of the struggle was still doubtful, when the British emperor was assassinated by his officers. This event distracted the counsels and divided the forces of the insurgents, and Constantius soon succeeded in renewing over England the dominion of Rome.

This achievement finished, the attention of the rulers of Rome was turned to the permanent defence of their old possessions. From the mouth of the Rhine to that of the Danube, the ancient camps, towns, and citadels, were diligently re-established, and in the most exposed places, new ones were skilfully constructed; the strictest vigilance was introduced among the garrisons of the frontier, and every expedient was practised that could render the long chain of fortifications firm and impenetrable. A barrier so respectable was seldom violated.

But it was impossible to maintain an equal and undisturbed tranquillity during a reign of twenty years, and along a frontier of many hundred miles. Whenever the provinces were invaded, Dioclesian conducted himself with that calm dignity which he always affected or possessed; reserved his presence for such occasions as were worthy of his interposition, never exposed his person or reputation to any unnecessary danger, ensured his success by every means that prudence could suggest, and displayed, with ostentation, the consequences of his victory. In wars of a more difficult nature, and more doubtful event, he employed the rough manner of Maximian; and that faithful soldier was content to ascribe his own victories to the wise counsels and auspicious influence of his benefactor. But after the adoption of the two Cæsars, the emperors themselves, retiring to a less laborious scene of action, devolved on their adopted sons the defence of the Danube and of the Rhine. The vigilant Galerius was never reduced to the necessity of vanquishing an army of barbarians on the Roman territory. The brave and active Constantius delivered Gaul from a very furious inroad of the Alemanni; and his victories of Langres and Vindonisa appear to have been actions of considerable danger and merit.

The conduct which the emperor Probus had adopted in the disposal of the vanquished, was imitated by Dioclesian and his associates. The captive barbarians, exchanging death for slavery, were distributed among the provincials, and assigned to those districts (in Gaul, the territories of Amiens, Beauvais, Cambray, Treves, Langres, and Troyes, are particularly specified) which had been depopulated by the calamities of war. They were usefully employed as shepherds and husbandmen, but were denied the exercise of arms, except when it was found expedient to enrol them in the military service. Nor did the emperors refuse the property of lands, with a less frail tenure, to such of the barbarians as solicited the protection of Rome. They granted a settlement to several colonies of the Carpi, the Basternæ, and the Sarmatians; and, by a dangerous indulgence, permitted them in some measure to retain their national manners and independence. Among the provincials, it was a subject of flattering exultation, that the barbarian, so lately an object of terror, now cultivated their lands, drove their cattle to the neighbouring fair, and contributed by his labour to the public plenty. They congratulated their masters on the powerful accession of subjects and soldiers; but they forgot to observe, that multitudes of secret enemies, insolent from favour, or desperate from oppression, were introduced into the heart of the empire.

While the Cæsars exercised their valour on the banks of the Rhine and Danube, the presence of the emperors was required on the southern confines of the Roman world. From the Nile to mount Atlas, Africa was in arms. A confederacy of five Moorish nations issued from their deserts to invade the peaceful provinces. Julian had assumed the purple at Carthage, Achilleus at Alexandria, and even the Blemmyes renewed, or rather continued, their incursions into Upper Egypt. Scarcely any circumstances have been preserved of the exploits of Maximian in the western parts of Africa; but it appears by the event, that the progress of his arms was rapid and decisive, that he vanquished the fiercest barbarians of Mauritania, and that he removed them from the mountains, whose inaccessible strength had inspired their inhabitants with a lawless confidence, and habituated them to a life of rapine and violence. Dioclesian, on his side, opened the campaign in Egypt by the siege of Alexandria, cut off the aqueducts which conveyed the waters of the Nile into every quarter of that immense city, and rendering his camp impregnable to the sallies of the besieged multitude, he pushed his reiterated attacks with caution and

and vigour. After a siege of eight months, Alexandria, wasted by the sword and by fire, implored the clemency of the conqueror; but it experienced the full extent of his severity. Many thousands of the citizens perished in a promiscuous slaughter, and there were few obnoxious persons in Egypt who escaped a sentence either of death, or at least of exile. The fate of Eusiris and of Coptos was still more melancholy than that of Alexandria; those proud cities, the former distinguished by its antiquity, the latter enriched by the passage of the Indian trade, were utterly destroyed by the arms and by the severe order of Dioclesian.

At the same time that Dioclesian chastised the past crimes of the Egyptians, he provided for their future safety and happiness by many wise regulations, which were confirmed and enforced under the succeeding reigns.

The reduction of Egypt was immediately followed by the Persian war. It was reserved for the reign of Dioclesian to vanquish that powerful nation, and to extort a confession from the successors of Artaxerxes, of the superior majesty of the Roman empire: yet this was not effected easily, nor without severe reverses of fortune. The Roman and Persian armies encountered each other in the plains of Mesopotamia, and two battles were fought with various and doubtful success: but the third engagement was of a more decisive nature; and the Roman army received a total overthrow, which is attributed to the rashness of Galerius, who, with an inconsiderable body of troops, attacked the innumerable host of the Persians. But the consideration of the country that was the scene of action, may suggest another reason for his defeat. The same ground on which Galerius was vanquished, had been rendered memorable by the death of Crassus, and the slaughter of ten legions. It was a plain of more than sixty miles, which extended from the hills of Carrhæ to the Euphrates; a smooth and barren surface of sandy desert, without a hillock, without a tree, and without a spring of fresh water. The steady infantry of the Romans, fainting with heat and thirst, could neither hope for victory, if they preserved their ranks, nor break their ranks without exposing themselves to the most imminent danger. In this situation they were gradually encompassed by the superior numbers, harrassed by the rapid evolutions, and destroyed by the arrows of the barbarian cavalry. Galerius made his escape; but when he returned to Antioch, Diocelesian received him not with the tenderness of a friend and colleague, but with the indignation of an offended sovereign. The Cæsar, clothed in his purple, but humbled by the sense of his fault and misfortune, was obliged to follow the emperor's chariot above a mile on foot, and to exhibit before the whole court the spectacle of his disgrace.

As soon as Dioclesian had indulged his private resentment and asserted the majesty of supreme power, he yielded to the submissive entreaties of Galerius, and permitted him to retrieve his own honour, as well as that of the Roman arms. In the room of the unwarlike troops of Asia, which had most probably served in the first expedition, a second army was drawn from the veterans and new levies of the Illyrian frontier, and a considerable body of Gothic auxiliaries were taken into the Imperial pay. At the head of a chosen army of twenty-five thousand men, Galerius again passed the Euphrates; but, instead of exposing his legions in the open plains of Mesopotamia, he advanced through the mountains of Armenia, where he found the inhabitants devoted to his cause, and the country as favourable to the operations of infantry, as it was inconvenient for the motions of cavalry. Adversity had confirmed the Roman discipline, while the barbarians, elated by success, were become so negligent and remiss, that in the moment when they least expected it, they were surprised by the active conduct of Galerius, who, attended only by two horsemen, had with his own eyes secretly examined the state and position of their camp. A surprise, especially in the night-time, was for the most part fatal to a Persian army. "Their horses were tied, and generally shackled, to prevent their running away; and if an alarm happened, a Persian had his housing to fix, his horse to bridle, and his corslet to put on before he could mount." On this occasion, the impetuous attack of Galerius spread disorder and dismay over the camp of the barbarians. A slight resistance was followed by a dreadful carnage, and, in the general confusion, the wounded monarch (for Narses commanded his armies in person) fled towards the deserts of Media. His sumptuous tents, with those of his satraps, afforded an immense booty to the conqueror; and soon after a full agreement between the nations for the security of their territories and the continuance of peace was effected. This restoration of happiness and prosperity was celebrated by a triumph; "the last," says Gibbon, "Rome ever beheld."

Dioclesian laid the foundation of the dismemberment of the Roman empire, which his successors completed. Already his dislike to the capital had removed to other and rising cities the seat of government, and while Maximian ruled at Milan, and Dioclesian lavished an enormous expenditure on the city of Nicomedia, the barbarian subjects of Rome withdrew the submissive veneration they had so long entertained for the city of the republic. Nor was this change (though no doubt partly attributable to the contempt for classic associations an Illyrian peasant naturally felt,) entirely the result of caprice. The deep policy of Dioclesian viewed with jealousy the feeble attempts which the senate had occasionally made to re-obtain consequence and sovereignty; and he deputed his ferocious colleague to destroy from time to time, under various pretences, its more eloquent and influential members. But, as Gibbon remarks, the "most fatal though secret wound which the senate received from the hands of Dioclesian and Maximian, was inflicted by the inevitable operation of their absence. As long as the emperors resided at Rome, that assembly might be oppressed, but it scarcely could be neglected. The successors of Augustus exercised the power of dictating whatever laws their wisdom or caprice might suggest; but those laws were ratified by the sanction of the senate. The model of ancient freedom was preserved in its deliberations and decrees; and wise princes, who respected the prejudices of the Roman people, were in some measure obliged to assume the language and behaviour suitable to the general and first magistrate of the republic. In the armies and in the provinces, they displayed the dignity of monarchs; and when they fixed their residence at a distance from the capital, they for ever laid aside the dissimulation which Augustus had recommended to his successors. In the exercise of the legislative as well as the executive power, the sovereign advised with his ministers, instead of consulting the great council of the nation. The name of the senate was mentioned with honour till the last period of the empire; the vanity of its members was still flattered with honorary distinctions; but the assembly, which had so long been the source, and so long the instrument of power, was respectfully suffered to sink into oblivion. The senate of Rome, losing all connection with the Imperial court and the actual constitution, was left a venerable but useless monument of antiquity on the Capitoline hill."

It was the same fear of the senate, and not any disgust at their outrages, that led to the dissolution of the prætorian bands. These Roman soldiers had, on a few occasions, shewn a spark of affection for their country, and had begun to support the cause of the senate. Their numbers were accordingly curtailed, their privileges diminished, and their place supplied by Illyrian troops, who under the name of *Jovians* (those attached to Dioclesian) and *Herculians* (those attached to Maximian), formed a guard safe from the infectious principles of republicanism. Whilst therefore we admire the address with which Dioclesian repulsed from Rome her foreign enemies, and the moderation he exhibited in resigning to others so large a share of empire, it cannot be concealed that to this emperor she owed the injury, that her population became divided in interests and patriotic attachments. Nor can it be forgotten that this emperor, when he disdained

disdained the plainness of Roman manners, and delighted himself with the gorgeous array of Persian extravagance, was compelled to lay such imposts on his subjects as they had never before experienced; and that even these imposts were necessarily of greater amount when four splendid courts were to be provided for, than when the imperial expenditure was confined to one person. Of this we have full testimony. For according to his religion and situation, each writer of the time chuses either Dioclesian, or Constantine, or Valens, or Theodosius, for the object of his invectives; but they unanimously agree in representing the burden of the public impositions, and particularly the land-tax and capitation, as the intolerable and increasing grievance of their own times. From such a concurrence, an impartial historian, who is obliged to extract truth from satire, as well as from panegyric, will be inclined to divide the blame among the princes whom they accuse, and to ascribe their exactions much less to their personal vices, than to the uniform system of their administration. The emperor Dioclesian was indeed the author of that system; but during his reign, the growing evil was confined within the bounds of modesty and discretion, and he deserves the reproach of establishing pernicious precedents, rather than of exercising actual oppression. It may be added, that his revenues were managed with prudent œconomy; and that after all the current expenses were discharged, there still remained in the Imperial treasury an ample provision either for judicious liberality or for an emergency of the state.

It was in the twenty-first year of his reign, that Dioclesian executed his memorable resolution of abdicating the empire; an action more naturally to have been expected from the elder or the younger Antoninus, than from a prince who had never practised the lessons of philosophy either in the attainment or in the use of supreme power.

The ceremony of his abdication was performed in a spacious plain, about three miles from Nicomedia. The emperor ascended a lofty throne, and in a speech, full of reason and dignity, declared his intention both to the people and to the soldiers who were assembled on this extraordinary occasion. As soon as he had divested himself of the purple, he withdrew from the gazing multitude; and traversing the city in a covered chariot, proceeded, without delay, to the favourite retirement which he had chosen in his native country of Dalmatia. On the same day, which was the first of May, Maximian, as it had been previously concerted, made his resignation of the Imperial dignity at Milan. Even in the splendour of the Roman triumph, Dioclesian had meditated his design of abdicating the government. As he wished to secure the obedience of Maximian, he exacted from him, either a general assurance that he would submit his actions to the authority of his benefactor, or a particular promise that he would descend from the throne, whenever he should receive the advice and the example. This engagement, though it was confirmed by the solemnity of an oath before the altar of the Capitoline Jupiter, would have proved a feeble restraint on the fierce temper of Maximian, whose passion was the love of power, and who neither desired present tranquillity nor future reputation. But he yielded, however reluctantly, to the ascendant which his wiser colleague had acquired over him, and retired immediately after his abdication, to a villa in Lucania, where it was almost impossible that such an impatient spirit could find any lasting tranquillity.

The balance of power established by Dioclesian subsisted no longer than while it was sustained by the firm and dexterous hand of the founder. It required such a fortunate mixture of different tempers and abilities, as could scarcely be found, or even expected a second time; two emperors without jealousy, two Cæsars without ambition, and the same general interest invariably pursued by four independent princes. The abdication of Dioclesian and Maximian was succeeded by eighteen years of discord and confusion. The empire was afflicted by five civil wars; and the remainder of the time was not so much a state of tranquillity as a supension of arms between several hostile monarchs, who, viewing each other with an eye of fear and hatred, strove to increase their respective forces at the expense of their subjects.

As soon as Dioclesian and Maximian had resigned the purple, their station, according to the rules of the new constitution, was filled by the two Cæsars, CONSTANTIUS and GALERIUS, who immediately assumed the title of Augustus. The honours of seniority and precedence were allowed to the former of those princes, and he continued, under a new appellation, to administer his ancient department of Gaul, Spain, and Britain. The government of those ample provinces was sufficient to exercise his talents, and to satisfy his ambition. Clemency, temperance, and moderation, distinguished the amiable character of Constantius, and his fortunate subjects had frequently occasion to compare the virtues of their sovereign with the passions of Maximian, and even with the arts of Dioclesian.

The stern temper of Galerius was cast in a very different mould; and while he commanded the esteem of his subjects, he seldom condescended to solicit their affections. His fame in arms, and above all, the success of the Persian war, had elated his haughty mind, which was naturally impatient of a superior, or even of an equal.

After the elevation of Constantius and Galerius to the rank of *Augusti*, two new Cæsars were required to supply their place, and to complete the system of the imperial government. Dioclesian was sincerely desirous of withdrawing himself from the world: he considered Galerius, who had married his daughter, as the firmest support of his family and of the empire; and he consented, without reluctance, that his successor should assume the merit as well as the envy of the important nomination. It was fixed without consulting the interest or inclination of the princes of the West. Each of them had a son who was arrived at the age of manhood, and who might have been deemed the most natural candidates for the vacant honour. But the important resentment of Maximian was no longer to be dreaded: and the moderate Constantius, though he might despise the dangers, was humanely apprehensive of the calamities of civil war. The two persons whom Galerius promoted to the rank of Cæsar, were much better suited to serve the views of his ambition; and their principal recommendation seems to have consisted in the want of merit or personal consequence. The first of these was Daza, or, as he was afterwards called, Maximin, whose mother was the sister of Galerius. The unexperienced youth still betrayed by his manners and language his rustic education, when, to his own astonishment as well as that of the world, he was invested by Dioclesian with the purple, exalted to the dignity of Cæsar, and intrusted with the sovereign command of Egypt and Syria. At the same time, Severus, a faithful servant, addicted to pleasure, but not incapable of business, was sent to Milan, to receive from the reluctant hands of Maximian the Cæsarean ornaments, and the possession of Italy and Africa. According to the forms of the constitution, Severus acknowledged the supremacy of the western emperor; but he was absolutely devoted to the commands of his benefactor Galerius, who, reserving to himself the intermediate countries from the confines of Italy to those of Syria, firmly established his power over three-fourths of the monarchy, in the full confidence, that the approaching death of Constantius would leave him sole master of the Roman world.

But within less than eighteen months, two unexpected revolutions overturned the ambitious schemes of Galerius. The hopes of uniting the western provinces to his empire were disappointed by the elevation of Constantine, whilst Italy and Africa were lost by the successful revolt of Maxentius.

The British expedition, and an easy victory over the barbarians of Calcedonia, were the last exploits of the reign of Constantius. He ended his life in the imperial palace of York, fifteen months after he had received the title of Augustus, and almost fourteen years and a half after he had been

been promoted to the rank of Cæsar. His death was immediately succeeded by the elevation of CONSTANTINE, his son. This prince was elected by the army: his first care was to dispatch to the emperor a letter, informing him of the melancholy event of his father's death, modestly asserting his natural claim to the succession, and respectfully lamenting that the affectionate violence of his troops had not permitted him to solicit the Imperial purple in the regular and constitutional manner. The first emotions of Galerius were those of surprise, disappointment, and rage; and as he could seldom restrain his passions, he loudly threatened, that he would commit to the flames both the letter and the messenger. But his resentment insensibly subsided; and when he recollected the doubtful chance of war, when he had weighed the character and strength of his adversary, he consented to embrace the honourable accommodation which the prudence of Constantine had left open to him. Without either condemning or ratifying the choice of the British army, Galerius accepted the son of his deceased colleague, as the sovereign of the provinces beyond the Alps; but he gave him only the title of Cæsar, and the fourth rank among the Roman princes, whilst he conferred the vacant place of Augustus on his favourite Severus. The apparent harmony of the empire was still preserved, and Constantine who already possessed the substance, expected, without impatience, an opportunity of obtaining the honours of supreme power.

The ambitious spirit of Galerius was scarcely reconciled to the disappointment of his views upon the Gallic provinces, before the unexpected loss of Italy wounded his pride as well as power in a still more sensible part. The long absence of the emperors had filled Rome with discontent and indignation; and the people gradually discovered, that the preference given to Nicomedia and Milan, was not to be ascribed to the particular inclination of Dioclesian, but to the permanent form of government which he had instituted. The tranquillity of those elegant recesses of ease and luxury was disturbed by the impatient murmurs of the Romans; and a report was insensibly circulated, that the sums expended in erecting those buildings, would soon be required at their hands. About that time the avarice of Galerius, or perhaps the exigencies of the state, had induced him to make a very strict and rigorous inquisition into the property of his subjects for the purpose of a general taxation, both on their lands and on their persons. A very minute survey appears to have been taken of their real estates; and wherever there was the slightest suspicion of concealment, torture was very freely employed to obtain a sincere declaration of their personal wealth. The privileges which had exalted Italy above the rank of the provinces, were no longer regarded; and the officers of the revenue already began to number the Roman people, and to settle the proportion of the new taxes. Even when the spirit of freedom had been utterly extinguished, the tamest subjects have sometimes ventured to resist an unprecedented invasion of their property; but on this occasion the injury was aggravated by the insult, and the sense of private interest was quickened by that of national honour. The rising fury of the people was encouraged by the connivance of the senate; and the feeble remains of the prætorian guards, who had reason to apprehend their own dissolution, embraced so honourable a pretence, and declared their readiness to draw their swords in the service of their distressed country. It was the wish, and it soon became the hope, of every citizen, that after expelling from Italy their foreign tyrants, they should elect a prince, who, by the place of his residence, and by his maxims of government, might once more deserve the title of Roman emperor. The name, as well as the situation of Maxentius, determined in his favour the popular enthusiasm.

The præfect of the city and a few magistrates, who maintained their fidelity to Severus, were massacred by the guards; and Maxentius, invested with the Imperial ornaments, was acknowledged by the applauding senate and people as the protector of the Roman freedom and dignity. It is uncertain whether Maximian was previously acquainted with the conspiracy; but as soon as the standard of rebellion was erected at Rome, the old emperor broke from the retirement where the authority of Dioclesian had condemned him to pass a life of melancholy solitude, and concealed his returning ambition under the disguise of paternal tenderness. At the request of his son and of the senate, he condescended to re-assume the purple. His ancient dignity, his experience, and his fame in arms, added strength as well as reputation to the party of Maxentius.

Severus, the emperor, marched to Rome, but was attacked and beaten, and having retired to Ravenna, was cajoled by Maximian into a surrender, and then forced to bleed himself to death.

During the contest that now took place between Maximian and Galerius, Constantine prudently kept aloof, prepared, as circumstances might direct, to join or oppose the victorious party. The first advantages in this war belonged to Maximian, who corrupted the legions of Galerius and drove him out of Italy. But the latter created Licinius (a famous general who was entrusted with the defence of the Danube,) emperor; and Maximin, the Augustus who governed Egypt and Syria, joined his party. On the other hand Constantine supported, in appearance, the cause of Maxentius and his father. Thus was Rome divided into six empires, of which three were arrayed in arms against the remainder. The death of Maximian and Galerius changed, however, the face of affairs. The former had some disputes with his son Maxentius as to the government of Rome. These were referred to the prætorian bands, who decided in favour of Maxentius, and the old emperor was compelled to abdicate the purple, and retire to the court of Constantine. Here he remained a short time in quiet, but an incursion of the Franks having called Constantine to the frontiers, Maximian either craftily invented, or hastily credited, a vain report of the death of Constantine, ascended the throne, seized the treasure, and scattering it with his accustomed profusion among the soldiers, endeavoured to awake in their minds the memory of his ancient dignity and exploits. Before he could establish his authority, or finish the negociation which he appears to have entered into with his son Maxentius, Constantine arrived at the gates of Arles, with a military force which it was impossible for Maximian to resist, and which scarcely permitted him to take refuge in the neighbouring city of Marseilles. Here he might have sustained a long siege, if the garrison had not purchased their pardon by delivering up his person. A secret but irrevocable sentence of death was pronounced against the usurper: he obtained only the choice of the mode of suicide, and it was published to the world, that, oppressed by the remorse of his repeated crimes, he had strangled himself with his own hands. He deserved, perhaps, his fate; but we should find more reason to applaud the humanity of Constantine, if he had spared an old man, the benefactor of his father, and the father of his wife.

The last years of Galerius were less shameful and unfortunate: he survived his retreat from Italy about four years, and wisely relinquishing his views of universal empire, he devoted the remainder of his life to the enjoyment of pleasure, and to the execution of some works of public utility, among which we may distinguish the discharging into the Danube the superfluous waters of the lake Pelso, and the cutting down the immense forests that encompassed it, an operation worthy of a monarch, since it gave an extensive country to the agriculture of his Pannonian subjects. His death was occasioned by a very painful and lingering disorder. His body, swelled by an intemperate course of life to an unwieldy corpulence, was covered with ulcers, and devoured by swarms of insects; but as Galerius had offended the Christian party among his subjects, his sufferings, instead of exciting their compassion, have been celebrated as the visible effects of divine justice. He had no sooner expired than the provinces of Asia fell to the share of Maximin, and those of Europe augmented the portion of Licinus. But a sense

sense of their true interest soon connected Licinius and Constantine; a secret alliance was concluded between Maximin and Maxentius, and their unhappy subjects expected with terror the bloody consequences of their inevitable dissentions.

Among so many crimes and misfortunes occasioned by the passions of the Roman princes, there is some pleasure in discovering a single action which may be ascribed to their virtue. In the sixth year of his reign, Constantine visited the city of Autun, and generously remitted the arrears of tribute, reducing at the same time the proportion of their assessment, from twenty-five to eighteen thousand heads, subject to the real and personal capitation. Yet even this indulgence affords the most unquestionable proof of the public misery. This tax was so extremely oppressive, either in itself, or in the mode of collecting it, that whilst the revenue was increased by extortion, it was diminished by despair: a considerable part of the territory of Autun was left uncultivated; and great numbers of the provincials rather chose to live as exiles and outlaws, than to support the weight of civil society.

The virtues of Constantine were rendered more illustrious by the vices of Maxentius. Whilst the Gallic provinces enjoyed as much happiness as the condition of the times was capable of receiving, Italy and Africa groaned under the dominion of a tyrant as contemptible as he was odious. He had had the good fortune to suppress a slight rebellion in Africa. The governor and a few adherents had been guilty; the province suffered for their crime. The flourishing cities of Cirtha and Carthage, and the whole extent of that fertile country, were wasted by fire and sword. The state of the capital was no less deserving of compassion than that of Africa. The wealth of Rome supplied an inexhaustible fund for his vain and prodigal expenses, and the ministers of his revenue were skilled in the arts of rapine. It was under his reign that the method of exacting a *free gift* from the senators was first invented; and as the sum was insensibly increased, the pretences of levying it, a victory, a birth, a marriage, or an imperial consulship, were proportionably multiplied. Maxentius had imbibed the same implacable aversion to the senate, which had characterized most of the former tyrants of Rome; nor was it possible for his ungrateful temper to forgive the generous fidelity which had raised him to the throne, and supported him against all his enemies. The lives of the senators were exposed to his jealous suspicions, the dishonour of their wives and daughters heightened the gratification of his sensual passions. It may be presumed that an imperial lover was seldom reduced to sigh in vain; but there remains *one* memorable example of a noble matron, who preserved her chastity by a voluntary death. The soldiers were the only order of men whom he appeared to respect, or studied to please. He filled Rome and Italy with armed troops, connived at their tumults, suffered them with impunity to plunder, and even to massacre, the defenceless people; and indulging them in the same licentiousness which their emperor enjoyed, Maxentius often bestowed on his military favourites the splendid villa, or the beautiful wife of a senator.

Though Constantine viewed the conduct of Maxentius with abhorrence, and the situation of the Romans with compassion, we have no reason to presume that he would have taken up arms to punish the one, or to relieve the other. But the tyrant of Italy rashly ventured to provoke a formidable enemy, whose ambition had been hitherto restrained by considerations of prudence, rather than by principles of justice. Maxentius openly avowed his pretensions to the whole monarchy of the West, prepared a very considerable force to invade the Gallic provinces on the side of Rhætia, and though he could not expect any assistance from Licinius, was flattered with the hope that the legions of Illyricum, allured by his presents and promises, would desert the standard of that prince, and unanimously declare themselves his soldiers and subjects. Constantine no longer hesitated. He gave a private audience to the ambassadors, who, in the name of the senate and people, conjured him to deliver Rome from a detested tyrant; and, without regarding the timid remonstrances of his council, he resolved to prevent the enemy, and to carry the war into the heart of Italy.

The conduct of Constantine, and the devotion of his troops triumphed over the slothful Maxentius although the army of the latter nearly doubled that of the former. During the many wars that were necessary to the final overthrow of the Roman emperor, several signal acts of valour were performed, and the prætorian bands especially, were almost exterminated, ere they surrendered. The victory of Constantine was sullied by the cruelties usual at the time, and the *free gift* extorted by Maxentius, was charged by the new emperor as a perpetual tax on the senators, which effectually rendered a seat in the senate house, formerly an honour, and an indication of power, a vain and expensive distinction.

A long war also took place between Licinius and Constantine, and for a few days, two generals were raised by the respective emperors to the rank of Cæsars. These, however, were soon dethroned, and a peace was made, which secured Constantine a large share of his rival's territory.

The reconciliation of Constantine and Licinius, maintained, above eight years, the tranquillity of the Roman world. Civil regulations employed during this time the leisure of Constantine. The most important of his institutions referred to the new system of policy and religion, which was not perfectly established till the last and peaceful years of his reign. There are many of his laws, which, as far as they concern the rights and property of individuals, and the practice of the bar, are more properly referred to the private than to the public jurisprudence of the empire; and he published many edicts of so local and temporary a nature, that they would ill deserve the notice of a general history. Two laws, however, may be selected from the crowd; the one for its importance, the other for its singularity; the former for its remarkable benevolence, the latter for its excessive severity. 1. The horrid practice, so familiar to the ancients, of exposing or murdering their new-born infants, was become every day more frequent in the provinces, and especially in Italy. It was the effect of distress; and the distress was principally occasioned by the intolerable burden of taxes, and by the vexations as well as cruel prosecutions of the officers of the revenue against their insolvent debtors. The less opulent or less industrious part of mankind, instead of rejoicing in an increase of family, deemed it an act of paternal tenderness to release their children from the impending miseries of a life which they themselves were unable to support. The humanity of Constantine, moved, perhaps, by some recent and extraordinary instances of despair, engaged him to address an edict to all the cities of Italy, and afterwards of Africa, directing immediate and sufficient relief to be given to those parents who should produce before the magistrates the children whom their own poverty would not allow them to educate. But the promise was too liberal, and the provision too vague, to effect any general or permanent benefit. The law, though it may merit some praise, served rather to display than to alleviate the public distress. 2. The laws of Constantine against rapes were dictated with very little indulgence for the weakness of human nature; since the description of that crime was applied, not only to the brutal violence which compelled, but even to the seduction which persuaded an unmarried woman, under the age of twenty-five, to leave the house of her parents. The successful ravisher was either burnt alive, or torn in pieces by wild beasts in the amphitheatre. The virgin's declaration that she had been carried away with her own consent, instead of saving her lover, exposed her to share his fate. The duty of a public prosecution was entrusted to the parents of the guilty or unfortunate maid; and if the sentiments of nature prevailed on them to dissemble the injury, and to repair by a subsequent marriage the honour of their family, they were themselves punished by exile and confiscation. The slaves, whether male or female, who were convicted of having been accessary to the rape or seduction, were burnt alive, or put to death by the ingenious torture

torture of pouring down their throats a quantity of melted lead. As the crime was of a public kind, the accusation was permitted even to strangers. The commencement of the action was not limited to any term of years, and the consequences of the sentence were extended to the innocent offspring of such an irregular union. But whenever the offence inspires less horror than the punishment, the rigour of penal law is obliged to give way to the common feelings of mankind. The most odious parts of this edict were softened or repealed in the subsequent reigns; and even Constantine himself very frequently alleviated, by partial acts of mercy, the stern temper of his general institutions.

The conquest of a large portion of Dacia from the Goths, and the condition of furnishing him with an auxiliary force of 40,000 men, which he forced them to submit to, enabled Constantine to usurp from his colleague, the entire sovereignty of the Roman state. The advanced age and slothful vices of Licinius seemed to render him a very easy conquest. But the old emperor, awakened by the approaching danger, deceived the expectations of his friends, as well as of his enemies. Calling forth that spirit and those abilities by which he had deserved the friendship of Galerius and the Imperial purple, he collected the forces of the East, and soon filled the plains of Adrianople with his troops, and the straits of the Hellespont with his fleet. The army consisted of one hundred and fifty-thousand foot, and fifteen thousand horse. The fleet was composed of three hundred and fifty galleys of three ranks of oars. The troops of Constantine were ordered to rendezvous at Thessalonica; they only amounted to one hundred and twenty thousand horse and foot; but he was satisfied with their martial appearance, and that his army contained more soldiers, though fewer men, than that of his eastern competitor. They had been levied in the warlike provinces of Europe: action had confirmed their discipline, victory had elevated their hopes, and there were among them a great number of veterans, who, after seventeen glorious campaigns under the same leader, prepared themselves to deserve an honourable dismission by a last effort of their valour. But the naval preparations of Constantine were in every respect much inferior to those of Licinius; and if the eastern emperor, who possessed so great a superiority at sea, had seized the opportunity of carrying an offensive war into the centre of his rival's dominions, the event might have been far otherwise.

Instead of embracing such an active resolution, the prudent Licinius expected the approach of his rival in a camp near Adrianople, which he had fortified with an anxious care that betrayed his apprehension of the event. Many days were spent in doubtful and distant skirmishes; but at length the obstacles of the passage and of the attack were removed by the intrepid conduct of Constantine. A body of five thousand archers marched round to occupy a thick wood in the rear of the enemy, whose attention was diverted by the construction of a bridge, and Licinius, perplexed by so many artful evolutions, was reluctantly drawn from his advantageous post to combat on equal ground in the plain. The contest was no longer equal. His confused multitude of new levies was easily vanquished by the experienced veterans of the west. Thirty-four thousand men are reported to have been slain. The fortified camp of Licinius was taken by assault the evening of the battle; the greater part of the fugitives, who had retired to the mountains, surrendered themselves next day to the discretion of the conqueror; and his rival, who could no longer keep the field, confined himself within the walls of Byzantium. Here, after his fleet had been destroyed by Crispus, the son of Constantine, Licinius defended himself for some time, but was at length obliged to remove his person and treasures to Calcedon in Asia; and as he was always desirous of associating companions to the hopes and dangers of his fortune, he now bestowed the title of Cæsar on Martinianus, who exercised one of the most important offices of the empire.

Such were still the resources, and such the abilities, of Licinius, that after so many successive defeats, he collected in Bithynia a new army of fifty or sixty thousand men. These troops, though they were lately raised, ill armed, and worse disciplined, made head against their conquerors with fruitless but desperate valour, till a total defeat, and the slaughter of five and twenty thousand men, irretrievably determined the fate of their leader. He retired to Nicomedia, rather with a view of gaining some time for negociation, than with the hope of any effectual defence. Constantia, his wife and the sister of Constantine, interceded with her brother in favour of her husband, and obtained from his policy rather than from his compassion, a solemn promise, confirmed by an oath, that after the sacrifice of Martinianus, and the resignation of the purple, Licinius himself should be permitted to pass the remainder of his life in peace and affluence. Licinius solicited and accepted the pardon of his offences, laid himself and his purple at the feet of his lord and master, was raised from the ground with insulting pity, was admitted the same day to the Imperial banquet, was sent away to Thessalonica, which had been chosen for the place of his confinement, and soon after on some pretence was executed. By this victory of Constantine, the Roman world was again united under the authority of one emperor, thirty-seven years after Dioclesian had divided his power and provinces with his associate Maximian.

The successive steps of the elevation of Constantine, from his first assuming the purple at York, to the resignation of Licinius at Nicomedia, have been related with some minuteness and precision, not only as the events are in themselves both interesting and important, but still more as they contribute to the decline of the empire by the expense of blood and treasure, and by the perpetual increase, as well of the taxes, as of the military establishment. The establishment of the Christian religion, and the foundation of Constantinople, were the immediate and memorable consequences of this revolution.

In considering the former of these events, our attention is naturally directed to a retrospective view of the state of the Christian population during the empire of Rome. The persecutions instituted against the primitive believers by Tiberius and Nero, and their successors, have already received our notice. It seems that these persecutions were rather dictated by considerations of political expediency than by bigotry or malevolence; since we find the mild Antoninus as vigorous in enforcing Christian persecutions as the worst of the emperors. Gibbon, however, has shewn that the liberal spirit of the philosophical Romans was very much exerted in favour of toleration; that the pagans bore from the new religionists a series of insults never before equalled; that the persecutors never sought out victims, but were contented with those who ostentatiously protruded their opinions into notice; and that of these but few were actually executed. So that amidst the frequent revolutions of the empire, the Christians still flourished in peace and prosperity; and notwithstanding a celebrated æra of martyrs has been deduced from the accession of Dioclesian; the new system of policy introduced and maintained by the wisdom of that prince, continued, during more than eighteen years, to breathe the mildest and most liberal spirit of religious toleration. But although the policy of Dioclesian inclined him to preserve inviolate the maxims of toleration, it was soon discovered that his two associates, Maximian and Galerius, entertained the most implacable aversion for the name and religion of the Christians.

After the success of the Persian war had raised the hopes and the reputation of the latter, he passed a winter with Dioclesian in the palace of Nicomedia; and the fate of Christianity became the object of their secret consultations. The experienced emperor was still inclined to pursue measures of lenity; and though he readily consented to exclude the Christians from holding any employments in the household or the army, he urged, in the strongest terms, the danger as well as cruelty of shedding the blood of those deluded fanatics. Galerius at length extorted from him the permission of summoning a council, composed of a few persons the most distinguished in the civil and military departments of the

the state. The important question was agitated in their presence, and those ambitious courtiers easily discerned, that it was incumbent on them to second by their eloquence, the importunate violence of the Cæsar; and their arguments determined the reluctant mind of Dioclesian to embrace a new system of persecution.

The twenty-third of February, which coincided with the Roman festival of the Terminalia, was appointed (whether from accident or design) to set bounds to the progress of Christianity. It was enacted, that their churches, in all the provinces of the empire, should be demolished to their foundations; and the punishment of death was denounced against all who should presume to hold any secret assemblies for the purpose of religious worship; that the bishops and presbyters should deliver all their sacred books into the hands of the magistrates, who were commanded, under the severest penalties, to burn them in a public and solemn manner. By the same edict, the property of the church was confiscated; and the several parts of which it might consist, were either sold to the highest bidder, united to the imperial domain, bestowed on the cities and corporations, or granted to the solicitations of rapacious courtiers. After taking such effectual measures to abolish the worship, and to dissolve the government, of the Christians, it was thought necessary to subject to the most intolerable hardships the condition of those perverse individuals who should still reject the religion of nature, of Rome, and of their ancestors.

This edict was scarcely exhibited to the public view, in the most conspicuous place of Nicomedia, before it was torn down by the hands of a Christian, who expressed, at the same time, by the bitterest invectives, his contempt as well as abhorrence for such impious and tyrannical governors. He was burnt, or rather roasted, by a slow fire; and his executioners, zealous to revenge the personal insult which had been offered to the emperors, exhausted every refinement of cruelty, without being able to subdue the patience, or to alter the steady and insulting smile which in his dying agonies he still preserved in his countenance. The Christians, though they confessed that his conduct had not been strictly conformable to the laws of prudence, admired the divine fervour of his zeal; and the excessive commendations which they lavished on the memory of their hero and martyr, contributed to fix a deep impression of terror and hatred in the mind of Dioclesian.

His fears were soon alarmed by the view of a danger from which he very narrowly escaped. Within fifteen days the palace of Nicomedia, and even the bed-chamber of Dioclesian, were twice in flames; and though both times they were extinguished without any material damage, the singular repetition of the fire was justly considered as an evident proof that it had not been the effect of chance or negligence. The suspicion naturally fell on the Christians; and it was suggested, with some degree of probability, that those desperate fanatics, provoked by their present sufferings, and apprehensive of impending calamities, had entered into a conspiracy with their faithful brethren, the eunuchs of the palace, against the lives of two emperors, whom they detested as the irreconcilable enemies of the church of God. A great number of persons were now thrown into prison. Every mode of torture was put in practice, and the court, as well as city, was polluted with many bloody executions. But as it was found impossible to extort any discovery of this mysterious transaction, it seems incumbent on us either to presume the innocence, or to admire the resolution of the sufferers.

The mild and humane temper of Constantius was averse to the oppression of any part of his subjects; and the principal offices of his palace were exercised by Christians. But as long as he remained in the subordinate station of Cæsar, it was not in his power openly to reject the edicts of the emperor. His authority contributed, however, to alleviate the sufferings which he pitied. He consented, with reluctance, to the ruin of the churches; but he ventured to protect the Christians themselves from the fury of the populace, and from the rigour of the laws. The elevation of Constantius to the supreme and independent dignity of Augustus, gave a free scope to the exercise of his virtues, and the shortness of his reign did not prevent him from establishing a system of toleration, of which he left the precept and the example to his son Constantine. His fortunate son, from the first moment of his accession, declaring himself the protector of the church, at length deserved the appellation of the first emperor who publicly professed and established the Christian religion. The motives of his conversion, may variously be deduced from benevolence, from policy, from conviction, or from remorse; but every victory of Constantine's was productive of some relief or benefit to the church.

The fable of Constantine's conversion is well known. One evening, during his war with Maxentius, as we are told by Eusebius, the army being upon its march towards Rome, Constantine was taken up with various considerations upon the dangers of his approaching expedition; and sensible of his own incapacity to succeed without divine assistance, he employed his meditations upon the opinions that were then chiefly agitated among mankind, and sent up his ejaculations to Heaven to inspire him with wisdom to choose the path to pursue. It was then, as the sun was declining, that there suddenly appeared a pillar of light in the heavens, in the figure of a cross, with this inscription, ΤΟΥΤΩ ΝΙΚΑ, "In this overcome." This extraordinary appearance created so much astonishment, that he, on the following day, caused a royal standard to be made, resembling that which he had seen in the heavens, and commanded it to be carried before him in the wars, as an ensign of victory and celestial protection. After this he consulted with several of the principal teachers of Christianity, and made a public avowal of that religion.

The siege of Byzantium had introduced that beautiful city to the notice of Constantine, and when pagan Rome became disgusting in his eyes, and he had resolved to build a new imperial city, this was remembered. Of the fitness of Byzantium for this honour, Gibbon gives the following splendid account.

"Situated in the forty-first degree of latitude, the Imperial city commanded, from her seven hills, the opposite shores of Europe and Asia; the climate was healthy and temperate, the soil fertile, the harbour secure and capacious; and the approach on the side of the continent was of small extent and easy defence. The Bosphorus and the Hellespont may be considered as the two gates of Constantinople; and the prince who possessed those important passages could always shut them against a naval enemy, and open them to the fleets of commerce. The preservation of the eastern provinces may, in some degree, be ascribed to the policy of Constantine, as the barbarians of the Euxine, who in the preceding age had poured their armaments into the heart of the Mediterranean, soon desisted from the exercise of piracy, and despaired of forcing this insurmountable barrier. When the gates of the Hellespont and Bosphorus were shut, the capital still enjoyed, within their spacious enclosure, every production which could supply the wants, or gratify the luxury, of its numerous inhabitants. The sea coasts of Thrace and Bithynia, which languish under the weight of Turkish oppression, still exhibit a rich prospect of vineyards, of gardens, and of plentiful harvests; and the Propontis has ever been renowned for an inexhaustible store of the most exquisite fish, that are taken in their stated seasons, without skill and almost without labour. But when the passages of the Streights were thrown open for trade, they alternately admitted the natural and artificial riches of the north and south, of the Euxine, and of the Mediterranean. Whatever rude commodities were collected in the forests of Germany and Scythia, as far as the sources of the Tanais and the Borysthenes; whatsoever was manufactured by the skill of Europe or Asia; the corn of Egypt, and the gems and spices of the farthest India, were brought by the varying winds into the port of Constantinople, which, for many ages, attracted the commerce of the ancient world."

The extreme length of Constantinople was about three Roman miles; the circumference measured between ten and eleven;

eleven; and the surface might be computed as equal to about two thousand English acres.

Some estimate may be formed of the expense bestowed on the foundation of Constantinople, by the allowance of about two millions five hundred thousand pounds for the construction of the walls, the porticoes, and the aqueducts.

The divisions of the Christian world seemed to call for the interference of the Imperial magistrates, and Constantine in the year 325, resolved to establish Christianity on a solid basis. He commanded that in all the provinces of the empire the orders of the bishops should be exactly obeyed; a privilege of which, in succeeding times, they made but a very indifferent use. He assembled also a general council of these fathers at Nice, in order to repress the heresies that had already crept into the church, particularly that of Arius. To this place repaired about three hundred and eighteen bishops, besides a multitude of presbyters and deacons, together with the emperor himself, who all, except about seventeen, concurred in condemning the tenets of Arius; and this heresiarch, with his associates, was banished into a remote part of the empire.

But though he had thus restored universal tranquillity to the empire, he was not able to avoid calamities of a more domestic nature. As the prejudiced historians of this period are entirely at variance with each other, it is not easy to say what were the motives which induced him to put his wife Fausta and his son Crispus to death. The most plausible account is, that Fausta, the empress, who was a woman of great beauty, but of extravagant desires, had long, though secretly, indulged a criminal passion for Crispus, Constantine's son by a former wife. She had tried every art to inspire this youth with a mutual flame: and finding her more distant efforts ineffectual, had even the confidence to make him an open confession of her love. This produced an explanation, which was fatal to both. Crispus received her advances with detestation; and she, to be revenged, accused him to the emperor. Constantine, fired at once with jealousy and rage, ordered him to die without an hearing; nor did his innocence appear till it was too late for redress; the only reparation, therefore, that remained, was the putting Fausta, the wicked instrument of his former cruelty, to death; which was accordingly executed upon her, together with some others, who had been accomplices in her falsehood and treachery.

Constantine left three sons by the empress Fausta, named CONSTANTINE, CONSTANTIUS, and CONSTANS, who had been successively invested with the purple, and placed in situations of great power and trust. He had likewise conferred the title of Cæsar on his nephews, DALMATIUS and ANNIBALIANUS, and assigned each his peculiar inheritance.

Immediately on his death, however, the ministers and generals about the court of Constantinople, engaged in secret consultations to exclude the nephews of the deceased emperor from the succession he had intended for them, and procured a declaration from the soldiers, that the sons of Constantine alone should participate in the empire.

Constantius, to whom his father had recommended the care of his obsequies, as being on the spot, having taken possession of the palace, in order to quiet the apprehensions of Dalmatius and Annibalianus, entered into a solemn contract with them, which immediately after he sought a specious pretext for breaking. From the hands of the bishop of Nicomedia, he received a fictitious scroll, in which the late emperor expressed his suspicions, that he had been poisoned by his brothers, and conjured his sons to revenge his death. This charge, false as it undoubtedly was, precluded the hope of defence, and even the forms of legal proceeding. The soldiers immediately massacred the two uncles of Constantius and seven of his nephews, with other more distant connections; and of this numerous family, Gallus and Julian alone were saved from the hands of the assassins.

A new division of the provinces followed this bloody tragedy. Constantine, the eldest of the Cæsars, by way of pre-eminence, obtained the possession of the new capital; Thrace and the eastern provinces fell to the lot of Constantius; and Constans was acknowledged sovereign by Italy, Africa, and the western Illyricum. These three princes, according to their seniority, were twenty-one, twenty, and seventeen years of age, when they assumed the reigns of government, and were complimented by the senate with the title of Augustus.

At the decease of Constantine the Great, the throne of Persia was filled by Sapor, to whom his very enemies ascribe the virtues of a statesman, and the courage and conduct of a general. He was animated by a desire of avenging the disgrace of his fathers, and of wresting from he hands of the Romans the fine provinces beyond the Tigris. Chosroes, the son of Tiridates, king of Armenia, being in alliance with the Romans, obtained the sceptre of his father, through the influence of that government, after some years of civil dissension; but consented to purchase the friendship of Sapor, by the cession of a province, and an ignominious tribute.

Sapor, indeed, was a formidable rival, as well a troublesome neighbour to Constantius, during his whole reign. The armies of Rome and Persia encountered each other in nine bloody battles, in which victory generally declared for the latter. In the battle of Singara, the Roman legions, by an effort of tumultuous valour, forced, and possessed themselves of the Persian camp; but while they were engaged in plunder, the vigilant Sapor advanced, under cover of the night, upon the conquerors; and reversing the fortune of the day, compelled his foes to a melancholy retreat.

At last, while Sapor was besieging Nisibis, for the third time, and had almost forced it to surrender, he received intelligence that the eastern provinces of Persia were ravaged by the Massagetæ. In consequence of this, he concluded a truce with Constantius, who was likewise called off to attend to other affairs; and therefore a pacification being equally desirable to both, the terms were easily adjusted.

Constantine, the eldest son of the late emperor, had early complained of being defrauded in his just share of the spoils which came by the murder of Dalmatius and Annibalianus. From Constans, in particular, he exacted the cession of the African provinces, and as this was not readily granted, he broke into the dominions of his brother with a tumultuary force, and laid waste the country round Aquileia.

Constans, who then resided in Dacia, being informed of these proceedings, detached a select body of Illyrian troops, and prepared to follow with the remainder of his forces. The contest, however, was soon terminated by the conduct of his lieutenants, who, making a feint of flying, drew Constantine into an ambuscade, where he was slain with his attendants. His provinces readily transferred their allegiance to the conqueror, who refusing to admit his elder brother, Constantius, to a participation, maintained the undisputed possession of by far the greater part of the Roman empire.

Ten years afterwards, Constans was taken off by Magnentius, an ambitious general of barbarian extraction, who had been corrupted by the assistance of Marcellinus. At a splendid entertainment, given by the latter at Autun, to the nobles of Gaul, Magnentius entered the apartment, invested with the diadem and purple; and the guests being surprised into an instant approbation of his treason, before morning, Magnentius was master of the troops and treasures of the city of Autun. Constans, who was then hunting in a neighbouring forest, on hearing this unexpected event, attempted to fly into Spain; but being overtaken by a party of light horse, was instantly put to death.

Gaul and Italy immediately submitted to MAGNENTIUS; while Illyricum, comprehending the martial countries from the Danube to the extremity of Greece, obeyed the government of Vetranio, a veteran of experience and reputation. This general, listening to the ambitious counsels of Constantina, the widow of Annibalianus, assumed the diadem also, and contracted an alliance with Magnentius.

On the first news of these revolutionary movements, Constantius turned his whole attention to this quarter; and in order to divide his enemies, professed his readiness to acknowledge

acknowledge Vetranio as his partner in the empire; but rejected all idea of treating with Magnentius, the murderer of his brother, and whose death he was determined to revenge.

Vetranio accordingly having withdrawn from his recent alliance with Magnentius, advanced to Sardica with a very numerous army, in order to have an interview with Constantius, and to regulate their joint operations against the usurper.

The two armies having assembled in a large plain, near the last-mentioned city, Constantius and Vetranio, their commanders, were called upon to explain the situation of public affairs.

The precedency of rank and speech was allowed to Constantius, who acquitted himself with so much ability, that the officers on both sides saluted him as their lawful sovereign; while the troops caught the enthusiasm of loyalty, and the plains of Sardica resounded with, "Long live the son of Constantine!" Vetranio, astonished and confounded at the tergiversation of his troops, prostrated himself at the feet of the emperor, whom he had met as an equal; and being raised from the ground by Constantius, and assured of favour and protection, quietly retired to the enjoyment of ease and affluence in a private station.

The contest with Magnentius had a more formidable aspect, and presented all the horrors of civil war; to prevent which, Constantius offered to cede all the provinces beyond the Alps. This tender was insultingly rejected; and Magnentius deigned only to promise the emperor pardon, on condition that he instantly abdicated the throne.

It was evident now that force of arms must decide the important contest. Magnentius was besieging Mursa, when the approach of Constantius warned him to prepare for battle. The son of Constantine having animated his soldiers with an harangue, retired to a neighbouring church, and committed to his generals and to God the conduct of this decisive day. With various turns of fortune, the engagement was maintained till night, and ended with the defeat of the usurper, who, after performing prodigies of valour, was obliged to seek safety by flight.

The approach of winter prevented any further operations of consequence; but scarcely had Magnentius fixed his residence at Aquileia, before Rome and Italy, owning their lawful sovereign, obliged him to retire with the remains of his army into the province of Gaul.

It was now the turn of Magnentius to sue in vain; for Constantius was inexorable to all his entreaties. Finding, therefore, his situation desperate, he fell upon his own sword to escape being delivered up to the emperor. His brother Decentius followed the same example; and the public tranquillity was confirmed by executing the most guilty of the partisans of Magnentius.

The whole Roman empire was once more united under the sway of Constantius; but the triumphs of his arms seemed only to establish the influence of the eunuchs, who alternately governed the emperor by his fears, his indolence, and his vanity. Of these slaves, the most distinguished was the chamberlain Eusebius, who ruled the monarch and the palace with absolute sway, and by his suggestions persuaded his master to execute Gallus, his only surviving cousin, except Julian.

Gallus had been invested with the purple in the twenty-fifth year of his age, and afterwards married to the princess Constantina. He then fixed his residence at Antioch, and from thence administered the five great dioceses of the eastern præfecture. But though he behaved with fraternal affection to Julian, his general conduct was tyrannical and disgusting; and having at last insulted Constantius in the persons of two of his ministers, whom he put to death with savage cruelty, he was ordered to appear before the emperor. While he reluctantly complied, he was arrested; and being stripped of the ensigns of his dignity, was killed in prison at Polà in Istria.

His brother Julian, who now, exclusive of the emperor, alone survived of the numerous posterity of Constantius Chlorus, was involved in the disgrace of Gallus; but after some months' confinement, in the court of Milan, his life was preserved by the generous interference of the empress Eusebia, and Athens assigned as the place of his honourable exile. This city was highly agreeable to a prince of Julian's taste. From his early youth he had evinced a propensity to the learning, manners, and religion of the Greeks; and in the schools of Athens he established that prepossession in favour of his talents, which was soon diffused over the Roman world.

Constantius finding himself unequal to the sole government of such a mighty empire, surrounded by barbarous nations, adopting the advice of Eusebia, in opposition to that of the eunuchs, soon recalled Julian, whom he married to his sister Helena, and appointed him as Cæsar, to reign over the countries beyond the Alps.

Though the ministers of Constantius had not been able to ward off this blow against their influence, and retain Julian in a state of inactivity, they determined, by the most insidious manœuvres, to render his political existence disagreeable to him. They removed from about his person all his confidential friends; and, under pretence of shewing him respect, placed guards over him, rather to observe his motions than to defend him from danger. His letters were opened in their presence; and so vigilant was their jealousy, that he found it necessary to forbid his friends corresponding with him or visiting him, lest they should incur suspicion, or himself be exposed to risk.

On his quitting the court of Milan for Gaul, where the empire was menaced by the barbarians, he was surrounded with observers, spies, and opponents, whose study it was to control his actions, and curb his power. Yet amidst these obstacles and intrigues, his first campaign was fortunate, and his success determined the emperor to increase his authority; but in order to lessen the merit of this favour, an officer who had been accessary to the destruction of his brother Gallus, was placed over Julian.

Had not Julian possessed a great share of prudence and address, as well as the sincere affection of his troops, it would have been impossible for him at once to contend with so many secret machinations of pretended friends, and the continual irruption of open enemies, who sometimes attacked him on all sides. Whilst the Cæsar scarcely passed a day without a conflict, Constantius led a life of indolence at Milan, during many months. Having, however, resolved to return into the east, he indulged his pride and curiosity by paying a visit to the ancient capital, before he set out from Italy. Accordingly, he entered Rome at the head of a triumphal procession; was lodged in the palace of Augustus, presided in the senate, and harangued the people. On seeing the temple of Jupiter, the public baths, the amphitheatre, the tomb of Adrian, the theatre of Pompey, the forum of Trajan, and other splendid edifices, he exclaimed, "Fame, which exaggerates all other things, falls short of the truth in her account of Rome." He would not enter the senate-house, however, till the altar of victory and other remains of pagan superstition were removed; and by several sanguinary edicts, he endeavoured to root out idolatry and divination.

After spending thirty days in Rome, his departure was hastened by the intelligence of the distress and danger of the Illyrian provinces; but, to perpetuate the memory of this visit, he ordered the largest of the Egyptian obelisks which Constantine had designed to decorate his new city, to be transported from the banks of the Nile, and erected in the great circus of the old metropolis.

Julian continued to reap fresh laurels, all of which he referred to the emperor, who on his part accepted, without scruple, the appropriation. In fact, he carried this so far, that in the account he published of the important victory gained by his cousin at Strasburg, he attributed the whole honour to himself, without even naming the conqueror. Yet it must not be denied, that Constantius had some title to military reputation of his own: for he had personally fought the Quadi and Sarmatians, both warlike nations, and had obliged them to sue for peace. But though brave when engaged in war, he loved peace, and did every thing in his power

power to maintain it, particularly with the Persians, against whom he did not commence his march till driven to extremity.

This unavoidable war brought the intrigues against Julian to a crisis. The magnitude of Sapor's preparations, and perhaps the emperor's jealousy of the Cæsar, induced him to require a reinforcement of his chosen troops. This order, which was peremptory, reaching Julian at a moment of difficulty and danger, when the Picts and Scots were ravaging Britain, gave him the most sensible uneasiness; to aggravate which, he had every reason to apprehend that should his forces be diminished, the Germans, whom fear only kept in awe, would soon re-enter Gaul.

In this critical situation he determined to sacrifice his feelings to his duty, and to show the promptitude of his obedience to the imperial will; sending, therefore, for Decentius, who was charged with the emperor's commission, he professed his acquiescence, but hinted, that the troops required had enlisted on condition of not being compelled to pass the Alps, and that there might be danger in violating the engagement.

Events verified the prediction: no sooner was Decentius ready to depart with the troops he had selected, than the murmurs of discontent spread from tent to tent. The soldiers at last openly complained that they were sent to the extremity of the world, and obliged to leave their wives, their children, and their friends, a prey to the barbarians. To remove this cause of opposition, Julian permitted them to take their families with them, and offered them conveyances at the public expence. He carried his attention to the discharge of his duty still further; and as he knew the attachment of his soldiers, he advised Decentius not to lead them through Paris, the place of his residence, lest they should be tempted to some act of violence on the prospect of leaving him. The commander, however, did not think it reasonable to refuse the indulgence which they ardently begged, of being permitted to bid their general farewell. Julian received them with kindness; and from his tribunal, gratefully commemorated their past exploits, and concluded, with recommending a prompt and cheerful obedience to the commands of Constantius.

The soldiers heard the latter part of his speech in gloomy silence; and after a short pause, were dismissed to the quarters. The officers were entertained by the Cæsar; and when they retired from the feast, mutually lamented the severity of their fate, which tore them from a general they loved, and from a country which contained all they held dear. The common soldiers on this occasion had likewise been indulged with wine; their spirits were elevated to a sufficient pitch of daring or suffering; and conspiracy, the only expedient which could prevent the dreaded separation, was proposed, as it has been imagined, by some warm partisans of Julian, and approved by the whole army.

The ferment increased; and at the hour of midnight, the impatient multitude encompassed the palace of Cæsar, and proclaimed him "Julian Angustus."

The prince strenuously rejected the proffered honour, when they told him that if he wished to live, he must "consent to reign;" and then elevating him on a shield, they placed a military collar on his head, by way of a diadem.

Having accepted the dignity of Augustus, he was determined to support it; but yet wished, by every method of conciliation with Constantius, to save his country from the horrors of a civil war. For this purpose, he penned, in his own name and that of the army, a respectful epistle, acknowledging the supremacy of Constantius, and the irregularity of his own election, and conceding every thing, except the sovereignty of the provinces beyond the Alps with all their appendant royalties, which he claimed in full right.

Preparations for war accompanied the negociations for peace. As soon as the season of the year permitted, Julian took the field against the Attuarii, a tribe of the Franks who had ravaged the frontiers of the empire, and penetrating into their country, conquered them with great losss, and fixed his winter quarters at Vienna.

When the ambassadors of Julian, who had experienced many delays in their journey to the east, were introduced to the presence of Constantius, they found him in great agitation, and violently incensed against their master. The death of Helena had dissolved the domestic connection between them, and the empress Eusebia, the constant patroness of Julian, was likewise no more. The emperor was therefore left to follow the impulses of his own passions, and the artful suggestions of his ministers. He informed Julian, that the only conditions on which either he or his adherents could hope for pardon, was to renounce the rank of Augustus, and to acknowledge himself a dependent on the supreme head of the empire.

Irritated at receiving such humiliating terms, Julian now resolved boldly to commit his life and fortune to the chance of a civil war. The haughty epistle of Constantius was read before a military audience: and the faint proposal of Julian to resign the purple, if he could obtain the consent of his electors, was drowned in repeated acclamations. The assembly was dismissed; and a message being returned to Constantius full of resentment, Julian publicly declared that he committed his safety to the immortal gods, and thus renounced the religion as well as the friendship of the son of Constantine.

The circumstances of the emperor of Gaul required vigorous and immediate exertions. He discovered that the barbarians had been invited to invade his provinces, and he had also the forces of Constantius to contend with. Wherefore assembling his army in the vicinity of Basil, he speedily detached ten thousand men under Nevitta, through Rhætia and Noricum; an equal number, led by Jovius and Jovinus, were ordered to follow the course of the highways through the Alps and the northern confines of Italy, and both detachments to join their sovereign under the walls of Sirmium.

Meanwhile Julian, with three thousand volunteers, plunged into the recesses of the Marcian forest, and emerging between Ratisbon and Vienna, seized a fleet of light vessels; and committing himself and his followers to the rapid stream of the Danube, in eleven days landed within a few miles of Sirmium.

His two generals having carried all before them, soon effected a junction with their master at the appointed rendezvous, from whence Julian dispatched an apology for his conduct to the principal cities of the empire, trusting to his arguments as well as his arms. With the duplicity of an hypocrite, rather than the effrontery of a daring apostate, he took care to word his manifestoes according to the prevailing religion of the people he addressed. He likewise assisted at christian service, and pagan sacrifices, in order to conciliate opposite interests; and by his policy united with his prowess, had made considerable progress towards establishing himself, not only a partner but paramount in the empire, when he was informed of the almost sudden death of Constantius. A. D. 361.

That prince having disengaged himself from the Persians by a hasty peace, had advanced precipitately against his rival, when a fever, occasioned by the agitation of his mind, or the fatigues of his journey, obliged him to halt at Mopsucrene, a little town about twelve miles beyond Tarsus; where, after a short illness, Constantius breathed his last, in the forty-fifth year of his age, and the twenty-fourth of his reign. In person he was diminutive, but capable of exertion when occasion required: he was temperate, but extremely uxorious; and, in a word, inherited the defects without the abilities of his father. In religion, he was rather a bigot than a Christian.

The eunuchs who surrounded the court of Constantinople, made a feeble attempt to prolong their power, by electing another emperor; but their intrigues were rejected by the army, and two officers of rank were dispatched to assure Julian, that every sword in the empire would be drawn at his command.

That prince, impatient to visit his new capital, and the place of his birth, hastened his march; and when he reached Heraclea,

Heraclea, all Constantinople poured out to meet him. It was in the thirty-second year of his age, that he acquired the undisturbed possession of the Roman world; and from the moment of his ascending the throne, he seems to have given himself up wholly to the duties of his station. He neither suffered his body nor his mind to be relaxed by sensual indulgences. He alike disdained the amusements of the theatre and the circus; and wrapped himself up in pagan philosophy, with which his mind had been early imbued. Though of low stature and unpleasing aspect, he was well made, active, and uncommonly expert in all his exercises. His memory was excellent, and he possessed much penetration and presence of mind.

One of the first and most necessary acts of the government of Julian, was the reformation of the imperial court, in which he acted with indiscriminating severity, making no benevolent exceptions for the age, services, or poverty of the domestics of the late emperor's family; but, by a single edict, reducing the palace to a desert.

Having corrected the abuses, he next set about punishing the crimes of his predecessor's reign. A court of inquiry was instituted for this purpose, which, in its ferocious zeal, sometimes included the innocent in the sentence of the guilty; but the condemnation and death of Eusebius, who had long abused the favour of Constantius, was generally regarded as an act of justice.

Julian discarded also the whole army of spies and informers which Constantius had kept in pay, esteeming it unworthy of him to indulge suspicion, or to be always on the watch for crime. He seemed to possess a love of freedom; and though his apostacy has tarnished the lustre of his character, he was not wholly destitute of liberality, even to those who opposed his favourite prejudices.

However, though Julian was not intolerant, he shewed some partiality for the adherents and the converts to polytheism. Though he overlooked the merit of christian constancy, he nobly rewarded those Gentiles who had preferred their gods to the favour of his immediate predecessors; nor was he indifferent to the claims of the Christians who became proselytes to the ancient religion of the state. The natural temper of the soldiery, made his conquest over their religious tenets easy; and the weight of an army in the scale of despotism, rendered the pious seduction of importance. The legions of Gaul devoted themselves to the faith as well the fortunes of Julian, and assisted with fervent devotion and voracious appetite, at the sacrifices which were repeatedly offered of whole hecatombs of oxen.

The restoration of the ancient temple of Jerusalem, attracted the ambitious mind of the emperor; who, in his enmity to Christianity, flattered himself, that the completion of the undertaking would be, at least, to furnish a specious argument against the faith of prophecy, and the truth of revelation. To accomplish this design, he employed one of his ablest generals, named Alypius; and ordered the governor of Palestine to lend his most strenuous support in restoring the work of Solomon to its pristine beauty.

The Jews too, in hopes of obtaining a permanent settlement in the country that was still dear to them, flocked together from every part of the empire, and contributed both their fortune and their labour, to accelerate the wished-for event; but from reasons which have never been clearly made out the work made no progress.

Julian having settled the internal policy of the empire, and being possessed of the full powers both of body and mind, was desirous to signalize his reign by some splendid military achievements. Sapor presented an object worthy of his arms, and therefore he determined to chastise this haughty Persian, who had so long braved the power and majesty of Rome.

Accordingly, a considerable army was levied, and the generals appointed, with which Julian set out from Constantinople; and, marching through Asia Minor, reached Antioch, a city with whose effeminate amusements and licentious manners the emperor was soon disgusted, as the inhabitants were with the austerity of his behaviour. The Syrian Greeks even ventured to turn his person and pursuits into ridicule, and the streets resounded with songs and libels against the stoical apostate. Julian, however, with great good humour, in return composed an ironical confession of his own faults, and a severe invective against the effeminate manners of Antioch; a performance which still remains, at once a monument of the wit and resentment of the emperor.

At this town, as well as others which he passed through in the Persian expedition, Julian practised a variety of superstitious rites to propitiate the gods, and to discover the issue of the war. For this latter purpose, it is said, that he barbarously sacrificed young maidens, in order to consult their palpitating entrails; a crime so detestable, that it is difficult to believe the prejudiced Christian writers who assert it. It is certain, however, that he made offerings, and burnt incense to the olympian and to the infernal gods.

But, while he thus sought support from supernatural means, he seems to have neglected those which were obvious and ready for forwarding his arms. With an ill-judged haughtiness, he rejected the offer made by the Saracens, to march in conjunction with him against the Persians.

After various skirmishes, sieges, and toilsome marches, frequently made in opposition to the opinion of his best officers, he turned from the banks of the Tigris, where his fleet could supply provisions; and with a singular infatuation caused the ships to be burnt, lest they should fall into the hands of his enemies during his absence.

Trusting to the guides of the country, who had promised to conduct him by a short and easy route, he set out with his army; but the fire, which was to consume the fleet, had scarcely begun to blaze, before the guides were discovered to be traitors to his cause. In vain did the Romans now attempt to extinguish the conflagration; the whole fleet was destroyed in spite of their exertions. Julian hastened, as the only alternative, to meet the enemies; who, on their part, advanced, but were beaten. They fled, and the imperial army pursuing them, soon found themselves in a ruined and desert country, from which it was impossible to draw subsistence. Still, however, they pressed on, hoping to arrive in more fertile regions; but the further they advanced the more melancholy was their prospect; while the Persians incessantly harrassed their march, and thousands perished by drought.

But the necessity of the case compelled the emperor to pursue his march through a mountainous country, the hills of which had been secretly occupied by the Persians. An alarm that his rear was suddenly attacked, brought back the astonished emperor. Without his cuirass, and defended only by a shield which he had snatched from a soldier, he was exposed to a shower of missile weapons. A javelin, after razing the skin of his arm, transpierced the ribs, and stuck with its point in his liver. He fell senseless from his horse, and was borne to his tent. As the blood flowed copiously from the wound, it is said that he caught some of it in his hand, and sprinkling it towards the sun, exclaimed, "O Galilean, thou hast conquered!" If this act really took place, it seems to imply a meditated defiance of heaven; but it can scarcely be credited. He soon after expired, in the thirty-third year of his age, after a short reign of one year and eight months. A. D. 363.

The death of Julian, in whom the race of Constantius Chlorus became extinct, left the empire without a master and without an heir. The situation of a famished army, encompassed by a host of barbarians, shortened the moments of grief and deliberation; and after the remains of the emperor were decently embalmed, in order to be interred at Tarsus, the various officers of the army were summoned to assist in a military council. The merits of Sallust were unanimously allowed; but the venerable præfect, alleging his infirmities, strenuously declined the purple. While they debated, a few voices saluted JOVIAN, then in no higher rank than first domestic, with the titles of emperor and Augustus: the acclamation was repeated by the guards; and the new prince,

prince, astonished at his fortune, was invested with the imperial ornaments, and received the oath of fidelity from the generals.

The first order of the new emperor, who had supported with credit the character of a Christian and a soldier, was to prosecute the intended march; but the news of the death of Julian having revived the confidence of Sapor, he threw the rear guard into so much disorder, that with difficulty they reached the city of Dura. The Tigris was still on their left; and after several ineffectual efforts, the army was compelled to relinquish its design of passing that rapid stream. Their distress was hourly augmented by the pressure of famine, and the increasing numbers of the enemy; when the cession of five provinces and of some important cities, purchased the deliverance of the emperor and his army, from the forlorn situation to which they had been reduced.

The faith of Jovian was announced to the people, by his displaying the banners of the cross at the head of his legions, in their fatiguing return towards Constantinople. The edicts of Julian were abolished; and the attachment of the emperor to the orthodox belief, was declared by the reverence he expressed for the virtues of the great Athanasius.

Impatient to occupy the palace of Constantinople, Jovian had rapidly advanced as far as Dadastana, a town lying between Ancyra and Nice; while his wife with an imperial train was hastening to meet him. She brought with her their infant son Veronianus; and the moment of embracing her husband seemed at hand, when, like a stroke of thunder, it was announced to her that he was no more. Having indulged rather freely at supper, he retired to rest; and next morning was found dead in his bed. His corpse was carried to Constantinople; after he had reigned somewhat less than twelve months.

For ten days after the death of Jovian, the Roman world remained without a master. At last, after several candidates had been proposed and rejected, the suffrages of the electors were united in favour of VALENTINIAN, the son of Gratian. His father, from an obscure situation, had risen to the highest commands of Africa and Britain; and the son had on every occasion displayed a manly and vigorous mind. In his person he was tall, in his countenance dignified; and his general habits had acquired him the esteem and respect of the army. He professed the Christian faith, and was now in the forty-third year of his age.

Valentinian, having consulted the assembly of chiefs, bestowed the title of Augustus on his brother Valens; and assigning his colleague the præfecture of the East, with the capital of Constantinople, while he retained Illyricum, Italy, and Gaul, fixed his court at Milan.

At this juncture, the barbarians were pressing on the frontiers of the Roman empire in all quarters, and gradually pushing their inroads to the very centre. The Germans attacked Gaul and Rhætia; the Sarmatians and Quadi overran Pannonia; the Picts, Saxons, Scots, and Attacottis, invaded Britain; the Asturians, Spain; and the Moors, Africa.

It required all the bravery and conduct of Valentinian, and all the skill of his generals, to make head against so many powerful nations. Jovian, however, was considered as the scourge of the Germans, as Theodosius was of the Picts. The son of the latter was equally renowned in arms; and these commanders were no less distinguished for the vigour with which they carried on war, than for the good faith with which they observed treaties when once made. Some of the other generals of Valentinian were, perhaps, more politic though less sincere. Considering that they had only barbarians to deal with, they thought it no disgrace to take advantage of them in the interpretation of treaties, or to sacrifice truth and justice to the preservation of the integrity of the empire.

At this period, indeed, corruption had risen to its height, and truth and honesty shrunk abashed. Valentinian was severe in punishing those ministers who abused his confidence, yet no one was ever more frequently deceived. At last he knew not whom to trust, in such a degenerate state of manners. Complaints of the most serious nature having been preferred against Romanus, the governor of Africa, and a person of great influence at court, Valentinian determined to probe the business. Accordingly, he deputed Palladius as commissioner, on account of his character for probity; yet the governor found means by intrigue to destroy the independence of his censor's report, and to keep him from publishing the irregularities which he had discovered. With consummate art, he engaged the officers to whom Palladius distributed their pay to make him presents, under colour of the respect which they owed to a man who was in such high favour with the emperor; and when Palladius, having informed himself of the truth of affairs, reproached the governor with his conduct in the administration of the province, and avowed his resolution to make a report to the emperor according to the truth, "You are at liberty so to do," said the insolent Romanus; "but neither shall I conceal from our common master your facility in receiving presents, and the use you make of the trust which he reposes in you." The conscience of Palladius was touched, and dreading the indignant justice of the emperor, he entered into an accommodation with the governor, and returned a favourable report.

But though craft and avarice characterised the ministers of Valentinian in general, there were some splendid instances of a contrary conduct among them. The sincerity of Iphicles may well contrast with the duplicity of Palladius, which has just been mentioned. This man being delegated by the Epirots, to thank the emperor for the upright government of Probus, who presided over their province; and Valentinian, suspecting that these thanks were the result of entreaty, or extorted by threats, said to Iphicles, "Are you really and truly charged by your countrymen to give me thanks?" The reply, though consonant to truth, would have done honour to the dexterity of a modern jesuit: "They undoubtedly gave me in charge to come and express their gratitude to you; but when I received the commission, their eyes were filled with tears."

Valentinian, though often duped, took the most sedulous pains to discover the truth, and with unrelenting severity punished every dereliction. His wife Severa, who had unjustly acquired an estate, he first obliged to restore it, and then repudiated her for the fault. He exhibited many examples of torture, and even burning alive unfaithful officers; and yet the punishments he inflicted seldom operated as a warning on others.

Throughout his whole reign he was fully employed in repressing the incursions of the numerous enemies that environed his division of the empire, and in giving energy to the feeble councils of Valens. The Quadi were the last objects of his enmity. These having provoked him highly, he reviled their ambassadors who had come to sue for mercy, in language at once gross and intemperate; but while he was straining his voice, and the violence of his gestures expressed the agitation of his soul, he burst a blood-vessel, and fell speechless into the arms of his attendants. He died at the age of fifty-five, after having reigned twelve years; and left his throne to his son GRATIAN, whom he had invested with the purple from his earliest youth.

But to return to Valens. In the second year of this prince's reign, a competitor arose, in the person of Procopius, a kinsman of Julian. A rumour prevailed, that he had been invested with the imperial purple by the Apostate, before the altar of the Moon at Carrhæ; and certain it was, he had some pretensions, either natural or delegated, to the empire. On the election of Jovian he was removed to a distance, by being appointed to conduct the corpse of Julian to Tarsus, and to superintend the celebration of his obsequies. When the ceremony was concluded, Procopius withdrew himself from the eyes of the public, and all endeavours to discover his retreat proved ineffectual. In fact, he had concealed himself with a friend in the vicinity of Constantinople, which he occasionally entered in disguise, in order to observe the disposition of men's minds, in regard to the reigning prince.

Finding, after some time, that the character of Valens was despised

despised, and himself absent in Syria, busied with his preparations against the Goths; Procopius, clothed in a purple vest, appeared in the midst of Constantinople. The soldiers received him with shouts of joy and vows of fidelity: the malcontents flocked to his standard; the magistrates were seized; the prisons and arsenals broke open; and, in the space of a few hours, Procopius became master of the imperial city. The Gothic princes gladly contracted an alliance with him; and several cities and provinces either voluntarily acknowledged the dominion of the usurper, or submitted to the force of his arms. The countenance and support of Faustina, widow of the emperor Constantius, added dignity to his claims; and the princess Constantia, scarcely five years old, being shewn to the army, they unanimously swore that they would protect the royal infant with the last drop of their blood.

Valens was at Cæsarea when he first received intelligence of this rebellion. Despairing of his fortune on account of the external foes he had at the same time to combat, he proposed to negociate with the usurper, and abdicate the purple. From this design he was dissuaded by his ministers. The præfect, Sallust, who had been displaced, was again restored to his authority; and the affections of the people being in some measure conciliated by this appointment, the soldiers of Procopius began to desert his standard, as rapidly as they had joined it. In two successive engagements at Thyatira and Nacosia, the kinsman of Julian was betrayed by his troops; and after wandering some time among the woods, he was taken up, and carried bound to the emperor, who caused him to be decapitated.

Had Valens only exerted himself to defend the power with which he was legitimately invested against all opponents, he might have appeared respectable, if not praise-worthy; but his cruel absurdity in attempting to fetter the consciences of men, and tormenting his subjects for their opinions, deserves our execration. A zealous Arian himself, he inveterately persecuted the orthodox, against whom he thought disgrace, exclusion from offices, and spoliations of property, and even exile, insufficient; he also employed tortures and death. Eighty ecclesiastics deputed by the clergy of Constantinople, to complain of having an Arian bishop placed over them by the emperor, were ordered to be put to death. The præfect, however, fearing lest such an execution should excite commotions, put them on board a vessel, which being carried to a sufficient distance from the shore by the ministers of his vengeance, was cruelly set on fire, and consumed; the assassins escaping in a boat.

With all the superstitious prejudices of a little mind, the attention of Valens was equally directed to divines, to sorcerers and astrologers, deliverers of oracles, fortune-tellers, and the deceivers and deceived of every kind. Every book containing circles or lines, figures of animals, or delineations of the human body, was held to be the abominable collections of a diabolical science, and an instrument of sorcery, deserving to be committed to the flames. These were sought for with the most vexatious industry and persevering diligence: his inquisitors multiplied the number of the guilty, by concealing interdicted books in certain houses to obtain the stipulated reward.

Festus, the proconsul of Asia, put the philosopher Cæranius to death, merely for having, in a letter to his wife, made use of a term employed in sorcery. A woman, by certain words, cured the pro-consul's daughter of a fever, and was rewarded by being condemned to death as an infernal agent.

During the whole reign of Valens, he had carried on war with the Goths; and these people, though repeatedly beaten and admitted to terms, were too numerous to be quiet, and had too many enemies not to pant for revenge. Having been expelled from their possessions along the mouths of the Borysthenes and Niester, and impelled forwards by the Huns, a barbarous nation from the north-west of Asia, they presented themselves on the banks of the Danube, to the number of two hundred thousand men, earnestly entreating the Romans to grant them a passage, and receive them into the empire. Valens imprudently gave them settlements in Thrace; but soon after being irritated with bad usage, they took up arms under their king Fritigern, and, being joined by the Huns and Alans, once more prepared to take the field.

During these distractions in the East, the emperor Gratian, who had mounted the throne on the death of his father, and had his infant brother Valentinian associated with him, was engaged in a serious and bloody contest with the Alemanni. The intelligence that Gratian intended to lead his forces to the assistance of his uncle Valens, pointed out to the turbulent Alemanni the moment of successful invasion. They passed the Rhine on the ice, amounting to forty thousand men; and the youthful emperor having collected his forces, marched against them, accompanied by the experienced Nanienus, and Mellobaudes, who united in his person the characters of count of the domestics and king of the Franks. In the plains of Alsace, the well-practised evolutions of the Romans triumphed over the valour of the Alemanni, five thousand of whom, after the death of their king, escaped into the woods and mountains. The emperor pursued the enemy into their own country, and compelled them to sue for peace. Gratian, though then only nineteen years of age, gave such an earnest of courage and conduct, that he inspired his subjects with the firm hopes of a long and auspicious reign.

While Gratian was thus receiving the homage and applause of his subjects, Valens was detested by his people, and surrounded by enemies. At last he was urged by the clamours of the multitude to march against the barbarians whom he had incautiously admitted into his dominions. The turbulence of the citizens conspired with the rashness of Valens to hasten the downfall of the Roman empire. Some of the generals of the emperor having obtained partial victories over the Goths, and abundance of spoil, Valens now determined to share in the glory of their victories, and with a numerous army advanced to Adrianople.

The imperial camp was pitched under the walls of that city, and a council assembled to decide the fate of the emperor and the empire. The obsequious eloquence of those prevailed, who represented every doubt of victory as unworthy the majesty of the Roman monarch; and though certain intelligence was brought that Gratian was advancing by hasty marches, at the head of his victorious legions, to insure, by his junction, the success of the Gothic war, the evil genius of Valens, reinforced by the insidious advice of his lieutenants, pursued him; and he rushed with a blind impetuosity on death and destruction.

Leaving his baggage and military treasure under a strong guard, the emperor marched from Adrianople to attack the Goths, who were encamped about twelve miles distant. By some mistake, the right wing arrived in sight of the enemy a considerable time before the left; and the soldiers of the latter, in endeavouring to quicken their pace, were thrown into unavoidable confusion. The treachery of Fritigern, one of the emperor's lieutenants, secured the success of his countrymen the Goths; and in a short time the imperial cavalry fled before the Gothic squadrons, while the Roman infantry, abandoned and surrounded on every side, was broken and cut to pieces. Valens, wounded and deserted by his guards, is said to have been removed from the field of battle, by a few faithful adherents, to a neighbouring cottage, which, while they endeavoured to dress his wound, was set on fire by the enemy, and in it was consumed the emperor of the East. A boy, who escaped from a window, alone survived to inform the barbarians of the prize they had lost by the conflagration.

The pride of the Goths was elated by their victory, but their avarice was disappointed by the obstinate resistance of Adrianople, in which the greatest part of the imperial wealth had been secured. At length, raising the siege, they poured into the suburbs of Constantinople; and while they gazed with admiration on the imperial capital of the east, a party of Saracens, in the Roman pay, rushing from one of the gates, put them to the rout. The Goths retiring, possessed themselves of the narrow pass of the Succi in the defiles of Mount Hæmus, whence they gradually spread themselves as far as the confines of Italy and the Adriatic sea.

On the first reception of these barbarians into the empire, their sons had been distributed through the cities of the east. Those youths evincing a disposition, on the death of Valens, to deliver themselves from bondage, became the victims of an indiscriminate slaughter in every place where they resided; and by this cruel policy the eastern empire was delivered from their machinations.

By the death of Valens, Gratian found himself possessed of the whole empire; a burthen which his modesty taught him he was unable to bear, unassisted and alone. Indeed, from the description given us of the miserable state of the empire at this time, by contemporary authors, it is evident that a youth of twenty, and a child of ten years of age, must be incompetent to manage so mighty a machine, composed of such jarring and discordant elements. "The whole country," say they, "from Constantinople to the Italian Alps, is wet with Roman blood, Scythia, Thrace, Macedonia, Dardania, Dacia, Thessaly, Achaia, Epiri, Dalmatia, Pannonia, and Gaul, swarm with Goths, Sarmatians, Quadi, Huns, Vandals, Franks, Germans, and Marcomans. Nothing has escaped their rapacity; all ranks and ages have suffered from their fury. How many eminent persons of either sex, how many consecrated virgins, have undergone the most dreadful hardships as the preludes only of a hard captivity! Bishops have been massacred with their clergy; churches destroyed, and the most beautiful countries covered with ashes."

To aggravate those calamities, the Roman army, on the defeat of Valens, had in one day lost its bravest officers, and best-tried soldiers; while the enemy had gained additional confidence, and were inspired with fresh vigour to dare and to endure. Gratian, however, having gathered the wrecks of the forces together, united them with his own untouched legions, and thus opposed a barrier against the further progress of the barbarians.

But all his valour and all his activity would probably have been in vain, had he not been assisted by THEODOSIUS, afterwards called, The Great, whom he prevailed on to become his associate in the honour and toils of empire. It seems, indeed, that Gratian, in this choice, was willing to atone, in the person of the son, for the injustice suffered by Theodosius, the father, three years before. This illustrious general, after having subdued Britain, and by his victorious arms restored peace to Africa, perished on a scaffold at Carthage, a victim to his envious calumniators, who, under false accusations, had practised on the inexperience of the young emperor, and extorted a sentence of condemnation from him against one of his best friends. Theodosius, the younger, after his father's catastrophe, retired to Spain, where he lived in obscurity, at the time Gratian summoned him to share the throne of the East. It appears, that he was reluctantly drawn from the tranquil scenes of private life; but having once assumed the reins of empire, he managed them with energy and decision. Gratian having placed them in such able hands, returned towards the west, satisfied with his original government, but sent his brother Valentinian to Milan, under the guidance of his mother Justina.

Under these emperors, religion was cherished, and its ministers obtained a very powerful influence in the state. Unfortunately, however, for the peace of mankind, and the credit of Christianity, both the princes and the ecclesiastics were divided in their opinions. At the court of Gratian the Catholics prevailed; at that of Valentinian, a violent Arianism; and in the east, the department of Theodosius, the opposing sects were numerous; but the orthodoxy of the emperor, during his reign, absorbed the whole of them. Indeed, to him belongs the glory of subduing the Arian heresy, and abolishing the worship of idols in the Roman world. The orthodox faith of Theodosius was confirmed by an argument adapted to the meanest capacity. He had conferred the title of Augustus on his eldest son, Arcadius; and the two princes were seated on a throne to receive the homage of their subjects. Amphilochius, bishop of Icenium, approached Theodosius with reverence, but accosted his son with familiarity. The indignant monarch gave orders that the rustic prelate should be instantly driven from his presence; but while the guards were thrusting him out, the dexterous polemic exclaimed, "Such is the treatment, O emperor! which the King of heaven has prepared for those impious men who affect to worship the Father, but refuse to acknowledge the equal majesty of his divine Son!" Theodosius immediately embraced the bishop, and having by a solemn edict proclaimed his own faith, branded all who dissented from it with the appellation of heretics. A council at Constantinople completed the theological system of Nice; and the edicts of the emperor denounced the severest penalties against all; but these penal edicts were seldom enforced.

Severe penalties proscribed the worship of any inanimate idol, and the majesty of Jupiter was degraded by a decree of the senate of Rome. If the statues of the gods were preserved, it was only by way of curiosity; and the parapharnalia of goddesses became the ornament of the Roman ladies. Such a revolution indeed took place in religion, that in a few years after the death of Theodosius, not a vestige of Polytheism was visible to the eye of the legislator.

The succeeding years of Gratian's reign undermined, in some degree, that reputation which had been acquired with so much care. While he acted by the advice of the faithful counsellors of his father, he was a model for princes; but when time or accident had removed those, he became the dupe of less able, but more pliant, ministers, who flattered his errors, or even created them. The guard of his person was entrusted to the Alani, and he participated in the rude and indecorous amusements of these barbarians; while the disgraceful spectacle filled the legions with grief and indignation.

The revolt of Maximus in Britain soon decided the fate of Gratian. This bold adventurer was a native of Spain; the countryman, the fellow-soldier, and the rival of Theodosius, whose elevation he had regarded with envy and resentment. The events of his life had long fixed him in Britain; and some say, that he had married a daughter of one of the principal chiefs in Caernarvonshire. However this may be, the soldiers, in concert with the provincials, with a tumultuary but unanimous voice, proclaimed him emperor. He declares himself that he was compelled to assume the imperial purple; but the moment that he had violated his allegiance, he extended his ambition beyond the limits of Britain, and prudently resolved to anticipate the designs of Gratian: he invaded Gaul with a powerful fleet and army, chiefly composed of Britons; and the soldiers of Gratian, instead of opposing his march, received him with joyful acclamations. Such disgust had the emperor given to his legionary soldiers, that his standard was almost universally deserted; and the unhappy Gratian fled towards Lyons with a feeble train of three hundred horse. He might still have reached in safety the dominions of his brother, had he not been deceived by the perfidious protestations of the governor of the province, who delayed his progress till the general of the cavalry of Maximus came up; when the emperor was delivered into his hands, and instantly put to death, after a reign of eight years, in the twenty-fifth year of his age.

The rapid succession of events rendered it impossible for Theodosius to prevent the catastrophe of his benefactor: and he had scarcely time to concert his measures for revenging the death of Gratian, before an ambassador arrived from Maximus to justify his conduct, and to offer terms of accommodation. The conditions proposed were in the high tone of an independent sovereign, and not of an usurper. Maximus held out only the alternative of peace or war; and declared, that if his friendship and his claims were rejected, he was prepared to dispute in battle the empire of the world.

The voice of honour and of gratitude called aloud on Theodosius to retort defiance, but his situation suggested milder councils. The assassin of Gratian possessed the most warlike provinces of the empire. The east was exhausted by the Gothic war; and the barbarians of the north menaced the very existence of the Roman name. These considerations induced Theodosius to accept the alliance of the tyrant; but he stipulated that Maximus should content himself with the countries

countries beyond the Alps, and that Valentinian, the brother of Gratian, should be secured in the sovereignty of Italy, Africa, and the western Illyricum. This prince, who was entirely under the guidance of his mother Justina, a zealous Arian and a favourer of that heresy, soon found himself embroiled with his catholic subjects, particularly with Ambrose, archbishop of Milan. Maximus, not ignorant of the religious squabbles which agitated his court, secretly meditated a design of turning them to his own account, and of uniting Italy to his other dominions, in violation of the treaty he had just concluded.

That he might occupy without resistance the passes of the Alps, he pressed Dominus, the ambassador of Valentinian, to accept a considerable body of troops for the service of a Pannonian war. This dangerous offer was incautiously acceded to; and the march of the auxiliaries was directed by the ambassador in person. The artful Maximus, however, followed silently in the rear; and the appearance of his cavalry first announced his hostile intentions to the sovereign of Italy.

Justina and her son placed their only hopes in flight, and reached Aquileia in safety; but dreading the event of a siege, she resolved to throw herself on the powerful protection of Theodosius. Accordingly, embarking with Valentinian, she landed at Thessalonica. Meanwhile, the subjects of Valentinian readily submitted to the usurper, and Maximus for a short time was undisputed ruler of Rome.

Theodosius received his suppliants with affectionate concern, and instant preparations were made for checking the boundless ambition of Maximus, whose fate was decided in the short space of two months. The steady valour of the Gauls and Germans, in the pay of the usurper, was confounded by the dexterous evolutions of the cavalry of the Goths, the Huns, and the Alani. The tyrant himself appeared destitute of military skill and personal courage; his forces, under the conduct of his brother Marcellinus, were defeated in a sharp conflict on the banks of the Save; and Theodosius pushed forward with such diligence into the champaign part of Italy, that Maximus had scarcely time to shut the gates of Aquileia against the victor.

The disaffection of that garrison hastened the downfall of the usurper, who, disrobed of the imperial ornaments, was conducted to the camp of Theodosius, and abandoned to the vengeance of the soldiers, who instantly beheaded him. His son Victor, whom he had created Cæsar, underwent the same fate, and his brother Marcellinus had fallen in battle. To his wife and daughters, Theodosius shewed the greatest clemency, and assigned them an honourable and independent fortune. No search was made after the adherents of Maximus. Theodosius having annexed to the states of Valentinian those provinces which had been rescued from the usurper, spent the winter at Milan, made his triumphal entry into Rome next spring, and then proceeded to Constantinople.

No sooner was he withdrawn, than the aspiring ministers of the humane but timid Valentinian began to domineer over their master. He was in a great measure directed by Arbogastes, a Frank, whom the soldiers had raised, without the consent of the emperor, to the rank of general. This man had fought with zeal and success against Maximus; but his arrogance increasing with his services, and the facility of his master's disposition, he at last became insupportable. Still, however, the youthful emperor had not the courage to pronounce a dismissal to his insolent servant; but he threw him a paper, containing his discharge, and orders to retire. The haughty Arbogastes, having read it, replied, "My authority does not depend on the smile or the frown of a monarch," and contemptuously tore the mandate. The indignant prince was with difficulty restrained from drawing his sword; and a few days after this quarrel, Valentinian was found strangled in his apartment. The crime of Arbogastes was represented to the world as the voluntary effect of the emperor's despair; his body was conducted to Milan, and his funeral oration pronounced by Ambrose, whom he had often opposed. Thus fell Valentinian the second, in the twentieth year of his age; alike regretted for the good he had done, as for that which was hoped from him in future.

The artful Frank did not think proper to assume the purple himself, but invested with it Eugenius, who had originally been a teacher of grammar, afterwards of rhetoric; and at last had made his way to honour and distinction by his reputation for eloquence. This man Arbogastes had long favoured, and now made him the tool of his ambition, in promoting him to a dangerous throne, which he knew he could not hope to fill himself. By the directions of his patron, the new emperor sent ambassadors to Theodosius, who amused them with expressions of friendship, till he had time to prepare for war. Two years were thus spent on both sides in holding out the palm of peace, but at the same time exerting their mutual power to support their respective claims by force of arms. Eugenius, in order to strengthen his party, took the Pagans under his protection; and under his auspices Polytheism made its last struggle. The senate of Rome having supplicated him to restore the revenues to the temple, and to sanction their sacrifices, he politically granted their demands; and when Theodosius marched against him, the Christians, menaced with disgrace and persecution, put up their united prayers for his safety and success. Their vows and predictions were ably supported by the diligence of the imperial generals, Stilicho and Thomasius, and the different bands of Iberians, Arabs, and Goths, among the latter of whom was the renowned Alaric, who acquired the first knowledge of the art of war, under the standard of Theodosius.

Argobastes, who ruled the western empire in the name of Eugenius, attempted not to defend the extent of a wide and vulnerable frontier; but fixed his station on the confines of Italy. Theodosius beheld with astonishment the camp of the Gauls and Germans, which occupied the country extending to Aquileia and the banks of the river Frigidus. Undismayed, however, by numerous obstacles, he began the attack, and placed in the front his barbarian allies, ten thousand of whom perished in the field, without making any impression on the camp of the enemy. Theodosius, under cover of the night, retired to the adjacent hills, filled with the utmost disquietude; and the vigilant Arbogastes detached a line of troops to surround him. The next dawn discovered to Theodosius his danger, and at the same instant dispelled his apprehensions. A friendly message from the leader of this detachment, expressed their inclination to desert the standard of the usurper.

With this unexpected reinforcement, Theodosius renewed his attack on the camp of his rival; and a violent tempest, which suddenly rose from the east, driving the dust in the faces of the enemy, seconded the efforts of the pious emperor. The superstition of the Gauls magnified the terrors of the storm; and they yielded without shame to the invisible powers of heaven. The head of Eugenius was separated from his body, as he postrated himself at the feet of Theodosius; and Arbogastes, by a voluntary death, escaped the mortification of yielding to the conqueror.

After the defeat of Eugenius, the Roman world acknowledged the sole authority of Theodosius, who made a lenient use of his victory, and instead of persecuting his pagan subjects who had embraced the cause of the late usurper, he endeavoured to open their eyes and to withdraw them from their error. But though merciful to their persons, he destroyed, with the most determined zeal, every monument erected to false gods.

The inhabitants of Antioch having shewn the grossest insult to the imperial family, after experiencing many marks of the favour of Theodosius, were sentenced to extirpation in a moment of wrath; but the bishop Flavian interceding in their behalf, they obtained a free pardon, and the only sufferers were those who had been executed by the command of the governor, who took upon him to revenge his master's cause.

The massacre of Thessalonica, however, reflects little credit on the memory of the emperor of the East. The citizens having killed their governor, for refusing to release a charioteer who had attempted to violate a woman of quality, Theodosius

Theodosius was urged to send his soldiers against the place. What orders they received are unknown; but they entered the town sword in hand, and surrounding the people assembled at the Circensian games, slew upwards of seven thousand of them, without distinction of age, sex, or condition, and without discriminating the innocent from the guilty.

St. Ambrose, then bishop of Milan, having heard of this horrible execution, sent a monitory epistle to the emperor, and exhorted him to expiate his fault by sincere repentance. When Theodosius next visited Milan, he was proceeding as usual to the cathedral to assist in the celebration of the divine mysteries, but was repelled by the pontiff, who declared him excluded from the communion till, by a public penance, he had expiated so public a crime. The emperor submitted, and returning to his palace in tears, performed with humility the offices prescribed by the canons of the church.

Theodosius died soon after at Milan of a dropsy, in the fiftieth year of his age, after a prosperous and, on the whole, a glorious reign of sixteen years, leaving to his son, Arcadius, the throne of Constantinople, and to Honorius that of Italy.

In this place, and before we proceed to narrate the history of the eastern and western empires, it is proper to enter into a short analysis of the causes of the downfall of the Roman empire. The first and last security of a state is the attachment of the inhabitants to their native soil. Skill in arms, habits of discipline, and still more, unity, are important helps to this feeling, but they are nothing without it. The most inexperienced savages have often made vigorous defences against the most perfect and best disciplined armies; and the divided states of Greece resisted the united forces of the east. But history furnishes no instance of a state which endured long, whose subjects had become indifferent to their government and their rulers.

The course of our narrative has sufficiently shewn that whatever amor patriæ is derivable from political influence, had long since been lost to the Romans: that a few mercenary soldiers disposed of the highest office of the state; and the emperor, elected by this licentious authority, assumed the entire direction of the government. The few occasional gleams of a Titus or an Antoninus' reign, shew but with greater force the uniform darkness and desolation of the Roman state under the emperors. Long practice in war, and the assiduous cultivation of tactics, and the proud consciousness of civilization, served, however, to repel, and even subdue the divided barbarians who assailed the Roman frontier. The compulsory tributes of the provinces fed, in the imperial city, a vast population who were content to buy a life of luxury and idleness by occasional valiant campaigns. But the increasing extent of the empire soon rendered the permanent stay of the legions necessary on the frontiers, and obliged them to recruit their thinned ranks from the countries they happened to be stationed in. In the reign of Constantine, even these failed; the laws of the time proclaim the utter abhorrence with which the indigenous Romans viewed the profession of arms; and Scythians, Goths, and Germans formed the most numerous as well as effective portion of the imperial troops. Of these, few could have any attachment to the institutions of Rome, and many ardently desired the supremacy of their own chiefs, and the prosperity of their original nation. Hence, when they returned to their homes, they exported all the skill in arms, with which long experience had instructed Rome, to her enemies; who, while they assiduously imitated her weapons and discipline, viewed, with the utmost contempt, the degeneracy of her sons. But while the Romans were compelled to yield to the barbarians the little superiority they had hitherto possessed in the art of war, other causes contributed to weaken the attachment of the people to their country, and to render emigration extremely frequent. In the first place, the establishment of Constantinople drew the richer inhabitants from Italy; and the impossibility of carrying on an extensive commerce in Rome, drew the trading population to those ports of the empire which were best screened from the inroads of the barbarians. But an excessive weight of taxes pressed on all classes, and at once divided, impoverished, rendered discontented and enfeebled the spirits of the Romans. Thus, according to Gibbon, the agriculture of the Roman provinces was insensibly ruined, and, in the progress of despotism, which tends to disappoint its own purpose, the emperors were obliged to derive some merit from the forgiveness of debts, or the remission of tributes, which their subjects were utterly incapable of paying. Of the fertile and happy province of Campania, the scene of the early victories and of the delicious retirements of the citizens of Rome, within sixty years after the death of Constantine, an exemption was granted in favour of three hundred and thirty thousand English acres of desert and uncultivated land; which amounted to one-eighth of the whole surface of the province. As the footsteps of the barbarians had not yet been seen in Italy, the cause of this amazing desolation, which is recorded in the laws, can be ascribed only to the administration of the Roman emperors.

Either from design or from accident, the mode of assessment seemed to unite the substance of a land-tax with the forms of a capitation. The returns which were sent of every province or district, expressed the number of tributary subjects, and the amount of the public impositions. The latter of these sums was divided by the former; and the estimate, that such a province contained so many *capita*, or heads of tribute; and that each *head* was rated at such a price, was universally received, not only in the popular, but even in the legal computation.

Such indeed might be the theory of the Romans; in practice, however, this unjust equality was not felt, as the tribute was collected on the principle of a real, not of a personal imposition; thus several indigent citizens contributed to compose a single head, or share of taxation; while the wealthy provincial, in proportion to his fortune, alone represented several of those imaginary beings.

But this tax on the proprietors of land, would have suffered a rich and numerous class of free citizens to escape. With the view of sharing that species of wealth which is derived from art or labour, and which exists in money or in merchandise, the emperors imposed a distinct and personal tribute on the trading part of their subjects. Some exemptions, very strictly confined both in time and place, were allowed to the proprietors who disposed of the produce of their own estates. Some indulgence was granted to the profession of the liberal arts; but every other branch of commercial industry was affected by the severity of the law. As this general tax upon industry was collected every fourth year, it was styled the Lustral Contribution; and the historian Zosimus laments that the approach of the fatal period was announced by the tears and terrors of the citizens, who were often compelled by the impending scourge to embrace the most abhorred and unnatural methods of procuring the sum at which their property had been assessed. The cruel treatment of the insolvent debtors of the state, is also attested by a humane edict of Constantine, which forbids the use of racks and of scourges, and allots a spacious and airy prison for the place of their confinement.

Other causes have been very generally dwelt upon by authors to account for the destruction of the Roman dominion. Luxury especially has come in for its full share of blame, and the effeminate habits of the latter Romans have been frequently contrasted with the hardy and simple manners of the republicans. But it should be remembered, that the tendency of all large cities is towards the acquisition of luxurious modes of life; that, nevertheless, large cities are always the most frequent in powerful states: and, however our eyes may be dazzled with the contemplation of the splendid baths of Caracalla enjoyed by the meanest citizen; the sumptuous tables of the rich, and the abundant and tributary harvest consumed by the poor, it must be remembered, that all this was confined to the metropolis. The champaign parts of the empire offered no greater inducements to luxury in the age of Constantine, than in the time of Cincinnatus.

Nor can we with many other writers attribute this great

great change to the introduction of the Christian religion. If the new faith was the cause of the dissensions between the subjects of the empire, it was also a weapon which seduced from each the pagan barbarians. If Rome was divided by Arians and orthodox believers, the taint of heresy spread also among the Goths and Vandals. Civilization enabled Rome to make a long stand against the brute force of savages, but the cause of her destruction was developed eighteen centuries before that period. When Augustus deprived his country of her constitution, and left to the army, always the most ignorant and intemperate of mankind, the supreme government, he effectually secured the triumph of the Goth and the Hun.

IV.—THE WESTERN EMPIRE.

HONORIUS, the ruler of the western division of the Roman empire, being, at the death of Theodosius, a minor, his tutelage, and the military command of his empire was committed to Stilicho, a general of consummate valour and prudence, who had long contributed to exalt the glory of Theodosius, and who maintained, during great part of the reign of his successor, the superiority of the Roman arms. The name and exploits of Stilicho, live in the pages of Claudian, and of all the heroes of Roman history, there is, perhaps, no one, who has more richly deserved the eulogium of the poet, or the notice of posterity. He was of Vandal origin, active and muscular in person, cool in danger, sparing of human life (so rare a merit in great commanders), and a lover of peace.

The first act of Stilicho's administration was the destruction of Rufinus, the tutor of Arcadius, emperor of the east. This odious favourite, who, in an age of civil and religious faction, has deserved, from every party, the imputation of every crime, had been raised by Theodosius to the station of master of the offices. In the exercise of his various functions, so essentially connected with the whole system of civil government, he acquired the confidence of a monarch, who soon discovered his diligence and capacity in business, and who long remained ignorant of the pride, the malice, and the covetousness of his disposition. We need not fatigue our readers with the detail of how he sacrificed a præfect of Italy and his sons to the avenging of a personal insult, nor the cruel murder of Lucian; for individual vices are lost in the general mass of crime. Regardless of the public opinion, he indulged his passions without remorse, and without resistance; and his malignant and rapacious spirit rejected every passion that might have contributed to his own glory, or the happiness of the people. His avarice, which seems to have prevailed in his corrupt mind over every other sentiment, attracted the wealth of the East, by the various arts of partial and general extortion; he is accused of oppressive taxes, scandalous bribery, immoderate fines, unjust confiscations, forced or fictitious testaments, by which the tyrant despoiled of their lawful inheritance the children of strangers, or enemies; and the public sale of justice, as well as of favour, which he instituted in the palace of Constantinople. The ambitious candidate eagerly solicited, at the expense of the fairest part of his patrimony, the honours and emoluments of some provincial government: the lives and fortunes of the unhappy people were abandoned to the most liberal purchaser, and yet he neglected to conciliate the hearts of the soldiers and people, by the liberal distribution of those riches, which he had acquired with so much toil, and with so much guilt. The extreme parsimony of Rufinus left him only the reproach and envy of ill-gotten wealth; his dependents served him without attachment; the universal hatred of mankind was repressed only by the influence of servile fear.

The hatred of Stilicho against Rufinus was first excited by a knowledge of his insidious enmity; it was strongly encouraged by the bloody sacrifice that the latter had made of Stilicho's friend. But the general of the west claimed now as a testament of Theodosius the superintendance of the forces of the east as well as of Italy, and he proceeded to lead the eastern forces to Constantinople. Rufinus was alarmed by the approach of a warrior and a rival, whose enmity he deserved; he interposed, as the last hope of safety, the authority of Arcadius. Stilicho, received a peremptory message, to recal the troops of the East, and declaring, that his nearer approach would be considered by the Byzantine court as an act of hostility. The prompt and unexpected obedience of the general of the West, convinced the vulgar of his loyalty and moderation; and, as he had already engaged the affection of the eastern troops, he recommended to their zeal the execution of his bloody design, which might be accomplished in his absence, with less danger perhaps, and with less reproach. Stilicho left the command of the troops of the East to Gainas, the Goth, on whose fidelity he firmly relied. The soldiers were easily persuaded to punish the enemy of Stilicho, and of Rome; and such was the general hatred which Rufinus had excited, that the fatal secret, communicated to thousands, was faithfully preserved during the long march from Thessalonica to the gates of Constantinople. At the distance of a mile from the capital, in the Field of Mars, before the palace of Hebdomon, the troops halted: and the emperor, as well as his minister, advanced, according to ancient custom, respectfully to salute the power which supported their throne. As Rufinus passed along the ranks, and disguised with studied courtesy, his innate haughtiness, the wings insensibly wheeled from the right and left, and inclosed the devoted victim within the circle of their arms. Before he could reflect on the danger of his situation, Gainas gave the signal of death; and Rufinus fell, groaned, and expired, at the feet of the affrighted emperor.

Stilicho did not derive from the murder of his rival, the fruit which he had proposed; and though he gratified his revenge, his ambition was disappointed. Arcadius preferred the obsequious arts of the eunuch Eutropius, who had obtained his domestic confidence; and the emperor contemplated, with terror and aversion, the stern genius of a foreign warrior. Till they were divided by the jealousy of power, the sword of Gainas, and the charms of Eudoxia, supported the favour of the great chamberlain of the palace: the perfidious Goth, who was appointed master-general of the East, betrayed, without scruple, the interest of his benefactor; and the same troops, who had so lately massacred the enemy of Stilicho, were engaged to support, against him, the independence of the throne of Constantinople. The favourites of Arcadius fomented a secret and irreconcileable war against a formidable hero, who aspired to govern, and to defend, the two empires of Rome, and the two sons of Theodosius. They incessantly laboured, by dark and treacherous machinations, to deprive him of the esteem of the prince, the respect of the people, and the friendship of the barbarians. The life of Stilicho was repeatedly attempted by the dagger of hired assassins; and a decree was obtained from the senate of Constantinople, to declare him an enemy of the republic, and to confiscate his ample possessions in the provinces of the East. Thus at a time when the only hope of delaying the ruin of the Roman name, depended on the firm union, and reciprocal aid, of all the nations to whom it had been gradually communicated, the subjects of Arcadius and Honorius were instructed, by their respective masters, to view each other in a foreign, and even hostile, light; to rejoice in their mutual calamities, and to embrace, as their faithful allies, the barbarians, whom they excited to invade the territories of their countrymen.

The prudent Stilicho, instead of persisting to force the inclinations of Arcadius, left him to his unworthy favourites, and prepared to assist the majesty of the western empire by the punishment of Geldo the Moor. This man having been invested with the command of Africa, by Theodosius, had for twelve years exercised his tyranny over that unhappy province, and gradually usurped the administration of justice and of the finances, without account and without control. Apprised of the designs of Stilicho against him, he addressed his homage to the feeble Arcadius, and the ministers of Constantinople took upon them to urge their ineffectual claim; while the general of the West, despising their interference, thought proper to oppose Mascezel, a younger brother of the tyrant of Africa, and a zealous Christian, to the power of that usurper. Mascezel, who had been obliged to

to fly for his life to the court of Milan, and whose innocent children had been murdered by their inhuman uncle, eagerly accepted the commission that was given him, in order to have an opportunity of revenging private as well as public wrongs, and landing in Africa with a body of veteran troops, obtained almost a bloodless victory. Geldo, deserted by his troops, attempted to escape into the east; but being seized and confined, avoided, by a voluntary death, the tortures which he had reason to expect from his incensed and victorious brother. Mascezel, however, did not long survive his victory: the court of Milan had received him at his return with affected applause but secret jealousy; and soon after, in passing through a river, he was forcibly dismounted from his horse, and drowned.

The joy at Milan for the recovery of Africa, was succeeded by the marriage of Maria, the daughter of Stilicho, to her cousin Honorius, who was then only fourteen years of age. The consummation of the royal nuptials were, however, delayed by the frigidity or impotence of the emperor; and Maria died a virgin after being ten years a wife. It was soon discovered that Honorius was without talents and without passions. Amused with feeding poultry and similar avocations, he was content to slumber through life; and, during an eventful reign of twenty-eight years, it is scarcely necessary to mention his name. But the valour and abilities of the master-general, for a long time compensated for the incapacity and indolence of the monarch, and repelled the invasion of the barbarians who now multiplied their attacks in all quarters.

The Goths, probably invited by the treachery of Rufinus, under the conduct of the renowned Alaric, had spread their devastations to the very walls of Constantinople. That celebrated leader had solicited the command of the Roman armies; but being rejected, he traversed the plains of Thessaly and Macedonia, deluged the fields of Phocis and Bœotia with his myriads of barbarians, and all Greece successively felt the terror of his arms.

The last hope of the people was now placed on Stilicho, who advanced to chastise the invaders of Greece. The mountainous country of Arcadia, was long the theatre of a doubtful contest between the two generals; but the skill of the Romans prevailed; and the Goths were at last surrounded by a strong line of circumvallation. Stilicho, confident of victory, had retired from the scene of action, to enjoy the theatrical games of the Greeks, when he received the mortifying intelligence, that Alaric, by equal resolution and address, had escaped with his forces into the dominions of the emperor of the East, and concluded a treaty with his ministers, by which he was recognised master-general of Illyricum.

Reinforcing his army with fresh hordes of barbarians, Alaric penetrated into Italy, and approached the palace of Milan before the emperor was sensible of his danger. Stilicho endeavoured to animate the resolution of Honorius to hold out; and ascending the Alps in the midst of winter, summoned to the defence of Italy the most remote troops of the West—even the legion which had been placed to guard the wall of Britain, was hastily recalled.

During the absence of Stilicho, the Goths advanced with such impetuosity, that Honorius was obliged to fly, and at last took shelter within the fortification of Asta, a town of Liguria. Alaric instantly formed the siege of that place; and it is probable would have soon forced the emperor of the West to the disgrace of a capitulation, had not the return of his master-general, with numerous forces, saved him. Stilicho cut his way through the Gothic camp under the walls of Asta; in consequence of which, the chiefs of the Gothic nation were inclined to retreat; but the intrepid Alaric declared, he was resolved to find in Italy, either a kingdom or a grave.

The Goths afterwards pitching their camp in the vicinity of Pollentia, were surprised by the vigilance of Stilicho, while they were celebrating the festival of Easter. Several thousands were slain, and among the captives was the wife of Alaric, who was compelled to implore the clemency of the victor.

In this battle, Alaric lost the greatest part of his infantry, but he escaped with his cavalry entire and unbroken; and pressed towards the gates of Rome. The capital was saved by the diligence of Stilicho, who, respecting the despair of his enemy, purchased the retreat of the barbarians. Alaric, however, with a characteristic want of faith, attempting to occupy the city of Verona, found his intentions betrayed, and after suffering another signal defeat, escaped only by the fleetness of his horse.

The provinces being now delivered from the invasion of Alaric, Honorius celebrated his victories in the imperial city; and on this occasion, for the last time, the inhuman combats of gladiators polluted the amphitheatre of Rome. But amidst the acclamations of triumph, the emperor of the West was not insensible of future danger from the defenceless situation of his palace at Milan, and therefore, to provide against the worst, he fixed on the strong fortress of Ravenna for the imperial residence. His example was followed by his feeble successors; and till the middle of the eighth century, this was considered as the capital of Italy.

The retreat of Alaric did not long secure peace to the distracted empire. Radagaisus soon entered Italy with a formidable body of Huns, but was taken prisoner, and put to death by Stilicho. Isaurian robbers ravaged the East, and the Alans entered Gaul. Palestine was ravaged by clouds of locusts; Asia desolated by earthquakes; and Constantine, a common soldier, being raised by his comrades to the throne of Britain, extended his empire beyond the seas.

These disasters were rendered irremediable by the fall of Stilicho. The general of the West had offended the legionary soldiers, by the partiality he shewed to barbarian recruits, and his enemies taking hold of this plea, endeavoured to persuade the weak Honorius that his father-in-law held a correspondence with Alaric from interested or ambitious motives. Every engine was played off to render Stilicho an object of suspicion to the emperor, as he long had been an object of fear to the courtiers; and, at last, an order was extorted from the ungrateful Honorius for his execution. The ministers of blood pursued the unfortunate general, who, after repressing the ineffectual zeal of his followers, submitted his neck to the sword with manly resignation. His friends and relations were involved in his fate: the flight of his son Eucherius was intercepted, and he was soon after slain; and his daughter Thermantia, who had succeeded her sister Maria, as another virgin empress, was divorced. Among the adherents of Stilicho was Claudian, who has immortalised the martial deeds of his patron, and who, by suppliant condescension, escaped the danger that menaced him.

Though the foreign auxiliaries, who had been attached to the person of Stilicho, lamented his fate, yet the desire of revenge for his death was checked by an apprehension for their wives and children, who were detained as hostages in the strong cities of Italy. The absurd and execrable cruelty of Olympius, who succeeded the martial Stilicho, involved in one promiscuous slaughter these pledges for the fidelity of the barbarians in the imperial pay; who now came to avenge, by implacable hostility, this base violation of the laws of honour and humanity. To Alaric they cast a look of hope, and, like a wise politician, he received their proffered services, and then submitted to Honorius the alternative of peace, or the payment of a stipulated sum. That he might hasten the deliberations to which this proposal gave rise, he laid siege to Rome, which he reduced to the most dreadful extremity. His request being acceded to, he retired. But some delay taking place in regard to the payment of four thousand pounds of gold, he returned.

Rome was a third time besieged, and at last taken and plundered. Alaric, when upon the point of breaking into the city, addressing his soldiers, told them, that all the wealth in it was theirs, and therefore he gave them full liberty to seize it; but at the same time he strictly enjoined them to shed the blood of none but such as they should find in arms; and above all, to spare those who should take sanctuary in the holy places, especially in the churches of the apostles St. Peter and St. Paul; which he named, because they were most spacious,

cious, and consequently capable of affording an asylum to great numbers of people. Having given these orders, he abandoned the city to his Goths, who treated it no better, according to St. Jerome, than the Greeks are said to have treated ancient Troy; for after having plundered it for the space of three, or, as others will have it, of six days, they set fire to it in several places; so that the stately palace of Sallust, and many other magnificent buildings, were reduced to ashes; nay, Procopius writes, that there was not in the whole city one house left entire; and both St. Jerome and Philostorgius assert, that the great metropolis of the empire was reduced to an heap of ashes and ruins. Though many of the Goths, pursuant to the orders of their general, refrained from shedding the blood of such as made no resistance; yet others, more cruel and blood-thirsty, massacred all they met: so that the streets in some quarters of the city were seen covered with dead bodies, and swimming in blood. However, not the least injury was offered to those who fled to the churches; nay, the Goths themselves conveyed thither, as to places of safety, such as they were desirous should be spared. Many of the statues of the gods that had been left entire by the emperors as excellent pieces of art, were on this occasion destroyed, either by the Goths, who, though mostly Arians, were zealous Christians, or by a dreadful storm of thunder and lightning which fell at the same time upon the city, as if it had been sent on purpose to complete with them the destruction of idolatry, and abolish the small remains of pagan superstition. Notwithstanding these accounts, some affirm that the city suffered very little at this time, and even not so much as when it was taken by Charles V.

Alaric did not long survive the taking of Rome, being cut off by a violent fit of sickness in the neighbourhood of Rhegium. After his death the affairs of Honorius seemed a little to revive by the defeat and death of Constantine and some other usurpers; but the provinces of Gaul, Britain, and Spain, were now almost entirely occupied by barbarians; in which state they continued till the death of Honorius, which happened in the year 423, after an unfortunate reign of 28 years.

It has been previously mentioned, that Constantine, a common soldier, being invested with the purple in Britain, had extended his empire over the Gauls. His son Constans, who had been brought up in a monastery, was created Cæsar, and, after bringing Spain under his father's subjection, he was raised by him to the dignity of Augustus. At the time when Honorius was hard pressed by Alaric, their usurpation was acknowledged, and Constantine entered Italy under pretence of assisting the emperor, but in fact to appropriate some portion of the general wreck. In this project he was seconded by the treachery of Altabucius, one of the generals of Honorius, which being discovered, and its author punished, Constantine was obliged to retreat. The defence of Vienna he committed to his son Constans, who had been driven out of Spain by Geroncius the Spanish leader, and soon after lost his head, while the father was blockaded in Arles.

Honorius, during the siege, sent an able general, named Constantius, against him, who seduced his troops, and forced Geroncius himself to fly into Spain, where he was soon after assassinated. Maximius, an emperor, who had been raised to that dignity by the late usurper, was taken by Constantius, who spared his life. The same general obliged Arles to surrender to the arms of Honorius. The principal article of the capitulation was, that the lives of Constantine and his brother Julian should be spared: they afterwards entered into holy orders, that they might avoid being the objects of future suspicion; but even this prudent humility did not save them; for, in violation of the faith of treaties, Honorius caused them to be put to death.

In the mean time the Britons, continually exposed to the Saxon pirates, and the savages of Ireland and Caledonia, no longer relied on the tardy and doubtful aid of a declining monarchy. They assembled in arms, repelled the invaders, and rejoiced in the important discovery of their own strength. Britain was thus irrecoverably lost to the Romans. But as the emperors wisely acquiesced in the independence of a remote province, the separation was not embittered by the reproach of tyranny or rebellion; and the claims of allegiance and protection were succeeded by the mutual and voluntary offices of national friendship.

This revolution dissolved the artificial fabric of civil and military government, and the independent country, during a period of forty years, till the descent of the Saxons, was ruled by the authority of the clergy, the nobles, and the municipal towns. Under the protection of the Romans, ninety-two considerable towns had arisen in the several parts of that great province; and, among these, thirty-three cities were distinguished above the rest by their superior privileges and importance. Each of these cities, as in all the other provinces of the empire, formed a legal corporation, for the purpose of regulating their domestic policy; and the powers of municipal government were distributed among annual magistrates, a select senate, and the assembly of the people, according to the original model of the Roman constitution. The management of a common revenue, the exercise of a civil and criminal jurisdiction, and the habits of public counsel and command, were inherent to these petty republics; and their jurisdiction over the adjacent country, was supported by the patrimonial influence of the principal senators; while the smaller towns, the villages, and the proprietors of land, consulted their own safety by adhering to the shelter of these rising republics; so that the sphere of their attraction was proportioned to the respective degrees of their wealth and populousness. But the hereditary lords of ample possessions, who were not oppressed by the neighbourhood of any powerful city, aspired to the rank of independent princes, and boldly exercised the rights of peace and war: and it is shrewdly conjectured by Gibbon, that the disputes that arose between these petty chieftains and the municipal cities, gradually depopulated and destroyed the power of the island, before the invasion of the Saxons.

This was the age of usurpers, and no sooner was one quelled, than another rose to supply his place, and sometimes several appeared upon the stage at once. Jovinus, descended from an honourable family among the Gauls, under the protection of Adolphus, the successor of Alaric, and some other princes among the barbarians, caused himself to be proclaimed emperor, and associated with him his brother Sebastian. His career was soon terminated by his imprudent offence to his principal patron, who put Sebastian to death, and sold Jovinus to the emperor for a certain quantity of wheat, of which his army stood in need. Heraclianus, another usurper, assumed the purple in Africa, and after venturing to brave Honorius in Italy, was driven back to his first station, where his soldiers, eager to obtain the price set upon his head, soon after dispatched him.

Adolphus, who had acted a principal part in all these revolutions, had for some time taken upon him the character of a Roman general, and his attachment to the cause of Honorius was now secured by the ascendant which a Roman princess had obtained over his heart. Placidia, the daughter of the great Theodosius, and of Galla, his second wife, was about twenty years of age, and resided in Rome when that city fell under the arms of Alaric. The barbarians detained the sister of Honorius, but their treatment of her was decent and respectful; while her youth, elegant manners, and suavity of disposition, made an indelible impression on the heart of Adolphus. The king of the Goths made overtures of marriage to the court of Honorius, but met with a disdainful repulse. Placidia, however, yielded herself without reluctance to her lover, who was young and valiant; and their nuptials were consummated at Narbonne. The provincials rejoiced in an alliance which tempered, by the mild influence of love, the fierce spirit of their Gothic lord. Attalus, who had so long been the sport of fortune, assisted at the ceremony, and led the chorus of the hymenæal song, which it seems was of his own composing; and was invested with the purple by the bridegroom, who wished to intimidate his brother-in-law, and force him to a durable treaty of peace. After experiencing other vicissitudes, Attalus was at length confined in the Lipari islands, where he led a life of tranquillity. His right hand was cut off to prevent his writing, but on what account is not ascertained: he was a man better calculated for pleasure than business,

business, and appears to have escaped so many dangers by his known native want of ambition.

His patron Adolphus, after having restored Gaul to the obedience of Honorius, turned his arms against the barbarians of Spain, but fell by a domestic treason in the palace of Barcelona, when Sengeric was seated on the Gothic throne, A. D. 415. The first act of the new reign was to murder the six children of Adolphus by a former marriage; and the daughter of Theodosius was compelled to walk more than twelve miles before the horse of a barbarian, the assassin of her husband. Placidia, however, soon had her revenge: the tyrant was taken off on the seventh day of his usurpation; and Wallia obtained the sceptre, by the free choice of his Gothic followers.

The widow of Adolphus was soon after obliged by Honorius to resign her person to his general Constantius; and from this forced marriage a son was born, named Valentinian. Constantius was associated in the empire; but enjoyed this honour only seven months, when he died a natural death, without ever having been acknowledged hy Theodosius the emperor of the East.

The vacant throne of the west was usurped by John, an imperial secretary, supported by Aetius, a very able general, who undertook to engage the Huns to act against Theodosius, should he refuse to acknowledge the tool of his own ambition. But the emperor of the East anticipated the designs of Aetius, and sent his aunt Placidia into the west with her son VALENTINIAN, whom he invested with the supreme authority, at the age of six years, under the regency of his mother. To support their claims, they were accompanied by an army, commanded by Ardaburius and his son Aspar. The father sent his son with the cavalry by land, and himself embarked with the infantry. A dreadful tempest dispersed the fleet; and the vessel which carried Ardaburius was wrecked on the coast. He was taken and conducted to John at Ravenna, who gave him a friendly reception, and allowed him the full liberty of the town. His impolitic indulgence was rewarded by the prisoner sending intelligence to his son Aspar, that the soldiers of John were not well affected to their master's cause, and desiring him to hasten with his troops to Ravenna.

On arriving there, Aspar found the gates open, seized upon the usurper, and sent him to Placidia, who caused his head to be cut off. Aetius, who was advancing with a formidable army of Germans to the assistance of John, being informed of the catastrophe, prudently determined to make his submission: he was again received into favour, and constituted commander of a great part of the troops of the empire. But Aetius was not of a disposition to be satisfied with divided power. He saw with jealous and malignant eyes the estimation in which Boniface, an officer commendable both for his virtues and abilities, was regarded at the court of Valentinian III. Boniface indeed had displayed the most consummate talents in Africa, which he not only defended against the attacks of the usurper John, but introduced there an order and regularity which had been long unknown before. The empress Placidia estimated the fidelity of Boniface as it deserved; but the insidious Aetius insinuated to his royal mistress every thing unfavourable to the character and views of his rival; and, like a double traitor as he was, privately informed Boniface, that the empress had laid a plot for his destruction; and, to obtain her ends, would shortly recal him from his government. Thus prepossessed, the unfortunate Boniface refused to obey the imperial mandate; and Placidia, now no longer doubting the truth of the insinuations of Aetius, caused him to be declared an enemy to the state; whilst his rival was appointed generalissimo of all the troops of the empire.

Boniface defeated the first army that was sent against him; but distrusting his strength to cope singly with his enemies, called in the assistance of Genseric, king of the Vandals. The principal condition of the treaty was, that they should divide Africa betwixt them. In this hope, Genseric quitted Spain, accompanied with his whole community of men, women, and children. While the Vandals were occupying entire provinces, some friends of Boniface, amazed at his association with the barbarians, whom they knew he did not love, and unable to account for the cause, obtained leave from Placidia to proceed and interrogate him as to the motives of his treason. Boniface immediately shewed them the letter he had received from Actius, and assured them that nothing but self-defence would have driven him to such extremities. His friends being entrusted with this voucher, exhibited it on their return to the empress; but Aetius being at that time triumphant in Gaul, it was judged prudent to dissemble with him, and wait for a more favourable opportunity of exposing and punishing his treachery.

Placidia, however, addressed Boniface in terms of the highest confidence and amity, and entreated him to use his best endeavours to free Africa from the Vandals. The general heartily adopted the views of the empress, and offered Genseric considerable sums if he would retreat; but the Vandals having taken possessson of the whole country, excepting only three cities, of which Carthage was one, the proposals were treated with insult: the few remaining Roman soldiers were cut to pieces; and Boniface shut up in Carthage. There he maintained himself upwards of a year; but at length was compelled to surrender, and had the mortification to behold all Africa, which he had once saved, ravaged in the most cruel manner by the barbarians whom he had invited thither.

On his arrival at the court of Ravenna, Boniface, notwithstanding what had happened, was received with the highest marks of distinction, and honoured with the command of an army; a circumstance which convinced Aetius that his duplicity and perfidy were discovered. The command given to his rival, he construed into an unjust derogation from his own dignity; and, forgetful of their common allegiance, the two generals soon after took the field to support their mutual pretensions. In the battle which ensued, Boniface received a wound, of which he died a few days after; and Aetius retired among the Huns, from whence he returned at the head of an army to dictate to his sovereign. Placidia found it politic to make her peace with him, by receiving him at court, and restoring him to the dignities he had formerly enjoyed. Africa, however, was only partially recovered from the Vandals; and eight years after the defeat of Boniface, Genseric surprised and took Carthage.

About A. D. 439, the empress had the satisfaction of marrying her son Valentinian to Eudoxia, the daughter of Theodosius, the eastern emperor.

A new scourge soon attacked Valentinian in the person of Attila, king of the Huns. This barbarian ruler of a million of warriors had long frequently dictated to Theodosius conditions of peace, and the terms of tribute. On the death of that prince, and the accession of a bolder spirit, he turned his arms against the emperor of the West. The first demand of the Hun was Valentinian's sister, Honoria, in marriage. This princess, who was of dissolute habits, had already sent a ring in token of marriage, and desired him to claim for her, her half of the empire. Valentinian extricated himself from the present difficulty by a sum of gold, and averted this scourge from Italy, which already impended over Gaul, where Aetius commanded. Seven hundred thousand combatants, who swelled the army of Attila, were defeated in the plains of Catalaunum; yet still the king of the Huns had sufficient force remaining to render himself formidable in Italy, whither he retired, sacking the cities and desolating the country. Thither Aetius pursued him, and, partly by his power, and partly by his address, induced him to return once more to Gaul, where he experienced a second defeat from Thorismond, king of the Visigoths. In his recent invasion of Italy, his progress was marked with such terror and dismay, that the inhabitants of the Venetian cities left them defenceless to the foe, sought refuge in the little islands on the coast, and thus laid the foundation of that republic which so long maintained in Europe the art and spirit of commercial industry.

Attila still persisted in demanding Honoria to wife; but his attachment to her did not prevent him from adding a beautiful

beautiful maid, named Idlico, to the long list of his queens. The marriage was celebrated at his palace beyond the Danube; the king retired from the banquet to the nuptial bed; and his attendants on entering the royal apartment next morning, found that Attila had burst a blood-vessel during the night, and was suffocated with the effusion. A. D. 453. His funeral was celebrated with savage pomp. His body was placed in three coffins, of gold, of silver, and of iron: the spoils of plundered nations were thrown into the grave; and the captives who had opened the ground were inhumanly massacred. The death of this warrior, who had never suffered mankind to enjoy any repose, and had never enjoyed any himself, was attended with the destruction of his empire. His sons disputed for the sovereignty; and after various turns of fortune, the youngest retired with his subject hordes into the heart of the Lesser Scythia, where they were soon overwhelmed by a torrent of new barbarians. Aetius did not long survive the Scythian monarch. The mind of Valentinian, though insensible to glory, was easily impressed with distrust and jealousy; and his new favorite, the eunuch Heraclius, readily persuaded him to undermine, in the life of his general, the support of his throne. Gaudentius, the son of Aetius, was contracted to Eudoxia, the emperor's daughter: the indiscreet behaviour of the father offended his sovereign; and while he urged with intemperate violence the proposed marriage, Valentinian, drawing his sword, plunged it into the bosom of Aetius. The servile eunuchs followed his example; and the general who had saved the empire, fell in the presence of his ungrateful master, pierced by innumerable wounds. The unsuspecting friends of Aetius being summoned to the palace, were separately murdered; and the contempt which had long been entertained for Valentinian, was now converted into abhorrence.

The feeble disposition of the emperor of the West, would probably have rendered him an easy prey to the first usurper; but his vices precipitated his ruin; and he became the immediate victim to the just revenge of a noble and injured subject. The wife of Petronius Maximus, a wealthy senator of the Anician family, had inspired Valentinian with impure desires: her resistance served only to inflame his passions; and he resolved to gratify them either by stratagem or force. Maximus had delivered his ring to the emperor as a pledge for a considerable sum lost at play; the emperor sent it by a confidential messenger to his wife, desiring her, in the name of her husband, to attend the empress Eudoxia. The unsuspecting matron having entered the imperial palace, Valentinian violated, without remorse, both the laws of hospitality and of honour. Her tears, on her return to her own house, betrayed the guilty secret to Maximus; and her reproaches inflamed his desire of vengeance. Two barbarians, attached to the memory of Aetius, were admitted among the guards of the tyrant, and, presenting themselves as the ready ministers of revenge, they rushed upon Valentinian in the field of Mars, and, without opposition from his numerous train, dispatched him and his favourite Heraclius, A. D. 455.

No sooner was Valentinian taken off, than PETRONIUS MAXIMUS was saluted emperor by the senate. His short reign of three months was embittered by remorse and guilt; and when he accepted the purple, he relinquished for ever that happiness which had so eminently distinguished his private life. Policy sanctioned the marriage of his son Palladius with the eldest daughter of the late emperor; and on the opportune death of his own wife, that he might, in some measure, retaliate the injury he had received, he forced the empress Eudoxia to his arms. Being certified, from his own indiscreet confession, that he was the assassin of her deceased husband, she regarded the usurper with abhorrence; and hopeless of assistance from the east, as the forces of Marcian, who had now lost Pulcheria, were otherwise employed, she secretly implored the aid of the king of the Vandals, to rescue her from worse than captivity. Genseric eagerly embraced this fair opportunity of disguising his rapacious designs, under the specious names of justice and compassion, and equipping a numerous fleet of Moors and Vandals, after a favourable voyage cast anchor at the mouth of the Tiber.

Though Maximus was respectable in private life, his abilities were not equal to the support of a sinking empire, and the approach of the Vandals seemed to stupify and confound him. Instead of opposing the enemy, he recommended the disgraceful measure of a precipitate retreat; but no sooner did he appear in the streets, than he was assaulted by a shower of stones, and a torrent of abuse, while the sword of one of his soldiers avenged the death of Valentinian and the wrongs of Eudoxia, and terminated the misery of a feeble and transient reign.

In a few days Genseric advanced to the gates of the defenceless capital, but the intercession and eloquence of Leo, the bishop of Rome, prevailed on the Vandal to spare the unresisting multitude, to exempt the captives from torture, and to protect the city from a conflagration.

The pillage, however, lasted fourteen days; and whatever yet remained of public or private wealth, was diligently collected, and conveyed on board the vessels of Genseric. Eudoxia now saw, and had reason to lament, the imprudence of her conduct in forming such an alliance: the unfortunate empress, with her two daughters, were compelled to follow the conqueror, who instantly hoisting sail, returned in triumph to Carthage.

AVITUS, a man of eloquence and courage, who had been entrusted by Maximus with the general command of the forces in Gaul, while on a visit to Theodoric, king of the Goths, was astonished by the intelligence that his master was slain, and that Rome was pillaged by the Vandals. The Visigoths were attached to the person of Avitus, and respected his virtues. The annual assembly of the seven provinces, held at Arles, naturally inclined to promote the most illustrious of their countrymen; and Avitus was nominated by the representatives of Gaul to the sceptre of the West. The consent of Marcian, the emperor of the East, was easily obtained; and Rome and Italy, long habituated to submit to the strongest party, gave their silent assent.

By Theodoric, the friend of Avitus, the Suevi were vanquished and almost exterminated, and their king, who had been delivered up to the victor, was put to death. But while the Gothic monarch conquered in the name of the emperor of Rome, the power of his friend had expired. See the article GOTHS.

Avitus, at the solicitation of his subjects, had fixed his residence at Rome; but the senate beheld with disgust the imperial ornaments investing a stranger from Gaul. Their murmurs, however, would have been useless, had they not been encouraged by Count Ricimer, the grandson of Wallia by the mother's side, and on his father's, descended from the nation of the Suevi. Entrusted with the defence of Italy, his important services rendered him formidable; and on his return from a conquest over the Vandals, he boldly proclaimed to Avitus, that his feeble reign was at an end. The emperor, without any resistance, descended from his throne, and hoped to find security in assuming the sacred character of bishop of Placentia; but even in this peaceful station, the hatred of the senate pursued him, and he was at last sacrificed to their implacable resentment. A. D. 456.

On the abdication of Avitus, Ricimer governed Italy under the title of Patrician, and delegated to MAJORIAN, who had been a participator in the glory of Aetius, the conspicuous station of master-general of the armies. The approved merits of Majorian induced the barbarian to comply with the unanimous wish of the Romans; and after an interregnum of four months, the master-general having signalized his skill and valour in a victory gained over the Alemanni, he was elevated to the imperial throne. The sentiments he expressed on receiving this unsolicited honour, would have done credit to any character; and his virtues derived additional lustre from being contrasted with his immediate predecessors.

The private and public actions of Majorian are very imperfectly known: but his laws, remarkable for an original cast of thought and expression, faithfully represent the character

racter of a sovereign who loved his people, who sympathized in their distress, who had studied the causes of the decline of the empire, and who was capable of applying (as far as such reformation was practicable) judicious and effectual remedies to the public disorders. From the first hour of his reign, he was solicitous (I translate his own words) to relieve the weary fortunes of the provincials, oppressed by the accumulated weight of indictions and superindictions. With this view, he granted an universal amnesty, a final and absolute discharge of all arrears of tribute, of all debts, which, under any pretence, the fiscal officers might demand from the people.

In the assessment and collection of taxes, Majorian restored the ordinary jurisdiction of the provincial magistrates; and suppressed the extraordinary commission which had been introduced, in the name of the emperor himself, or of the Prætorian præfects. He urges, and even compels the return of the municipal corporations to their respective cities; but he removes the grievance which had forced them to desert the exercise of their municipal functions. They are directed, under the authority of the provincial magistrates, to resume their office of levying the tribute, but, instead of being made responsible for the whole sum assessed on their district, they are only required to produce a regular account of the payments which they have actually received, and of the defaulters who are still indebted to the public. Posterity has also to thank Majorian for his spirited opposition to the destruction of the famous edifices which still delight us. Such was the degeneracy of Rome, that the monuments of consular, or Imperial, greatness were no longer revered, as the immortal glory of the capital; they were only esteemed as an inexhaustible mine of materials cheaper, and more convenient, than the distant quarry. The fairest forms of architecture were rudely defaced for the sake of some paltry, or pretended repairs. Majorian, who had often sighed over the desolation of the city, applied a severe remedy to the growing evil. He reserved to the prince and senate the sole cognizance of the extreme cases which might justify the destruction of an ancient edifice; imposed a fine of fifty pounds of gold (two thousand pounds sterling), on every magistrate, who should presume to grant such illegal and scandalous licence; and threatened to chastise the criminal obedience of their subordinate officers, by a severe whipping, and the amputation of both their hands.

The emperor conceived, that it was his interest to increase the number of his subjects; that it was his duty to guard the purity of the marriage-bed: but the means which he employed to accomplish these salutary purposes, are of an ambiguous and perhaps exceptionable kind. The pious maids, who consecrated their virginity to Christ, were restrained from taking the veil, till they had reached their fortieth year. Widows under that age were compelled to form a second alliance within the term of five years, by the forfeiture of half their wealth to their nearest relations, or to the state. The punishment of confiscation and exile was deemed so inadequate to the guilt of adultery, that if the criminal returned to Italy, he might, by the express declaration of Majorian, be slain with impunity.

While the emperor Majorian assiduously laboured to restore the happiness and virtue of the Romans, he encountered the arms of Genseric, from his character and situation, their most formidable enemy. A fleet of Vandals and Moors landed at the mouth of the Liris, or Garigliano: but the Imperial troops surprised and attacked the disorderly barbarians, who were encumbered with the spoils of Campania; they were chased with slaughter to their ships, and their leader, the king's brother-in-law, was found in the number of the slain. Such vigilance might announce the character of the new reign; but the strictest vigilance, and the most numerous forces were insufficient to protect the long-extended coast of Italy from the depredations of a naval war.

Majorian wisely considered that a fleet would be necessary to ensure his success; and accordingly three hundred galleys were equipped and collected in the spacious harbour of Carthagena. Genseric, who had long defied the Roman power, now began to fear the event, and sued in vain for a peace. In a fit of despair, the Vandal tyrant reduced Mauritania to a desert, to check the invader's progress; but his alarm was soon dissipated, and the hopes of Majorian blasted by the false friends of the Romans. In consequence of treacherous information, the usurper of Africa surprised the unguarded fleet in the bay of Carthagena; and the preparations of three years were destroyed in a single day. The Vandal again renewed his solicitations for peace, which were now acceeded to, that Majorian might obtain time to repair his fleet; but a dreadful sedition, fomented by Count Ricimer, soon after obliged Majorian to resign the sceptre; and four days after his resignation, it was reported that he died of a dysentery. With Majorian expired the hopes of Italy, and of the Roman name.

That Ricimer, who for some time had held the destiny of the western empire in his hands, might not be again eclipsed by superior merit, he invested with the purple an obscure person, named Lebius SEVERUS; but bounded his dominions by the Alps. Marcellinus and Aegidius, however, disdained to acknowledge this phantom of an emperor; the former of whom occupied Pannonia, and the latter the countries beyond the Alps. The authority of Aegidius ended only with his life, but it is supposed this was shortened by the insidious arts of Ricimer.

The life and reign of Severus, which lasted no longer than they were agreeable to his patron, were protracted for six years. During that period, Italy was afflicted by the incessant depredations of the Vandals, who spread the terrors of their arms from the pillars of Hercules to the mouth of the Nile. Genseric, however, found out a plausible pretence for his hostilities. He had married Eudocia, the eldest daughter of Eudoxia, the empress, whom he had carried away captive, to his eldest son Hunneric; and in consequence of this, asserted a legal claim to a part of the imperial patrimony.

Ricimer, who had the ambition to make emperors, but the policy not to be one himself, embarrassed by the difficulties of his situation, long solicited in vain the assistance of Constantinople; and, at last, as the price of alliance, was compelled to accept a master from the choice of the Byzantine court.

Leo, listening to the complaints of the Italians, resolved to put an end to the tyranny of the Vandals, and invested Anthemius with the purple of the West.

The nuptials of the new emperor's daughter with the patrician Ricimer, promised to secure the fidelity of that formidable barbarian; and the campaign against the Vandals was opened by the præfect Heraclius, who subdued the province of Tripoli, and prepared to join the imperial army under the walls of Carthage. Marcellinus became reconciled to the two emperors, and evinced his allegiance to Anthemius, by expelling the Vandals from the Island of Sardinia.

The immense preparations of the East at last began to be put in motion. A fleet of eleven hundred and thirteen ships sailed from Constantinople for Carthage; and the number of soldiers and mariners exceeded one hundred thousand. Basiliscus, the brother of the empress of the East, was entrusted with the important command; and the troops, after a prosperous navigation, were landed at Cape Bona, about forty miles from Carthage. The imperial general was supported by the army of Heraclius, and the fleet of Marcellinus, and the Vandals were repeatedly vanquished. At this crisis, had Basiliscus boldly advanced, Carthage must have fallen; but Genseric, having recourse to his wonted artifices, solicited and obtained a truce of five days. During this short interval, the wind becoming favourable to the Vandal chief, he manned the largest of his ships with the most resolute of his followers, who towing after them several barks filled with combustibles, impelled them, under cover of the night, against the unguarded fleet of the Romans; and while they endeavoured to escape the fire-ships, they were assaulted by the galleys of the Vandals. Basiliscus fled on the commencement of the action, and returned to Constantinople with the loss of more than half his fleet and army, not without the suspicion of treason, though he escaped punishment through

through the powerful intercession of his sister. Heraclius with difficulty effected his retreat through the desert; Marcellinus retired to Sicily, where he was soon after assassinated; and the coasts both of the East and the West were again exposed to the ravages of the Vandals.

The death of Majorian had dissolved the alliance between the Goths and the Romans. Theodoric having obtained possession of the territory of Narbonne, by the selfish policy of Ricimer, was invited to invade the provinces which acknowledged the authority of Aegidius; the barbarians were checked near Orleans; but their ambition was accomplished under Euric, the brother and successor of Theodoric, who passing the Pyrenees, carried their arms into the heart of Lusitania, and allowed the Suevi to hold Gallicia as a dependent sovereignty on the Gothic monarchy of Spain. In Gaul they were no less successful; for from the Pyrenees to the Rhine and the Loire, very few places resisted the victorious arms of Euric. The public confidence became lost; the resources of the state were exhausted; and the inhabitants of Gaul found it vain to expect protection from the now feeble emperor of the West.

To increase these calamities, a discord broke out between Anthemius, and the still powerful Ricimer. That haughty barbarian, impatient of a superior, retired from Rome; and fixing his residence at Milan, menaced Italy with a civil war. At last, he was prevailed on to negociate, and Epiphanius, bishop of Pavia, was charged with the commission. Anthemius, after recapitulating the favours conferred on Ricimer, and the natural duty he owed him by being the husband of his daughter, exclaimed, "Shall I now accept his perfidious friendship? Can I hope that he will respect the engagements of a treaty, who was already violated the duties of a son?" But the resentment of the emperor evaporated in these passionate expressions; and Epiphanius returned with the flattering hope, that he had restored the peace of Italy. Ricimer, however, only changed his mode of attack, and resolved secretly to subvert the throne of Anthemius. For this purpose he augmented his barbarian troops, and advancing to the banks of the Anio, there expected the arrival of the senator Olybrius, whom he resolved to invest with the imperial purple.

The object of the present favour of Ricimer was descended from the Anician family, and having married Placidia, the youngest daughter of Valentinian, had some pretensions to the throne. When the haughty disposer of Roman power, therefore, meditated the ruin of Anthemius, he tempted Olybrius with the offer of a diadem; which flattering his vanity at the expence of his happiness, he set out from Constantinople, with the approbation of the emperor of the East, and landed at Ravenna, where he was received in the camp of Ricimer as the sovereign of the western world. A. D. 472.

The patrician had already extended his posts from the Anio to the Milvian bridge, and possessed the two quarters of Rome that were separated by the Tiber; but the remainder of the city, with the great majority of the senate and people, adhered to the cause of Anthemius, who, with the assistance of a Gothic army, was enabled to protract his own life, and the public distress, by a resistance of three months. At length the victorious troops of Ricimer penetrated to the heart of the city, and Anthemius, dragged from his concealment, was massacred by the command of his son-in-law.

About six weeks after, however, Italy was delivered from the tyranny of Ricimer, by a painful disease. He bequeathed the command of his army to his nephew Gundobald, a prince of the Burgundians; and Olybrius himself, whose death does not bear any marks of violence, scarcely filled the throne of the West for the short period of seven months.

Leo, the emperor of the East, was persuaded to invest with the purple of the West, Julius Nepos, the nephew of Marcellinus, and who had married one of the nieces of the empress Varina: but in consequence of the indecision of the Byzantine court, Gundobald found leisure to raise to the same dignity an obscure soldier, named Glycerius; but the latter soon exchanged the Roman sceptre for the bishopric of Salona; and the Burgundian prince having retired beyond the Alps, NEPOS was acknowledged by the Italians and the provincials of Gaul.

The favourable omens which attended the beginning of his reign, were soon changed by his cession of Auvergne to the Visigoths; and his repose was speedily disturbed by a furious sedition of the barbarian confederates, who, under the command of Orestes, advanced from Rome to Ravenna. Nepos, instead of having recourse to arms, fled to his principality of Dalmatia, where, after an equivocal reign of five years, he was assassinated by Glycerius, who, as a reward for his crime, obtained the archbishopric of Milan.

After the death of Attila, the bravest youths of the nations who had recovered their independence, enlisted themselves in the army of the confederates, who formed the defence and terror of Italy. Among these was Orestes, descended from an illustrious family in Pannonia, who, disdaining to obey the Ostrogoths, to whom his native country was ceded, enlisted in the armies of Rome. By the successors of Valentinian he was rapidly advanced in the military profession, and by Nepos himself was elevated to the dignities of patrician and master-general of the troops. These, when Orestes declined the purple, readily consented to acknowledge his son AUGUSTULUS, a child, as emperor of the West; but it was soon discovered that the precarious sovereign of Italy was only permitted to choose between being the slave and the victim of his barbarian mercenaries. These demanded that a third part of Italy should be divided among them; and Orestes, with a virtuous fortitude that deserved a better fate, determined to encounter the rage of an armed multitude, rather than subscribe the ruin of an innocent people. He retired to Pavia for security; but the fortifications of the city being stormed by the soldiers, led on by Odoacer, a bold barbarian, the rage of the confederates was not appeased till Orestes was put to death.

Odoacer, was the son of Edecon, once in high favour with Attila. The father had listened to a conspiracy against the life of his sovereign, but his apparent guilt was expiated by his merit, and his name is honourably mentioned as the leader of the Scyrri, in the unequal contest of the Huns with the Ostrogoths. Edecon did not survive this defeat, and left two sons, Anulf and Odoacer: the former retired to Constantinople, where he sullied the fame he had acquired in arms by the assassination of a generous benefactor; the latter led a wandering life among the barbarians of Noricum, till he was encouraged by a favourable prediction to return to Italy. He was admitted, and soon gained an honourable rank among the guards of the western empire; his manners were gradually polished, his military skill improved; and on the execution of Orestes, the confederates saluted him with the title of king; but he was too polite to assume the purple and diadem, and had too much pride to be a nominal emperor, like many of his predecessors.

The feeble and youthful Augustus, or Augustulus as he was called, was directed to signify his resignation to the senate; and that assembly in an epistle to Zeno, now emperor of the East, disclaimed the necessity of continuing the imperial succession in Italy, since, as they flatteringly observed, the majesty of the monarch of Constantinople was sufficient to protect both the east and the west. They further added, "that the republic might safely confide in the civil and military virtues of Odoacer: and they humbly requested that the emperor would invest him with the title of patrician and the administration of the diocese of Italy." Zeno, after due deliberation, found it prudent to comply with their requisition; he gratefully accepted the imperial ensigns, and entertained a friendly correspondence with the patrician Odoacer, who shewed his clemency to Augustulus, and assigned him a splendid income to support him in a private station, at a villa in Campania.

Odoacer, to gratify the prejudices of his subjects, restored the consulship of the west, and successively filled the curule chair with eleven of the most illustrious senators. The civil administration of Italy was still exercised by the prætorian præfect; the revenues were collected by the Roman magistrates,

trates; and, under a prince of the Arian persuasion, it appears that the catholics lived unmolested.

But though Odoacer was formidable to his external enemies, he was not able to restrain the licentiousness of his own troops, who claimed a third of the landed property of Italy; and in consequence of a compliance with their demands, the misery and desolation of the other two thirds followed. The tributary harvests of Africa and Egypt being withdrawn, the number of inhabitants was continually diminished with the means of subsistence; and pope Gelasius, a subject of Odoacer, affirms, that in some districts the human species was almost extirpated; while famine and pestilence gleaned the miserable refuse that had escaped the edge of the sword. Yet, amidst the general distress, Odoacer maintained with reputation his station for fourteen years, during which he strengthened his power by alliances with the most powerful of the barbarians; but at last he was compelled to yield to the superior genius of Theodoric, king of the Ostrogoths.

The name of the Western empire was now gradually changed to that of Kingdom of Italy; and the whole territory was permanently usurped by foreign nations. The names of Theodoric, Euric, and the other Goths, are considered under the article GOTHS in this work; and the stream of history is successively resumed under the articles LOMBARDY, FRANCE, GERMANY, ITALY, NAPLES, PALERMO, and PIEDMONT. The Papal territory has received particular illustration under the article POPE.

At the period of the dissolution of the Western Empire, the Saxons, according to Gibbon, fiercely struggled with the natives for the possession of Britain; Gaul and Spain were divided between the powerful monarchies of the Franks and Visigoths, and the dependent kingdoms of the Suevi and Burgundians: Africa was exposed to the cruel persecution of the Vandals, and the savage insults of the Moors: Rome and Italy, as far as the banks of the Danube, were in the the hands of Theodoric.

We shall turn to the description of that fine empire which so long survived the fall of its contemporary.

V.—THE EASTERN EMPIRE.

The empire of the East, from the reign of Arcadius to the taking of Constantinople by the Turks, subsisted one thousand and fifty-eight years, in a state of premature and perpetual decay. Its sovereign assumed, and obstinately detained, the fictitious title of Emperor of the ROMANS, and the hereditary appellations of CÆSAR and AUGUSTUS. The palace of Constantinople rivalled, and perhaps excelled, the magnificence of Persia; and the eloquent sermons of St. Chrysostom celebrate, while they condemn, the pompous luxury of the reign of Arcadius. "The emperor," says he, "wears on his head either a diadem, or a crown of gold, decorated with precious stones of inestimable value. These ornaments, and his purple garments, are reserved for his sacred person alone; and his robes of silk are embroidered with the figures of golden dragons. His throne is of massy gold. Whenever he appears in public, he is surrounded by his courtiers, his guards, and his attendants. Their spears, their shields, their cuirasses, the bridles and trappings of their horses, have either the substance, or the appearance, of gold; and the large splendid boss in the midst of their shield, is encircled with smaller bosses, which represent the shape of the human eye. The two mules that draw the chariot of the monarch, are perfectly white, and shining all over with gold. The chariot, itself of pure and solid gold, attracts the admiration of the spectators, who contemplate the purple curtains, the snowy carpet, the size of the precious stones, and the resplendent plates of gold, that glitter as they are agitated by the motion of the carriage. The imperial pictures are white, on a blue ground; the emperor appears seated on his throne, with his arms, his horses, and his guards beside him; and his vanquished enemies in chains at his feet." The successors of Constantine established their perpetual residence in the royal city, which he had erected on the verge of Europe and Asia. Inaccessible to the menaces of their enemies, and perhaps to the complaints of their people, they received, with each wind, the tributary productions of every climate; while the impregnable strength of their capital continued for ages to defy the hostile attempts of the barbarians. Their dominions were bounded by the Adriatic and the Tigris; and the whole interval of twenty-five days' navigation, which separated the extreme cold of Scythia from the torrid zone of Æthiopia, was comprehended within the limits of the empire of the East. The populous countries of that empire were the seat of art and learning, of luxury and wealth; and the inhabitants, who had assumed the language and manners of Greeks, styled themselves, with some appearance of truth, the most enlightened and civilized portion of the human species. The form of government was a pure and simple monarchy; the name of the ROMAN REPUBLIC, which so long preserved a faint tradition of freedom, was confined to the Latin provinces; and the princes of Constantinople measured their greatness by the servile obedience of their people. They were ignorant how much this passive disposition enervates and degrades every faculty of the mind. The subjects, who had resigned their will to the absolute commauds of a master, were equally incapable of guarding their lives and fortunes against the assaults of the barbarians, or of defending their reason from the terrors of superstition.

The first events of the reign of Arcadius and Honorius are so intimately connected, that the rebellion of the Goths, and the fall of Rufinus, have already claimed a place in the history of the West. It has already been observed, that Eutropius, one of the principal eunuchs of the palace of Constantinople, succeeded the haughty minister whose ruin he had accomplished, and whose vices he soon imitated. Under the weakest of the predecessors of Arcadius, the reign of the eunuchs had been secret and almost invisible. They insinuated themselves into the confidence of the prince; but their ostensible functions were confined to the menial service of the wardrobe and imperial bed-chamber. Eutropius was the first of his class, who dared to assume the character of a Roman magistrate and general. Sometimes in the presence of the blushing senate, he ascended the tribunal, to pronounce judgment, or to repeat elaborate harangues; and sometimes appeared on horseback, at the head of his troops, in the dress and armour of a hero.

The poet Claudius, who has delivered Rufinus to the hatred of posterity as a sanguinary and vindictive tyrant, has upheld to our scorn the decrepit person, the vain and arrogant manners and mean avarice of his successor Eutropius. To this miserable being we are indebted for the law of Arcadius against treason, which made *thoughts* and *actions* punishable with equal severity, and the knowledge of, though without concurrence in, a treasonable intention criminal in the highest degree, unless revealed.

The whole body of Imperial dependants claimed this edict as a privilege, which screened them, in the loosest moments of their lives, from the hasty, perhaps the justifiable, resentment of their fellow-citizens: and, by a strange perversion of the laws, the same degree of guilt and punishment was applied to a private quarrel, and to a deliberate conspiracy against the emperor and the empire.

The fall of Eutropius was at length effected. Tribigild the Ostrogoth impatiently comparing the slow returns of laborious husbandry with the successful rapine and liberal rewards of Alaric, penetrated into Asia Minor, and gradually alarmed both the court and the capital. When he advanced into the inland country, the Romans were inclined to suppose that he meditated the passage of Mount Taurus, and the invasion of Syria. He descended towards the sea, and they imputed, and perhaps suggested, to the Gothic chief, the more dangerous project of arming a fleet in the harbours of Ionia, and of extending his depredations along the maritime coast, from the mouth of the Nile to the port of Constantinople. The approach of danger, and the obstinacy of Tribigild, who refused all terms of accommodation, compelled Eutropius to summon a council of war. After claiming for himself the privilege of a veteran soldier, the eunuch entrusted the guard of Thrace and the Hellespont to Gainas the Goth; and the command of the Asiatic army to his favourite Leo; two generals, who differently,

differently, but effectually, promoted the cause of the rebels. Tribigild surprised the unguarded camp of Leo in the darkness of the night; seduced the faith of the greater part of the barbarian auxiliaries, and dissipated, without much effort, the troops, which had been corrupted by the relaxation of discipline, and the luxury of the capital. The discontent of Gainas, who had so boldly contrived and executed the death of Rufinus, was irritated by the fortune of his unworthy successor; he accused his own dishonourable patience under the servile reign of an eunuch; and the ambitious Goth was convicted, at least in the public opinion, of secretly fomenting the revolt of Tribigild, with whom he was connected by a domestic, as well as by a national, alliance. When Gainas passed the Hellespont, to unite under his standard the remains of the Asiatic troops, he skilfully adapted his motions to the wishes of the Ostrogoths; abandoning, by his retreat, the country which they desired to invade; or facilitating, by his approach, the desertion of the barbarian auxiliaries. To the imperial court he repeatedly magnified the valour, the genius, the inexhaustible resources of Tribigild; confessed his own inability to prosecute the war; and extorted the permission of negociating with his invincible adversary. The conditions of peace were dictated by the haughty rebel; and the peremptory demand of the head of Eutropius, revealed the author and the design of this hostile conspiracy. At this juncture, Eudoxia, with a flood of tears, presented her children to their father Arcadius, and implored his justice for some real or imaginary insult, which she imputed to the audacious eunuch. The emperor's hand was directed to sign the condemnation of Eutropius, and the magic spell, which during four years had bound the prince and the people, was instantly dissolved. In this hour of distress and despair, the only refuge of Eutropius was in the sanctuary of the church, whose privileges he had attempted to circumscribe; and the most eloquent of the saints, John Chrysostom, enjoyed the triumph of protecting a prostrate sinner. Ascending the pulpit of the cathedral, he pronounced a seasonable and pathetic discourse on the forgiveness of injuries, and the instability of human greatness. The agonies of the pale and affrighted wretch who lay grovelling under the table of the altar, exhibited a solemn and instructive spectacle. The powers of superstition and eloquence, prevailed. The empress Eudoxia was restrained, by her own prejudices, or by those of her subjects, from violating the sanctuary of the church; but Eutropius was tempted to capitulate, by the milder arts of persuasion, and by an oath, that his life should be spared, and was afterwards basely executed.

In the mean time the Ostrogoth advanced, and Arcadius was instructed to prevent the loss of his Asiatic dominions, by resigning his authority and his person to the faith of the barbarians. Gainas accepted the title of master-general of the Roman armies, filled Constantinople with his troops, and distributed among his dependants, the honours and rewards of the empire. Every quarter of the city was filled with tumult and disorder; and the barbarians gazed with such ardour on the rich shops of the jewellers, and the tables of the bankers, which were covered with gold and silver, that it was judged prudent to remove those dangerous temptations from their sight. They resented the injurious precaution; and some alarming attempts were made, during the night, to attack and destroy with fire the Imperial palace. In this state of mutual and suspicious hostility, the guards and the people of Constantinople shut the gates, and rose in arms to prevent, or to punish, the conspiracy of the Goths. During the absence of Gainas, his troops were surprised and oppressed; seven thousand barbarians perished in this bloody massacre. Gainas was declared a public enemy; and his countryman, Fravitta, a brave and loyal confederate, assumed the management of the war. The enterprizes of the rebel, against the cities of Thrace, were encountered by a firm and well ordered defence: his hungry soldiers were soon reduced to the grass that grew on the margin of the fortifications; and Gainas, who vainly regretted the wealth and luxury of Asia, embraced a desperate resolution of forcing the passage of the Hellespont. He was destitute of vessels; but the woods of the Chersonesus afforded materials for rafts, and his intrepid barbarians did not refuse to trust themselves to the waves. But Fravitta attentively watched the progress of their undertaking. As soon as they had gained the middle of the stream, the Roman galleys, impelled by the full force of oars, of the current, and of the favourable wind, rushed forwards in compact order, and with irresistible weight; and the Hellespont was covered with the fragments of the Gothic shipwreck.

The persecution and destruction of St. Chrysostom, the death of the empress Eudoxia, the excursions of the Isaurian robbers, a famine, flight of locusts, and an earthquake, are the events that fill the remainder of the history of Arcadius's reign. The emperor expired in the thirty-first year of his age, after a reign of thirteen years three months and fifteen days. The historian Procopius asserts, that Arcadius considering the helpless condition of his son Theodosius, who was no more than seven years of age, the dangerous factions of a minority, and the aspiring spirit of Jezdegerd, the Persian monarch; instead of tempting the allegiance of an ambitious subject, by the participation of supreme power, boldly appealed to the magnanimity of a king; and placed, by a solemn testament, the sceptre of the East in the hands of Jezdegerd himself. The royal guardian accepted and discharged this honourable trust with unexampled fidelity; and the infancy of Theodosius was protected by the arms and councils of Persia. Such is the singular narrative of Procopius; but the universal silence of contemporary writers annihilates the vain tradition of the succeeding age.

The weakness of Honorius preventing him from undertaking the difficult guardianship of his nephew, the government of the eastern empire was fortunately assumed by the præfect Anthemius, who obtained, by his superior abilities, a lasting ascendant over the minds of his equals. The safety of the young emperor proved the merit and integrity of Anthemius: and his prudent firmness sustained the force and reputation of an infant reign. Uldin, with a formidable host of barbarians, was encamped in the heart of Thrace, who were obliged to repass the Danube; the tribe of the Scyrri, which composed his rear-guard, was almost extirpated; and many thousand captives were dispersed to cultivate, with servile labour, the fields of Asia. Constantinople was protected by a strong inclosure of new and more extensive walls; the same vigilant care restored the fortifications of the Illyrian cities: and a plan was judiciously conceived, which, in the space of seven years, would have secured the command of the Danube, by establishing on that river a perpetual fleet of two hundred and fifty armed vessels.

But the Romans had so long been accustomed to the authority of a monarch, that the first, even among the females, of the Imperial family, who displayed any courage or capacity, was permitted to ascend the vacant throne of Theodosius. His sister Pulcheria, who was only two years older than himself, received, at the age of sixteen, the title of *Augusta*; and continued to govern the Eastern empire during the long minority of her brother. From a motive, either of prudence, or religion, she embraced a life of celibacy. Ecclesiastical history describes the splendid churches which were built at the expense of Pulcheria, in all the provinces of the East; her charitable foundations for the benefit of strangers and the poor; the ample donations which she assigned for the perpetual maintenance of monastic societies; and the active severity with which she laboured to suppress the opposite heresies of Nestorius and Eutyches. Yet the devotion of Pulcheria never diverted her attention from temporal affairs; and she alone, among all the descendants of the great Theodosius, appears to have inherited any share of his manly spirit and abilities. The elegant and familiar use which she had acquired, both of the Greek and Latin languages, was readily applied to the various occasions of speaking, or writing, on public business; her deliberations were maturely weighed; her actions were prompt and decisive; and, while she

she moved without noise or ostentation the wheel of government, she discreetly attributed to the genius of the emperor, the long tranquillity of his reign. In the last years of his peaceful life, Europe was indeed afflicted by the arms of Attila; but the more extensive provinces of Asia still continued to enjoy a profound and permanent repose.

The Roman world was deeply interested in the education of its master. A regular course of study and exercise was judiciously instituted; to the military exercises of riding, and shooting with the bow; to the liberal studies of grammar, rhetoric, and philosophy, the most skilful masters of the East ambitiously solicited the attention of their royal pupil; and several noble youths were introduced into the palace, to animate his diligence by the emulation of friendship. Pulcheria alone discharged the important task of instructing her brother in the arts of government; but her precepts may countenance some suspicion of the extent of her capacity, or of the purity of her intentions. She taught him to maintain a grave and majestic deportment; to walk, to hold his robes, to seat himself on his throne, in a manner worthy of a great prince; to abstain from laughter; to listen with condescension; to return suitable answers; to assume, by turns, a serious or a placid countenance; in a word, to represent with grace and dignity the external figure of a Roman emperor. But Theodosius was never excited to support the weight and glory of an illustrious name; and instead of aspiring to imitate his ancestors, he degenerated below the weakness of his father and his uncle.

The marriage of Theodosius with the Greek maiden Eudocia (see EUDOCIA), raised a formidable rival to the power of Pulcheria; but the victory was at last decided, by the superior ascendant of the sister of Theodosius. The execution of Paulinus, master of the offices, and the disgrace of Cyrus, Prætorian præfect of the East, convinced the public, that the favour of Eudocia was insufficient to protect her most faithful friends; and the uncommon beauty of Paulinus encouraged the secret rumour, that his guilt was that of a successful lover. Soon the empress perceived that the affection of Theodosius was irretrievably lost, and she was ignominiously stript of the honours of her rank.

The feeble mind of Theodosius was never inflamed by the ambition of conquest or military renown; and the slight alarm of a Persian war scarcely interrupted the tranquillity of the East. The motives of this war were just and honourable. In the last year of the reign of Jezdegerd, the supposed guardian of Theodosius, a bishop, who aspired to the crown of martyrdom, destroyed one of the fire-temples of Susa. His zeal and obstinacy were revenged on his brethren; the Magi excited a cruel persecution; and the intolerant zeal of Jezdegerd was imitated by his son Vararanes, or Bahram, who soon afterwards ascended the throne. Some Christian fugitives, who escaped to the Roman frontier, were sternly demanded and generously refused; and the refusal, aggravated by commercial disputes, soon kindled a war between the rival monarchies. Some engagements were fought, some towns were besieged, with various and doubtful success. In their accounts, the historians of the age narrate extraordinary, and, perhaps, fabulous tales of the proud challenge of a Persian hero, who was entangled by the net, and dispatched by the sword of Areobindus, the Goth; of ten thousand Immortals, who were slain in the attack of the Roman camp; and of the hundred thousand Arabs, or Saracens, who were impelled by a panic terror to throw themselves headlong into the Euphrates. Such events may be disbelieved, or disregarded; but the charity of a bishop, Acacius of Amida, whose name might have dignified the saintly calendar, must not be lost in oblivion. Boldly declaring that vases of gold and silver are useless to a God who neither eats nor drinks, the generous prelate sold the plate of the church of Amida; employed the price in the redemption of seven thousand Persian captives; supplied their wants with affectionate liberality; and dismissed them to their native country, to inform the king of the true spirit of the religion which he persecuted. The practice of benevolence in the midst of war, must always tend to assuage the animosity of contending nations. Soon after a truce of one hundred years was solemnly ratified; the essential conditions whereof were respected near fourscore years by the successors of Constantine and Artaxerxes.

Under the article ATTILA, we have given an account of the character and exploits of that fierce barbarian.

An alliance with the Vandals induced him to invade the provinces of the East. The Illyrian frontier was covered by a line of castles and fortresses: but these slight obstacles were instantly swept away by the inundation of the Huns. They destroyed, with fire and sword, the populous cities of Sirmium and Singidunum, of Ratiaria and Marcianapolis, of Naissus and Sardica; where every circumstance, in the discipline of the people, and the construction of the buildings, had been gradually adapted to the sole purpose of defence. The whole breadth of Europe, as it extends above five hundred miles from the Euxine to the Adriatic, was at once invaded, and occupied, and desolated, by the myriads of barbarians whom Attila led into the field. The public danger and distress could not, however, provoke Theodosius to interrupt his amusements and devotion, or to appear in person at the head of the Roman legions. But the troops, which had been sent against Genseric, were hastily recalled from Sicily; the garrisons, on the side of Persia, were exhausted; and a military force was collected in Europe, formidable by their arms and numbers, if the generals had understood the science of command, and their soldiers the duty of obedience. The armies of the Eastern empire were vanquished in three successive engagements; and from the Hellespont to Thermopylæ and the suburbs of Constantinople, Attila ravaged, without resistance and without mercy, the provinces of Thrace and Macedonia. Theodosius, his court, and his unwarlike people, were protected by the walls of Constantinople; but those walls had been shaken by a recent earthquake, and the fall of fifty-eight towers had opened a large and tremendous breach. Theodosius was reduced to solicit the clemency of Attila, who dictated the harsh and humiliating conditions of peace, that the emperor of the East should resign an extensive and important territory, a province on the Danube, extending from Singidunum or Belgrade, as far as Novæ, in the diocese of Thrace: and that Theodosius should increase the tribute or subsidy of the king of the Huns, from seven hundred pounds of gold to the annual sum of two thousand one hundred, and immediately pay six thousand pounds of gold to defray the expenses, or to expiate the guilt, of the war. One might imagine, that such a demand, which scarcely equalled the measure of private wealth, would have been readily discharged by the opulent empire of the East; and the public distress affords a remarkable proof of the impoverished, or at least of the disorderly, state of the finances. A large proportion of the taxes, extorted from the people, was detained and intercepted in their passage, through the foulest channels, to the treasury of Constantinople. The revenue was dissipated by Theodosius and his favourites, in wasteful and profuse luxury; which was disguised by the names of Imperial magnificence, or Christian charity. The immediate supplies had been exhausted by the unforeseen necessity of military preparations. A personal contribution, rigorously, but capriciously, imposed on the members of the senatorian order, was the only expedient that could disarm, without loss of time, the impatient avarice of Attila: and the poverty of the nobles compelled them to adopt the painful resource of exposing to public auction the jewels of their wives, and the hereditary ornaments of their palaces. Lastly, the king of the Huns obtained that all the barbarians, who had deserted the standard of Attila, should be restored, without any promise, or stipulation, of pardon. In the execution of this cruel and ignominious treaty, the Imperial officers were forced to massacre several loyal and noble deserters, who refused to devote themselves to certain death; and the Romans forfeited all reasonable claims to the friendship of any Scythian people, by this public confession, that they were destitute either of faith,

faith, or power, to protect the suppliants, who had embraced the fortune of Theodosius.

After this disgraceful treaty, the eastern government was perpetually harrassed by the encroaching and imperious demands of the king of the Huns. A base attempt was on one occasion made, under the sanction of an embassy, to procure the assassination of Attila. The frank and open-hearted barbarian, apprized of the treason, received nevertheless the Roman ambassadors with freedom and hospitality, introduced them (with a courtesy which even then distinguished the northern nations from the eastern) to his wives, and intimated to one of them that he was aware of his treachery. The Romans departed, but the traitor was rash enough to return, and was pardoned. This attempt served only to exasperate Attila, and to render the court of Constantinople despicable in the eyes of its own subjects.

The emperor Theodosius did not long survive the most humiliating circumstance of an inglorious life. As he was riding, or hunting, in the neighbourhood of Constantinople, he was thrown from his horse into the river Lycus; the spine of the back was injured by the fall; and he expired some days afterwards, in the fiftieth year of his age, and the forty-third of his reign. His sister Pulcheria was unanimously proclaimed Empress of the East; and the Romans, for the first time, submitted to a female reign. Amidst the general acclamations of the people, the empress did not forget the prejudice to which her sex was exposed; and she wisely resolved to prevent their murmurs by the choice of a colleague, who would always respect the superior rank and virgin chastity of his wife. She gave her hand to MARCIAN, a senator, about sixty years of age, and the nominal husband of Pulcheria was solemnly invested with the Imperial purple. The behaviour of Marcian on the throne, shewed that he was qualified to restore and invigorate an empire, which had been almost dissolved by the successive weakness of two hereditary monarchs. His first conferences with Attila convinced the barbarian that he had no despicable foe to deal with. While Marcian disdained the vain title of the *Invincible*, he disclaimed the payment of a tribute, and signified that though he might voluntarily *reward* the services of his allies, he would never condescend to acknowledge their supremacy. Attila indignantly defied Marcian, but affecting contempt for the eastern Romans, he turned his arms, as we have already related, against the western states.

Of the reign of Marcian little has been preserved. He contrived to keep in amity the ferocious Ostrogoths, and preserved peace without attempting any important changes; which, in fact, were not practicable. At his death, Pulcheria and the senate made choice of LEO. The emperor probably deserved this honour, although almost the only event of his reign which has reached us covers him with disgrace. He caused Aspar and his sons, by whose influence he had been exalted to the throne, to be executed, because they too rigorously exacted the debt of gratitude. He died of a flux at an advanced age, after a reign of seventeen years, and the inheritance of the East devolved on his grandson, the offspring of his daughter Ariadne, by an Isaurian husband, who changed his barbarous appellative of Trascalisseus for the Greek of ZENO. The father was soon elevated to the second rank in the empire; and the premature death of his infant son, as it conduced to gratify his ambition, excited the public suspicion of unfair means being used. Verina, the widow of Leo, fomented the popular discontents against the unnatural parent; and Zeno was obliged to fly with precipitation to the mountains of Isauria.

Verina, however, carried her designs further, by investing her brother Basiliscus with the purple; but he too soon lost her favour, by presuming to assassinate the lover of his sister, and the paramour of his wife. The malcontents, who were numerous among the people as well as in the palace, recalled Zeno from exile; and the unhappy usurper, with his whole family, was condemned to perish by cold and hunger. Harmatius, who had materially contributed to the restoration of Zeno, received from the latter the reward that had been promised him, of being appointed master of the household; but no sooner was he installed in his office than Zeno caused him to be massacred in his palace by Onoulus, whom Harmatius himself had brought up. Indeed, if every private circumstance in each reign were to be recorded, instead of developing the great events which led to the catastrophe of the empire of the East, in every subsequent period would be found the same treachery between fathers, wives, and children, relations and friends, the protectors and the protected.

The haughty spirit of Verina was still incapable of repose; she provoked new rebellions in Syria and Egypt; and to the last hour of her life persisted in civil commotion. The indolent tranquillity of Zeno's debauchery was thus interrupted by two revolts; the one under his brother-in-law, Marcian, who set up for himself in right of his wife Leontia, the eldest daughter of Leo; the other under Leontius, the commander of the Syrian troops. They both ended by the death of their authors; nor did Zeno long delay following them to the tomb, which, if historians are to be believed, he entered alive. Ariadne, who loved him not, profiting by an attack of the epilepsy, to which the emperor was subject, caused him to be precipitately interred. A noise was heard in the coffin, which she would not suffer to be opened; and some days after it was discovered that Zeno had devoured the flesh off his own arms; but this is impossible. He was sixty-five years old, and had reigned seventeen, A. D. 491.

Ariadne, on the death of her husband, bestowed her hand and the imperial title on ANASTASIUS, who had grown old in the palace, where he exercised the office of *silentiarius*, or the preserver of silence; a dignity which still exists in the palaces of the East. The virtues of Anastasius had been long tried and respected; and when he was proclaimed emperor in the circus, the universal acclamation was, "Reign, Anastasius, as thou hast lived!"

The hopes of the good this prince might do, and the experience of what he really did in suppressing the most odious taxes, supported his throne for six years, though assailed by a powerful cabal, which proceeded to the last extremities, and ended in the destruction of the leaders in the sedition and their accomplices. Anastasius, indeed, endured perpetual vexation from the conflicts between the orthodox and the Eutychians, to the latter of which he is accused of having been partial. In consequence of this, a commotion was excited in favour of the orthodox, which at one time was the destruction of more than ten thousand men. On another occasion, Vitalianus, the governor of Thrace, advanced to the very walls of Constantinople, and threatened to depose the emperor, unless he recalled the Catholic bishop, whom he had exiled; with which peremptory demand he was obliged to comply. External enemies also gained ground, and swarms of Persians and barbarians infested the empire. In order to secure his capital from their incursions, he inclosed it with an entrenchment, called afterwards the walls of Anastasius. He is said to have degenerated so far during the latter part of his reign as to sell offices, and divide the spoils of the people with the governors of the provinces, to whose rapacity he abandoned them. In the eightieth year of his age he was found dead in his chamber, after having reigned twenty-seven years.

JUSTIN, a native of Dacia, where he had followed the business of a shepherd, possessing a strength and stature which he thought were likely to recommend him, left the peaceful occupations of pastoral life, and obtained a place among the guards of the emperor Leo. By long service in the Persian and Isaurian wars, he had obtained the successive ranks of tribune, of count, and of general, with the dignity of senator, and the command of the guards, at the important crisis when Anastasius expired. The kinsmen of that prince were excluded from the throne by the artifices of the eunuch Amantius, who resolved to bestow the purple on the most obsequious of his creatures. A liberal donative to conciliate the guards was entrusted in the hands of Justin, who, with corresponding insidiousness, employed it in his own favour; and as no competitor presumed to appear against a man so protected, the Dacian peasant ascended the

the throne, with the unanimous consent of the military, the clergy, and the people. A. D. 518.

Justin, to whom the epithet of Elder is given, to distinguish him from another emperor of the same name and family, was sixty-eight years of age when he was invested with the purple; and during the nine successive years of his life, he was preserved from exposing his incapacity by his good sense in following the direction of abler statesmen, whom he had the wisdom to select. At this time the world beheld two contemporary monarchs, Theodoric and himself, who were destitute even of the knowledge of the alphabet; but the commanding genius of the Goth rendered him respectable amidst all his ignorance of learning. Justin, though personally brave, was conscious of his political incapacity, and relied on the diligence of his quæstor Proclus, and the talents of his nephew Justinian, whom the aged emperor drew from the solitudes of Dacia, and educated as his future heir.

The eunuch Amantius lost his life for a real or a pretended conspiracy, and three of his associates were punished either with exile or death. Vitalian, who, in defence of the orthodox faith, had waged a popular war against Anastasius, and still remained at the head of a formidable army, on the security of oaths, was persuaded to trust himself in Constantinople. The emperor and his nephew embraced him with affected regard; but a few months after, he was assassinated at a royal banquet, and Justinian was appointed in his room master-general of the armies of the East, without any claims from military service. Indeed, this young prince preferred cultivating the favour of the people in the churches, the circus, and the senate of Constantinople, to the precarious laurels of war; and, while he maintained his ascendant over his uncle, committed to hardier warriors the defence or the eastern empire.

Justin died A. D. 527, and JUSTINIAN, who afterwards obtained the title of the Great, succeeded. He married Theodora, one of the daughters of Acacius, a native of Cyprus. This woman, when only seven years of age, was introduced into the theatre, and for some years was devoted to the public and private pleasures of the people of Byzantium. As a pantomime, the applauses bestowed on her was constant and unbounded; but her beauty was the source of more exquisite delight. Her features were delicate and regular; her whole figure, though small, was shaped by the hand of symmetry, and enlivened by all the graces of art. Her vague commerce, and the detestable arts she used, prevented her from being a mother more than once; and this fruit of licentious love, a son, it is supposed, was dispatched by her order, after she became empress. This woman, who had for some time affected a life of solitude, won the heart of Justinian, and her temper and understanding maintained a constant ascendant over his mind. As a consort on the throne, the most illustrious persons in the state were alternately doomed, as her humour might suggest, to experience the levity of a comedian or the arrogance of an empress. Her rapacity was unbounded; and many cruelties are laid to her charge, which she exercised by means of her numerous spies. Yet, it must be acknowledged, she was not destitute of virtues. Her influence often assuaged the intolerant zeal of Justinian: we shall have occasion in the sequel to mention her courage and presence of mind; and her chastity, from the moment of her marriage, is allowed to have been inviolable.

In the reign of Justinian one of the most dreadful commotions took place which had ever shaken Constantinople. At this time the support of a faction, distinguished by a diversity of colour, became necessary to every candidate for civil or ecclesiastical honours. The *green* were attached to the family or sect of Anastasius: the *blues* were devoted to orthodoxy and Justinian; and their grateful patron protected above five years, a party, whose tumults overawed the palace, the senate, and the city.

A momentary reconciliation of these two factions, produced the event we are about to relate. Two criminals, one of the green, and the other of the blue party, had escaped from impending punishment, to the sanctuary of a neighbouring church. Both factions were equally provoked by the cruelty of their oppressor; and, uniting their strength, like a torrent, overwhelmed the palace of the præfect, his officers and his guards. The barbarians in the service of the empire, joining in the affray, firebrands were darted against the houses, and the flames spread without controul. For five days Constantinople was abandoned to licentious fury, and the watch-word NIKA, *vanquish*, resounded from every quarter.

Amidst the confusion and uproar, Hypatius, nephew to Anastasius, surrounded by the populace, was reluctantly hurried to the forum of Constantine, and a rich collar placed upon his head by way of a diadem. The greater part of the senate sided with the rebels; and Justinian, desponding and alarmed, was preparing to leave the city, and to seek for safety by embarking on board a vessel in the harbour; when the magnanimity and courage of Theodora prevented this disgrace, and recalled him to more manly exertions. "Were flight," said she, the only means of preservation, I should yet disdain to fly. Death is the condition of our birth; but they who have reigned should never survive the loss of dignity and dominion. I implore Heaven, that I may never be seen, not even for a day, without my diadem and my purple; —that I may no longer behold the light when I cease to be saluted with the name of queen. If you resolve, O Cæsar! to fly, you have treasures: behold the sea, you have ships; but tremble, lest the desire of life should expose you to wretched exile, and ignominious death. For my own part, I adhere to the maxim of antiquity, 'that the throne is a glorious grave.'"

Animated by this harangue, Justinian put himself at the head of his guards, and defended himself in his palace. When it was found that he was not wanting to himself, he soon received succour: Belisarius brought a corps of three thousand veteran troops to his assistance; and, it is computed that no less than thirty thousand persons perished in the carnage. Hipatius, the ephemeral emperor, together with Pompey, another nephew of Anastasius, were dragged to the feet of Justinian, and in vain implored his clemency. The senators also, who had abetted this rebellion, were punished, and their property confiscated; but the emperor afterwards had the humanity to restore their rank and fortune to their children. The games of the circus were, during several years, interdicted; but with their restoration, the blue and the green factions revived, and continued to disturb the tranquillity of the empire.

When Justinian ascended to the throne, the kingdom of the Goths and Vandals had obtained a peaceable establishment in Europe and Africa; but the Roman lawyers and statesmen asserted the indefeasible dominion of the emperors of the East.

The agitated condition of Africa now afforded a favourable opportunity to the imperial arms; and this opportunity Justinian was determined not to neglect.

With a numerous army and a powerful fleet, Belisarius set out for the conquest of Africa, and after encountering many dangers, landed on that coast, and soon advanced within fifty miles of Carthage. A general engagement speedily followed, in which Gelimer, the Vandal king, was defeated. This unfortunate monarch, after collecting the remains of his scattered army, and joining it with that of his brother Zano from Sardinia, surprised Belisarius at an unseasonable hour. The Romans, however, were instantly under arms; Zano fell; the dejected Gelimer fled; and only fifty Romans and eight hundred Vandals perished in a battle which decided the fate of Africa.

Gelimer himself, attended by a few faithful adherents, was pursued to the inaccessible mountain of Papua, in the interior of Numidia, where he was immediately besieged by Pharas, one of the officers of Belisarius. After enduring unparalleled hardships, he surrendered, on the assurance of safety and honourable treatment.

Belisarius was recalled by the jealousy of the emperor; but his prompt obedience extorted the honour of a triumph. Yet from the trophies of luxury, and the wealth of nations which adorned the procession of the victor, the eyes of the spectators

spectators were turned on Gelimer, who marched slowly along, repeating, *Vanity, vanity, all is vanity!* His misfortunes were alleviated by an ample estate, in the province of Galatia, where he retired with his family and friends, to a life of peace, of affluence, and probably of content; while the services of Belisarius were immediately rewarded with the consulship, A. D. 535.

Belisarius next menaced, in the name of the emperor, the recovery of the provinces belonging to the former empire of Rome. A nation of two hundred thousand soldiers might have derided the haughty threats of Justinian and his lieutenant; but a spirit of discord and insubordination prevailing in Italy, it was artfully turned to the subjugation of that country once more under the power of the emperor of the East. A body of forces, strengthened by the fame of Belisarius, attacked and carried Palermo and Syracuse in Sicily; which being gained, the general, leaving sufficient garrisons behind him, embarked his troops at Messina, and landed at Rhegium. With little opposition, he advanced to Naples, which was strongly fortified, and well supplied with every requisite for standing a long siege; but four hundred Romans entering the city by an aqueduct unperceived, opened the gates to their companions, and Naples became the prey of the victors.

The jealousy of Justinian once more recalled Belisarius, who immediately obeyed the summons; but the conqueror of Italy was not allowed the well-earned honours of a second triumph: yet his virtues, his bravery, and approved loyalty, engaged the hearts of his fellow-citizens; and wherever he appeared, he attracted all eyes.

Nevertheless, the fame of the hero was tarnished by the degrading tameness of the husband. His wife, Antonina, who had risen from the lowest situation to be the favourite of Theodora, and had early been remarkable for the irregularity of her conduct, still continued to defile the bed, and to disgrace the character of Belisarius. At last his friends convinced him of the infamy of his wife's behaviour, which either affection or easiness of disposition had hitherto concealed from him, and he determined to punish her; but her cause being espoused by the empress, a forced reconciliation took place; and the effrontery of Antonina was increased by her triumph.

In the succeeding campaign, Belisarius saved the East; but violently offended Theodora and the emperor, by some free and independent language, in consequence of which he was severely fined; but the dignity of his character, and the influence of his wife, soon after reinstated him in the royal favour, and he received the principal command in Italy, which was still threatened by new wars, and offered new laurels for the hero to pluck.

After a variety of negociations and hostilities, Justinian and Chosroes, king of Persia, concluded a treaty, which, for fifty years, gave repose to their exhausted frontiers. The former also entered into an alliance with the Ethiopians, who had occupied Arabia; but these being expelled from the continent of Asia, hastened the fall of the empire of the East; since a christian power in Arabia, must have crushed Mahomet in his cradle.

During this reign, the Lombards established themselves on the Danube; and the Sclavonians and other barbarians made such frequent and fatal inroads, that it is asserted by Procopius, that no fewer than two hundred thousand inhabitants of the Roman empire were annually destroyed by them.

It is impossible to give a regular account of all the important military services of Belisarius. The conquerer of Africa and Italy, on his re-appointment to the command of the latter country, found the Gothic monarchy, which he had overturned, in some measure restored by the valiant and virtuous Totila. Belisarius landed with a small body of troops at the port of Ravenna, but soon discovered that the affections of the Italians were alienated from the empire, and that he was sent to remain an impotent spectator of the glory of a young barbarian. The Roman general repassed the Adriatic, and expected at Dyrrachium the arrival of the troops, which slowly assembled, and at last were inadequate to the deliverance of Rome. The Appian-way was covered by the barbarians, and the prudence of Belisarius declining a battle, he preferred the safe navigation from the coast of Epirus to the mouth of the Tiber. Rome was guarded by the valour of Bessas, who defended her walls with three thousand soldiers: but the length of the siege had occasioned all the calamities of famine, and hope had almost expired, when it was reported that Belisarius was landed at the port. The intrepid general burst through every obstacle, and the city would have been relieved, had not the wisdom of Belisarius been defeated by the misconduct of his officers; he reluctantly sounded a retreat, in order to save the only harbour he possessed on the Tuscan coast, and Rome was left to the mercy of Totila. Bessas and his soldiers escaped by flight, and the principal inhabitants followed their governors. On the intercession of Pelagius, the archdeacon, the lives of the Romans were spared, and the chastity of the women preserved from violation; but the most precious spoils were reserved for the Gothic treasury, and the rest was abandoned to the free pillage of the soldiers. One third of the city walls was thrown down by the stern command of Totila; and it was owing to the prudent remonstrances of Belisarius, who warned the Gothic monarch not to sully his fame by the destruction of those monuments which were the glory of the dead and the delight of the living, that the barbarian did not execute his threat of changing Rome into a pasture for cattle.

Totila, leaving an army of observation in the vicinity of Rome, proceeded to other conquests; on which Belisarius, sallying from the port at the head of a thousand horse, cut his way through the opposing enemy, and erected his standard on the Capitol. The walls were hastily restored; and though Totila made three general assaults, his troops were repulsed by the firmness and skill of Belisarius; and the fame of the barbarian sunk, as it had risen, with the fortune of his arms.

Belisarius, however, was called off to an inglorious warfare, intended as a disgrace, and not as an honour to him; and the credit of completing the conquest of Italy, by the defeat and death of Totila, was reserved for Narses, the eunuch, who had long been the minister of the palace. In the procession of Narses, Rome for the last time saw the semblance of a triumph. It was soon after degraded to the second rank, and the exarchs of Ravenna filled the throne of the Gothic kings.

Antonina, who had been faithful to the fame and interests of her husband, though not to his bed, procured permission from the emperor for the return of Belisarius to Constantinople; and the declining years of his life were crowned by a last victory, in which he saved the emperor and the capital from the Bulgarians, who had passed the frozen Danube, and spread terror and consternation to the very recesses of the palace. Yet the long-tried fidelity of Belisarius could not secure him from the imputation of being implicated in a dark conspiracy against the life of his master. The hero, who in the vigour of life had rejected the fairest offers of ambition, will never be believed, in extreme old age, to have been induced to renounce his loyalty. He appeared before the council with less fear than indignation; but forty years' faithful service could not screen him from the vindictive jealousy of the emperor. His fortune was sequestered, and for several months he was guarded as a prisoner in his own palace. At length his innocence became conspicuous and acknowledged; and his death, probably hastened by chagrin, about eight months afterwards, delivered him from the ingratitude of his master. Such was the fate of Belisarius: that he was deprived of his eyes, and reduced to beg his bread, is a fiction of the twelfth century.

A few months after the death of Belisarius, Justinian also died, in the eighty-third year of his age; his military fame has been completely eclipsed by that of Belisarius but he has acquired far higher and more enduring glory for his labours in the science of legislation. When he ascended the throne, the reformation of the Roman jurisprudence was an arduous but indispensable task. In the space of ten centuries, the infinite variety

variety of laws and legal opinions had filled many thousand volumes, which no fortune could purchase and no capacity could digest. Books could not easily be found; and the judges, poor in the midst of riches, were reduced to the exercise of their illiterate discretion. The subjects of the Greek provinces were ignorant of the language that disposed of their lives and properties; and the barbarous dialect of the Latins was imperfectly studied in the academies of Berytus and Constantinople. As an Illyrian soldier, that idiom was familiar to the infancy of Justinian; his youth had been instructed by the lessons of jurisprudence, and his Imperial choice selected the most learned civilians of the East, to labour with their sovereign in the work of reformation. The theory of professors was assisted by the practice of advocates, and the experience of magistrates; and the whole undertaking was animated by the spirit of Tribonian. This extraordinary man, the object of so much praise and censure, was a native of Side, in Pamphylia; and his genius, like that of Bacon, embraced, as his own, all the business and knowledge of the age. Tribonian composed, both in prose and verse, on a strange diversity of curious and abstruse subjects: a double panegyric of Justinian, and the life of the philosopher Theodotus; the nature of happiness, and the duties of government; Homer's catalogue, and the four-and-twenty sorts of metre; the astronomical canon of Ptolemy; the changes of the months; the houses of the planets; and the harmonic system of the world. To the literature of Greece he added the use of the Latin tongue; the Roman civilians were deposited in his library and in his mind; and he most assiduously cultivated those arts which opened the road of wealth and preferment. From the bar of the prætorian præfects, he raised himself to the honours of quæstor, of consul, and of master of the offices: the council of Justinian listened to his eloquence and wisdom, and envy was mitigated by the gentleness and affability of his manners. The reproaches of impiety and avarice have stained the virtues or the reputation of Tribonian. In a bigotted and persecuting court, the principal minister was accused of a secret aversion to the Christian faith, and was supposed to entertain the sentiments of an Atheist and a Pagan, which have been imputed, inconsistently enough, to the last philosophers of Greece. His avarice was more clearly proved and more sensibly felt. If he were swayed by gifts in the administration of justice, the example of Bacon will again occur; nor can the merit of Tribonian atone for his baseness, if he degraded the sanctity of his profession; and if laws were every day enacted, modified, or repealed, for the base consideration of his private emolument. In the sedition of Constantinople, his removal was granted to the clamours, perhaps to the just indignation, of the people; but the quæstor was speedily restored, and till the hour of his death, he possessed, above twenty years, the favour and confidence of the emperor. His passive and dutiful submission has been honoured with the praise of Justinian himself, whose vanity was incapable of discerning how often that submission degenerated into the grossest adulation. Tribonian adored the virtues of his gracious master: the earth was unworthy of such a prince; and he affected a pious fear, that Justinian, like Elijah or Romulus, would be snatched into the air, and translated alive to the mansions of cælestial glory.

If Cæsar had achieved the reformation of the Roman law, his creative genius, enlightened by reflection and study, would have given to the world a pure and original system of jurisprudence. Whatever flattery might suggest, the emperor of the east was afraid to establish his private judgment as the standard of equity; in the possession of legislative power, he borrowed the aid of time and opinion; and his laborious compilations are guarded by the sages and legislators of past times. Instead of a statue cast in a simple mould by the hand of an artist, the works of Justinian represent a tesselated pavement of antiquity, costly, but too often of incoherent fragments. In the first year of his reign, he directed the faithful Tribonian, and nine learned associates, to revise the ordinances of his predecessors, as they were contained, since the time of Adrian, in the Gregorian, Hermogenian, and Theodosian codes; to purge the errors and contradictions, to retrench whatever was obsolete or superfluous, and to select the wise and salutary laws best adapted to the practice of the tribunals and the use of his subjects. The work was accomplished in fourteen months; and the twelve books or *tables*, which the new decemvirs produced, might be designed to imitate the labours of their Roman predecessors. The new code of Justinian was honoured with his name, and confirmed by his royal signature: authentic transcripts were multiplied by the pens of notaries and scribes; they were transmitted to the magistrates of the European, the Asiatic, and afterwards the African provinces: and the law of the empire was proclaimed on solemn festivals at the doors of churches. A more arduous operation was still behind: to extract the spirit of jurisprudence from the decisions and conjectures, the questions and disputes, of the Roman civilians. Seventeen lawyers, with Tribonian at their head, were appointed by the emperor to exercise an absolute jurisdiction over the works of their predecessors. If they had obeyed his commands in ten years, Justinian would have been satisfied with their diligence; and the rapid composition of the DIGEST OF PANDECTS, in three years, will deserve praise or censure, according to the merit of the execution. From the library of Tribonian, they chose forty, the most eminent civilians of former times: two thousand treatises were comprised in an abridgment of fifty books; and it has been carefully recorded, that three millions of lines or sentences were reduced, in this abstract, to the moderate number of one hundred and fifty thousand. The edition of this great work was delayed a month after that of the INSTITUTES; and it seemed reasonable that the elements should precede the digest of the Roman law. As soon as the emperor had approved their labours, he ratified, by his legislative power, the speculations of these private citizens: their commentaries on the twelve tables, the perpetual edict, the laws of the people, and the decrees of the senate, succeeded to the authority of the text; and the text was abandoned, as an useless, though venerable, relic of antiquity. The *Code*, the *Pandects*, and the *Institutes*, were declared to be the legitimate system of civil jurisprudence; they alone were admitted in the tribunals, and they alone were taught in the academies of Rome, Constantinople, and Berytus. Justinian addressed to the senate and provinces, his *eternal oracles;* and his pride, under the mask of piety, ascribed the consummation of this great design to the support and inspiration of the Deity.

Since the emperor declined the fame and envy of original composition, we can only require at his hands, method, choice, and fidelity, the humble, though indispensable, virtues of a compiler. Among the various combinations of ideas, it is difficult to assign any reasonable preference; but as the order of Justinian is different in his three works, it is possible that all may be wrong; and it is certain that two cannot be right. In the selection of ancient laws, he seems to have viewed his predecessors without jealousy, and with equal regard: the series could not ascend above the reign of Hadrian, and the narrow distinction of Paganism and Christianity, introduced by the superstition of Theodosius, had been abolished by the consent of mankind. But the jurisprudence of the Pandects is circumscribed within a period of an hundred years, from the perpetual edict to the death of Severus Alexander: the civilians who lived under the first Cæsars, are seldom permitted to speak, and only three names can be attributed to the age of the republic. The favourite of Justinian (it has been fiercely urged) was fearful of encountering the light of freedom and the gravity of Roman sages. Tribonian condemned to oblivion the genuine and native wisdom of Cato, the Scævolas, and Sulpicius; while he invoked spirits more congenial to his own, the Syrians, Greeks, and Africans, who flocked to the Imperial court to study Latin as a foreign tongue, and jurisprudence as a lucrative profession. But the ministers of Justinian were instructed to labour, not for the curiosity of antiquarians, but for the immediate benefit of his subjects. It was their duty to

to select the useful and practical parts of the Roman law; and the writings of the old republicans, however curious or excellent, were no longer suited to the new system of manners, religion, and government. Perhaps, if the preceptors and friends of Cicero were still alive, our candour would acknowledge, that, except in purity of language, their intrinsic merit was excelled by the school of Papinian and Ulpian. The science of the laws is the slow growth of time and experience, and the advantage both of method and materials, is naturally assumed by the most recent authors. The civilians of the reign of the Antonines had studied the works of their predecessors: their philosophic spirit had mitigated the rigour of antiquity, simplified the forms of proceeding, and emerged from the jealousy and prejudice of the rival sects. The choice of the authorities that compose the Pandects, depended on the judgment of Tribonian: but the power of his sovereign could not absolve him from the sacred obligations of truth and fidelity. As the legislator of the empire, Justinian might repeal the acts of the Antonines, or condemn, as seditious, the free principles, which were maintained by the last of the Roman lawyers. But the existence of past facts is placed beyond the reach of despotism; and the emperor was guilty of fraud and forgery, when he corrupted the integrity of their text, inscribed with their venerable names the words and ideas of his servile reign, and suppressed, by the hand of power, the pure and authentic copies of their sentiments. The changes and interpolations of Tribonian and his colleagues are excused by the pretence of uniformity: but their cares have been insufficient, and the *antinomies*, or contradictions of the Code and Pandects, still exercise the patience and subtlety of modern civilians.

Though to maintain the text of the Pandects, the Institutes, and the Code, the use of cyphers and abbreviations was rigorously proscribed; and Justinian, though he denounced the punishment of forgery against the rash civilians who should presume to misinterpret or pervert the will of their sovereign, yet, six years had not elapsed from the publication of the Code, before he condemned the imperfect attempt, by a new and more accurate edition of the same work; which he enriched with two hundred of his own laws, and fifty decisions of the darkest and most intricate points of jurisprudence. Every year, or, according to Procopius, each day of his long reign, was marked by some legal innovation. Many of his acts were rescinded by himself; many were rejected by his successors, many have been obliterated by time; but the number of sixteen EDICTS, and one hundred and sixty-eight NOVELS, has been admitted into the authentic body of the civil jurisprudence. In the opinion of a philosopher superior to the prejudices of his profession, these incessant, and, for the most part, trifling alterations, can be only explained by the venal spirit of a prince, who sold without shame, his judgments and his laws. The charge of the secret historian is indeed explicit and vehement; but the sole instance, which he produces, may be ascribed to the devotion as well as to the avarice of Justinian. A wealthy bigot had bequeathed his inheritance to the church of Emesa; and its value was enhanced by the dexterity of an artist, who subscribed confessions of debt and promises of payment with the names of the richest Syrians. They pleaded the established prescription of thirty and forty years; but their defence was overruled by a retrospective edict, which extended the claims of the church to the term of a century; an edict so pregnant with injustice and disorder, that after serving this occasional purpose, it was prudently abolished in the same reign. If candour will acquit the emperor himself, and transfer the corruption to his wife and favourites, the suspicion of so foul a vice must still degrade the majesty of his laws; and the advocates of Justinian may acknowledge, that such levity, whatsoever be the motive, is unworthy of a legislator and a man.

On the death of Justinian, the succession of the empire menaced the repose of its subjects. Seven nephews of the emperor, who was himself childless, had been educated with splendour, and might expect with equal hopes the inheritance of their uncle. At the hour of midnight, JUSTIN, the son of Vigilantia, sister to Justinian, was awakened by the principal members of the senate, who announced the emperor's decease, and reported the dying choice of the prince on whom they waited. By the advice of his wife Sophia, Justin submitted to the authority of the senate; and being conducted with speed to the palace, was invested with the imperial ornaments. Four youths then exalted him on a shield to receive the homage of his subjects; and their choice was sanctified by the benediction of the patriarch, who placed the diadem on his head;—the first time this ceremony had been performed by a priest. In the speeches of Justin the younger, so called to distinguish him from a predecessor of the same name, he promised to correct the abuses of his uncle, whose debts he immediately discharged with unexpected generosity; and the hopeless creditors accepted the equitable payment as a gratuity. His example was followed by Sophia, whose liberality relieved many indigent citizens from the weight of debt and usury.

The annals of the second Justin are marked with disgrace abroad, and misery at home. The Roman empire was afflicted by the loss of Italy, the desolation of Africa, and the conquests of the Persians. The capital and the provinces were exhausted by the venality of the magistrates and the injustice of the governors. The sentiments of the emperor seem to have been pure and benevolent; but his faculties were impaired by disease; and in the confinement of his palace, he was a stranger to the wrongs of the people. His only son had died in his infancy, and his daughter was married to Baduarius, the superintendant of the palace; but from domestic jealousy or animosity, he was determined to seek an immediate successor, not in his family, but in the republic. The artifices of Sophia determined his choice in favour of TIBERIUS, the captain of the guard, who was elevated to the imperial dignity, in the presence of the patriarch and the senate. On this occasion, Justin, collecting all the energies both of his body and mind; after advising Tiberius to consult the experience rather than the practice of his predecessor, and respect the empress as his mother, he concluded with, "Love the people as yourself; cultivate the affections, maintain the discipline, of the army; protect the fortunes of the rich, and relieve the necessities of the poor." The assembly, in tears, applauded the counsels of their prince, who in the moment of his abdication seemed worthy to reign. The four last years of his life were spent in tranquillity; and the reverence and gratitude of Tiberius justified the choice he had made.

The beauty of Tiberius had recommended him to Sophia who, after the death of Justin, hoped to preserve her station and influence under a more youthful husband; but the new emperor had for some time been secretly married to Anastasia; and when the clamours of the Hippodrome were loud for an empress, Tiberius produced his lawful wife. The disappointment to Sophia could not be atoned for by every honour due to her rank, and every favour which Tiberius could bestow. She immediately commenced her intrigues against him, by attempting to raise to the purple Justinian, who had been appointed commander of the Persian armies. But the design being discovered before it was ripe for execution, Sophia was deprived of that wealth which she had abused, and her person committed to the custody of a faithful guard. The services of Justinian, in the mind of the excellent Tiberius, outweighed his treason and ingratitude; and he was merely stript of his command, which was conferred on Maurice, a native of Cappadocia, and an excellent general; who also obtained in marriage Constantia, the daughter of the emperor.

Tiberius was humane, just, temperate, and brave; and his subjects contemplated with pleasure the virtues of their sovereign. But, unhappily for mankind, in less than four years after the death of Justin he fell into a mortal disease, which left him only sufficient time to bestow the diadem on his son-in-law Maurice, and to express his hope that the virtues of his successor would erect the noblest mausoleum to his memory.

MAURICE

MAURICE ascended the throne at the age of forty-three, and reigned twenty years over the East, amidst almost continual turbulence; yet he was endued with sense and courage to promote the happiness of his people, and in his administration he followed the model of Tiberius.

Rome, assailed by the Lombards and afflicted with famine, implored the assistance of Maurice. A feeble co-operation on the part of the imperial troops was afforded.

Under the reign of Maurice, Gregory the First filled the papal throne. His birth and abilities had raised him to the office of præfect of the city, when he renounced his station, and dedicated his fortune to the foundation of monasteries. His virtues rendered him dear to the church; and from the gloom of a cell he was called, by the unanimous voice of the clergy, to the chair of St. Peter. The bishops of Italy and the adjacent islands acknowledged the Roman pontiff as their special metropolitan; and his successful claims on the provinces of Greece, of Spain, and of Gaul, might well countenance the more lofty pretensions of succeeding popes. As a christian bishop, he preferred the salutary offices of peace to success in war, however great; and presumed to save his country without the consent, either of the emperor or the exarch. His merits were treated by the Byzantine court with reproach and insult; but he found the best right of a sovereign, and the purest reward of a citizen, in the attachment of a grateful people.

Maurice successfully engaged in the politics of Persia, but was harrassed by the warlike and audacious Avars, under Baian the kagan, who occupied the rustic palace of Attila, and appears to have imitated his policy. During the reign of Maurice, frequent and furious seditions had agitated the camps both in Europe and Asia; and the mild indulgence of the emperor, served only to discover to the soldiers their own strength, and his weakness. The army beyond the Danube had been commanded to establish their winter quarters in the hostile country of the Avars: their private murmurs on this occasion, were soon converted into open rage; they voted Maurice unfit to reign; and, under the command of a centurion, named PHOCAS, they returned by rapid marches into the vicinity of Constantinople.

The emperor might still have escaped the impending danger, could he have relied on the fidelity of the capital; but his rigid virtues had long alienated the affections of the inhabitants. In a nocturnal tumult the lawless city was abandoned to every species of rapine and licentiousness: the unfortunate Maurice, with his wife and nine children, escaped in a small boat to St. Autonomus, near Chalcedon, and from thence he urged his eldest son Theodosius to implore the gratitude and protection of the Persian monarch. On his abdication, Constantinople opened her gates to Phocas, who entered the city amidst the usual acclamations to fortunate power. His jealousy combining with the cruelty of his disposition, soon prompted him to dispatch the ministers of death to Chalcedon: they dragged the emperor from his sanctuary, and murdered his five sons one after the other before his eyes. Maurice bore this agonising sight with heroic fortitude and resignation; repeating at every wound, while the tears trickled down his cheeks, the words of the prophet David, "Thou art just, O Lord! in all thy judgments." His rigid attachment to honour revealed even the generous falsehood of a nurse, who presented her own child in the place of a royal infant. The tragic scene was closed with the execution of the emperor himself, who fell on the dead bodies of his children, at the age of sixty-three.

Of the family of Phocas, or that of his wife Leontia, nothing is known. He was of a middling stature, deformed, and of a fierce countenance; his hair was red, and he had a scar on one cheek, which became black when inflamed with anger. Sanguinary and inexorable, he was addicted both to wine and women; while his wife's character was nearly as base as his own.—Against the unhappy family of the late emperor, he continued to exercise his barbarity; and under pretence of their holding a correspondence with some conspirators, a conduct which they had abundant provocation to justify, he caused the empress Constantina and her three daughters to be executed on the same spot where her husband and sons had suffered three years before. Theodosius, the eldest son, had been intercepted in his flight to the Persian court, and instantly beheaded: but though the legal claimants to the throne were extirpated, Phocas was never free from the danger of plots. Numerous victims were sacrificed to his fears and jealousies: some expired under the lash, others in the flames; at length the standard of rebellion was raised by Heraclius, the son of a governor of Africa of the same name. The ships of Heraclius steered their triumphant course through the Propontis: his cause was espoused by troops who poured in from all parts of the empire; and the tyrant attempting to fly was seized loaded with chains, and transported in a small boat on board the galley of Heraclius. After suffering every variety of insult and torture, which he had too long and too often inflicted on others, his head was separated from his body, and his trunk cast into the flames.

HERACLIUS ascended the throne with the voice of the clergy, the senate, and the people. He was of a noble family, had a majestic appearance, and was well versed in war, a science which was extremely necessary, when the empire was assailed on all sides by powerful and implacable enemies.

Chosroes, king of Persia, after the melancholy fate of his friend Maurice, disclaimed all connection with the usurper, and declared himself the avenger of his benefactor. An impostor, who attended his camp as the son of Maurice, and lawful heir of the Roman empire, afforded a decent apology for the submission of several capital cities of the East.

The first intelligence which Heraclius received was the loss of Antioch; Cæsarea next yielded to the Persians, and, after a short repose, Jerusalem fell under their power: Egypt itself, which had been exempted from war since the time of Dioclesian, was again subdued by the successor of Cyrus; and for the space of ten years a Persian camp was maintained in the presence of Constantinople. Heraclius hopeless of relief, meditated to transfer the seat of his government to Carthage; but being dissuaded by the patriarch, he bound himself at the altar of St. Sophia, to live and die with the people whom God had entrusted to his care.

From the treacherous reconciliation of the kagan of the Avars, Heraclius was saved only by the fleetness of his horse; while Chosroes, who had menaced, "that he would never give peace to the emperor of Rome till he had abjured his religion, and embraced the worship of the sun," was at last prevailed on to relinquish the conquest of Constantinople for an annual tribute of a thousand talents of gold, a thousand talents of silver, a thousand silk robes, a thousand horses, and a thousand virgins.

The interval allowed for collecting the treasures was sedulously employed by Heraclius in preparations for war; but the exhausted state of the provinces compelled him to borrow the consecrated wealth of the churches, under the solemn vow of restoring, with usury, whatever he had been reduced to expend in the cause of religion and the empire. New levies were allured by the holy gold from every country of the East and West. Two hundred thousand pieces of gold were devoted to conciliate the friendship, or suspend the hostilities, of the kagan; and two days after the festival of Easter, the emperor assumed the martial garb, and gave the signal of his departure. To the discretion of the patriarch and senate, he entrusted the discretionary power of saving or surrendering the city, according to the imperious circumstances which might arise in his absence.

After a tempestuous voyage, Heraclius landed his troops on the confines of Syria and Cilicia. His camp was pitched near Issus, on the same ground where Alexander vanquished the host of Darius. The patience of the emperor was severely tried in restoring the discipline and perfecting the exercises of his soldiers; but whatever hardships he imposed on his troops, he inflicted with honourable impartiality on himself; and from hence the Romans began to repose a due confidence

confidence in their own valour, and the wisdom of their commander.

The Persian troops who had advanced towards Cilicia, by the artful evolutions of Heraclius, were drawn into a general engagement; and the event of the day proved that they were no longer invincible. Animated by fame and victory, the emperor of the East directed his march through the plains of Cappadocia, and established the winter quarters of his army on the banks of the Halys, but returned himself to Constantinople.

Next spring he sailed with a select band of five thousand soldiers, and landed at Trebisond. The Armenians readily embraced the cause of the christian champion; a bridge was thrown over the Araxes, and Heraclius advanced towards the city of Tauris. Chosroes in person retired at the approach of the Roman emperor, and declined the generous alternative of peace or a battle.

After wintering in Albania, Heraclius appears to have followed the chain of the Hyrcanian mountains, and to have carried his victorious arms as far as the cities of Casbin and Ispahan.

Chosroes, however, collecting his scattered forces from the most distant provinces of his dominions, surrounded the camp of the Romans, and three hostile and formidable armies appalled the bravest officers in the army of Heraclius. But the emperor himself remained undaunted, and by repeated successful attacks drove the Persians from the field into the fortified cities of Media and Assyria. A number of satraps with their wives, and the flower of their martial youth, were either slain or made prisoners.

Constantinople had already felt the success of Heraclius by the retreat of the besiegers; and the senate was now informed that the Roman army, laden with spoils, halted under the walls of Amida. The emperor passed the Euphrates, while his enemies retired behind the Sarus. The impetuous course of that river, though the banks were lined with barbarians, could not check the progress of Heraclius, who, after a triumphant expedition of three years, returned to the coast of the Euxine.

The resources of Chosroes, however, were not yet exhausted, nor his ambition extinguished. He raised three powerful armies, one of which was directed to besiege Constantinople in concert with the kagan of the Avars. After a month spent in fruitless negociations, the whole city was invested, and it was in vain that the inhabitants endeavoured to purchase the retreat of the kagan; but a seasonable reinforcement of twelve thousand men being sent by Heraclius, and the provisions of the enemy beginning to fail, they were reluctantly compelled to give the signal of retreat.

In short, after experiencing numerous other defeats, Chosroes was taken off by a conspiracy, at the head of which was his own son, who, however, enjoyed the fruits of his crimes only eight months; and Heraclius, after the exploits of six glorious campaigns, returned in triumph to his capital. But while he enjoyed the acclamations of his subjects, an obscure town on the frontiers of Syria was pillaged by the Saracens: some troops sent to its relief were cut in pieces; and this occurrence, though apparently so trifling in itself, was the prelude of a mighty revolution. These banditti were the disciples of Mahomet, whose apostles were all warriors, and who, emerging from the desert, in less than eight years acquired by the sword those provinces which had been recovered from the Persians by the valour of Heraclius. See PERSIA.

After the death of his first wife Eudocia, Heraclius had contracted an incestuous marriage with his niece Martina. The superstition of the Greeks beheld the judgment of Heaven in the diseases of the father, and the deformity of his offspring. Constantine, his eldest son, enjoyed the title of Augustus, but the weakness of his constitution requiring a colleague, Heracleonas, the son of Martina, was associated to the purple. Heraclius survived this arrangement only two years, and by his last will declared his two sons the equal heirs of the empire of the East. A. D. 641.

The dying emperor, who at one period of his life was equal to the greatest generals of antiquity, having enjoined his sons, by his last public act, to honour Martina as their mother and sovereign, that ambitious woman immediately assumed the ensigns of royalty; but was speedily compelled to descend from the throne, by the unanimous decision of the people, who considered a woman as unfit to be trusted with the reins of government; and accordingly she found it expedient to retire to the female apartments of the palace. The death of Constantine, however, which happened in the thirtieth year of his age, and the first of his reign, not without the suspicion of poison, revived the aspiring hopes of Martina. She again resumed the management of the helm of state; but the incestuous relict of Heraclius was universally abhorred, and the exertions of her son, then only fifteen years of age, in her favour, were disregarded. Heraclius, it seems, suspecting some intrigues, on his death-bed had dispatched a trusty servant, named Valentine, to arm the troops and provinces of the East, in defence of his two helpless children. This person performed the delegated trust with success; and from the camp of Chalcedon, he demanded the punishment of those who had poisoned Constantine, and insisted on the restoration of the lawful heir to the empire. On this the citizens of Constantinople compelled Heracleonas to appear in the pulpit of St. Sophia, with the eldest of the royal orphans. CONSTANS alone being saluted as emperor, he was immmediately crowned with the solemn benediction of the patriarch. His rival did not attempt to resist the voice of the people; but the senate, in concert with all ranks and degrees in the state, were determined to put an end to the intrigues of Martina and her son: they condemned the former to lose her tongue, and the latter his nose; and after these amputations they were permitted to linger out their days in exile and oblivion.

At this period Constans was only twelve years old; and the early respect which he had shewn to the senate, was quickly erased by the prejudices of the age, and the habits of despotism. He viewed his brother Theodosius, whose virtues made him entirely beloved by the people, with jealous eyes; and causing him to be ordained a deacon, received the sacred chalice from his hands: yet even this disqualification for the purple could not allay the apprehensions of Constans, and he soon after procured the unhappy youth to be put to death. But the imprecations of the people pursued the royal assassin; while his crime being succeeded by the most dreadful remorse, he perpetually imagined that he beheld his murdered brother extending towards him a cup of blood, to quench that thirst with which he was continually tormented. To fly from so terrifying an object, as well as to retire from the detestation of his people, he left Constantinople, and, after passing a winter at Athens, he sailed to Tarentum, visited Rome, and then fixed his principal residence at Syracuse. But his steps were attended by conscious guilt, and the visionary shade of Theodosius incessantly obtruded itself on his distempered view. Like another Cain, he wandered from place to place, without finding peace or quiet in any; nor could his increasing wars against the Saracens and Lombards dispel the illusions of his fancy. But notwithstanding his sufferings from this cause, which it might have been supposed would have softened his heart, he governed the empire in the most tyrannical manner. He perished in the capital of Sicily in the twenty-seventh year of his reign. A servant who attended him in the bath, after pouring warm water on his head, struck him violently with the vase: he fell stunned by the blow, and was suffocated in the water. The troops in Sicily hastily invested with the purple an obscure youth, the elegance of whose form seems to have been his only recommendation.

Constans, however, having left three sons in the Byzantine court, the cause of CONSTANTINE the eldest was readily embraced by his subjects, who contributed with zeal and alacrity to chastise the presumption of a province which had usurped the legitimate rights of the senate and people. The emperor sailed from the Hellespont with a powerful fleet, and quickly

quickly defeating the usurper, caused his head to be exposed in the hippodrome.

Constantine returned in triumph to his capital, and the appearance of his beard having taken place during the Sicilian voyage, he obtained the familiar appellation of Pogonatus, by which he is distinguished in history from others of the same name.

In this emperor's reign, and forty-six years after the flight from Mecca, the disciples of Mahomet appeared under the walls of Constantinople. The prophet had asserted, that the sins of the first army which besieged the city, should be forgiven; and the caliph Moawiyah was impatient by this meritorious expedition to expiate the guilt of civil blood. His standard was entrusted to Sophian, a veteran warrior; and the troops were animated by the presence of Yezid, the son and presumptive heir of the commander of the faithful. The fleet of the Saracens passed through the unguarded channel of the Hellespont, and the troops were disembarked near the palace of Hebdomon, seven miles from the city. They approached with confidence of success: but the solid and lofty walls of Constantinople were guarded by numbers of well-disciplined troops; and the Arabs were dismayed by the strange and prodigious effects of that famous *Greek-fire* which so long maintained the empire and rivalled, if not surpassed, the modern discovery of gunpowder. This unexpected resistance diverted their arms to the more easy spoil of the adjacent country; and on the approach of winter, they retreated to the isle of Cyzicus, fourscore miles from the capital, where they had established their magazines of plunder and provisions. Reiterated defeats could not overcome their patient perseverance: they repeated the six following summers the same attack and retreat, till the gradual loss of thirty thousand Moslems compelled them to relinquish the fruitless enterprise.

The event of the siege raised the reputation of the Roman arms: the Greek ambassadors were favourably received at Damascus; a truce of thirty years was concluded between the two empires; and the commander of the faithful was reduced to submit to the annual tribute of fifty horses, fifty slaves, and three thousand pieces of gold. During the revolt of Arabia and Persia, the tribute was afterwards very considerably increased; but no sooner had Abdamalek reunited the empire, than he disdained the badge of servitude, and discontinued the tribute, which the future emperors of the East were unable to enforce.

Though success had attended Pogonatus against the Mahometans, his reign was disturbed by fraternal discord. On his two brothers Heraclius and Tiberius, he had bestowed the title of Augustus; but not satisfied with this, they demanded also a partition of the sovereignty. Their adherents were punished, and the ungrateful brothers were pardoned; but a repetition of the same offence deprived the princes of their titles and their noses.

Towards the close of his life, Pogonatus was anxious to establish the right of primogeniture, which, in the succession of princes, has averted so much misery and prevented so many crimes. On the shrine of St. Peter he offered the hair of his two sons, Justinian and Heraclius, as a symbol of their spiritual adoption by the pope; but the elder was alone exalted to the rank of Augustus and the assurance of the empire. After a just and pious reign of seventeen years, Pogonatus died of a decline, and was succeeded by his son, JUSTINIAN the second.

This prince, who ascended the throne in the seventeenth year of his age, by his youthful vices disgraced the name of the celebrated legislator, which he bore. For ten years he enjoyed the sufferings and braved the revenge of his subjects: his conduct was a tissue of inconsistencies, and his life was exposed to every vicissitude of fortune. He marched against the Bulgarians, and was put to flight; he compelled the Sclavonians to retreat before him; and, in his turn, himself fled before the Saracens. He knew he was detested by the people for his cruel and haughty government; and that he might avenge himself on them, and shew how well their enmity was deserved, he ordered a general massacre of the inhabitants of Constantinople to take place in the night. Leontius, a general of reputation, who had formerly commanded the troops of the East, after lying three years in prison, was set at liberty, and had received as an atonement for his captivity the government of Greece. He was just about to set off for his new appointment, and observed with a sigh, that death would attend his footsteps; when his friends exhorted him to deliver the city from the calamities with which it was menaced, assuring him that two hundred thousand patriots expected only the voice of a leader. Leontius, therefore, putting himself at the head of the troops confided to him for the purpose of his government, proceeded directly to the palace, forced open the prisons, and slew the præfect. Justinian himself was dragged into the hippodrome, where the clamours of the people demanded his instant death; but the pity of Leontius preserved the son of his benefactor: the amputation of his nose was rather attempted than effectually performed; and he was banished to the lonely settlement of Chersonæ in Crim Tartary.

The patriarch immediately proclaimed Leontius, and seated him on the imperial throne. His reign, however, was of short duration; for one of his generals, Apsimar by name, who afterwards adopted that of Tiberius, conspiring against him, deposed Leontius, cut off his nose, and banished him to a monastery in Dalmatia.

Tiberius gained important advantages over the Saracens, and might have reigned in peace, had he not regarded with terror the exiled Justinian, and in consequence made an attempt on his life. From the dangerous shore to which he had been banished, with a band of desperate followers, the royal fugitive escaped to the horde of the Chozars, who had pitched their tents between the Tanais and the Borysthenes. The khan received him with respect, and bestowed on him his sister Theodora, with some revenues to subsist on. But the barbarian being soon tempted by the gold of Constantinople, meditated to assassinate Justinian, and probably would have effected his purpose, had it not been betrayed by the affection of Theodora. The son of Pogonatus being thus prepared, strangled the emissaries of the khan with his own hands, sent back Theodora to her brother, and embarked on the Euxine, in search of new allies. His vessel was assaulted by a violent tempest; and one of his more pious companions exhorted him to deserve the mercy of God by a vow of forgiveness, in case he should be restored to the throne. "Of forgiveness!" replied the undaunted tyrant; "may I perish this instant—may the Almighty whelm me in the waves, if I consent to spare a single head of my enemies!" He landed at the mouth of the Danube; retired to the Bulgarians; and purchased by splendid promises the aid of Terbelis, a pagan prince. The two confederates besieged Constantinople with sixteen thousand horse. Apsimar was daunted by the sudden appearance of his rival: the misfortunes of their hereditary sovereign excited the pity of the multitude, and made them forget his crimes; and Justinian was once more seated on the throne of the Cæsars.

The restored monarch first took care to reward his ally Terbelis, and then to gratify his vengeance, which he had nourished even amidst the storms of the Euxine. So vindictive was his rage, and so barbarous his disposition, that he stood an hour on the necks of Leontius and Apsimar, before he suffered their execution to proceed. During the six years of his new reign, the rack, the axe, and the cord, were incessantly employed. The inhabitants of the Chersonese were peculiarly destined to feel his vengeance, for not having paid the respect due to him when in exile, as well as from a suspicion he entertained of their having had an intention of delivering him up to Tiberius. These were ordered by the inhuman tyrant to be indiscriminately massacred; and the messengers of blood were forbidden, on pain of the imperial displeasure, to leave even a child alive. The difficulty of fulfilling this dreadful command, and the fear of being punished for not complying with it, induced the soldiers to proclaim their general PHILIPPICUS. The tyrant, deserted by his

his barbarian guards, received without dread the mortal stroke, and the death of his son Tiberius extinguished the family of Heraclius, who had worn the purple for a hundred years. Justinian seems to have possessed a species of ferocious insanity, and was on that account equally formidable to his friends and his foes. On very slight grounds he declared war against Terbelis, who had restored him to the throne; and at last his cause was so infamous as to be abandoned by his very brother-in-law, the khan of the Chozars.

Philippicus abused, during more than two years, the authority he had acquired by the death of the tyrant; and under him the arms of the empire were not fortunate. The Bulgarians made an irruption into Thrace, and advanced as far as Constantinople. The indolence of the emperor, who busied himself about religious affairs, to the neglect of his public duty, rendered him an object of contempt; and the people learned, without the smallest emotion or mark of dissatisfaction, that, during a state of intoxication, some conspirators had surprised, blinded, and deposed him, while he reposed in his own palace.

The voice of the people now promoted Artemius, first secretary to the late emperor; and under the name of ANASTASIUS, he assumed the imperial ornaments; but as he was conscious of his ignorance in the military art, and was more distinguished as a politician than a man of courage, he placed Leo, a native of Isauria, who was an able general, at the head of his troops.

In the reign of Anastasius, the second siege of Constantinople by the Mahometans, under the caliph Soliman, commenced. The emperor conceived the design of burning the naval stores of the enemy, and thus defeating the enterprise about to be undertaken; but his aims were frustrated by the treachery of the marine army, who murdered their chief, and invested Theodosius, a simple officer of revenue, with the purple. Leo came to the assistance of his master, and, without striking a blow, induced Theodosius to lay down his usurped authority, and sink into the insignificance of the cloister, as the only security for his life. Moslemah, however, the brother of the caliph, could not be prevented by Leo from investing the capital with an army of one hundred and twenty thousand Arabs and Persians; while a hostile fleet of eighteen hundred ships appeared before the mouth of the harbour. But while they hesitated about entering it, the fireships of the Greeks were launched against them; and in a few hours this mighty armament, which threatened destruction to the Roman name, was reduced to ashes. The death of the caliph Soliman, was still a more severe and fatal loss to the besiegers; for his successor Omar was a scrupulous and inactive bigot. The investment, however, was continued through the winter, rather by his neglect than resolution: the season proved uncommonly rigorous; the natives of the burning climes of Egypt and Arabia lay almost lifeless in their frozen camp; disease and famine had entered their tents, and after a protracted siege of thirteen months, the desponding Moslemah received from his master the welcome permission of retreat.

Leo finding his ascendant both over the empire and the emperor, persuaded Anastasius to resign the crown, as a burthen too heavy for him, and to retire to the enjoyment of a private life. With the affluent fortune which he carried with him, he might have been happier than on the throne; but goaded on by ambition, he attempted to resume the dignity he had laid down by his own consent, and his life paid the forfeit of his folly.

The primitive name of LEO, who obtained the purple on the resignation of Anastasius, was Conon. His first service was in the guards of Justinian; and his valour and dexterity gradually raised him to the principal command of the armies, from whence, by an easy transition, he mounted the throne. A. D. 718. In his reign, the empire of the East lost even its shadow of authority in Italy, which passed under the power of the Lombards; while Rome gave herself up to the temporal as well as the spiritual domination of the pope. These revolutions were chiefly produced and ultimately confirmed by the dispute concerning image worship, which so fiercely agitated the Christian world during the eighth and ninth centuries.

While Leo was almost wholly occupied about these disputes, the Saracens ravaged the eastern parts of the empire, though not with impunity; and it must be confessed, that in an age of turbulence, both from political and religious causes, this emperor conducted himself w th firmness, and generally with more temper than his adversaries. After a reign of twenty-five years, and taking proper steps to secure the diadem to his son CONSTANTINE, he peaceably expired in his palace of Constantinople.

The precaution which Leo had taken to associate Constantine Copronymus with him in the empire, and cause him to be crowned, did not prevent the appearance of a competitor, supported by Anastasius the patriarch. In the commencement of his reign, he had summoned a general assembly, which met in the suburbs of Constantinople, and decreed that all visible symbols of Christ, except in the eucharist, were either blasphemous or heretical; and all such monuments of idolatry were condemned to be broken or erased. He then undertook an expedition against the Saracens; but during his absence, his capital, his palace, and his throne, were occupied by his kinsman Artavasdes, the ambitious champion of the orthodox faith, as it was then fixed and believed. The worship of images was triumphantly restored; but Copronymus, who had retired to his paternal mountains, soon descended at the head of his bold and faithful Isaurians; his victory was decisive; and both his rival and his son had their eyes put out. The patriarch, who was more than suspected of abetting the cause of the usurper, was sentenced to be paraded through the principal streets of the city, mounted on an ass with his face turned towards the tail, and himself to be beaten with rods; after which, he was restored to his former rank, not being able, says the historian, to find any one worse. As Constantinople, where the usurper maintained himself, had not surrendered till forced by famine, the emperor punished its inhabitants by severe taxes and extortions; but, above all others, his resentment was directed against the monks, his implacable enemies. From the chastisement of individuals, he proceeded to the abolition of the order: their religious communities were dissolved; the buildings converted into magazines or barracks; and their property confiscated. The worshippers of images, who were reputed orthodox, were rigorously persecuted, and the practice proscribed.

The manners of Copronymus were dissolute, and his temper was cruel; but even his enemies allow his courage and activity at the head of his legions: and in a reign of thirty-four years, he triumphed both by sea and land; on the Euphrates and the Danube; in civil and barbaric war. LEO the Fourth was his son and successor. A. D. 775. This prince was of a feeble constitution, both of body and mind; but he imitated his father's violence against images, though he had the vexation to find his opinions opposed even by his nearest connections, and in particular by Irene his empress. He associated in the empire his son Constantine, with the unanimous wishes of his subjects: but the five sons of Copronymus by a second marriage, endeavoured to disturb the public tranquillity. Their treasonable attempts were twice pardoned; and a third conspiracy was punished with amputation and banishment to Athens; but even in this retreat, their restless spirits prompted them to listen to a Sclavonian chief, who offered to break their prison, and lead them to Constantinople. The people of Athens, however, appear to have interposed; and the brothers of the emperor were destroyed.

Leo reigned only five years; and by his will the empress Irene was declared the guardian of the Roman world, and of his son Constantine the Sixth, who was no more than ten years of age. During his childhood, Irene had faithfully discharged the office with which she was entrusted; but the maturer age of the emperor made the yoke of his mother appear grievous; and his favourites and flatterers stimulating his desire for power, it was determined to banish Irene to Sicily.

Sicily. But the empress being informed of the design by her minister Saturacius, caused the conspirators to be publicly flogged, and took on herself the charge of punishing her son, in a similar manner, in the interior of the palace. He being thus compelled to submit to the ascendant of his mother, took an oath of fidelity to her, and she was afterwards proclaimed sovereign by the armies. A tumult of the Armenian guards, however, encouraged the general declaration that Constantine the Sixth was the lawful ruler. The people, offended at Irene's cruelty to her son, whom she retained a prisoner in the apartments of his palace, obliged her to restore him to liberty. Saturacius, who had instigated her to scourge the adherents of the young emperor, was himself subjected to the same treatment. Constantine conducted his mother with the utmost respect to a palace of her own erection, where she was shut up with her treasure; but, as the emperor continued to visit her, she soon regained her influence over him.

By her advice, he repudiated without provocation his wife Maria, and put out the eyes of three of his uncles, whom he suspected. The imprudence of Constantine, served as a pretext for the cruel machinations of Irene. Being left with the army at Prusa, in Bithynia, she dispatched several officers to depose her son. They arrived at Constantinople without being suspected of such a design; and put out the emperor's eyes in so barbarous a manner, that he died three days afterwards in the most excruciating pain, after having reigned, alone, or in conjunction with his mother, sixteen years.

Constantine, on ascending the throne, had entertained hopes of marrying Rotdudris, the daughter of Charlemagne; but this match, which Irene had nearly brought to a conclusion, she broke off herself, fearing lest it should render her son too powerful for control. The desire, however, of securing the authority she had at length obtained, made her eagerly embrace a proposal of espousing Charlemagne, in order to unite the two empires; but the malice of the eunuch Ætius prevented the success of this measure. Incapable himself of possessing the imperial dignity, he wished to secure it for his brother Leo, the governor of Thrace, to whose pretensions the intended marriage would have been an insurmountable obstacle. He therefore divulged the matrimonial negociation that was going on; and to render it unpopular at the same time, insinuated that if it succeeded, the seat of empire would be transferred from Constantinople. The intrigues of Ætius, however, were disappointed; for the great treasurer NICEPHORUS, with corresponding ingratitude, had made a strong party against his mistress, and secretly obtained the purple from the citizens of the capital. The new emperor concealed his advancement till he had obtained possession of the riches of Irene; but no sooner had he accomplished this, than he banished her to the isle of Lesbos, where the want of a decent provision obliged her to earn a scanty subsistence by the labours of the distaff.

The character of Nicephorus was stained with the odious vices of hypocrisy, ingratitude, and avarice. He made a treaty with the ambassadors of Charlemagne, who was then in the zenith of his power, and thus averted all danger from this quarter; but he was less fortunate with the Saracens. Harun, known by the surname of *Al Rashid*, or the Just, having ascended the throne of his father, Nicephorus refused the tribute, and resolved to obliterate this badge of servitude and disgrace. "Restore," said he in his letter to the caliph, "the fruits of your injustice, or abide the determination of the sword." The reply of the caliph was couched in terms of tremendous brevity. "In the name of the most merciful God, Harun Al Rashid, commander of the Faithful, to Nicephorus, the Roman dog. I have read thy letter, O thou son of an unbelieving mother. Thou shalt not hear, but thou shalt behold my answer." It was written in characters of blood and fire on the plains of Phrygia; and the warlike celerity of the Arabs could only be checked by the deceitful repentance of Nicephorus. But the victorious caliph had scarcely retired, before the peace was violated by the emperor of the East. His return was attended with the defeat of the victorious Greek, who escaped from the field of battle with three wounds. The torrent of the invaders deluged the surface of Asia Minor, and swept away the Pontic Heraclea: Nicephorus was compelled to submit, and the coin of the tribute was marked with the superscription of Harun and his three sons. These, however, after their father's death, being involved in civil discord, the conqueror Almaron, being engaged in the introduction of science, tacitly relinquished his claim to the Roman tribute.

Nicephorus at last was slain by the Bulgarians. His son Stauracius escaped from the field with a mortal wound; but the six months that he survived, were sufficient to prove that, with the kingdom, he inherited the vices of his father. MICHAEL, who had married his sister Procopia, possessed the wishes and esteem of the court and the city. The jealousy of Stauracius conspired against the life of his brother-in-law, which exasperated the people; and before he sunk into the grave, the son of Nicephorus was compelled to implore the clemency of the new emperor.

The mild virtues of Michael were adapted to the shade of private life; but were soon found unequal to the task of controlling his seditious subjects, or repelling the invasions of the victorious barbarians. The masculine spirit of his wife Procopia, who presumed to direct the discipline of the camp, aroused the indignant feelings of the soldiers. A disaffected army, in consequence, asserted the claims of LEO the Armenian, an officer of distinguished merit; and the humanity of Michael prevented, by a voluntary resignation, the miseries of a civil war. The abdicated emperor withdrew to a monastery, separated from his power and his wife, and enjoyed the comforts of solitude and religion above thirty-two years.

Leo the Fifth had been early educated in a camp, and was fond of military parade. He introduced into his civil government the rigour of military discipline; and if his severity was sometimes dangerous to the innocent, it was always formidable to the guilty. Michael, his companion, had contributed towards the elevation of the emperor, and he soon conspired against his authority. His criminal designs had been frequently detected, and as often pardoned by the indulgent gratitude of Leo; but he was at length, when found incorrigible, condemned to be burnt alive. On the eve of Christmas he was leading to execution, when the empress Theodosia represented to her husband, that such a scene would be little suitable to the respect due to the hallowed season on which they were to receive the eucharist together, and therefore solicited a respite till the sacred festival was past. The emperor granted her request; but lest the criminal should escape, he was loaded with irons, which were locked, and the keys brought to Leo himself.

Michael having obtained this interval of life, determined to employ it to the best advantage, and assembling the conspirators in his prison, he threatened to discover their practices if they refused to save him. Fear, rather than affection, induced them to run all hazards; and early in the morning they attacked the unsuspecting Leo in the chapel of his palace, and slew him at the foot of the altar. Not satisfied with this, they drew Michael from his prison, loaded with irons, and seated him on the throne. The empress Theodosia, who had been the means of saving his life, was with signal ingratitude banished to an island with her four sons.

MICHAEL who from a defect in his speech was surnamed the Stammerer, was delivered from a dungeon and impending death, only to display his depraved and ignoble manners on a throne. Though he had been favoured by the orthodox, he was but little solicitous concerning their disputes, but rather inclined to Judaism. He observed, indeed, the Jewish sabbath, denied the resurrection of the dead, and was but little scrupulous in his morals, though severe to the faults of others. A person, named Thomas, having seduced the wife of a magistrate, in order to avoid suffering from justice, conspired against the emperor, transported into Europe an army of fourscore thousand barbarians from the banks

banks of the Tigris, and the shores of the Caspian, and having gained two battles over Michael, formed the siege of Constantinople; but his camp being assaulted by a Bulgarian king, Thomas fell into the power of the emperor. The hands and feet of the rebel were amputated; and, mounted on an ass, he was led through the streets of the city, which he sprinkled with his blood.

But Michael was not yet secure from opposition. He had condemned a youth named Euphemius to the loss of his tongue, for stealing a nun from a convent. The gallant escaped, and, appealing to the reason and policy of the Saracens of Africa, soon returned invested with the imperial purple, and supported by a fleet of one hundred ships, and an army of seven hundred horse, and ten thousand foot. The apostate rebel, however, was slain before the walls of Syracuse; and his African friends were rescued from impending danger, by a reinforcement of their Andalusian brethren.

Michael, on the death of his first wife, had drawn from a convent Euphrosyne, the daughter of Constantine the Sixth, who stipulated that her children should equally share the empire with his son Theophilus, but the nuptials of the emperor with his second spouse proved unfruitful, and Euphrosyne was content with the title of the mother of Theophilus, who succeeded his father after a nine-years' reign.

No sooner was Theophilus seated on the throne, than he replaced his mother-in-law in the monastery from whence she was taken; and, either through policy or justice, he punished the murderers of Leo, to whom his father owed the crown. The valour of this emperor, though often felt and acknowledged by his enemies, was rash and generally ineffectual; and his justice, though indisputable, was often arbitrary and cruel. Five times he marched against the Saracens in person; and in his last expedition, he destroyed Sozopetra in Syria, the birth place of the caliph Motassem. The commander of the Faithful was provoked by the insult offered to a place which was naturally dear to him. The troops of Irak, Syria, and Egypt, were recruited from the tribes of the Arabs, the herds of the Turks, and other barbarous nations. The caliph in person commanded the formidable army, and, in the spirit of retaliation, his vengeance fell on Amovium, in Phrygia, the native city of the father of Theophilus. The emperor of the east embraced the generous resolution of defending in a battle the country of his ancestors; but he was compelled to fly before the fury of the invaders; and his army was only saved from a total defeat, by the bravery of the Persian auxiliaries. Amovium was levelled with the ground; and the caliph, tired with devastation, returned to the neighbourhood of Bagdad; while Theophilus, after all his courage and military toils, only derived from them the surname of the Unfortunate.

A Persian of the race of Sassanides, had died in exile at Constantinople; and his son, being educated in the Byzantine court, a Christian and a soldier, received the hand of the emperor's sister, and the command of thirty thousand Persians, who, like his father, had fled before the Mahometan conquerors. These troops wished to place their general on the throne; but the loyal Theophobus rejected their importunity, and escaped from their hands to the palace of his royal brother. Instead, however, of engaging the confidence of the emperor by this disinterested conduct, he excited his jealousy. Theophilus, exasperated by envy, labouring under disease, and fearing that the dangerous virtues of his brother-in-law might oppress the weakness and infancy of his wife and son, demanded the head of his innocent rival. As he received it, "Thou," said he, "art no longer Theophobus;" and, sinking on his couch, he added, "Soon, too soon, I shall be no more Theophilus."

By the testament of Theophilus, his widow Theodora was entrusted with the guardianship of the empire, and her son Michael the Third, then only in the fifth year of his age. Her regency was in general honourable to herself, and advantageous to the people; and had she not punished the Iconoclasts whom her husband had protected, she might have been proposed as a model for good conduct and good sense. During the fourteen years in which she held the reins of government, she almost cleared the empire of that sect, as well as of the Manicheans, who then had risen to considerable power and influence among the heretical sects.

At last, finding her authority decline she retired into solitude, deploring the vices and inevitable ruin of the unworthy youth. However, before she abdicated the throne, she gave a public account of her administration to the senate; and in order, if possible, to check the extravagance of her son, she made known what considerable sums she left in the treasury. She then, with her three daughters, bade an adieu to the court; but the undutiful Michael caused her to be shut up in a monastery, where she soon after died of chagrin.

The emperor, now emancipated from all control, gave himself up to unbounded licentiousness; and in a short time wasted the accumulated treasures which he had received from his mother. He delighted in the amusements of the theatre, and devoted himself to the unrestrained indulgence of lust and intemperance. Continually surrounded with buffoons and wretches, destitute of any sense of honour or virtue, he turned the most sacred things into ridicule. Some of his loose companions would dress themselves in the vestments worn by priests on solemn occasions, and in these habiliments, imitate the ceremonies of the church, with equal folly and impiety.

Whilst the emperor passed his life in such disgraceful scenes, his uncle Bardas, who had been instrumental in corrupting him, ruled with the most despotic authority, under the title of Cæsar; but Michael beginning to suspect him of aiming at the sovereignty, not only in power but also in name, he procured his assassination. As the indulgence, however, of his ease and his vices required that he should have some one on whom he might devolve the cares and fatigues of government, he selected Basil, his great chamberlain, a man of very low original fortune, but of a prepossessing appearance, and very dexterous in his exercises.

This man first attracted the notice of Bardas by his skill and agility in breaking colts, and through him gained admission into the emperor's household, in which he rose to the highest offices; yet, with the blackest ingratitude, it was he who instilled into Michael those suspicions which cost his benefactor his life. In return, the emperor not only raised Basil to the dignity of Cæsar, but also appointed him his colleague. In this capacity Basil applied himself to reform the abuses of government, and even endeavoured to correct the vicious habits of the emperor; but being apprised that Michael was become weary of such a censor of his actions, and that in consequence he meditated to take him off, the associate in the empire entered the royal chamber in the hours of sleep and intoxication, and slew the son of Theophilus in the thirtieth year of his age.

Though this crime cannot be palliated or any pretence, BASIL removed a tyrant who disgraced his station; and in himself gave the empire a just and moderate governor.

His solid praise is drawn from the ruined state of his kingdom at his accession, and its flourishing condition at his death. His application was indefatigable, his temper cool, and his understanding vigorous and decisive. He raised men only on account of their merit; and allowed all his subjects, of whatever rank, to address him with freedom, which endeared him so much to them, that they regarded him as a common father, while they revered him as their emperor.

Though not endowed with the talents of a warrior, the Roman arms, under his reign, were again formidable to the barbarians; but his principal fame was derived from the civil administration of the finances and the laws. Basil, however, had nearly been guilty of a crime which would for ever have stained his memory. His son Leo being falsely accused of an attempt to assassinate him, in the first paroxysm of his rage, he intended to deprive him of his sight, but afterwards was satisfied with confining him. The courtiers in general being convinced of the prince's innocence, continually importuned the emperor to set him at liberty, but without effect; and to get rid of their applications, he forbade his son to

to be named in his presence. One day, however, while he was conversing with one of his principal officers, a parrot, which had often heard a regret expressed for the unhappy prince, on a sudden broke out with, "Alas! poor Leo." The incident was improved by the solicitude of Leo's friends; and the emperor at last consented to his liberation. For this prince he afterwards wrote excellent rules of government, comprised in sixty-six chapters.

The glorious reign of Basil was terminated by an accident in the chace. A furious stag entangled his horns in the girdle of the emperor, and raised him from his horse. He was immediately rescued by the courage and activity of an attendant; but the fall, or consequent fever, exhausted the strength of the aged monarch, and he expired amidst the tears of his family and people, in the nineteenth year of his reign.

Constantine, the eldest son of Basil, had died before his father; Stephen, the youngest, was content with the honours of a patriarch and a saint; and Leo and Alexander, the two other sons, were alike invested with the purple; but the power was solely executed by the elder brother, LEO the Sixth, surnamed the Philosopher. The only reason, however, that can be given for applying this sage appellation to him is, that he was less ignorant than the generality of his contemporaries, and that several books of profane and ecclesiastical science were composed in his name, or by his pen.

In his three first nuptial alliances he was unfortunate. His empresses died successively, without leaving him any issue. Leo required a female companion, and the empire a legitimate heir; but a fourth marriage was a scandal as yet unknown in the Christian church, and his forming a matrimonial union with the beautiful Zoe, who, as a concubine, had brought him a son, named Constantine, occasioned a schism among the Greek ecclesiastics. The patriarch refused his benediction, and even the people took part in the idle dispute; but matters being accommodated, Leo retained his fourth wife Zoe, and procured her son to be legitimated.

During the greater part of this reign, war was carried on with the Saracens by his generals, who experienced various success. As for the emperor himself, he was busied with the government of the interior, and with literary pursuits. His reign, which lasted twenty-five years, with some few exceptions, was advantageous to the people.

Leo, when expiring, had abjured his brother Alexander, to whom he bequeathed the crown, to hold it only in charge for his nephew, Constantine; but the uncle soon formed the horrid design of rendering him incapable of wearing it, by castration. The young prince, however, was saved from this destiny, by its being represented to Alexander, that from his constitution he was not likely to be long-lived. Fortunately, the excesses of the uncle abridged his own existence; but in the space of one year he had rendered himself equally despicable and detestable.

CONSTANTINE the Seventh derived the appellation of Porphyrogenitus from the apartment of the Byzantine palace, which was reserved for the use of the empresses when in parturition, and was lined with porphyry, or purple. On his father's death he was but six years old, and therefore, for a long time, was rather a spectator than an actor on the public stage. His uncle had left him in the hands of guardians better qualified and more likely to corrupt than to form him to virtue. They at the same time exercised the office of regents; but the senate dismissed them, and Zoe, the mother of the young prince, who had been removed to a distance, being invited to return, assumed the reins of government. Scarcely, however, had she entered on her administration, when the Bulgarians, the perpetual enemies of the Greeks, by their daring irruptions, obliged Zoe to raise troops against them, which she committed to two generals, ROMANUS and Leo. These were no sooner placed at the head of the army, than they conceived the design of seizing on the empire for themselves, or dividing it with Constantine; but the traitors disagreeing, and being jealous of each other's success, the faction of Romanus obtained the ascendancy, which was immediately shewn by causing the eyes of Leo to be put out, and marrying the daughter of the successful general to Constantine. At the same time Romanus procured from the emperor the appointment of his son Christopher to be head of the allies, then the chief support of the empire. He next assumed the title of Cæsar himself, and soon after that of emperor, with the full independence of royalty, which he held near five-and-twenty years.

The three sons of the usurper were successively adorned with the same honours, and the lawful emperor was degraded from the first to the fifth rank in this college of princes; but his studious temper and retired habits disarmed the jealousy of Romanus Lecapenus; and the grandson of Basil, with an equanimity and industry not usual among those who are born to elevated stations, and have afterwards fallen into disgrace, improved a scanty allowance by his skill as an artist, and by the exhibition and sale of his pictures.

The fall of Lecapenus was occasioned partly by his own vices, but more particularly by the follies and crimes of his children. After the decease of Christopher, his eldest son, the two surviving brothers quarrelled with each other, but afterwards united in a conspiracy against their father. They surprised him in his palace, and dressing him in the habit of a monk, conveyed him to a small island in the Propontis, which had been assigned to a religious community. This domestic and unnatural revolution excited a tumult, from the effects of which Constantine Porphyrogenitus was restored to the throne; and the sons of Romanus, by a decree of equal-handed justice, were sent to the same island to which they had previously transported their father, and were obliged to assume the sacerdotal character, as a security against fresh conspiracies.

In the fortieth year of his age, Constantine the Seventh obtained the full possession of the empire of the East. Naturally indolent, and somewhat addicted to intemperance, he relinquished the reins of government to the caprice of his wife Helena, the daughter of the banished Romanus; yet the birth, the connections, the learning, and innocence of Constantine, endeared him to the Greeks, and he was lamented by the unfeigned tears of his subjects. His death was imputed to poison, administered by his son Romanus. This monster presented a poisoned cup to his father; but the emperor's foot slipping as he raised the draught to his lips, he spilt a considerable part of it, and thus prevented an instant death, though it laid the foundation of a lingering dissolution.

ROMANUS, however, who derived his name from his maternal grandfather, was allowed to mount the throne, A. D. 959; and his conduct as emperor did not alter the opinion that his parricidal attempt had created. He appears to have been one of the most debauched princes exhibited in the fertile annals of infamy. Whilst his two brothers, Nicephorus and Leo, triumphed over the Saracens, the hours of Romanus were devoted to the amusements of the circus, and the sensualities of the table. Though in strength and beauty he was distinguished above other men, yet these perfections were insufficient to fix the affections of Theophano, his wife, a woman of low origin, masculine spirit, and flagitious manners, well according with those of her husband. After he had reigned four years, she mingled for the emperor the same deadly potion which he had composed for his father, and he fell a martyr to its effects. Romanus the Second, in order to pursue his pleasures without interruption, had delegated his principal authority to his great chamberlain Joseph, a simple and credulous man, who continued for some time to conduct the administration of affairs in the name of Theophano, and the sons of the late emperor; but was afterwards immured, by a successful rival, within the walls of a convent, where he soon paid the debt of nature.

Romanus had left two sons, Basil and Constantine, and two daughters, Theophano and Anne. The eldest was given in marriage to the second emperor of the West; and the youngest became the wife of Wolodomir, great duke and apostle of Russia. After the death of her husband, Theophano found it in vain to endeavour to reign with the assistance

ance of the mild and simple Joseph; and conscious of the necessity of a protector, in the selection of whom she was no doubt led by private inclination, threw herself into the arms of NICEPHORUS Phocas, who united, in the popular opinion, the double merit of a hero and a saint. But, though in the former character his qualifications were genuine and splendid, and required no borrowed aids, his religion was only assumed as a mask to conceal his real designs, and to catch the favours of the bigoted and the weak. He affected a desire to resign the command of the army with which he had been entrusted, and to retire from the world into the solitude of a convent; but being easily persuaded to abandon both designs, which he had only professed in order to ascertain his interest with the people, he marched to Constantinople, openly avowed his connection with the empress, and without degrading her sons, or pretending to invalidate their claims, assumed the title of Augustus, with the pre-eminence of power. A reign of six years rendered him odious to his subjects, and served to develope his hypocrisy and avarice; yet it must be allowed that Nicephorus was more anxious to apply the revenue to the public use than to his private gratification: every spring he marched against the Saracens; and the taxes seem to have been expended in securing the barriers of the East, or in extending their limits.

An act of ingratitude hastened the destruction of Nicephorus. John ZIMISCES, a noble Armenian, of uncommon stature, strength, and beauty, and possessing the soul of a hero, had essentially contributed to the elevation of the emperor; but instead of being rewarded for his services, he had experienced disgrace and exile. Zimisces, however, had the honour or infamy to be ranked among the lovers of the empress, and by her intercession, he was permitted to reside in the vicinity of the capital. This unprincipled woman, being as much tired of the husband as the people were of the emperor, entered into Zimisces' design of revenge; and in person opened the chamber door of Nicephorus to the conspirators, who massacred him without opposition. The death of the emperor was heard without the smallest emotion of pity or regret, and the Armenian was duly proclaimed emperor of the East; but the patriarch having enjoined him a public penance for the murder of his predecessor, he threw the whole blame on Theophano; and in order to shew his justice, or perhaps to be freed from such a dangerous associate, he banished her to a monastery in Armenia, and admitted her two sons, Basil and Constantine, as his partners in the empire.

A competition soon arose in the person of Bardas Phocas, a nephew of the late emperor; but his partisans deserting him without trying their strength by a battle, the pretender obtained his life from the clemency of Zimisces, and was only confined to the isle of Chios.

The personal valour and activity of the new emperor were signalized on the Danube and the Tigris; and by his double triumph over the Russians and Saracens, he deserved the title of the conqueror of the East and the saviour of the empire. On his return, however, from these conquests, observing superb palaces and well-cultivated lands on his road, belonging to the eunuch Basil, who had greatly enriched himself during the two preceding reigns, with the blunt sincerity of a soldier, he exclaimed, "What, must the Roman empire then be abandoned to the rapacity of an insolent eunuch?" This expression cost him his life: a cup of poison was administered to him, the effects of which he speedily felt, but he suffered no inquiry to be made respecting the agents in this business, which, to the disgrace of human nature, was now become fashionable. Zimisces employed the short space that he survived the fatal draught in acts of piety and political regulations; and, nominating Basil and Constantine for his successors, died universally lamented, in the ninth year of his reign.

Whether the execrable Theophano had any share in the death of Zimisces is unknown; but it is certain she partook of the advantages resulting from it. The eunuch Basil recalled her, in hopes of reigning with her in the names of the two princes, the eldest of whom was now nineteen, and the other seventeen years of age. The premature death of Zimisces, who faithfully administered the empire, without violating the right of succession, seems to have been a loss rather than a benefit to the sons of Romanus. They fell into hands less able to protect them, without yet having acquired sufficient experience to protect themselves. Constantine continued to indulge the pleasures of youth, and to reject the cares of government; but his elder brother soon began to feel the impulse of genius, and the desire of honourable activity. Constantinople and the provinces acknowledged the authority of Basil; but Asia was oppressed by two veteran generals, Phocas and Selerus, who set up for independence. The death of the first, however, in front of battle, and the submission of the last at the foot of the throne, confirmed the sovereign power of Basil, who displayed his valour in frequent expeditions against the Saracens, and by the final destruction of the kingdom of Bulgaria. On this occasion, it is related of him, that having taken a great number of prisoners, he divided them into companies of an hundred each, caused all their eyes to be put out, and ordered them to be conducted to Samuel their king, by a man who had one eye left. This horrid spectacle so overcame the king of the Bulgarians, that he fainted away, and died two days afterwards. In short, whatever praise may be bestowed on the valour of Basil, he was as much detested by his subjects as he was feared by his enemies. In the sixty-eighth year of his age, his martial spirit, still unexhausted, prompted him to undertake a war in person against the Saracens in Sicily; but he was prevented by death; and he expired amidst the blessings of the clergy and the curses of the people.

His weak and dissipated brother, CONSTANTINE the Ninth, survived him about three years, and employed his power and time in settling the succession of the empire, and studiously overthrowing all the plans of his brother, whose ministers he displaced, and substituted in their room the companions of his own excesses. It is said that as he drew near his end, and began to feel some anxiety concerning the succession, he sent for Romanus, to whom he had left the empire, and made him the following alternative: "Take your choice, of either repudiating your wife, marrying one of my daughters, and being proclaimed emperor, or of having your eyes put out." His wife sacrificed herself for the sake of her husband, by retiring into a monastery; and ROMANUS espoused Zoe, the second daughter of Constantine, only three days before the death of that worthless emperor.

In the tenth century, which was now elapsed, the provinces that still acknowledged the authority of the successors of Constantine, had been cast into a new mould by the institution of the *themes*, or military governments; but of these twenty-nine *themes*, twelve in Europe and seventeen in Asia, the origin is obscure, and the limits were fluctuating. The victories of Nicephorus, John Zimisces, and Basil the Second, had enlarged the boundaries of the Roman name; but in the eleventh century the prospect was clouded by new enemies and new misfortunes. The relics of Italy were swept away by the Norman adventurers, and almost all the Asiatic branches were dissevered from the Roman trunk by the Turkish conquerors. Still the spacious provinces of Thrace, Macedonia, and Greece, were obedient to their sceptre; the possession of Cyprus, Rhodes, and Crete, with the fifty islands of the Ægean, or holy sea, remained to them, and the rest of the empire, with all its defalcations, equalled the largest of the modern European kingdoms.

Romanus Argyrus, signalized his humanity by emancipating the poor captives, the number of whom had been excessively multiplied by continual wars. After giving each a sufficient sum of money to support him on his journey, he dismissed him to his own country, and thus spread his fame over the most distant nations. His liberality to the monasteries, which he enriched with magnificent ornaments, has also been greatly praised by ecclesiastical writers. In short, his whole conduct evinced him to be a prince of piety and moral goodness, but it was his misfortune to be married

ried to Zoe. This abandoned woman had admitted to the pleasures of her bed, Michael, a handsome Paphlagonian, brother to the eunuch John, who was the emperor's favourite. Zoe soon justified the Roman maxim, that every adulteress is capable of poisoning her husband: the dose she gave him, however, was too slow in its effects; and therefore she suborned a wretch to hold his head under water in the bath till he was drowned, in the sixth year of his reign. While Romanus was expiring, the infamous Zoe sent, in his name, for the patriarch, whom she addressed, on his introduction, in these words: "The emperor is dead;—to prevent all commotion, marry me therefore immediately to Michael, whom you see." The pontiff at first hesitated; but a liberal douceur vanquished his scruples; and Zoe, scarcely a widow, was consigned to the arms of a new husband.

The whole system of government, and the principal agents in the administration, were now changed. The ministers of Romanus were either deprived or banished, and their places were filled by the creatures of the eunuch John, who now seized on the entire authority. Zoe herself was not exempted from the effects of the eunuch's jealousy for the support of his usurped power: those attendants of her person, in whom she had the greatest confidence, were displaced, and others substituted in their room, who were wholly in the interest of John. But a more capital cause of disgust, to a woman of her temperament, was to find that she had only exchanged one devotee for another. Michael, tormented by remorse of conscience, thought only of expiating, by acts of piety and penitence, the crime which had raised him to the throne. Besides, he was afflicted with epileptic fits, which impaired his reason, and rendered him unfit even for nominal sway. An obscure nephew of John's, named Michael Calaphates, was therefore adopted by Zoe, and associated in the empire. To him the diadem descended, after it had been worn nearly eight years by his uncle.

In the elevation of his nephew, the eunuch John seems to have ill consulted the temper of the person he had made his master. At the instigation of Zoe, Calaphates banished both him and another uncle, named Constantine; and soon after, the empress being accused of having employed magic against his own person, she was confined in a monastery. The disgrace of the eunuch was grateful to the public; but the exile of Zoe excited a tumult, which continued for three days. Zoe was in consequence restored, and with her eldest sister, Theodora, who had led a religious life, was placed on the throne. Meanwhile Michael, in order to escape notice, sunk into the cloister, after having worn the purple for four months; nor was the empress satisfied with his voluntary degradation, but insisted on having his eyes put out, which was accordingly put in execution.

For the space of two months the royal sisters gave audience to the ambassadors, and presided in the senate. Theodora remained averse to marriage; but being called upon by her subjects to give them an emperor, from the various pretenders which arose, she preferred CONSTANTINE, surnamed MONOMACHUS, a man of illustrious birth, and agreeable person, and to him she gave her hand for the third time.

MONOMACHUS governed with wisdom and prudence; and with as much good fortune as the incursions of the barbarians, with which the empire was continually harassed, would allow. His health was early broken by the gout: and the most memorable transaction of his reign, was his dividing, with the consent of Zoe, the nuptial bed, with a widow named Selerena. He survived both his wives; and perhaps might have lived some years longer, had not Theodora, on the demise of her sister, caused herself to be proclaimed empress. This bold step so agitated the weakened frame of Constantine the Tenth, that he fainted on hearing it, and died in the thirteenth year of his reign.

Theodora filled the throne she had thus assumed with honour and dignity: her wisdom in the choice of ministers and generals; her impartiality in the distribution of justice, as well as the moderation with which she exerted her authority, gained her the love of her people and the respect of surrounding nations. But being advanced in years, she did not long enjoy the imperial dignity; and on her death-bed, by the advice of her counsellors, she left the sceptre to Michael Stratioticus, a deerepid veteran, who seems to have had few qualifications to recommend him, except a flexibility of temper, which was likely to render him subservient to the views of ministry.

STRATIOTICUS, by his feeble government and imprudent conduct, soon raised himself up a dangerous rival. Instead of conciliating the generals and soldiery as his chief support, he was little cautious to avoid giving them offence. In consequence of their disgust and disaffection to the ruling emperor, they began to look about for another; and elected one of their own number, whom they designed to place on the throne the first favourable opportunity: and so great was the negligence or the infatuation of the existing government, that the secret was kept many months, till fully matured among the accomplices. At last it was divulged; and the court heard with astonishment, that the greatest part of the troops of the empire were assembled in a large plain, with a new emperor at their head.

Stratioticus, however, or rather those who ruled in his name, collected a sufficient army to venture a battle, the issue of which was unpropitious to him, and ISAAC COMNENUS, who had been raised by the military, immediately after marched towards Constantinople, and his power was confirmed by the sanction of the senate.

The family of Comnenus, who now ascended the throne of the East, had been long transported from Italy into Asia. His father Manuel, in the reign of the second Basil, had been very instrumental in appeasing the troubles of the empire. He left, in a tender age, two sons, Isaac and John, whom he bequeathed to the gratitude of the sovereign. The youths were carefully educated, and rapidly advanced to the command of armies, and the government of provinces. This fraternal union doubled their commendation, and promoted their mutual interest. The first care of Isaac after his exaltation, was to reward those who had raised him, and his next to replenish the exhausted coffers of the state. To effect this, he loaded the people with heavy taxes, which, being unprecedented, excited loud murmurs. He then fleeced the clergy, and this aggravated his offence. The patriarch, who ventured to complain, was displaced and banished; but the emperor finding his health decline soon after his succession, was admonished to provide a successor. Instead, however, of leaving the throne as a marriage portion to his daughter, his reason decided the preference of his brother John; but the obstinate refusal of John, at last induced him to nominate Constantine Ducas, a friend of the Comnenian house; and Isaac, having reigned only a few months, retired to a monastery, where he passed the short remainder of his days, in exercises of piety and devotion. A. D. 1059.

CONSTANTINE the Eleventh, surnamed DUCAS, but ill approved the discernment of Isaac. He suffered the taxes to remain a cause of discontent and complaint, which became the more urgent, as it did not appear that the extraordinary levies contributed to the happiness of the people. The emperor was continually harassed by invasions: the Turks were become truly formidable; and Ducas, instead of repulsing them by his armies, endeavoured to buy off their hostility by donations to their generals. These received his presents; and, as may reasonably be supposed, soon returned to extort more, by new ravages.

In this manner Ducas held the reins of government for upwards of five years, when, being reduced to the last extremity by an incurable disease, he left the empire to his three sons, MICHAEL, ANDRONICUS, and CONSTANTINE, who had been invested with the equal title of Augustus, at an early age; and named their mother, the empress Eudocia, regent during their minority, after having obliged her to take an oath never to enter again into the state of matrimony.

Two very potent motives, love and necessity, in the space of a few months obliged the empress to violate her vow. The discontented and ambitious, taking advantage of some public

public disasters, occasioned by the Turks, openly declared that the present state of the empire required the government of a hero, and not of a weak and timid woman. Among these declaimers appeared Romanus Diogenes, a man of an agreeable person and an illustrious birth. But Diogenes did not rest content with declamations;—he accompanied his words by his actions, and in consequence was accused of aiming at the sovereignty. Being brought before Eudocia to receive sentence of death for his treasonable designs, the empress was moved with compassion at the sight of a person who appeared too amiable in her eyes to be guilty of the imputed crime; and therefore, she not only pardoned him, but placed him at the head of her armies, and formed the design of admitting him as the partner of her empire and bed. Already, in her own heart, she had dispensed with her oath; and to conciliate all parties, it was only necessary to obtain the same indulgence from the patriarch John Xiphilin.

To him she dispatched a trusty eunuch, who in pretended confidence imparted to him, that the empress having fallen deeply in love with his nephew Bardas, was determined to marry him, and to divide with him the imperial authority, provided he would annul the oath she had taken, and persuade the senate of the propriety of her conduct. The patriarch dazzled with the idea of seeing his nephew invested with the purple, by his animated representations of the afflicted state of the empire, and by inveighing against the fatal effects of the rash oath extorted by the jealousy of the deceased emperor, easily obtained the concurrence of the senate in his views. He then publicly restored to Eudocia the written oath of which he had been the depositary, and exhorted her to espouse some person who might have power and abilities to protect the royal family and the empire.

She heard with the most flattering attention, promised to weigh his arguments, and a few days after, to the astonishment of the duped pontiff, married Romanus Diogenes, and caused him to be proclaimed emperor. The friends of the young princes were diverted from opposing this step by the tears of Eudocia, and the assurances of the fidelity of the new guardian. The fortune of war, however, soon threw Romanus into the hands of Axan, the sultan of the Turks, which inflicted a deadly wound on the monarchy of the East. The sultan, indeed, treated him with every attention that could alleviate misfortune; and concluded with him a peace on as liberal terms as if he had been at liberty: but when Romanus obtained his release from his generous conqueror, he vainly sought for his wife and his subjects. The former had been thrust into a monastery by the influence of John Ducas, her brother-in-law, who proclaimed the eldest of his nephews; and the latter embraced the rigid maxim of the civil law, which declared, "That a prisoner in the hands of his enemy is deprived of all the public and private rights of a Roman citizen." The fruitless enterprizes of Romanus to regain his throne were succeeded by submission; but, contrary to the faith of his capitulation, he was poisoned, and the poison acting too slowly, his eyes were put out in so cruel a manner that he died a few days after, in the fourth year of his reign. A.D. 1071.

Under the triple reign of the house of Ducas, the two younger brothers were reduced to the vain honours of the purple; while Michael the elder, surnamed Parapinaces, was so extremely indolent, that he left the whole power in the hands of John his uncle, which he secured by displacing or driving into exile all such as were capable of opposing him. This arbitrary mode of proceeding raised him many enemies. The Turks, who no longer contented themselves with irruptions on the frontiers, but had formed establishments in various parts of the empire, now found themselves called in by the different factions, whose discords they fomented, and thus gained a permanent footing. Ruselius, a native of Gaul, obtained several advantages over them; and this, reinforced by the weakness of the government which he served, inspired him with the resolution of declaring himself emperor. Alexius Comnenus, a young officer, but already advantageously known by his victories, was sent against him, and this rebellion was quelled by the captivity of Ruselius.

Soon after, however, two generals of the same name of Nicephorus, but distinguished by the surnames of Bryennius and Botaniates, placed themselves at the head of the European and Asiatic legions, and assumed the purple, the one at Adrianople, the other at Nice. Bryennius soon displayed his standards before the gates of Constantinople; but instead of meeting with support, as he expected, his troops were repulsed by the inhabitants: while Botaniates, advancing with slow and cautious steps, was received with the acclamations of the people, and the approbation of the senate. The feeble emperor preferred resigning the crown to the perpetual fatigues of defending it; and was rewarded with a monastic habit, and the title of archbishop of Ephesus. He left a son, Constantine, born and educated in the purple; and a daughter of the family of Ducas afterwards intermarried with, and confirmed the succession of the Comnenian dynasty.

Alexius, whose history will now deserve to be detailed, the nephew of the emperor Isaac, and the third son of John Comnenus, who had refused the imperial sceptre, was one of the last who deserted the cause of Michael, and probably would have preserved his fidelity longer, had not that emperor made a voluntary resignation of his power. In his first interview with Botaniates, "Prince," said Alexius, "my duty rendered me your enemy; the decrees of God and the people have made me your subject: judge of my future loyalty by my past opposition." The successor of Michael heard him with complacency, and entertained him with esteem and confidence. The soldiers, who had been gradually assembled in the vicinity of the capital, devoted themselves to the cause of a gallant and injured general; and Alexius, with the applause of the army, and by the generous consent of his elder brother, was invested with the imperial purple. Constantinople was surprised; and the aged Botaniates, yielding to the advice of the patriarch Cosmas, resigned the empire rather than suffer the capital to be stained with Christian blood. Proceeding to the principal church, he deposited his imperial robes on the altar, and from thence retired to a cloister, where he assumed the habit of a monk.

The article CROISADE has already, in great measure, anticipated what belongs to the present period of our history; and under ARABIA, all that is interwoven with the Roman history of the Saracens, has received due notice.—In the former of those articles, the care with which Alexius divided the crusaders, and the timid, though prudent policy which he observed towards them in general, have been mentioned. After the fanatic warriors of the cross had conquered and quarrelled, the cautious policy of the emperor of the east possessed him of several advantages. He had early secured Nice; and the Turks, menaced from that important station, evacuated the vicinity of Constantinople; while the imperial banner was soon displayed from the isles of Rhodes and Chios; and from the Hellespont to the banks of the Mæander, and the rocky shores of Pamphylia, the authority of the emperor was once more restored.

The murmurs of the Latins, however, loudly accused the conduct and sincerity of Comnenus; they had sworn allegiance to him in hopes of protection, but his selfish desertion of them implied a dissolution of the obligation. The power of the sultans had been shaken by successive victories; they retired to Iconium, three hundred miles from the walls of Constantinople; and the first crusade may justly be said to have delayed the fall of the declining empire of the East.

The disorders of the times at once formed the glory and the misfortune of Alexius. At the head of his armies, he was bold in action, skilful in stratagem, patient of fatigue, ready to improve his advantages, and rising from his defeat with inexhaustible vigour. In his intercourse with the Latins he was subtle and discerning; and he balanced, with superior policy, the interests and the passions of the champions of the first crusade; but the long duration and severity of his reign, wearied the patience of Constantinople, and before Alexius expired, he had lost the love and reverence of his subjects.

Even the sincerity of his moral and religious virtues seems to have been suspected by those who had the best opportunities of appreciating his character, from familiar intercourse. When pressed by his wife Irene and his daughter Anna, in his last hours, to alter the succession in favour of his son-in-law Bryennius, he breathed a pious ejaculation on the vanity of the world, but remained firm to the interest of his son John; on which the indignant empress replied, "You die as you have lived,—an hypocrite."

JOHN, the elder son of Alexius, succeeded to the throne, A. D. 1118; and in him the claims of primogeniture and merit were happily united. His younger brother Isaac was content with the title of Sebastocrator, which approached the dignity, without encroaching on the powers of the emperor. Feared by his nobles, and beloved by his people, John abolished the penalty of death in all judicial proceedings; and by his virtues seemed to revive the character of Marcus Antonius. His only defect, and it was enough to tarnish the lustre of all his other good qualities, was an inordinate love of arms, which the noblest minds, however, indulge without reflecting on its fatal consequences. He was frequently engaged with the Turks, Scythians, Servians, and Huns; and made himself master of the kingdom of Armenia. From Constantinople to Antioch and Aleppo, he frequently marched at the head of a victorious army: and the Latins were astonished at the superior spirit and prowess of a Greek. As he was preparing for new conquests, in hunting a wild boar, a poisoned arrow from his quiver wounded his hand, and proved fatal to the best and greatest of the Comnenian princes, in the twenty-fifth year of his reign.

John left two sons, Isaac and Manuel, but his impartial judgment decided in favour of the youngest, Manuel, and his choice was ratified by the approbation of the soldiers. Isaac soon acquiesced in the determination, and acquired the title of Sebastocrator.

The long reign of Manuel was filled by a perpetual warfare against the Turks, the Christians, and the hordes of the desert beyond the Danube; of which different details have already been given in another part of this work.

Manuel had a cousin named Andronicus, who made a remarkable figure at this time. He was dexterous in the use of arms, incapable of fear, and possessed of a ready eloquence. In his youth, as he followed the retreat of the Roman army, he was surprised by the Turks, and remained some time in the power of the sultan. Both his virtues and his vices recommended him to the partial affections of his cousin; he shared his perils and participated in his pleasures; and while the emperor lived in public incest with his niece Theodora, the regard of his sister Eudocia was enjoyed by Andronicus: but a treasonable correspondence with the king of Hungary and the emperor of Germany, roused the indignation of Manuel, and procured him an imprisonment of twelve years. At the expiration of this period, Andronicus escaped from his confinement, and traversing several savage and inhospitable countries, reached Kiow, the residence of the Russian prince. In this remote region, he deserved the forgiveness of Manuel, by persuading his patron to join the arms of the emperor in the invasion of Hungary. At the head of the Russian cavalry, Andronicus marched from the Borysthenes to the Danube, and by his valour obtained a free pardon.

His patriotism, however, in refusing an oath of allegiance to the presumptive heir of the empire, again brought Andronicus under the displeasure of Manuel; and by seducing Philippa, the sister of the empress, he excited his resentment. With a band of desperate adventurers, Andronicus now undertook the pilgrimage of Jerusalem, where he captivated the affections of the young and beautiful widow of Baldwin III. king of Jerusalem. Driven from Palestine, he retired, with his wife and his banditti, among the Turks of Asia Minor, and at length implored the clemency, and received a pardon from the emperor. But the just suspicion of Manuel fixed the residence of his daring and ambitious relative at Oenoe, a town of Pontus.

The emperor feeling his end approaching, assumed the monastic habit, which he considered as expiatory of the profligacy in which he had passed a long life; and on his death left the crown to his son Alexius, a boy of twelve years of age, and consequently without vigour or wisdom. The disorders of the state opened the fairest field to the ambition of Andronicus, of which he speedily availed himself. The empress Maria had abandoned her person and government to one of her husband's favourites; her daughter-in-law, also named Maria, had excited an insurrection; a civil war was kindled in Constantinople; the most respectable patriots called aloud for a guardian and avenger of the young emperor; and every tongue repeated the praises of Andronicus.

Arrived near Constantinople, all opposition sunk before him; and the Byzantine navy sailed from the harbour to receive and transport the saviour of the empire. On his entering the imperial city, his first cares were to salute the emperor, to confine Maria, to punish his minister, and to restore public order and tranquillity. Alexius was crowned with due solemnity; but the adherents of Andronicus were taught to clamour, that the Romans could only be saved by a veteran prince, bold in arms, skilful in policy, and instructed to reign by the long experience of fortune and of mankind. Alexius, therefore, was doomed to receive a colleague, who soon degraded him from the first rank; condemned and executed his mother; and at last strangled the helpless and unfortunate youth in the fifteenth year of his age.

The usurper now destroyed, without distinction, all whom he believed attached to the family of Alexius, or capable of avenging his death. Scarcely a day passed unsullied by some cruel execution, and in a short time the flower of the nobility was exterminated; yet the reckless tyrant complained of the severity of his fortune, which prevented him shewing his clemency, and with an apparent zeal for religion, was a hypocrite deliberately cruel. After participating in the holy mysteries, he would turn from the altar, and give orders for torture and assassination. The people at length grew tired of the bloody spectacle; and their detestation was at last roused to action. Isaac Angelus, a descendant in the female line from the great Alexius, had fled from the imperial executioner, and taken refuge in the church of St. Sophia. The lamentations of the crowd, who had sought the same sanctuary, were soon converted into curses: the city burst into a general sedition; the name of Isaac was re-echoed by innumerable acclamations; and Andronicus, deserted by his guards, after in vain attempting to save himself by sea, was abandoned to the rage of the populace. His teeth, his hair, an eye, and a hand, were successively torn from him; and being suspended for three days, every person who could reach the public enemy inflicted on him some mark of ingenious or brutal cruelty, till at length two Italians, out of mercy or rage, plunging their swords into his body, released him from all human punishment. Andronicus was seventy-three years old when he seized the throne, and in two years after he was precipitated from it by this cruel death.

Isaac Angelus gained the affections of the common people by his gentleness and moderation; and by recalling the banished, and raising several families which had fallen from their ancient splendour, he ingratiated himself with the great. He received the reward of his benevolence in the attachment evinced by his subjects on the revolt of Branas, one of his generals, who besieged him in Constantinople. The emperor, who was no warrior, devoutly recommended himself to the prayers of the monks, and placing an image of the virgin on the summit of the walls, remained quietly in his palace; but a leader of the crusades, the marquis of Montserrat, soon convinced him that these precautions were ineffectual to his safety; and Isaac mustering resolution from necessity, put himself at the head of the inhabitants, and killed Branas with his own hands.

Five years after the accession of Isaac, the third crusade was undertaken; but it was with terror and aversion that the Greeks beheld the numbers and characters of the crusaders. The apprehension of the Turkish powers for a time suspended

suspended their open enmity, but when the sultan was driven to the distant retreat of Iconium, the Byzantine princes more freely expressed their indignation at the frequent passage of the western fanatics, who violated the majesty, and endangered the safety of the empire. Religious zeal inflamed those profane causes of national hatred. Schismatic and heretic were the names applied by the Christians of the East to their brethren of the West; and the Greek clergy in the crusade of Louis VII., washed and purified the altars which had been defiled by the sacrifice of a French priest. In the tumult which raised Andronicus to the throne, the unhappy foreigners were exposed to the unrelenting cruelty of popular fury; and the most grateful sight to the persecutors was the head of a Roman cardinal, the pope's legate, fastened to the tail of a dog, and dragged through the city. The few who escaped, spread over Europe an account of the wealth and weakness, the perfidy and the malice, of the Greeks; and in the sequel, the French and the Venetians were invited, and almost compelled, to achieve what the first crusaders had rejected—the conquest of the empire of the East.

The indolence of the emperor Isaac was almost as intolerable to his subjects as the active vices of his predecessors. His luxury swelled the annual expences of the palace to four millions sterling, while the remains of the Greek empire were daily becoming less. The isle of Cyprus had been usurped by another Isaac of Comnenian line; and by the sword of Richard of England, it was transferred to Guy of Lusignan.

The disastrous and unpopular reign of Isaac at length furnished a pretext to his ungrateful brother Alexius to subvert his throne. The emperor was seized at Stagyra, in Macedonia, conducted to Constantinople, deprived of sight, and shut up in a lonesome tower; while his son Alexius, in the disguise of a common sailor, escaping to an Italian vessel passed the Hellespont, and found a secret refuge in Sicily. As he was traversing Italy on a visit to his sister Irene, wife of Philip, king of the Romans, he heard, with pleasure, that the bravest warriors of the West were assembled at Venice, on a new crusade; and from their swords he implored and hoped the restoration of his father, and the recovery of his own rights.

He attached himself to the crusaders, and was strongly supported by their chiefs. On his part, he promised, in his own and his father's name, that as soon as they were re-seated on the throne of Constantinople, they would submit themselves and their subjects to the Roman church, recompense the crusaders with two hundred thousand marks of silver, and either accompany them in person to Egypt, or maintain a stipulated force for the service of the holy land.

The usurper Alexius had despised the first rumour of his nephew's alliance with the French and Venetians; and in consequence had made no opposition to their approach, which his navy might easily have done. He now beheld, with terror and consternation, their camp pitched in sight of his palace.

Scarcely had the allies thrown themselves on the shore, when the Grecian army vanished from their sight: the tower of Galata, in the suburb of Pera, was stormed by the French; the Venetian fleet broke the chain which guarded the harbour; and a capital, containing nearly half a million of inhabitants, was besieged by 20,000 Latins.

Hunger and scarcity soon prevailed through the camp of the besiegers; and the usurper was animated by the resolution of his son-in-law, Theodore Lascaris, who recalled the pusillanimous Greeks to the defence of their religion, as he knew they were regardless of their country. A breach was made in the walls; but the Franks, attempting to enter it, were oppressed by superior numbers. The naval attack of the Venetians had been more successful: the standard of the republic was already fixed on the rampart, when the aged doge being informed of the distress of his allies, drew off his troops to their support, and found them encompassed by the squadrons of the Greeks. The emperor, dismayed by the approach of succour, withdrew his formidable host; and deserting his family, his people, and his empire, passed the Bosphorus in the night, and reached an obscure harbour in Thrace, carrying with them the imperial ornaments and treasure.

The Greek nobles, as soon as they were apprised of the abdication of Alexius, raised Isaac from the dungeon to the throne; and the confederates, at dawn of day, were surprised by a message from the lawful emperor, who was impatient to embrace his son, and to evince his gratitude to his deliverers.

Isaac cheerfully ratified the engagements which his son had contracted; and the young Alexius, with his father, was solemnly crowned in the church of St. Sophia, A. D. 1203. It was agreed by both parties, that the re-union of the Greek and the Latin church should be left to time and political address; but the pressing wants of the crusaders were relieved by the disembursement of a large sum, and the suburbs of Galata and Pera were assigned for their quarters. By the proper application of 1600 pounds of gold, the young emperor persuaded the confederates to defer the deliverance of the holy land to another year, and engaged the marquis of Mountserrat to attend him with an army in the tour of the provinces; while Baldwin, with the French and Flemish crusaders, awed by their presence the fickle inhabitants of the capital.

The popularity and prosperity of Alexius were of short duration. While he was receiving the homage of distant provinces, the citizens of Constantinople detested him as an apostate, who had renounced the manners and religion of his country for the sake of aggrandizement. His secret covenant with the crusaders was more than suspected: the people were devoutly attached to their mode of faith, and every house resounded with the danger of the church, and the dreaded tyranny of the pontiff of Rome.

On the other hand, the pious fervour of the crusaders was scandalized at the toleration of a Turkish mosque within the walls of Constantinople; and the flames which they kindled for the destruction of that building spread into the thickest and most populous parts of the city. The conscious Latins retired from the indignation of the inhabitants to their station at Pera; and Alexius, on his return, balancing the different claims of patriotism and gratitude, lost the favour of his allies, without securing the affections of his people. The chiefs of the West pressed him with their importunities, and declared, that unless their just claims were fully and immediately satisfied, they would no longer regard him as a sovereign or an ally, but take means of enforcing their demands by arms.

The imperial family was despised in the eyes both of the Greeks and Latins; and the citizens of Constantinople, dreading the impending catastrophe, clamoured round the senate, demanding a more worthy emperor. This disposition among the commonalty engaged John Ducas, of the former imperial house, from the thickness of his eye brows surnamed Murtzuphlus, to attempt usurping the sovereign dignity. In order to effect his design, he prepossessed the young emperor against the Latins, whom he had hitherto protected; and playing off the one party against the other, rendered both odious to the people, and fanned the flame of disaffection. Still, however, he retained the confidence of the young emperor, to whose person his office of great chamberlain gave him easy access. By this faithless minister Alexius was deluded into a dungeon; and the insults which he suffered for some days, were terminated by a cruel death from the hand of Murtzuphlus himself. Isaac Angelus soon followed his unfortunate son to the grave; and as the ostensible views of the traitor were popular, he was immediately proclaimed emperor.

On this shocking tragedy being acted, the French and Venetians, forgetting the cause of their complaints against Alexius, swore revenge against the perfidious Murtzuphlus and his adherents. Yet the doge, with the cool prudence of age, was disposed to negociate, if the usurper would sacrifice the Greek church to the safety of the state; but this being refused, hostilities were resorted to on both sides. After various operations, attended with no decisive effects, the confederates at length had completed their preparations for a general

a general assault. For two days the intrepid crusaders were obliged to yield to superiority of numbers, and the advantages of ground; but on the third, their valour surmounted every obstacle of nature and art, and the banners of the Latins were seen floating on the walls of Constantinople. The Greeks deserted their posts and threw down their arms; and the usurper, hopeless and abandoned, escaped by favour of a small vessel, carrying with him Euphrosyne, widow of Alexius Angelus, and her daughter Eudoxia, for whom he had forsaken his lawful wife. This great revolution took place eight hundred and seventy-four years after the seat of the empire was transferred from Rome to Constantinople.

The fate of the city was singular. It had been erected by Constantine as the capital of the east, and it was taken by the valour of the west, which he had deserted; while the champions of the religion he had established, plundered the palace of the first imperial protector of Christianity. The ornaments which had been transported from Rome to adorn the new metropolis, became the prey of the Latin victors; the sacred vessels of the Greeks were converted into drinking cups; and the churches profaned by the unreflecting zeal of men who considered themselves as the orthodox, but who ought to have respected the temples of their common master.

In this pillage, and the consequent devastation, posterity has to regret the numerous works of art which were defaced or melted down by the gross avarice of the crusaders; the statues of brass, which were coined into money to pay the holy vagrants; and the invaluable works of genius in every branch of literature, which were destroyed by the negligence or contempt of ignorant pilgrims.

The government of Constantinople now assumed for sixty years the title of the LATIN empire. This empire may be considered as confined to that city, and circumscribed within a greater or less extent, according to the successes or the reverses of the Greeks, Turks, and Bulgarians, and even the Latins, who assailed it in all quarters.

The French and Venetians having previously stipulated to divide such possessions as they might conquer, six electors of each nation were named to choose the future emperor of the East. To him the title and prerogatives of the Byzantine throne, with one quarter of the Greek monarchy, were assigned; and it was determined equally to share the three remaining portions between the republic of Venice and the barons of France; but that each feudatory, with an honourable exception in favour of the doge, should acknowledge and perform the duties of homage and military service to the supreme head of the empire.

The twelve electors being assembled, their unanimous voices pronounced Dandolo worthy of the imperial purple; but the venerable patriot was satisfied with the honour of the nomination, and declined the office. Baldwin, count of Flanders and Hainault, was then solemnly proclaimed, and his competitor, the marquis of Montserrat, was the first to kiss the hand of the new sovereign. The Venetians were allowed to nominate a patriarch; and this revolution was confirmed by pope Innocent, while the ambassadors of Baldwin announced his accession to the diadems of Palestine, France and Rome.

Thrace, with an absolute authority over the Greek provinces, was appropriated to the emperor. A moiety of the remainder was reserved for Venice, and the other moiety was distributed among the adventurers of France and Lombardy. The brave and aged Dandalo was proclaimed chief of Romania, and closed his long and glorious career at Constantinople. The Venetians extended their settlements along the coast from Ragusa to the Hellespont, and obtained the isles of the Archipelago. Thessaly was erected into a kingdom for the marquis of Montserrat: the lots of the Latin pilgrims were regulated by chance or choice. Each baron, at the head of his adherents, attempted to secure the possession of his share: numerous quarrels of necessity arose among men whose sole umpire was the sword: and three months after the conquest of Constantinople, the hostile preparations of the empire and the king of Thessalonica were only abandoned, at the powerful mediation of their mutual friends.

After this arrangement, which subverted the ancient abric of the constitution, two persons still remained as the objects of jealousy from their former possession of power. Murtzuphlus was seized, and precipitated from a column 147 feet high; and Alexius, the brother of Isaac, was sent to end his days in a monastery of Asia. Theodorus Lascaris, however, the son-in-law of the latter, a man of signal resolution, having escaped to Anatolia, fixed his residence at Nice, and established his independent authority over Prussia, Philadelphia, Smyrna, and Ephesus. Alexius, the lineal heir of Comneni, had been appointed duke of Trebizond; and, without changing his title, the public confusion allowed him to extend his dominions from Sinope to the Phasis. An illegitimate descendant of the Angeli founded a strong principality in Epirus, Ætolia, and Thessaly; and some of those enumerated independent states reflected a lustre on their rulers and the times.

John, the revolted chief of the Bulgarians and Wallachians, paid an unwilling homage to the Latin conquerors; and finding the Greeks also discontented, he made a common cause with them. No sooner had Henry, the new emperor's brother, conveyed his troops beyond the Hellespont, than the signal of insurrection was given; the Latins were massacred by their slaves; and the furious multitude expelled the French and Venetians from the city of Adrianople. The rapid advance of the Bulgarian chief, at the head of a formidable army of barbarians, increased the general consternation: the emperor recalled his brother; but the ardent spirit of Baldwin not suffering him to wait for his tardy arrival, he attempted the siege of Adrianople, and being precipitated into an action by the rashness of the count of Blois, after an ineffectual display of personal valour, the emperor became the captive of his barbarian foes.

The victors delaying to press their good fortune to the full, the venerable doge and the marshal Villehardouin found means to retire to the sea coast; and the skill and firmness of the latter, in a retreat of three days, did him immortal honour. At Rodosto they were joined by Henry and his troops, who had landed from the Asiatic shore. In the exigency of their affairs, Henry assumed the regency of the empire; and intelligence soon after arriving, that Baldwin had been put to a most cruel death, notwithstanding the powerful interference of his friends to procure his liberation, the regent consented to take upon him the imperial dignity.

Henry mounted a throne encompassed with dangers, and the difficulties with which he was pressed demanded incessant exertion to obviate or remove them. The venerable Dandolo, a warrior to the last, had sunk under the pressure of accumulated years; the king of Thessalonica, in the moment of victory, had been mortally wounded by the Bulgarians; and other friends of the Latin empire were either dead or had lost their influence; yet Henry, unsupported and almost alone, acquired the character of a valiant knight, and a skilful commander.

Ever foremost on shipboard or on horseback, the drooping Latins were roused by his example, or inspired by his presence. The fickle Greeks already repented their connection with John, the tyrant of Bulgaria, who no longer dissembled his intention of transplanting the inhabitants of Thrace beyond the Danube.

The voice of nature called on Henry to revenge his brother's wrongs, and the cries of the unhappy Thracians melted his heart. He took the field against the barbarians; repulsed the Bulgarian monarch, and soon had the satisfaction to find that the ferocious tyrant John was assassinated as he lay in his tent. The Latin emperor, after repeated victories, concluded an honourable peace with the successor of John, and with the Greek princes of Nice and Epirus; but having presumed to curb the insolence and avarice of a domineering clergy, he died after a reign of eleven years, not without the suspicion of poison.

The

The barons of France now raised to the throne Peter of Courtenay, count of Auxerre, cousin to the French king, and brother-in-law to the late emperor. In order to assert his title to the empire of the East, this ambitious prince had mortgaged the best part of his patrimony, and, by the assistance of Philip of France, passed the Alps at the head of a body of knights, and was crowned by the pope Honorius. The Venetians, at that period the carriers of Europe, transported Peter and his forces beyond the Adriatic, on condition that he should recover Durazzo for them, from the despot Theodorus Angelus. The emperor, however, after making an effectual assault on the place, advanced towards Thessalonica; but soon becoming entangled in the mountains of Epirus, he was arrested at a treacherous banquet, by the prince of that country, and terminated a hopeless captivity, either by a natural or violent death.

His eldest son, Philip, preferred his maternal inheritance of Namur to a throne exposed to such a variety of hazards; but the next brother, Robert, with more ambition than prudence, accepted the splendid boon, and was crowned by the patriarch in the cathedral of St. Sophia.

During his calamitous reign, the French were pressed on all sides by the Greeks of Nice and Epirus. Theodorus Angelus expelled the son of Boniface from Thessalonica, and having erected his standard on the walls of Adrianople, assumed the title of emperor. John Vataces, the son-in-law and successor of Theodorus Lascaris, seized the residue of the provinces of Asia: his fleets commanded the Hellespont, and having reduced the islands of Lesbos and Rhodes, attacked the Venetians of Candia, and intercepted the succours of the West.

The unhappy Robert, at once oppressed by public misfortunes and personal wrongs, found refuge only in the grave, from the intolerable weight of his calamities. He died after an unfortunate reign of nine years, during which he enjoyed the single satisfaction of taking prisoner the despot Theodorus, his father's enemy, whose eyes he caused to be put out.

Baldwin of Courtenay, had been born during the captivity of his father Peter, and was now only eight years of age. Though dear to the barons of Romania, they saw the impolicy of investing a child with the purple in such a critical situation of affairs, and therefore conferred that honour on John de Brienne, the titular king of Jerusalem; on condition that Baldwin should marry his second daughter, and succeed, at a mature age, to the throne of Constantinople.

The age of Brienne exceeded fourscore years, nor had time impaired his faculties, or diminished the military reputation of his youthful years. Yet the commencement of his reign was spent in tranquil repose, till he was aroused by the formidable alliance of Vataces, emperor of Nice, and of Azan, king of Bulgaria. At the head of his army, the aged hero sallied from the walls of his capital: the hosts of his enemies fled before the lightning of his sword; and the citizens, animated by his example, boarded the hostile galleys near the walls, and dragged twenty-five of them into the harbour of Constantinople. The following year witnessed other triumphs over the same enemy; and the last moments of the veteran monarch were dedicated to religion in the habit of a Franciscan monk. He swayed the sceptre about nine years, and left it to his son-in-law, Baldwin.

The life and reign of Baldwin were unprofitably wasted in soliciting the cold compassion of the princes of Europe: but the Christians of the West beheld with frigid indifference the expiring empire of the East; and either dealt their bounties with a sparing hand, or churlishly denied them. Even the Roman pontiff confined his liberality to the proclamation of a crusade, and the cheap proffer of indulgences, which already began to sink in the public estimation. Yet superstition had not essentially lost its force: Constantinople was still in possession of the identical crown of thorns as, it was believed, had been placed on our Saviour's head at the time of his crucifixion; and this relic was of such reputed value, that it was pledged to the Venetians for 7000*l.* sterling, and 10,000 marks of silver were afterwards given to Baldwin to complete the purchase on the part of the king of France.

Vataces in successive campaigns had triumphed over the Bulgarians, and reduced the limits of their sovereignty. The kingdom of Thessalonica was added to the empire of Nice; but the restoration of the Greeks was suspended by the death of Vataces, the fugitive reign of his son Theodorus, and the helpless infancy of his grandson John. That young prince indeed was oppressed by the inordinate ambition of Michael Palæologus, who possessed all the virtues and vices that qualify a man for rising to sovereign power.

Intent on the conquest of Constantinople, his designs were promoted by the Genoese, the rivals of the republic of Venice: the Latins were gradually driven from their last possessions in Thrace; the suburb of Galata was assaulted; and in the ensuing spring his favourite general, Alexius Strategopulus, passed the Hellespont, and reinforcing his army with rebels and outlaws, advanced in the night with a select detachment to the gates of Constantinople. At this time the bravest of the French and Venetians were absent: the scaling ladders were applied; and part of the volunteers were conducted, by a subterraneous passage, into the heart of the city. The air soon resounded with a general acclamation of "Long life and victory to Michael and John, the august emperors of the Romans!" and Baldwin, in consternation and dismay, escaping to the sea-shore, was conveyed to Italy, and spent the remainder of his life in vainly attempting to rouse the catholic powers to join in his restoration. Thus the Latin Empire of the East, which commenced under a Baldwin, terminated under an emperor of the same name.

PALÆOLOGUS, who had effected this revolution at Constantinople, was son of the elder sister of the wife of Theodorus Lascaris, and had the law of female descent been strictly observed, might have urged her superior pretensions to the throne. In fact, the descent of Palæologus, and the imprudence of his adherents, had exposed him to the suspicion of aiming at the sovereignty in the reign of Vataces. To exculpate himself from this, he was advised by the archbishop of Philadelphia, a dexterous courtier, to accept the judgment of God in the fiery proof of the ordeal:—namely, to bear a red-hot ball of iron three times from the altar to the rails of the sanctuary, without artifice and without injury. The reason of Palæologus was too strong to become the dupe of such an imposture; but he eluded the experiment with sense and pleasantry. "I am a soldier," said he "and will boldly enter the lists with my accusers; but a layman like myself, and a sinner, is not endowed with the gift of miracles. Your piety, most holy prelate, may deserve the interposition of Heaven, and from your hands I will receive the fiery globe, the pledge of my innocence." The archbishop was confounded, the emperor smiled, and the pardon of the ingenious Michael was sealed by new rewards.

In the succeeding reign of Theodorus, Palæologus had alternately known disgrace and favour; but the dying breath of the prince recommended to him the protection of his infant son—a trust which he little deserved. Being elevated to the rank of regent, he employed the royal treasures in corrupting the guards; and by himself or his emissaries, he endeavoured to persuade every rank of subjects, that their prosperity would rise in proportion to the scope which was given to his own power. He courted popularity by diminishing the weight of taxes, and by prohibiting ordeals and judicial combats. The clergy he honoured with every mark of external respect; flattered the multitude with the idea of liberty; and represented to the nobles, the necessity of a mature and vigorous government.

In consequence of these manœuvres, he was first invested with the title and prerogatives of despot, which gave him the second rank in the empire; soon after he was associated to the purple, and, in compliment to his age and merit, obtained the honours of precedence. His general Strategopulus now obtained the rank of Cæsar, and the obligation was repaid by restoring Constantinople to the authority of the Greeks.

Twenty days after the expulsion of the Latins, Michael made his triumphant entrance into the capital. He immediately set about reinstating the nobles, calming the fears of the inhabitants, encouraging the industry and confirming the privileges of strangers, and re-peopling the half-deserted city, by inviting settlers from the provinces. His attention was next diverted to the consolidation of his own power; he was crowned again, and alone, in the church of Saint Sophia; the name and honours of John Lascaris, his ward and associate, were insensibly abolished; and though the conscience of the usurper might restrain him from murder, he caused the eyes of the unfortunate youth to be put out, and then confined him in a distant castle, where he spent many melancholy years.

Arsenius, the patriarch, however, had the courage to arraign this treason and ingratitude. He pronounced the sentence of excommunication against Michael, who in vain confessed his guilt, and deprecated the judgment. The unrelenting prelate only condescended to answer, that for such an atrocious crime, signal expiation must be made, and seemed to hint at an abdication of his power; but the emperor disdained to purchase absolution so dear, and they parted without coming to any agreement.

After the sentence of excommunication had long hung over Palæologus, and embarrassed his measures, the clergy themselves began to blame the inflexible spirit of Arsenius; and soon after he was deposed from his episcopal office, and banished to a small island, where he died. At the end of six years, the imperial penitent gained absolution, and was restored to the communion of the faithful; but a powerful faction, which lasted forty-eight years, was the consequence of this ecclesiastical warfare.

Michael wrested from the Franks several of the finest islands of the Archipelago, and the eastern side of the Morea was again possessed by the Greeks; but in the prosecution of these conquests, the country beyond the Hellespont was left exposed to the Turks; and the minds of the Greeks were alienated from their sovereign, by his union with the Latin church, which the subtle Palæologus had consented to, in order to allay the resentment of Urban IV., who had proclaimed a crusade in favour of the suppliant Baldwin.

This stroke of policy seems to have missed its aim. Palæologus was regarded with abhorrence by his subjects, and even his own family and favourites either deserted him, or conspired against him. At once his violence was detested at Constantinople, and his irresolution arraigned at Rome; and while he was striving to reduce his people under the domination of the holy see, he himself was excommunicated by pope Urban the Fourth.

The vexation occasioned by these schisms and commotions, brought on a malady, of which he died at the age of fifty-five, and the *pious* Andronicus, his son and successor, denied his father the burial of a prince and a Christian.

ANDRONICUS, afterwards surnamed the Elder, had been proclaimed and crowned emperor in the fifteenth year of his age; and held that title nine years as the colleague, and fifty as the successor, of his father. The first step taken by the new emperor, was to conciliate the clergy, by annulling the union between the Greek and Latin churches. As he was easily offended, and of a suspicious temper, he soon became jealous of his brother Constantine and his ablest generals, whom he removed from the command of his armies, and thus opened an easier passage to the Turks, who now first entered Europe.

The empire of Andronicus was also assaulted and endangered by a race of men, who had been nurtured in discord by his father Michael. After the massacre and revolution in Sicily, known by the name of the *Sicilian vespers*, many thousands of the Genoese and Catalans having heard that the Greek provinces of Asia were invaded by the Turks, determined to share the spoil. Frederic, king of Sicily, facilitated their departure, and in a warfare of twenty years, arms were their sole possession and property.

Roger de Flor was the most popular of their chiefs, a man who had supported every character, and run through every variety of fortune. Having obtained a powerful navy, he sailed from Messina for Constantinople, with 8000 adventurers, and was received with transport by Andronicus, who created him duke of Romania. He defeated the Turks in two bloody battles, and was hailed as the deliverer of Asia: but his demands were at least equal to his services; and his licentious followers became equally formidable to the Mahometans and the empire. At last he was assassinated in the apartment of the empress, and the greatest part of his soldiers shared the same fate, from the fury of the people. Fifteen hundred, however, fortified themselves in Gallipoli, and having twice defeated the united force of the empire, intercepted the trade of Constantinople and the Black Sea, till, weakened by want and intestine feuds, they retired from the vicinity of the capital.

Nor was it only by external enemies that Andronicus was assailed. The people were discontented and mutinous; and to avoid being plundered themselves, sometimes joined the plunderers. Indeed, the valour and learning for which this emperor is celebrated, seems to have contributed little, either to the prosperity or glory of his long and uninteresting reign. The abject slave of superstition, his mind was continually agitated by the fears of a future state; and while he fixed his attention on that, he seems to have forgotten that he was born to fill an important station in the present life.

Michael, the eldest son of Andronicus, was associated to the purple, but his mediocrity of talents neither excited the jealousy, nor raised the hopes of the people. This prince had two sons, named Andronicus and Manuel. The former, from an early appearance of wit and beauty, was endeared to his grandfather, who caused him to be educated with great care, as his heir and favourite, and the names of the father, son, and grandson, were frequently united, in the acclamations of the people. The mind of the youth being corrupted by indulgence, he beheld with impatience the double obstacle that opposed his rising ambition: the capital was disturbed by his tumultuous revels; and the lives of his brother and father were at length sacrificed to his vices. A beautiful lady of high rank, but licentious manners, had consigned her person to the arms of young Andronicus; but the prince suspecting her fidelity, placed guards at her door, and their arrows pierced a casual passenger in the street. That passenger was prince Manuel, who died of the wound; and their common father, Michael, expired of grief a few days after.

The profligate Andronicus but ill dissembled his joy at the principal bars to his ambition being thus removed; and the reigning emperor, alarmed at his conduct, transferred his regard to another grandson. The long-acknowledged heir was exposed to the indignity of a public trial; but the court was soon filled with the armed retainers of the younger Andronicus, and the reconciliation to which his grandfather consented, only exposed his weakness, and strengthened the presumption of the former.

A short time after, the young prince escaping from the capital, erected his standard at Adrianople, and in a few days assembled fifty thousand horse and foot, commanded by John Cantacuzene, the great domestic. The motions of this formidable force, however, were slow and doubtful, and their progress was checked by intrigue and negociation. During seven years, the quarrel of the Andronici was suspended and renewed; and the ungrateful grandson in every new treaty rose in his pretensions. At last this civil war was terminated, by the surprise of Constantinople, and the final retreat of the old emperor to a cloister, in which he wore the monastic habit for two years, and then expired, in the seventy-second year of his age.

The elder Andronicus perhaps found it advisable to retire from the busy scene, having long lost the respect of his subjects, while the destructive progress of the Turks served still further to alienate the minds of the people. "How different," said the younger Andronicus, "is my situation from that of the son of Philip! Alexander complained that his father left him nothing to conquer: alas! my grandsire will leave me

me nothing to lose." Yet the indolence of the young emperor seems to have balanced his ambition.

He was defeated and wounded in a ruinous battle with the Turks, and his overthrow confirmed the establishment of their empire, while his own was rapidly hastening to decay. At length, in consequence of his early intemperance, and the unrestrained indulgence of his passions, he sunk into the grave, in the forty-fifth year of his age, leaving an only son, John Palæologus, who was only nine years of age at his father's death.

The weakness of the infant emperor was protected by the genius of John Cantacuzene, who had long been the friend and counsellor of the late emperor, and who in his last moments pressed him to accept the imperial title. The dangerous proposal, however, was rejected by the virtue of this illustrious Greek; and he was then named regent, during the minority of John.

There is every reason to believe he would have discharged the delegated trust with fidelity, had not his designs been thwarted by the ambition of Apocaucus, the great admiral, who owed every thing to the influence of Cantacuzene, but who, forgetting the obligation he was under to his benefactor, encouraged Anne, the widow of the late emperor, to assert the laws of nature, in undertaking the tutelage of her son. To the same views he brought over John of Apri, the patriarch, a proud and feeble old man, who assumed the claims of a Roman pontiff, and pressed religion into the service of faction.

The legal guardian was assailed on all sides; his prerogatives disputed, his opinions slighted, and his friends persecuted. At length, while absent in the public service, he was proscribed as an enemy to the church and state; his fortune was confiscated, and his aged mother thrown into prison.

Cantacuzene was driven by injustice to perpetrate the very crime he was falsely accused of; yet such was his love of peace, that he meditated to throw himself at the feet of the young emperor, and patiently submit to his fate.

The remonstrances of his family and friends, however, diverted him from this dangerous resolution; and no other resource remained but to declare himself independent. At Demotica, his own private domain, he was invested with the purple; but still the name of John Palæologus was ordered to be proclaimed before his own. Necessity, not choice, evidently dictated this revolt; for Cantacuzene had neither provided an army, nor military stores; and immediately after he had assumed the imperial title, he retired with five hundred followers among the savage Servians, where he gradually sunk to a suppliant, a captive, and an hostage; and was at length dismissed to encounter new vicissitudes of hope and fear.

For six years the empire was distracted by contending factions; but the liberality of Cantacuzene having engaged the support of the Turks, and his rival Apocaucus being taken off, the road was gradually paved to the return of the revolted chief; who at length investing the walls of Constantinople, the empress Anne and her son consented to a treaty, by which it was stipulated, that the young emperor should marry Irene, the daughter of Cantacuzene, and admit him a partner in the empire, with the sole administration for the space of ten years, by which time John would have attained the age of twenty-five. These conditions being ratified, Irene was espoused, and crowned empress.

The reign of Cantacuzene, however, was far from being tranquil. He had the misfortune to offend his friends, by not gratifying their unreasonable expectations; and his enemies were irreconcileable. His son-in-law, as he advanced in years, began to be inspired with views of independence, and to evince at once the ambition and the sordid and sensual appetites of his father Andronicus. Being left at Thessalonica, and secluded from the eye of Cantacuzene, he concluded a secret treaty with the Servians, in opposition to the interests of his partner and administrator: an open rupture succeeded, and every attempt to reconcile the rivals proved ineffectual. The Turks espoused the cause of the regent, and now gained a lasting establishment in Europe; but though Cantacuzene prevailed by their assistance, he lost the confidence both of the people and of Palæologus. Constantinople was still attached to the blood of her ancient princes; the citizens rose in arms; and the long and general shouts of "Life and victory to John Palæologus!" proclaimed the extinction of the power of the regent. He descended from the throne without any further attempts to regain his lost power; embraced the monastic habit and profession; and spent the remainder of his days in piety and studious pursuits.

Before his abdication, the Turks had invaded nearly the whole of the empire, and a Genoese colony at Pera, one of the suburbs of Constantinople, monopolized every branch of commerce, and fed or famished the capital, according to their interest or caprice. The most perfect union alone could have enabled the Greeks to resist enemies so powerful and so near; but discord on the contrary every where reigned, and especially in the imperial family.

For a long series of years, John Palæologus was the helpless and indifferent spectator of the public ruin. His eldest son Andronicus had formed a criminal intercouse with Sauzes, the son of Amurath, sultan of the Turks; and both the young princes conspired against the lives of their respective parents. Their designs, however, were timely discovered by Amurath, who deprived his son of sight, and insisted on Palæologus inflicting a similar punishment on Andronicus. The abject emperor obeyed; and involved his infant grandson John in the same sentence: but the operation was so mildly performed, that one recovered the sight of an eye, and the other was only disfigured by squinting. The fidelity of Manuel the second son, was rewarded by associating him to the purple; but in two years, the Greeks, with characteristic levity, raised the late criminal and his innocent son to the throne, and consigned the aged emperor and Manuel to a prison. A lapse of two years more effected another revolution: the captives made their escape; and finding numerous partisans, the claims of the contending parties were compromised, by assigning to the elder Palæologus and his son Manuel the possession of the capital, and by allotting whatever remained beyond the walls, to the younger Palæologus and his son John.

Soon after, the amorous old monarch deprived Manuel of a blooming princess of Trebizond, and sent him to display his valour in the wars of the sultan Bajazet; but the jealousy of this despot being excited by a plan of fortifying Constantinople, the new works were demolished at his peremptory command; and this mortification, added to the many which John Palæologus had received in a reign of thirty-six years, preyed on his heart, and sent him to the grave.

On receiving intelligence of his father's death, Manuel escaped from the Turkish camp, and hastened to occupy the Byzantine throne. That station, however, was disputed by his nephew John, whose guilty father was no more; and Bajazet, after concluding a treaty with Manuel, and almost immediately after rescinding it, embraced the cause of John, and invested the imperial city.

By the assistance of some Franks, Manuel was enabled to repel the Mahometans for more than a year; but the enemy soon returning with augmented numbers, he found it impossible to resist the torrent, and therefore, leaving his competitor to occupy the throne, he determined to implore in person the assistance of France. Scarcely, however, had John entered the capital, before the sultan claimed it as his rightful possession; and all the resistance he could have made, would have delayed the fate of the city but a very short time, had not the rapid progress of Tamerlane called off the Turk to a contest with an enemy more worthy of his prowess.

When Manuel undertook his suppliant expedition, he expected the instant subversion of the church and state; and was agreeably surprised by the successive intelligence of the retreat, overthrow, and captivity of Bajazet. He immediately set sail for Constantinople, and being restored to the throne, banished his competitor John to the isle of Lesbos.

Soliman, the son of Bajazet, fearful lest the Greeks should favour the Moguls, earnestly solicited the alliance of Manuel and

and made him very important cessions and restitutions. These conditions, so ignominious to the Turks, occasioned the enmity of Mousa, another son of the deceased sultan, and the Mahometans renewed their hostile attempts on the capital. Manuel, instead of fomenting the discords of the Moslems, now sided with Mahomet, the most formidable of the sons of Bajazet, entertained him in his palace, and assisted his views. The gratitude of Mahomet only expired with his life; and in his last moments he bequeathed his younger sons to the protection of the Greek emperor. But the divan rescinded the appointment, and determined that the royal youths should never be abandoned to the orthodoxy of a christian dog. A schism took place in the councils of the Byzantine court; and Mustapha, who had long been detained as a captive hostage at Constantinople, was allowed to ascend the throne of Romania.

The negociation of the Greek emperor with Mustapha, aroused the resentment of his rival, Amurath, and the victory of that prince over the sovereign of Romania, was followed by the siege of Constantinople. The prospect of plunder and of the crown of martyrdom, drew together two hundred thousand Turks, who invested the city; but a domestic revolt recalled the sultan to the protection of Boursa, and for thirty years suspended the fate of the Byzantine empire.

The aged Manuel, oppressed with years and wearied with cares, submitted to the stroke of death, without beholding, though not without anticipating, the ruin of his empire and religion; and his son, John Palæologus, was permitted to ascend the vacant throne on the payment of a large annual tribute, and the cession of the greatest part of his remaining dominions.

Whenever the Byzantine princes were encompassed with difficulties, or pressed by imminent danger, it had long been their practice to court the alliance, and implore the protection of the pope and the Latins; but no sooner did their calamities subside, than they uniformly returned to their genuine hatred and contempt for the idolaters of the West. John Palæologus, the Elder, alarmed at once by foreign invasion and domestic insurrection, in order to obtain relief, subscribed a treaty, and submitted to an oath of fidelity and obedience to the Roman pontiff. The humiliating terms, however, were never put in execution; but when the Turkish torrent was only resisted by the walls of Constantinople, the desponding emperor embarked for Venice, with the hopes of rousing by his presence the cold compassion of the princes of the West.

Urban the Fifth at that time wore the tiara, and on receiving the submission of Palæologus to the supremacy of the holy see, endeavoured to rekindle the zeal of the Christians of the West in favour of his proselyte. But the season of crusades was past; and the emperor returned without accomplishing any thing. His son Manuel had likewise visited the courts of the West, to implore assistance against the overwhelming Turks. At Venice, Paris, and London, he was pitied, praised, and entertained; but was more befriended by events which he could not have foreseen, than by his christian brethren.

When John Palæologus the Second ascended the throne, the avarice and vices of the Roman pontiffs had scandalized the clergy themselves, and the council of Basil, supported by several of the powers of the West, declared that the representatives of the church had a paramount authority over the pope himself. The concurrence of the emperor and patriarch of Constantinople was eagerly solicited; but pope Eugenius, sensible of the importance of gaining over the Greeks to his party, made the most splendid proposals, which, after some hesitation, were accepted. The union of the Greek and Latin churches was effected by intrigue; but the subjects of Palæologus received him on his return from the council, with a general murmur of discontent. The very subscribing ecclesiastics, instead of justifying their conduct, deplored their weakness. "Alas! we have been seduced by distress, by fraud, and by the hopes and fears of a transitory life. The hand that has signed the union should be cut off; and the tongue that has pronounced the Latin creed deserves to be torn from the root," was the answer they returned to the taunting question, "What had been the event of the Italian synod?"

But while Eugenius triumphed in the union of the Greeks, his party was contracted to the palace of Constantinople, and even there the zeal of Palæologus was already cooled, and his brother Constantine was ready to draw the sword in defence of the national religion; while sultan Amurath beheld with a jealous eye, the outward reconciliation that had taken place between the Latins and the Greeks.

The danger that threatened not only the Byzantine empire, but Christendom, from the Turks, made Eugenius anxious to render the promised assistance to Palæologus; but though he exerted all his influence to raise a general crusade, the most important accessions he obtained, were the kingdoms of Hungary and Poland, united under the authority of Ladislaus, and animated by the valour and fame of John Huniades, the hero of his age. Yet notwithstanding the advantages gained by this consummate soldier, and the powerful diversion he made, the Greek emperor was compelled to enter into a humiliating treaty with the Turks, and submit to dishonourable conditions.

The chagrin Palæologus endured on this account, the schisms which distracted his subjects, the loss of his empress whom he tenderly loved, and the insolence of Amurath, who rose in his pretensions with every concession that was made him, all conspired to undermine his constitution, and to sink him into an untimely grave, in the twenty-seventh year of his reign.

The senate, the soldiers, the clergy, and the people, were unanimous in supporting the pretensions of his brother Constantine; but as a proof of the humiliation of the Greek emperors, this was not judged sufficient, without the approbation of the sultan of the Turks, which was graciously accorded.

Amurath soon resigned his breath, and was succeeded by Mahomet the Second. The attention of this prince was incessantly fixed on Constantinople; and he frequently declared that no promises ought to bind the faithful against the interest and the duty of their religion. Being irritated by the imprudence of the Byzantine ambassadors, he availed himself of the opportunity which was given to indulge his designs; and resolved to erect a strong castle on the side of the Bosphorus, facing a fortification on the Asiatic shore, which had been raised by his grandfather.

Only five miles distant from the capital of the Greek empire, on a spot called Asomaton, a thousand builders were ordered to assemble early in the spring. The imperial ambassadors did not fail to represent that this double fortification would be a violation of existing treaties, and that it would command the streight, and intercept at discretion the very subsistence of Constantinople. "I form no enterprise," replied the sultan, "against the city; but the empire of Constantinople is measured by her walls. Have ye right, have ye power, to control my actions on my own ground? for that ground is my own. As far as the shores of the Bosphorus, Asia is inhabited by the Turks, and Europe is deserted by the Romans. Return and inform your sovereign, that the present Ottoman is far different from his predecessors; that his resolutions surpass their wishes; and that he performs more than they could resolve. Return in safety; but the next who delivers a similar message may expect to be flayed alive."

After this menace, Constantine would have had recourse to arms, but his ministers advised him to suffer Mahomet to fix on himself the charge of aggression, and to depend on chance and time for the accomplishment of his wishes. Meanwhile the hostile fort was carried on with great expedition, and was constructed of great strength. Constantine had requested a Turkish guard to protect the fields of his subjects from being consumed by the artificers or their cattle; but this guard was in fact stationed to defend their brethren, if molested by the christians. The two nations soon became embroiled by wanton annoyance on one side, and just resentment

sentment on the other: several fell in tumultuous conflicts; and Mahomet embraced with joy the pretext afforded him for sending a reinforcement to avenge the pretended injuries of his people. The gates of Constantinople were shut; but the emperor, yet desirous of warding off the catastrophe, released several Turkish aggressors, and accompanied their dismissal with a letter to Mahomet. "Since neither oaths, nor treaty, nor submission, can secure peace, pursue your impious warfare. My trust is in God alone: if it should please him to mollify your heart, I shall rejoice in the happy change; if he delivers the city into your hands, I submit without a murmur to his holy will; but until the judge of the earth shall pronounce between us, it is my duty to live and die in the defence of my people."

The answer of the sultan was hostile and decisive: a tribute was imposed on the ships of every nation that passed within reach of his cannon, and the port of Constantinople was completely blocked up.

While the sultan was sedulously employed in preparations for undertaking the siege of the imperial capital, Constantine importuned the princes of the West with fruitless solicitations. The Roman pontiff was hardened against the Greeks, on account of their obstinacy and prevarication; and if, in their last exigency, he yielded to the dictates of compassion, the support his influence procured them, was too tardy to be of any use.

The timid crowd began to be alarmed, and to fly from the devoted city. The rich secreted their wealth, instead of producing it for the defence of their country; yet Constantine remained firm to his post, and if his resources were inadequate to the contest, he evinced a mind equal to the perils with which he was surrounded.

Mahomet II. having completed his preparations, early in the spring, A. D. 1453, pitched his standard before the gate of St. Romanus, and invested Constantinople with nearly three hundred thousand men. The motley race who still inhabited the capital, might amount, of all ages and both sexes, to about one hundred thousand; but on a careful enumeration and survey, scarcely five thousand were found able and willing to bear arms. These were reinforced by two thousand auxiliaries, under the command of John Justiniani, a noble Genoese, whose exertions were stimulated by the promised recompence of the isle of Lemnos. A strong chain was drawn across the mouth of the harbour; and a city of perhaps fifteen miles in circumference, was defended by about 7000 soldiers against the united Ottoman force.

In the commencement of the siege, the Greeks boldly sallied from their walls; but prudence soon taught them to desist from a mode of warfare, which reduced their own numbers, and made but little impression on their enemies. The Turkish artillery was superior to that of the Christians, and the latter were afraid to plant their heavy guns on the walls, lest the explosion should overthrow them. The Mahometans gradually pushed their approaches to the ditch; but their attempts to fill the enormous chasm were nightly frustrated by the toil of the Greeks. A wooden turret, however, was successfully advanced; the tower of St. Romanus was thrown down: but next morning, by the activity of the emperor and Justiniani, the wooden machine of the sultan was reduced to ashes, and the tower of St. Romanus restored.

Meanwhile, a squadron of five ships, navigated by the best sailors of Italy and Greece, and bearing supplies of indispensable necessity, having eluded the vigilance, or overcome the force, of the whole Turkish fleet, securely anchored within the chain of the harbour. As long, therefore, as the sea was open to the Greeks, the reduction of the place appeared hopeless. To overcome this, the genius of Mahomet conceived and executed the bold design of transporting his lighter vessels about ten miles by land, from the Bosphorus to the higher part of the harbour, in the narrowest channel of which he constructed a mole, fifty cubits broad and one hundred long, and mounted it with his largest cannon. In an attempt to destroy this, the foremost galliots of the Greeks were taken or sunk, and several gallant Christian youths who had fallen into his hands on the occasion, were inhumanely massacred by the sultan.

After sustaining a seige of forty days, the breaches were increased, the garrison diminished, the remnant of the force impaired by discord, and Constantinople trembled on the verge of ruin. The twenty-ninth of May was fixed for the fatal and final assault.

The dervises assured the Mussulmen that those who happened to fall in the holy enterprize, would enjoy immortal youth in the groves of Paradise, and black eyed virgins for ever; while the sultan promised the temporal incentives of double pay, the plunder of the city, and a splendid reward to him who should first mount the walls. A general ardour was diffused through the camp, and nothing was heard but shouts of "God is God! there is but one God! and Mahomet is his apostle."

Far different passions agitated the Christians. Despair and fear by turns filled their bosoms; yet the intrepid firmness of Constantine Palæologus, communicated to a select few that confidence, which in reality he had lost himself. Accompanied by his most faithful companions, he devoutly received the sacrament of the holy communion in the church of St. Sophia; begged the pardon of those he had injured, and then mounted his horse to watch the hostile movements.

The foremost ranks of the Mahometans consisted of an undisciplined rabble, inflamed only with the spirit of enthusiasm, among whom the Greeks made a prodigious slaughter. The more regular troops of the sultan succeeded; but the Christians still maintained their superiority; while the emperor was heard exhorting his companions and subjects to achieve the deliverance of their country, by a last effort. But being exhausted with fatigue, and covered with wounds, the Janissaries, headed by the sultan in person, with an iron mace in his hand, poured on with irresistible violence. At this moment, John Justiniani having his gauntlet pierced, retired from his station. "Your wound," exclaimed Palæologus, "is slight, the danger is pressing, your presence is necessary, and whither will you retire?" "By the same road," replied the Genoese, "which God has opened to the Turks." He escaped to Galata, sacrificing his honour to preserve a few hours of life; and was followed by the greatest part of the Latin auxiliaries. Hassan, the Janissary, now mounted the walls; a crowd of Moslems succeeded him; and the Greeks, driven from the rampart, sunk under multitudes of foes.

The emperor remained firm with a faithful band around him. He saw his dearest friends fall by his side, and at last remained surrounded only by enemies. In the bitterness of grief he exclaimed, "Has death then made such havoc, that not one Christian is left to take my life?" As he spoke, a Turk to whom his person was unknown, for he had prudently laid aside the purple, struck him in the face; a second blow succeeded from another hand; and he fell in the forty-ninth year of his age, and the tenth of his reign, a glorious example of honourable resolution, in expiring with his defenders rather than surviving them.

The golden eagles embroided on the shoes of Constantine, soon discovered who he was: resistance was now at end; the city was abandoned to plunder; but Mahomet paid the homage of admiration to the courage of the emperor, and ordered his remains due funeral rites.

Thus fell the empire of the East, under one of the most glorious of its emperors. The crescent assumed over the cross a dominion which is still maintained, and the dim religious light which illumined the Byzantine nations, was extinguished. Yet in contemplating the fall of Constantinople, if we having nothing to admire, we have little to lament. During the long period of its existence, it had effected little for the immediate, nothing for the remote interests of mankind. The admirer of liberty confidently turns to her annals, for a conclusive proof that without freedom, all other advantages are nought,—that under the shade of despotism, no care is sufficient to nourish the plants of science. Those who have attributed the superiority of old Greece to the excellence of

of her language, or the peculiarity of her situation, may reflect, that with the same language, and in the same spot of earth, the Greeks of the empire existed a thousand years without advancing one step in the career of improvement. Their advantages, as Gibbon justly says, only tend to aggravate the reproach and shame of a degenerate people. They held in their lifeless hands the riches of their fathers, without inheriting the spirit which had created and improved that sacred patrimony: they read, they praised, they compiled, but their languid sculls seemed alike incapable of thought and action. In the revolution of ten centuries, not a single discovery was made to exalt the dignity or promote the happiness of mankind. Not a single idea has been added to the speculative systems of antiquity, and a succession of patient disciples became in their turn the dogmatic teachers of the next servile generation. Not a single composition of history, philosophy, or literature, has been saved from oblivion by the intrinsic beauties of style or sentiment, of original fancy, or even of successful imitation. In prose, the least offensive of the Byzantine writers are absolved from censure by their naked and unpresuming simplicity; but the orators, most eloquent in their own conceit, are the farthest removed from the models whom they affect to emulate. In every page our taste and reason are wounded by the choice of gigantic and obsolete words, a stiff and intricate phraseology, the discord of images, the childish play of false or unseasonable ornament, and the painful attempt to elevate themselves, to astonish the reader, and to involve a trivial meaning in the smoke of obscurity and exaggeration. Their prose is soaring to the vicious affectation of poetry: their poetry is sinking below the flatness and insipidity of prose. The tragic, epic, and lyric muses, were silent and inglorious: the bards of Constantinople seldom rose above a riddle or epigram, a panegyric or tale; they forgot even the rules of prosody; and with the melody of Homer yet sounding in their ears, they confounded all measure of feet and syllables in the impotent strains which have received the name of political or city verses. The minds of the Greeks were bound in the fetters of a base and imperious superstition, which extends her dominion round the circle of profane science. Their understandings were bewildered in metaphysical controversy; in the belief of visions and miracles, they had lost all principles of moral evidence, and their taste was vitiated by the homilies of the monks, an absurd medley of declamation and scripture.

In all the pursuits of active and speculative life, the emulation of states and individuals is the most powerful spring of the efforts and improvements of mankind. The cities of ancient Greece were cast in the happy mixture of union and independence, which is repeated on a larger scale, but in a looser form, by the nations of modern Europe: the union of language, religion, and manners, which renders them the spectators and judges of each other's merit: the independence of government and interest, which asserts their separate freedom, and excites them to strive for pre-eminence in the career of glory. Nothing of this existed in Constantinople.

The history of Constantinople will be resumed under the article TURKEY.

VI.—ANTIQUITIES AND PRESENT STATE OF ROME.

The eternal city, as Rome has been so vainly called, is approached by several grand and extended roads. Of these antiquaries enumerate twelve diverging from the gates of ancient Rome, and twelve more branched off from these at a small distance from the city; eighteen others commenced in different parts of Italy, and in the whole there are at least fifty, which have been distinguished by appropriate names, without including the military roads through the distant provinces; such, for example, as in England were distinguished by the name of streets, of which many traces yet remain in different parts of the country.

Directly to the sea the Romans travelled by the Ostian road; along its shores to the north-west by the Aurelian, and to the south-east by the Appian. Next within the Aurelian was the Flaminian, then the Salarian, the Nomentanian, the Tiburtine, the Praenestine, the Lavican, and the Latin; and then the Appian, which was the most ancient of all, having been made as far as Capua, in the 442d year of the city, accompanied to a considerable distance by an aqueduct. The Aurelian road was made in the year 512; the Flaminian about 533.

1. The Flaminian road still affords the great northern approach to Rome by the Porta del Popolo; it led to Foligno, Aneona, and Rimini, and was continued by the Emilian to Bologna, and thence to Aquilegia, near Venice; the present mountain route from Bologna to Rome is still facilitated by the remains of the ancient structures. Besides the Emilian road, the Flaminian was also connected with the Cassian, leading to Modena; the Claudian to Arezzo, Florence, and Lucca; there were also six other branches of less note, each named after its founder.

2, 3. The Salarian and the Nomentanian roads lay to the east of the Flaminian; the former, from the Porta Salara, led through the country of the Sabines by Rieti to Hadria; the latter from the Porta Sant' Agnese went north-eastwards to Nomentum.

4. The Tiburtine road led from the Porta Tiburtina, now San Lorenzo, to Tivoli, with a branch on the right called the Gabian. The large blocks which were employed to form this road, near the town of Tivoli, in ascending from the river, are still in their ancient places; they are accurately fitted together, and present a surface sufficiently smooth, after having been in use for about two thousand years.

5, 6, 7. The three next in order all met at Anagnia, 24 miles beyond Praeneste or Palestrina. The Praenestine, from the Esquiline gate, now called Porta Maggiore, on account of the magnitude of the ruins of the aqueduct of Clodius, with which it is incorporated, led by Aquinum to Praeneste; the Lavican led from the same gate, more to the right, by way of Beneventum; and the Latin road, from the Porta Latina, went first to Compitum; and from Anagnia proceeded to join the Appian near Capua.

8. The Appian road is as well known from the minute description of Horace's progress, in his journey to Brundusium, as from the eagerness with which a modern traveller reckons the stages that he has completed, on his way to Naples, without a visit from the banditti that infest it. The original extent of this road, from the Coliseum to Capua, was 142 Roman miles; and it was continued 238 miles further to Brundusium by Julius Cæsar. It was constructed with large stones, or rather rocks, joined together with great care; and it is said to have had a foot pavement two feet wide on each side, besides the agger, or principal mass of stones in the middle, and the two marginal parts, which were probably unpaved.

9. The Ostian road led from the Porta di San Paolo, near the Tiber, in a straight line to the mouth of that river.

10. The Aurelian, from the Porta Aurelia, a gate which was near the Moles Adriani, or Castle of Sant' Angelo, led by Laurentum to Centumcellae, or Civita Vecchia, to Genoa, and thence by Susa, across the Montcenis, as far as Arles in Provence. This seems to have been the oldest passage into the Gauls; it was improved by Pompey the Great under the name of the Strata Romana. Several other passages over the Alps are also particularized in the Itinerary of Antonine on the roads from Milan to Arles; from Milan to Vienne in Dauphiné, either by the Grecian or by the Cottian Alps: the former north, the latter south of Montcenis; from Milan to Strasburg; and from Milan to Mentz.

11, 12. The Triumphal road began from the Capitol, and went over the Tiber into the country beyond the present site of the Vatican. We may consider as the last of the twelve great roads, originating from Rome, the Collatine, leading due north from the Porta Pinciana on the Monte Pincio.

Among the less remarkable roads about the metropolis of the

the ancient world were also the Campanian, the new and the old Valerian, both leading by Tivoli to the Adriatic; the Tusculan, the Alban, the Ardeatine, on the right of the Appian: the Laurentine, a little more to the right, Pliny's villa being mentioned as accessible from either of these last; the Portuensis, from the Porta Portuese Trasteverina, leading to Ostia; and the Aurelia Nova, beginning from the Porta Janiculi, now Porta San Pancrazio, and leading towards Civita Vecchia.

The walls of Rome enclose an area of about 16 miles in circumference; towards the south, however, a great portion of the city is a mere mass of ruins; the population being chiefly confined to the northern part.

The seven hills on which ancient Rome stood, are the Palatine, the Aventine, the Capitol, the Cœlian, the Esquiline, the Quirinal, and the Viminal Hills. The five first have the appearance of small hills or large mounts; but the Esquiline and the Quirinal, though they have a considerable ascent on the side of Rome, have no descent on the opposite side; and the Viminal hill can no longer be recognized. The Aventine, Palatine, and Cœlian hills, and also part of the Esquiline, Viminal, and Quirinal Hills, are now covered with vineyards and corn fields.

The Palatine hill is a square and flat topped elevation, situated nearly in the middle of the other hills, and containing two solitary villas and a convent. Its numerous temples, palaces, porticoes and libraries, are now heaps of shapeless ruins. The part of the imperial palace which looked to the west still exists, but it is now buried in ruins. The immense hall which was discovered here about a hundred years ago, and the ornaments of which were carried off by the Farnese family, is described by Eustace as an area covered with weeds, and presenting to the eye a vast length of naked wall.

The Aventine, the most western of the hills, is divided from the Palatine by the valley of the Circus Maximus. Not a trace remains of any of the ancient and magnificent buildings which covered it. A few decaying churches and convents, half deserted, are the only objects which catch the eye. The principal edifices that stood on this hill, were the temples of Diana, Juno, and the Dea Bona. The west side of the Aventine looks down on the Tiber, and the fields called Prati del Popolo Romano. The Aventine has two distinct summits, divided by a valley. Near the base of the most southern of these, are the gigantic ruins of the baths of Caracalla.

The Capitoline hill was originally called Saturnius, and afterwards Tarpeia. On the western side of the hill are still to be seen some remains of the ancient fortifications of the Capitol. In some of the cottages on Monte Caprino, there are walls of extraordinary solidity, which seem to have formed the exterior of one of the towers of the citadel. These walls, built of blocks of peperin stone, are considered to be of the age of Camillus; and, excepting the Cloaca Maxima, to be the oldest of all the remains of antiquity in Rome. The temple of Jupiter Feretrius is supposed to have occupied this (the western) eminence; and that of Jupiter Capitolinus, the eastern summit of the hill. The common belief is, that the church of Ara Cœli stands on the site of the latter. The small square, having in its centre the equestrian statue of M. Aurelius, and enclosed by the three palaces of the senators, the conservatori, and the statue gallery, is supposed to have been the Intermontium. Beneath the senators' palace are the remains of the south and west sides of an ancient building, consisting of large blocks of peperin stone. It is supposed to have been the Tabularium, where the public records were suspended on tables of bronze. In the interior of this building is an arched corridor of considerable extent and of a noble style of architecture. The modern buildings on this hill are a convent of bare-footed friars, and the Palazzo Caffarelli, in the stables, cellars, and gardens of which, there are remains of the ancient fortifications of the citadel. The remains of the Julian or Mamertine prisons are still to be seen near the base of this hill, below the church of St. Pietro in Carcere. The Cœlian Hill is crowned by the massive and lofty arches of Nero's aqueduct. Its precipitous banks are encircled by various ruins, by arches, recesses, niches, and passages, which are considered by some to have been the Nymphæum of Nero. An arched corridor, supposed to have formed part of the Vivarium, is to be found beneath the tower of the convent. The western extremity of this hill is occupied by the church of San Stefano Rotonda, the reputed temple of Claudius; and the great Basilica of St. John Lateran stands on its most eastern summit.

The Esquiline hill is of great extent, and of a very indefinite form. A part of it is covered with the streets and edifices of modern Rome, and the rest of it is covered with vestiges of buildings of every age, with deserted convents and papal churches, as well as with the ruins of ancient Rome. On its summit are the majestic arches of the united aqueducts of Claudius and Nero; and it contains also the lonely ruin of Minerva Medica, and various subterranean sepulchres and other ruins. The Esquiline has two summits, viz. L'Oppio, which is occupied by the church of St. Pietro in Vinculis, built upon part of the extensive baths of Titus, and Il Cispio, now crowned with the basilica of Santa Maria Maggiore, but once the site of the temple of Juno Lucina.

The Quirinal hill is occupied with magnificent palaces, churches, streets, and fountains. The principal remains of antiquity which it contains, are the vestiges of the baths of Constantine, in the garden of the Colonna palace; and a part of those of Dioclesian, which were erected both on this and the Viminal hill. This hill is better known by the name of Monte Cavallo, in consequence of two colossal groups of a young man and horse, which were found in the ruins of the baths of Constantine, having been placed before the pope's palace on the summit of this hill. These figures are supposed to represent Castor and Pollux, and to have been the production of Phidias and Praxiteles, principally on the authority of the inscriptions upon them. The house of Scipio is supposed to have occupied the site of the Colonna palace and garden; and there is a little street, Vico de' Corneli, which has derived its name from that illustrious house. Having thus given a general notice of the seven hills of ancient Rome, we shall proceed to give a brief account of the principal remains of her ancient grandeur.

The ancient Forum extends from east to west, along the base of the Capitoline hill, and stretching to the base of the Palatine hill. Its four corners are considered to have been at the Church of Santa Martina and S. Luca on the N. E.; of Santa Maria della Consolazionne on the N. W.; the little church of St. Theodore, once the temple of Romulus, on the S. W.; and an unmarked point, where the arch of the Fabii once stood, within the line of the temple of Antoninus and Faustina, on the S. E. The ruins which now stand within these limits, are the triumphal arch of Septimius Severus, the temple of Concord or Fortuna, the column of the emperor Phocas, the ruined wall of the Curia, and the three columns of the Comitium, at the base of the Palatine. The triumphal arch of Severus, built of marble, stands at the base of the Capitoline hill. It consists of one large and two smaller arches, with an entablature supported by four Corinthian columns with pilasters. The whole of it is adorned with bas-relief sculptures, representing Severus's triumph over the Parthians. The Ionic portico of the temple of Concord is all that remains; but it is now supposed to have been the temple of Fortune. The column of Phocas is a single Corinthian pillar, erected in the seventh century by the Exarch Smaragdus to the emperor Phocas. The only remains of the Roman curia, or senate house, the site of which is occupied by the church of Santa Maria Liberatrice, is a high broken brick wall. The Comitium which stood in front of the curia, is now supposed to have been the owner of the three beautiful Corinthian columns called the disputed columns, which have been conjectured to be the remains of the temple of Jupiter Stator. Marble steps in front of them have been discovered by recent excavations. The three beautiful fluted Corinthian columns which were supposed to be the remains

remains of the temple of Jupiter Tonans, stood on the declivity of the Capitoline. They formed the corner of its portico, and were erected by Augustus. The frieze is finely sculptured in bas-relief, and the letters ESTITUER remain of the inscription.

In quitting the forum by the Via Secondaria, we pass through the broken and defaced triumphal arch of Tiberius. It consists of a single arch, and only four of its eight fluted marble columns remain; two of which are entire. The interior of the arch is adorned with two bas-reliefs, representing Titus in triumph, and the spoils of the temple of Jerusalem. On the roof is the apotheosis of the emperor. Through this mouldering arch are seen the ruins of the magnificent Coliseum: one of the grand monuments of ancient Rome. This amphitheatre is a structure of an oval form, 580 feet long, 470 broad, and above 1600 in circumference. It was erected by Vespasian out of part of the materials, and on a portion of the site of Nero's golden house; and though its demolition was begun by the barbarous conquerors of Rome, yet it was so perfect in the thirteenth century, that games were exhibited in it for the amusement of the Italian nobility. Upon the revival of architecture in Rome, the Coliseum was used as a quarry both by the vulgar and the grandees, and Paul V. pulled much of it down in order to build his huge palaces. This system of depredation would soon have completed its destruction, had not Benedict XIV. erected a cross in the centre of the arena, and declared the place sacred, out of respect to the martyrs who had suffered within its walls. In no part of its vast circuit has the Coliseum been completely broken through, and in only a small segment is its external elevation preserved entire. In the interior the destruction of the building is deplorable. The marble seats are all torn away, the steps and vomitories overthrown, and the sloping walls and broken arches overgrown with the luxuriance of vegetation. Here is a temporary wooden stair-case, by which visitors ascend to the highest practicable point.

The forums of the emperors were chiefly situated to the east of the Roman forum. The forum of Cæsar extended from the church of St. Adrian to the church of St. Cosmo and Damiano, and in the court of that convent are still to be seen some massy walls which are supposed to have been a part of the forum. The forum of Augustus, which contained the splendid temple of Mars, stood behind the present church of Santa Martina and S. Luca. Some fragments of walls belonging to the shops which encircled it still remain. The forum of Vespasian is supposed to have been in the vicinity of the temple of Peace. Of the forum of Nerva there are some beautiful remains at the Arca Pantani. They consist of three fluted Corinthian columns and one pilaster of Parian marble 50 feet high. They are supposed to have belonged to the beautiful temple of Nerva; the columns are flanked by a lofty wall of large masses of Tiburtine stone. The ruin of the temple of Minerva, situated in that part of the forum which was built by Domitian, consists of two marble Corinthian columns in front of a wall of Tiburtine stone. They are more than half buried beneath the pavement, and support a richly sculptured frieze. The forum of Trajan stood at the base of the Quirinal Hill. The centre of the Piazza Trajana, which contains Trajan's column, was excavated by the French to the level of the ancient pavement, and they brought to light various majestic columns of black oriental granite, once the supports of the Basilica Ulpia.

The entrance to this forum (near the little church of Santa Maria in Campo Carleo) passed under the triumphal arch of Trajan. At the farther extremity stood the temple of Trajan, with the triumphal column in front of it, and in the centre the Basilica Ulpia, one of the most splendid buildings of any age. The steps that led to this Basilica may still be traced, and fragments of them are still strewed around. The portico of the temple consisted of eight immense columns of oriental granite, a fragment of one of which was six feet in diameter, and must have been 72 feet high. The column of Trajan, 140 feet high, is ascended by an easy winding staircase of solid Parian marble, lighted by loop-holes, and at the top stands the bronze statue of St. Peter, which was placed there by Sextus V. In the midst of the forum of Antoninus Pius, a little to the north of that of Trajan, stands the triumphal column of Marcus Aurelius, covered with the sculptures of his victories, and not much inferior to that of Trajan. The only other remains of the forum are the eleven beautiful Corinthian columns of Grecian marble, now built into the modern wall of the custom-house.

In the forum Boarium, or market of Rome, stands the picturesque and magnificent ruin of Janus Quadrifrontis. It has four similar fronts, in each of which there is an arch of entrance, and it is built of immense blocks of Grecian marble. The brick walls on its summits are part of a fortress into which it was converted during the dark ages. At the side of the old church of St. Georgio in Velatri, is a little insignificant marble arch, erected by the trades-people to the emperor Severus, who is sculptured upon it along with his wife Julia and his son Caracalla, the figure of Geta having erased.

Close to this forum stands the Cloaca Maxima, the most ancient of all the ruins of Rome, and considered the work of Tarquinius Superbus. The tunnel was once so large that a waggon of hay could pass through it. All that is now seen of it is the upper part of a grey massy arch of Peperine stone, as solid as it was on the day it was built. It is at present choked up nearly to its top by the artificial elevation of the surface of modern Rome; but it still serves as the common sewer of the city. Close to the Cloaca Maxima, is shewn the celebrated fountain of Juturna.

One of the largest and most beautiful temples of antiquity is the Pantheon or Rotunda. See PANTHEON.

The temple of Vesta is a beautiful little building, near the Tiber, of Parian marble, and having a portico consisting of a circular colonnade of twenty fluted Corinthian columns. The French removed the modern wall that filled up the intercolumniation; but its coarse tiled conical roof resting immediately on the capitals still destroys the general effect. The circular altar built of marble, is converted into a chapel dedicated to the Madonna.

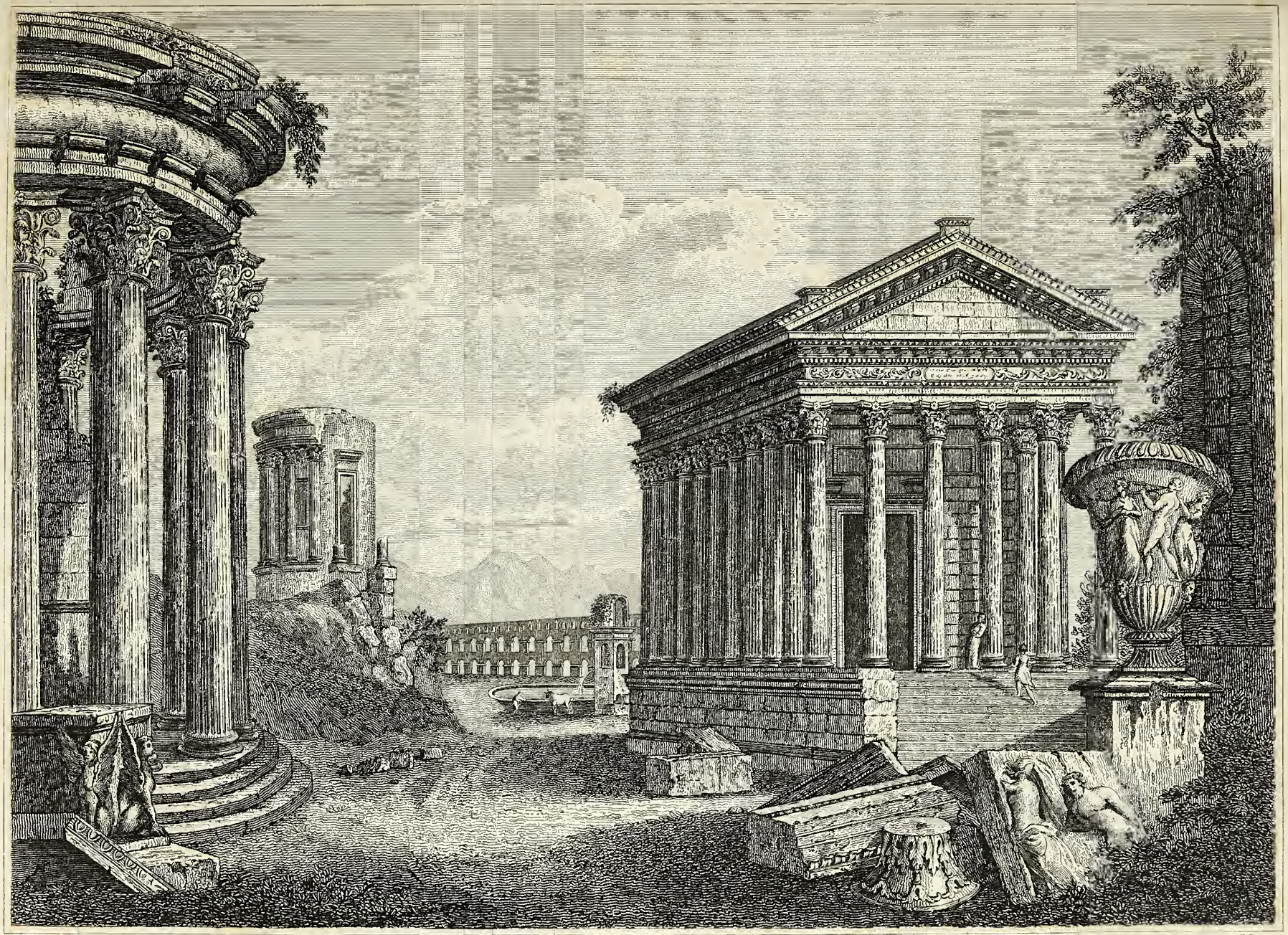
Opposite to this building is the church of Santa Maria in Cosmedin, built on the ruins of what is called the temple of Pudicitia Patrizia. The ruins within the church are the remains of a magnificent peripteral temple, with eight complete columns in front like the Parthenon. Six of the front columns may now be traced, and some of the lateral ones.

The church of S. S. Cosmo and Damiano is partly formed out of what is considered to have been the double temple of Romulus and Remus; the first having been circular, and the second square. Here was found the marble plan of Rome which had formed the pavement of the temple, and the broken fragments of which are fixed in the staircase wall of the Museum of the capitol.

The remains of the double temple near the Coliseum are supposed to be those of Hadrian's magnificent temple of Venus and Peace. The peristyles of this double peripteral temple had 12 columns in front, and 22 in depth, of Parian marble, some broken remains of which are still to be seen. The whole was surrounded by a double colonnade, 500 feet long and 300 broad, of columns of oriental granite, with rows of capitals of Parian marble, the gigantic shafts of which are strewed around near Titus's arch. The platform of the colonnade, and the situation, and even steps of the temple, may yet be traced. The picturesque ruin called the temple of Minerva Medica stands in a solitary vineyard on the Esquiline hill. It is decagonal within. It is built of brick, and stripped of all its ornaments. The remains of the temple of Venus Erycina, consisting of the octagonal brick cella, stand in the circus and gardens of Sallust.

The only remains of the theatres of ancient Rome are those of the theatre of Marcellus. It was of Tiburtine stone, and consisted of four orders of arcades.

The portico of Octavia consisted of a double row of marble columns, enclosing a large oblong square, in which are the temples of Jupiter and Juno. Many of the beautiful columns of this colonnade are built up in the miserable houses of the Jews which now cover its ancient site. At No. 11, via di San



J. Pass sc.

Temple of Hercules. *Temple of Fortuna Virilis.*

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1826

San Angelo in Peschiera are three magnificent fluted Corinthian columns of Grecian marble, supposed to be the remains of the temple of Juno.

Of the thermæ, or baths of ancient Rome, the ruins of those of Titus, of Caracalla and Dioclesian, are all that now remain. The baths of Caracalla are situated at the base of the south summit of the Aventine hill. They are now a mass of roofless ruins of almost immeasurable extent, filled with tremendous fragments of broken wall, and overgrown with weeds and brambles.

Beside the immense halls, one of which was 150 feet long, and covered with a flat roof of stone, there are the remains of a large circular building, and other smaller ones. A broken staircase leads to the top of the ruins.

The part of the baths of Titus which has been excavated, is near the Coliseum. After passing the mouths of nine long corridors, we enter the portal of what is called the house of Mæcenas, and then arrive at a damp and dark corridor, the ceiling of which is still adorned with some of the most beautiful specimens that now remain of the paintings of antiquity. After examining these arabesque paintings, the visitor enters magnificent halls, whose ceilings are beautifully painted with fantastic designs. In one of these dungeons, 36 of which have been opened, is shown the remains of a bath supposed to have been for the private use of the emperor, and in another is seen the crimson-painted alcove, in which the Laocoon was found in the time of Leo X. The French found in those chambers the Pluto and the Cerberus. It is said that miles of these baths remain unexplored.

The baths of Dioclesian are scattered over the summit of the Quirinal and Viminal hills, and they are said to have surpassed all the thermæ of ancient Rome. They seem to have formed an immense oblong square, with a circular hall at two corners which are still standing. One of these halls, which is much dilapidated, has been used as a granary, and the other has been transformed into a church. The Xystum, or great covered hall of the thermæ, was converted into the church of Santo Maria de Angeli by M. Angelo. It is a hall 350 feet long, and 90 high. The vaulted roof is supported by sixteen Corinthian columns, eight of which only, of Egyptian granite, are ancient. The Meridian, traced on the pavement in 1701 by Bianchini, still remains.

Among the ancient arches is that of Claudius Drusus Nero, which is close to the present Porta San Sebastiano. It consists of a single arch, and is built of marble and Tiburtine stone. The two columns of African marble are supposed to be of a later age. The arches of Titus and of Severus have already been described. The arch of Constantine is in fine preservation. Its sculptured medallions and bas-reliefs which commemorate the victories of Trajan, are supposed to have been torn from one of his triumphal arches. This arch consists of eight fluted Corinthian columns of marble, which support the figures of eight Dacian captives; one column, one Dacian, and all the eight heads very modern. The arch of Gallienus is a building of mean architecture, on the Esquiline hill, near the church of Santa Maria Maggiore. The arch of Dolabella and Silanus stands on the Cœlian hill, near the church of San Tomaso in Formis.

The only remains of the celebrated aqueducts of ancient Rome, are those of the Martian and Claudian. The long and broken lines of these lofty arches stretch over the Campagna to the south. That of Martian was built by Quintius Martius in the time of the republic; that of the emperor Claudius was carried through the hills and across the vallies of Latium for a distance of 50 miles.

The first obelisk was brought to Rome from Egypt by Augustus, and now stands on Monte Citorio. The obelisk of Rameses is the loftiest that was ever brought from Egypt. Though now patched together, it rises to a hundred feet in front of the Lateran church. The two obelisks that stood at the entrance of the mausoleum of Augustus, were brought to Rome by Claudius. One of them stands in front of Santa Maria Maggiore, and the other on Monte Cavallo. The obelisk found in the circus of Caracalla stands on the Fountain of the Piazza Navona. The obelisk in the grand piazza of St. Peter's is in the most perfect preservation, and was brought from Egypt by Caligula. The obelisk which stood in the circus of Sallust, occupies the summit of the Pincian hill.

The streets of Rome are in general narrow, gloomy, irregular, and dirty, being narrower than those of London, and wider than those of Paris. They have seldom any foot pavement. They are often very long and strait, and sometimes terminating in a church, a fountain, or an obelisk. Three of the present streets diverge from the Piazza del Popolo, near the Pantheon Gate, viz. the Corso, the Strada del Barberino, and the Strada de Ripetta. The Corso, so called from being the race course, was anciently the Via Lata, extends a mile in length, in a direct line from the above piazza, to the base of the Capitoline hill, but though it is lined with churches, and palaces, and handsome edifices, its general effect is far from good. Among the other good streets are the Strada Giuli, the Strada della Langara, the Strada Felice, the Strada Maggiore, and the Strada Pia.

The houses of Rome are partly of stone and partly of brick, and are frequently plastered or stuccoed as at Vienna. Marble is not common.

Eustace informs us that modern Rome contains 46 squares, 5 monumental pillars, 10 obelisks, 13 fountains, 22 mausoleums, 150 palaces, and 346 churches.

The area in front of St. Peter's may be ranked among the squares of Rome. It is large, and of an oval shape, encircled with a fine colonnade by Bernini. In the middle stand two elegant fountains, and the Egyptian obelisk already described. The Piazza Navona, on the side of the Circus Agonalis, is adorned by the handsome church of St. Agnes, and many elegant houses. It is of an oblong shape, and its principal ornament is the fountain in its centre, erected by Bernini. It consists of a circular basin, 73 feet in diameter, containing a mass of artificial rock, to which are chained four river gods, and which supports the Egyptian obelisk brought from the circus of Caracalla. Each of these gods sends out his own stream, which, after falling down the rock, loses itself in the ocean of the basin. In a cavern in the rock is a lion and a horse. The fountain is contrived so as to overflow annually. The Piazza d'Espagna, so called from its containing the palace of the embassy, is adorned with a fountain, and several handsome buildings, but chiefly by the noble flight of marble steps that lead from it to the obelisk, church, and square of Della Trinita di Monti, which extends along the brow of the Pincian hill, and commands a fine view of Rome, Monte Mario, and the Janiculum. The Piazza of Monte Citorio, which is very beautiful, is ornamented with the Curia Innocenziana, or palace erected by Innocent XII. for courts of justice. The Piazza de Campo Marzio is small, and is to a great degree covered with buildings. The Piazza de Monte Cavallo, which stands on the Quirinal hill, is one of the finest in Rome, and contains the two marble horses already mentioned. We have already spoken of the Roman Forum, and of the small square of the Intermontium. The principal obelisks of Rome, as objects of antiquity, have already been noticed.

Among the fountains of modern Rome which are particularly admired by strangers, are the Fontana Felice, the Fontana Poalina, and the Fontana di Trevi. The Fontana Felice, in the Piazza del Termini, on the Viminal hill, is supplied by the Aqua Claudia. It discharges itself through a rock under an Ionic arcade of white stone, cased with marble. Among its gigantic statues are Moses striking the rock, Aaron conducting the Israelties, Gideon leading his soldiers to the torrent, and below are four lions, two of marble, and two of basalt. The fountain was restored by Sextus V.

The Fontana Poalina, situated in a deep evergreen shade, stands on the brow of the Janiculum. It consists of an arcade, supported by six pillars of granite. Here torrents from the summit of the hill rush through the three principal arches into an immense marble basin, whose surface is agitated like the waves of a lake, by their concussion. The waters then roll down the sides of the mountain, turn several mills as they descend, and supply numerous reservoirs below.

below. The lofty situation of the fountain commands one of the finest views of Rome, and the plain of the Campagna, bounded only by the ridge of the Apennines. "The trees," says Eustace, "that line its sides and wave to the eye, through its arches, shed an unusual beauty around it; and the immense basin which it replenishes, gives it the appearance, not of the contrivance of human ingenuity, but almost the creation of enchantment."

The fountain of Trevi, in the Piazza di Trevi, is the finest in Rome, and probably the most magnificent in the world. On a huge rough and broken rock, rises a palace adorned with Corinthian pilasters, and supported in the centre by Corinthian pillars. It is ornamented with statues. In the middle of the edifice, between the columns, under a rich arch, stands Neptune in his car, in a majestic attitude. Two sea horses, led by two tritons, drag his chariot, and "emerging from the caverns of the rock, shake the trees from their roots, while the obedient waves burst forth in torrents on all sides, roar down the clefts of the crag, and form a sea around its base." The basin is of white marble, and the enclosure around it is flagged and lined with the same stone. A flight of white marble steps leads down to the basin.

Rome is superior to all the other cities of Europe in the number and splendour of its churches.

The church of St. Peter's, with its superb cupola, its prodigious dimensions, and its extraordinary riches of sculpture and mosaic painting, is undoubtedly the most magnificent Christian temple in the world. The language of enthusiasm, at once poetic and religious, has been exhausted in celebrating its praises, and it really requires some freedom from prejudice and some self-command, as well as boldness, to be able to form, and to venture to express a dispassionate, calm opinion upon its merits and defects. We cannot help thinking, that considering the talents which were employed in its erection, the great length of time consumed betwixt its commencement and its termination, and the unbounded expense lavished on it, it is rather surprising that it is not much more magnificent. The great entrance to it is through a court surrounded by an oval Doric colonnade; this was indeed a grand conception, but its execution is open to some criticism. This court is adorned by an ancient obelisk, and two fountains of the utmost simplicity and elegance. The front itself is certainly rich and handsome, but it is very inferior to what it ought to have been, considering the importance of the building to which it belongs. It has many of the faults to which we have before alluded. Its columns are merely three-quarters, its windows look like very unsightly holes, and it has an ugly attic above its colonnade. Let any of our readers compare this front, with the western façade of our own St. Paul's, or still more with that of St. Genevieve at Paris, and they will see how much greater magnificence has been produced on a much smaller scale.

On entering St. Peter's, every observer is astonished that its dimensions appear so much less than they really are. This has been attributed to the justness of the proportions of the building, and strangely enough has been adduced as a merit. On a very little consideration this must appear a most extraordinary error. If indeed it be owing to the proportions of St. Peter's that it appears less than it is, this must be considered as a proof, not that its proportions are exactly what they ought to be, but that there is something wrong about them; for its magnificent dimensions are generally and justly regarded as one fit cause of our admiration, and therefore *that* must be thought a defect which conceals their immensity. If, on the other hand, it be a merit in the proportions of St. Peter's that they diminish to the eye its real size, then that size must be a defect, and the expense and labour of producing it must have been more than wasted. In truth, however, we doubt altogether the justness of the theory which attributes to the general proportions of a building unassisted by its darkness or lightness, the power of diminishing or augmenting the *whole* magnitude of a building. We think the true cause of the apparent diminution of St. Peter's, in part at least, may be the great magnitude of the numerous statues in the church. These are, in fact, all colossal, and as our eye is accustomed to statues more near the size of life, they serve as a false standard by which we measure the church in which they stand. We suspect also that statues of white marble have, from their brilliancy of colour, the appearance of being much nearer to the eye than they really are, which must of course diminish their apparent magnitude, and render the scale afforded by them still more fallacious. The great light of St. Peter's especially when contrasted, as it will be involuntarily by all foreigners, with the gloominess of their own Gothic cathedrals, contributes to the same effect of reducing its seeming dimensions.

On the whole, the interior of St. Peter's is very handsome, so handsome that our remarks may seem too minute, and hypercritical, when there is so much to admire; but we cannot help regretting that the entablature over the pilasters of the nave is so much broken, and that the beautiful frieze, which is over two of them, has not been continued. As it is, it only serves to make the deficiency more striking. There is also, too great a mixture of differently coloured marbles in the arches that support the nave, and the capella papale is certainly a disgrace to so noble, and generally simple an edifice. It is a singular circumstance that the tall fluted and reeded Corinthian pilasters between the arches of the nave, are only painted in imitation of white marble. The retrenchment of some of the superfluous ornaments of the church would probably have sufficed to have made them what they pretend to be. Of the cupola we have already intimated the highest admiration, and the only change which, to our apprehension, would render it more beautiful, we mean the continuing the entablature over its pilasters, would perhaps add too much to its weight for the security of the building. After all, the continuance of an internal entablature is of much less importance, as, in truth, any cornice within a building is rather a solecism, it being properly and originally the projection of the roof; for this remark we are indebted to Milizia, who suggests that it would be better in the interior of a building to omit the cornice altogether, making use of a simple frieze. It is difficult to conceive the splendid effect of the architecture of St. Peter's, when the illuminated cross, notwithstanding its own extreme brilliance, casts a dim religious light over all the more remote parts of the edifice; while those which wholly retire from its effulgence are thrown into the deepest shade.—Then indeed the church appears in its real gigantic proportions, all its minor defects are lost in the magnificence and sublimity of the whole; and we are compelled to confess that it is worthy to be the chief temple of the great city, which claims for itself the pre-eminence of Christendom.

At the west of the high altar of St. Peter's is the descent by a double flight of marble steps, to the tomb or confession of St. Peter. These steps lead to an area before two brass folding doors, which conduct into a vault whose grated floor is right above the tomb. The rails that surround this space above, are adorned with 112 bronze cornucopias, which support as many silver lamps, that burn constantly in honour of the apostle. The stair-case, the pavement of the area, and the walls around, are lined with alabaster, lapis lazuli, verde antico, &c.

The Sacre Grotte, which is on a level with the above pavement, has its regular entrance beneath one of the great pillars that support the dome. This grotto, consisting of several long winding galleries, stretching under the first building in various directions, is the remains of the ancient church built by Constantine.

The vestry or sacristy of St. Peter's is a splendid building, connected with the church by a long gallery, and ornamented with mosaics, statues, and paintings. It is indeed a large church, covered with a dome, and surrounded with chapels.

The dome of St. Peter's is ascended by a well lighted and broad paved staircase or road, of such gentle acclivity, that there is a continual passage of horses and mules upon it, which go up laden with stones and lime. Crowds of workmen are seen passing and repassing, and the whole has more

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The Pantheon. *Temple of Concord.*

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1826.

more the appearance of a town than of a single building, from the small houses and ranges of workshops necessary for the constant repairs of the church. The traveller can now examine closely the construction of the dome, the vast square platform on which it rests, the lofty colonnade that rises on that platform, and the double dome of solid stone of such prodigious magnitude; and the lantern which, like a little temple, stands on its summit.

The church of St. Clement is the most ancient church in Rome, having been built on the site of the house of the bishop of that name. A plan of it is given by Eustace; and it is deemed one of the best models of the original form of Christian churches.

The church of S. Pietro in Vincoli, built about 420, is a noble hall, supported by twenty Doric pillars of Parian marble, open on all sides. Among its monuments, is a sarcophagus of black marble, of exquisite form; and the tomb of Julius II. distinguished by the celebrated and wonderful statue of Moses, by Michael Angelo.

The church of St. Martin and St. Sylvester is formed out of the ruins of the neighbouring baths of Titus. It is one of the most beautiful buildings in Rome. It is supported by Corinthian columns of the finest marble, and the aisles are adorned by the paintings of the two Poussins.

The church of St. Andrea on Monte Cavallo by Bernini, though very small, is highly finished and very beautiful, both for its form, and the marbles that line its oval exterior.

That of St. Cecilia in Trastevere is remarkable for its great antiquity and magnificence. Over the tomb of St. Cecilia is a fine statue by Stefano Moderno, of the saint, representing the exact attitude and drapery in which the body was discovered in the tomb in 821. It is deemed very beautiful.

The church of St. Pietro in Monterio on Monte Janiculum, enjoys the finest view of the ancient and modern city. The church is not handsome, but it was once celebrated for its sculpture and paintings, among which was the Transfiguration, by Raphael. It was said to have been in a bad light here, though Raphael painted it for this very position. In the middle of the little square of the convent belonging to this church, is a round chapel in the form of an ancient temple, supported by sixteen pillars, and terminated by a dome. It was designed by Bramanti, and is much esteemed. Raphael has introduced it into his cartoon of Paul preaching at Atheus.

The church of Santa Maria in Trastevere is a bold and majestic building, distinguished by its simplicity. The vault and chapel are adorned with fine paintings, by Domenichino.

The church of S. Grisagono is remarkable for its numerous columns of granite, porphyry, and alabaster, which support its nave and choir; and that of S. Giovanni Paoli is still more splendidly adorned with pillars and ancient ornaments.

The church of St. Gregorio Magno is celebrated by the rival productions of Guido and Domenichino on the walls of its chapel.

The church of San Onofrio is celebrated for containing the remains of Tasso, which lay for many years without a monument or even an inscription. At last this piece of justice was done to his memory by the cardinal Bevilacqua.

The church of St. Sebastiano has a handsome portico and several good paintings, but it is best known as the principal entrance into the catacombs in its vicinity.

The church of Madonna del Sole is the ancient temple of Vesta, stripped of its entablature, curtailed and disfigured. The cella and pillars of white marble remain.

The church of Santa Maria Egizeaca is the temple of Fortuna Virilis, and that of Miranda stands on the ruins of the temple of Antoninus and Faustina. The church of Ara Cœli, which crowns the summit of the Capitoline, is supposed to occupy the site of the temple of Jupiter Capitolinus. It is adorned within with twenty-two ancient columns; and on the outside with a flight of 124 steps of Grecian marble, said to have formed the ascent to the temple of Romulus Quirinus.

The seven great churches or patriarchal Basilicæ, are the cathedrals of the sovereign pontiff, in which he occasionally officiates, reserving the high altar entirely to himself; and they possess the privilege of granting 6000 years indulgence to the penitent who shall visit them in one day. These seven churches are St. Peter's, St. John Lateran, Santa Maria Maggiore, St. Paul without the walls, Santa Croce, St. Lorenzo, and St. Sebastian.

The church of St. John Lateran, founded by Constantine, is the regular cathedral of the bishop of Rome, and assumes the title of the parent and mother of all churches. The principal portico, which is of the composite order, consists of four lofty columns and six pilasters. The decorations of the church are rich in the extreme. It was anciently supported by more than 300 antique pillars, but the architect walled them up in the buttresses. In a semicircular gallery, there is an altar decorated with four ancient columns of gilt bronze, which are unique; and are said to be the identical columns made by Augustus out of the rostra of the ships taken in the battle of Actium, and dedicated by Domitian on the Capitol. The Corsini chapel in this church, in the form of a Greek cross, is reckoned one of the most perfect buildings of the kind. The ancient marbles which line its walls, the columns which sustain its rich frieze of sculptured bronze, its gilt dome, the polished marbles of its pavement, and the magnificent tombs of its popes, are said to surpass conception. The tombs, with the statues, are much admired, particularly that of Clement XII. who was entombed in a large and finely shaped antique sarcophagus of porphyry, originally found in the portico of the Pantheon.

The Basilica Liberiana, or church of Santa Maria Maggiore, stands on the highest of the two summits of the Esquiline hill, in the midst of two great squares, which terminate two streets nearly two miles long. It is supposed to occupy the site of the ancient temple and grove of Juno Lucina. The principal front consists of a double colonnade; the lower Ionic, the upper Corinthian; and before it is a Corinthian pillar, supporting a brazen image of the blessed virgin. On entering the church, there appear two magnificent colonnades lining the nave, and separating it from the aisles. They are each supported by more than twenty pillars. The Ionic pillars are thirty feet high, and the length of the colonnade 250. The altar is overshadowed by a large canopy of bronze, sustained by four lofty Corinthian columns of porphyry. One of the chaples was built by Sextus Quintus, and contains his tomb. A chapel on the opposite side, belonging to the Borghese family, surpasses it in decorations. In the latter, bronze, marble, lapis lazuli, jasper, and the more precious stones, cover the walls with a blaze of ornament.

The Basilica of St. Paul, without the walls, is at some distance from the Porta Ostiensis. It is a grand temple erected by Constantine on the spot of the apostle's martyrdom. This church is said by Procopius to have been held in such veneration, that Theodosius and Honorius built a portico from the gate to the Basilica, a distance of nearly a mile. This portico, which seems to have equalled the greatest works of the ancient Romans, was supported by marble pillars, and covered with gilt copper, but not a trace of it now remains. The interior of the church is of ancient brick. The portico is supported by twelve pillars; the principal doors of bronze, and the nave and double aisles are supported by about 80 Corinthian columns in double rows, 24 of which are of Pavonazzo marble; the walls and arches rest upon 12 other columns, and 30 more decorate the apostle's tomb. These pillars are in general porphyry, and the four that support the central arches are of vast magnitude. The church is 300 feet long and 150 broad, and it exhibits the finest collection of pillars now known.

The church of Santa Croce in Gierusalemmo stands in a solitary situation on the Esquiline hill, close by the walls of Rome, and near the Claudian aqueduct. It was erected by Santa Helena, the mother of Constantine on the ruins of a temple of Venus and Cupid. It derives its name from some pieces of the holy cross, and a quantity of earth taken from Mount Calvary and deposited in it by its founder. It is remarkable

remarkable only for its antique shape, and the eight magnificent ancient columns of oriental granite that support its nave; two of these, which support the canopy of the altar are of the Peacock's eye marble. Beneath the altar is the beautiful bagnaruola, a bath of some ancient Roman, formed out of one block of basalt. Its front, which is modern, is of rich materials, but indifferent architecture.

The church of St. Lorenzo was built by Constantine on the Via Tiburtina, about a mile from the Porta San Lorenzo, and over the tomb of the martyr of that name. It is distinguished by ten magnificent columns of pavonazzetta marble buried nearly to the top of their shafts below the pavement of the old church. On the right hand side, in walking up the nave, is the Ionic column having a frog and lizard sculptured on its capital, and which is considered as the very column which Pliny mentions as having been that marked by two Spartan architects, Battroccus and Saurus. It must, therefore, have been brought here from the temple of Jove in the portico of Octavia. The frog is sculptured in the eye of one volute in place of the rose, and on the other the lizard, in its own natural posture, encircles the rose.

The three pontifical palaces in Rome are, the Lateran, the Quirinal, and the Vatican. The Lateran is a palace of great extent, adjoining the church of the same name, and a part of which is reserved for the pontiff, when he performs service in the church. The main body of the building was turned into an hospital for the reception of 250 orphans by Innocent XI.

The Quirinal palace on Monte Cavallo is the summer residence of the pope. It has two long, plain, and unadorned fronts. The court within is about 350 feet long, and about 900 wide; a broad and lofty portico runs along it on every side and terminates in a grand staircase leading to the papal apartments, chapel, &c. The adjoining gardens are spacious, and are ornamented with rivers, natural and artificial brooks, and by statues, urns, and other objects of antiquity. We have already mentioned the obelisk of the colossal horses. The principal paintings here are Guercini's Madness of Saul; Caravaggio's Christ and the Doctors; the original sketch of the Transfiguration; Domenichino's Ecce homo; Bartolomew's St. Peter and St. Paul, and some paintings by Carlo Maratti. There is here a small chapel painted by Guido.

The Vatican hill gives its name to the palace and church which stand upon its declivity. The Vatican was erected by different architects, and is more an assemblage of palaces than a regular palace. It covers a space of 1200 feet in length, and 1000 in breadth. The number of its apartments is reckoned to be 10,000, and its halls and palaces are on a scale of grandeur truly Roman. The grand entrance is from the portico of St. Peter's by the Scala Regia, the most superb staircase in the world, composed of four flights of marble steps with a double row of marble Ionic pillars. This leads to the Sala Regia, a hall of great length and height communicating by six folding doors with as many other apartments. At one end of the Sala Regia is the Capella Paolina, the altar of which is supported by porphyry pillars, and bears a tabernacle of rock crystal. On the other end of the hill on the left is the Sistine chapel, containing on its walls and vaulted ceilings the fresco paintings of Michael Angelo and his pupils, which are its only ornaments. The Last Judgment of Michael Angelo occupies one end entirely. Opposite to the Sistine chapel a folding door leads into the Sala Ducale, a very large hall. Hence the visitor passed into the Loggio de Raffaelli, a series of open galleries in three stories, lining the three sides of the court of St. Damascus. These galleries were either painted by Raphael or by his scholars. The first gallery in the middle story is the only one executed by Raphael or retouched or corrected by him. The thirteen arcades that form this wing of the gallery contain representations of the history of the Old and part of the New Testament. The first compartment represents God with arms and feet expanded darting into chaos, reducing its distracted elements into order by the word of his command. This representation is said to have astonished Michael Angelo. From one of the galleries a door opens into the Camere de Raffaello, which are a range of unfurnished halls the walls being covered with figures.

Two antichambers, adorned with the paintings of great masters, lead to the first hall, called the Hall of Constantine, because it is adorned with the achievements of that emperor. The second chamber contains the story of Heliodorus from the Maccabees, the interview of Pope Leo and Attila, the miracle of Bolsena, and the fine picture of the liberation of St. Peter from prison. The third chamber contains the School of the Philosophers, the Debate on the Sacrament, the Judgment of Solomon, and Parnassus with its groves of bays, Apollo, the Muses, and the poets whom they inspired. The fourth chamber contains the Burning of the Borgo San Andre, the Victory of Pope Leo over the Saracens at Ostia, and the Coronation of Charlemagne. These paintings are the work of Raphael.

From these state apartments of the Vatican, we pass to the Belvidere, so called from its elevation and prospect, and, advancing along an extensive gallery, we reach an iron door which conducts us into the library of the Vatican. The books are all kept in cases, and are not seen. Their number, Eustace says, has been estimated at 2 and 400,000, while others raise it to a million, but a more recent author says that it scarcely possesses 40,000. The usual entrance into the library is by the office of that of the clerks, or writers of the principal European languages who are attached to the library. Passing through an anti-room, you enter a hall 200 feet by 50, painted in fresco. In this hall there is a column of oriental alabaster, from the baths of the emperor Gordian, and other curiositics. At both ends of this hall is a long gallery, the one being terminated by the sacred, the other by the profane cabinet; the former a collection of Christian, and the latter of Pagan antiquities. The first consists of curiosities from the catacombs, carvings of Madonnas, Martyrdoms in bas-reliefs, &c. The adjacent chamber of the Papyrus, decorated by Raphael and Mengs, is highly admired. The pavement is of the richest marble, and the walls are enamelled with giallo and verde antico, with porphyry and pilasters of oriental granite of the highest polish. The papyrus MSS. are enclosed in the walls in long columns under glass. At this end of the building the late pope has added some rooms, in which the books are visible and in which there is a fine collection of Greek vases. There is a good cabinet of medals in the library, and also a collection of prints. At the other end of this immense gallery is the profane cabinet, which possesses a grand collection of antiques, particularly of bronze. Here there are some types for stamping, approaching closely to printing types. There are here several lead water-pipes marked with the plumber's name; and perhaps the most singular curiosity is the long hair of a Roman lady, found in a tomb in the Appian way, and in a state of perfect preservation.

The grand gallery which leads to the library terminates in the Museum Pio-Clementinum, begun by Clement XIV. and completed by Pius VI. It consists of several apartments, galleries, halls and temples, some lined with marble, others with mosaic pavement, and all of them full of statues, altars, tombs, candelabra, and vases. Three anti-chambers, called Il vestibolo Quadrato, Il vestibolo Rotondo, and La Camera di Baccho, lead to a court more than 100 feet square, with a portico supported by granite pillars, and decorated by antiquities of all kinds; with the Apollo Belvidere, the Laocoon, the Cartoons, and the Torso. Next to the court is the hall of animals, furnished with the ancient statues of animals. At one end this hall opens into the gallery of Statues, containing on each side exquisite statues of Greek and Roman sculpture, and terminated by three apartments called the *Stanze delle Buste*. The busts rest on tables or stands of ancient workmanship, and commonly of the most curious and beautiful marble. At the opposite end of the gallery is an apartment called *Il Gabinetto*, adorned by the united arts of painting, sculpture, and architecture. Its roof is supported by eight columns of alabaster. The place shines with

with ancient mirrors, and its roof is adorned with the events of history and mythology. This cabinet communicates by an open gallery with the Stanze delle Buste on one side, and the hall of animals on the other. Through a noble pillared vestibule we now enter the temple of the Muses, an octagon supported by sixteen pillars of Carrara marble with ancient capitals, and paved with ancient mosaics. Next to the temple of the Muses is the Sala Rotonda, a lofty dome, supported by ten columns of Carrara marble, paved with the largest mosaics yet found. In the middle is a vase of porphyry, fifty feet in circumference, or forty-two, according to a late author. This hall is appropriated to colossal statues, among which are Ceres, Juno, Lanuvina, Hadrian, Antinous, Jupiter, Jupiter Serapis, and Ocean. From the Rotonda, which is reckoned the finest hall in the museum, a rich portal leads to the Sala a Croce Greca, supported by columns, and paved with an ancient mosaic brought from Cicero's villa. Here is a vast sarcophagus, formed with its lid of one block of red porphyry, adorned in basso-relievo with little cupids. This once contained the ashes of Constantia, the daughter of Constantine.

This last hall opens on a double staircase raised on twenty-two pillars of red and white granite, with marble steps and a bronze ballustrade. The middle flight leads to the Vatican library, the other two to the gallery of Candelabra, a long gallery of six compartments, separated by columns of rich marble. This gallery contains various candelabra with vases and other objects of antiquity. At the end of this long suite of apartments a door opens into the *Galleria de Quadri*, containing a collection of pictures by the Italian masters. On the left, before descending the above-mentioned staircase, there is a beautiful little circular temple of marble, called the Stanze della Biga, from the biga or triumphal car of richly sculptured marble which stands in the centre, drawn by two fiery steeds of bronze. It is adorned by four bas-reliefs, a statue of an auriga, and a fine discobolus. Besides these galleries, there is the long geographical gallery, with maps of the Italian mountains and rivers on its walls, and the tapestry chambers hung with tapestry woven in Flanders, and copied from the cartoons of Raphael.

Among the other objects of public interest at Rome, is the museum of the Capitol, consisting of splendid halls and galleries, filled with the treasures of ancient sculpture, which it is impossible here to enumerate, far less to describe. The museum of paintings in the Capitol is contained in the opposite Palazzo di Conservatori, in which there are likewise many objects of antiquity. The paintings are coarse, and inferior in interest to the sculptures in the other museum.

The Doria palace has three vast fronts; the staircase, supported by pillars of oriental granite, conducts to a magnificent gallery, occupying the four sides of a square court, and containing one of the largest and best collection of paintings in Italy.

The Colonna palace has the finest gallery, and the best collection of pictures in Rome. The exterior of the building is of indifferent architecture. The library is spacious and well filled, and its great gallery, more than 220 feet long, and 40 broad, is supported by Corinthian pillars and pilasters of beautiful yellow marble, and adorned on the sides and vaulted ceilings with paintings and gildings intermingled.

A part of the paintings and curiosities of the Palazzo Barberini have been sold, from the poverty of the family. Another part of them at the Lucanni palaces form a very select collection.

The Palazzo Borghese, one of the largest and handsomest in Rome, is now inhabited by Paolina, the sister of Buonaparte and the wife of the prince Borghese, who lives constantly at Florence. The edifice is superb, and remarkable for its extent, its porticoes, its granite columns, and its paintings and statues.

The other leading palaces in Rome are the P. Ruspoli, remarkable for its staircase; the P. Orsini, founded on the theatre of Marcellus; the P. Giustiniani, standing near Nero's baths, and adorned with the statues and columns extracted from them; the P. Altieri, adorned with the pictures of Claude Lorraine; the P. Corsini, once the residence of Christiana, queen of Sweeden, remarkable for its fine library and collection of prints; the P. Farnese, of immense size and elevation, and considered by some as the finest in Rome; the P. Falconieri, the residence of Cardinal Fesch; the P. Spada, containing the celebrated statue of Pompey.

Rome, without being a place of active study, is the seat of several seminaries; an university, a Greek, a German, and a Jesuit college. The Propaganda, or college for the diffusion of the Christian faith, is on an extensive scale, containing a number of youths of different nations, and a press for printing books in more than thirty languages. Rome contains likewise several literary associations, viz. the Arcadian academy, the archæological, the academia Tiberiani, the academy of the fine arts. A monthly publication, partaking of the mixed nature of a review and magazine, appears under the title of Giornale Arcadico de scienze, letere, ed arti; and since 1819, there is published weekly, a Giornale Encyclopedico, containing articles on the physical sciences, chiefly translations, along with some pieces of poetry. These are feeble publications for a place of such size and celebrity; but the fame of modern Rome lies not in literature, but in the fine arts. It has long been a resort for painters, sculptors, and architects, both from Italy, France, and other countries. The private collections of pictures, statues, and antiquities, are numerous and extensive. In other respects the taste of instruction is less attended to than in France or England; the young men giving themselves little concern about study, and the young women being imperfectly instructed, even in ornamental accomplishments.

The inhabitants of Rome amounted in 1817 to 131,000, in 1821, to 135,171, in 1822, to 136,085. This number, whatever may be the assertions to the contrary, seems to have formed, with little variation, its population for a century past. The people occupy a third of the space inclosed by the walls; and as the circuit of modern Rome is not inferior to that of the ancient city, the reported population of the mistress of the world must have been greatly exaggerated. The official returns mentioned in Roman history are to be understood, not of the inhabitants of the city, but of persons possessing the privileges of Roman citizens; and when we consider the limited supply of provisions in an age of backward navigation, along with the smallness of the farms in the adjacent country, and in particular, the ascertained limits of the city, there seems little room for estimating the population of imperial Rome at more than 300,000 or 400,000. The position of the city had naturally very little strength; her means of defence, like those of Sparta, lay in the number of her armed citizens, and in the difficulty attendant on the siege of any walled town before the invention of artillery.

Of the present inhabitants of Rome, no less than 9000 are Jews, a number of whom are employed in the same active but irregular traffic as in Holland, Germany, and other countries. They are restricted to a particular quarter, the gates of which are closed every night. This place is very dirty, but a similar charge may be made against modern Rome at large; water, though abundant, being very little used for cleanliness, and the rooms being infested with fleas and and other vermin. The number of Catholic inhabitants connected with the church, as priests, monks, or nuns, is computed at 7000 or 8000. The manufacturing establishments are small, but in considerable variety; viz. woollens, silks, velvets, hats, gloves, stockings, liquors, pommade, and artificial flowers. Of articles connected with the fine arts, a small export takes place. Rome has its bank, and its Monte di Pieta, or house for advancing money on deposited goods. Its foreign trade is limited to imports of colonial articles, and a few manufactures, such as printed cottons: its exports consist of the produce of the adjacent country, viz. alum, vitrol, puzzuolano sand, olive oil, anise, and a few other articles.

The society of Rome has long formed one of its great attractions. The police exercises no inquisitorial power, being actuated by no political suspicions; and every person, whether foreigner or native, may live as he thinks proper, without exciting

citing animadversion. Hence a considerable assemblage of enlightened foreigners, whose society gives animation to the city, and makes up for the monotony or prejudice so common in the conversation of the natives. The public amusements consist of theatrical representations, of concerts, and of religious processions. The season of Lent is regularly preceded here, as in other Catholic cities, by a carnival, a scene of grotesque and puerile display exhibited chiefly in the long street called the Corso. It is then that theatres, great and small, are open; but they are far inferior to those of the French or British metropolis. Several differences in national manners are to be traced to the influence of the climate. To walk in the streets of Rome, or of any city in Italy, is quite unfashionable; a carriage of one kind or other, and a box at the opera, are indispensible even to those of the noblesse or gentry whose limited income denies them a comfortable meal. The evening parties in private houses are often very numerous, filling a suite of spacious apartments. Here is no luxury of the table, but music, conversation, dancing, and, for the more elderly part of the company, cards. It is the custom of all who can afford it, to pass in the country the month of May, or, at all events, that of October, the air of the Campagna being then purified by the rains of September.

ROME, a township of the United States, in Oneida county, New York, which is pleasant and flourishing, containing a court-house, a goal, and an arsenal, and carrying on a considerable trade. Population 2000; 108 miles west-north-west of Albany. Lat. 43. 12. N. long. 75. 27. W.

ROME, a township of the United States, in Kennebeck county, Maine. Population 585.

ROME DE TARN, St., a small town in the south of France, department of the Aveyron, near the Tarn. In the neighbourhood are mines of coal. Population 1500; 12 miles south-west of Milhaud, and 28 south-east of Rhodez.

ROME DE L'ISLE (John-Baptiste Louis), an eminent naturalist, was born in 1736, at Gray, in Franche-Comte. From his youth he applied himself to observations on natural history and mineralogy, and by his writings and discoveries acquired a reputation which has entitled him to a place among the successful votaries of these sciences. In 1766 he published a "Letter to M. Bertrand, on Fresh-water Polypes." He drew up descriptive catalogues of many rich collections of minerals and madrepores, of which the most distinguished was that of Davila, in 3 vols. 8vo. 1767. A work which he published in 1779 and 1781 bore the singular title of "L'Action du feu Central banni de la Surface du Globe, et le Soleil rétabli dans ses Droits." In 1783 appeared the work by which he is best known, his "Chrystallographie," 4 vols. 8vo. In this ingenious and elaborate performance the author gives a description of the forms proper to every substance of the mineral kingdom in a saline, stony, and metallic combination, with figures of all the known crystals, arranged according to the number and disposition of their angles. He asserts (incorrectly certainly) that every species in the mineral kingdom always takes a polyhedral form, which is regular, constant, and peculiar to itself. His system has been attacked by several naturalists, but it cannot be denied to exhibit great industry and sagacity. He published besides, "Caractères Extérieurs des Minéraux," 8vo. 1784; "Metrologie, ou Tables pour servir a l'Intelligence des Poids et des Mesures des Anciens, d'apres leur Rapport avec les Poids et les Mesures de la France," 8vo., 1789. Romé bore a truly philosophical character in society: he died at Paris in 1790.

A writer in Dr. Brewster's Encyclopædia remarks, "The great merits of Romé de l'Isle in mineralogy are less generally acknowledged than they deserve; particularly by the French mineralogists. Modern mineralogists are often astonished at the accuracy of the descriptions given by this author, even of such substances as were afterwards confounded with each other by Haüy and those who copied him. In almost every page the power of observation is displayed in a remarkable degree, joined with good sense, correct reasoning, and a vast mineralogical erudition. His figures of crystals, indeed, are frequently far from affording the pleasing effect of geometrical perfection, which captivates the eye in the figures adorning the great work of Haüy; yet they betray the hand of the master, who seized the peculiar character of the individual crystals which he represents, and which is often better preserved in these sketches than in better executed drawings.

"The student will always find a great deal of instruction in perusing the second edition of his *Crystallographie*, the result of more than twenty years continued and well directed exertions; but those who are already proficient in the science, will find pleasure in discovering in his writings that they have often been anticipated in their descriptions. It may be said with perfect propriety, that, however ingenious the views of Haüy may have been in regard to the property of cleavage, he could never have succeeded in establishing them as a general system, applicable to all crystallized minerals, had he not possessed the observations and drawings of Romé de l'Isle. This great man met with all the opposition commonly incidental to new ideas, or to a degree of accuracy which, in fact, is far beyond what had been customary before; but the prejudices had worn off, when Haüy's system appeared, which then earned the rewards both of its own merits and of Romé de l'Isle's. Haüy has always been candid enough to acknowledge every thing he owed to the latter; he supplied the link which made Romé de l'Isle's observations useful, by introducing general views in crystallography, founded upon geometrical processes, and by giving a particular name to every substance determined as a particular species. Romé de l'Isle was particularly regardless of the two great points, which, according to Linnæus, like the thread of Ariadne, lead us through the maze of the variety of nature,—the systematic disposition and denomination of the species; although, in his paper *Des Caractères Extérieures des Minéraux*, he has given principles for the determination of the latter, independent of chemical analysis, which will stand every attack, and remain one of the most valuable disquisitions on the subject ever proposed to the public, and which ought to be studied by every one who wishes to inform himself on this important subject."

ROMELSHAUSEN, a village of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, near Cronstadt. Population 1000.

ROMELSOE, a cluster of small islands on the west side of the gulf of Bothnia. Lat. 64. 55. N. long. 21. E.

ROMEN, or Romni, a small town in the interior of European Russia, in the government of Poltava. It carries on a considerable trade in tobacco, raised in the neighbourhood; also in foreign silk and cotton goods; 100 miles north-north-west of Poltava, and 112 east-south-east of Czernigov.

RO'MEPENNY, or Ro'mescot. *s.* [ꝓome-pænɪȝ, and ꝓome-ꝥcoꝫꝫ, Sax.] Peter-pence; which see.—Besides the usual tribute of *romescot*, giving great alms, by the way. *Milton.*

ROMERIGE, or Raumerige, a large district in the south of Norway, lying to the north of the town of Christiania. It is divided into Upper and Lower. The former derives its chief wealth from its iron works; the latter from the cultivation of corn.

ROMERSKIRCH, a large village of the grand duchy of the Lower Rhine, archbishopric of Cologne, with 1300 inhabitants.

ROMERSTADT, a small town of the Austrian states, in Moravia; 27 miles north of Olmutz. Population 1000.

ROMERSWAEL was formerly a town of the Netherlands, in the province of Zealand, situated on the island of South Beveland, on the east branch of the Scheldt. It was an extensive place, but has long been under water, having been no less than six times overflowed between 1551 and 1563.

ROMESCAMPS, a small town in the north of France, department of the Oise, with manufactures of coarse woollen. Population 1100; 6 miles north-west of Grandvilliers.

ROMETTA, a small town in the east part of the island of Sicily, in the Val di Demona; 5 miles north-west of Messina.

ROMFORD, a market town and parish in the liberty of Havering-atté-Bower, county of Essex, England, is situated at the distance of 17 miles south-west from the county town

town of Chelmsford, and 12 miles east-north-east from London. This town is supposed by Stukeley to occupy the scite of the Roman station Durolitum. The same author conjectures that its present name is a contraction for Romanford; and in this opinion he is supported by Mr. Lethieullier. Lysons, however, derives it from the Saxon words *Rom* and *Ford*, which signify the Broad-Ford, in allusion to an ancient passage through a rivulet which flows past the western extremity of the town. Romford is first mentioned in record in the Red Book of the Exchequer; where it is said that, in 1166, Roger Bigod, duke of Norfolk, held "the wood of Romford by serjeancy, and payment of five shillings a-year." It is next noticed in 1277, at which time the manor formed part of the possessions of Adam de Cretinge. It afterwards passed to Thomas de Brotherton, earl of Norfolk, from whom it descended by marriage to the Mowbrays, dukes of Norfolk; but on the death of John, the fourth duke, without male issue, in 1477, it became vested in James, lord Berkeley. Since that period it has belonged to different families, and is now the property of a gentleman named Newman.

Romford is governed by a bailiff and wardens, who, though forming no corporation, are empowered by letters patent to hold a weekly court, for the trial of all causes, whether civil or criminal, high treason not excepted. In ecclesiastical jurisdiction, however, it is subordinate to Hornchurch, except so far as concerns the maintenance of the poor; in which particular it was recognised as a separate parish, in the year 1786. The privilege of holding a weekly market was first granted to the inhabitants by king Henry III.; but at present here are three: one on Monday, for the sale of calves; another on Tuesday, for hogs; and a third on Wednesday, for corn and cattle. There is likewise an annual fair on the 24th of June. The church or chapel of Romford is an ancient structure, and was probably erected about the commencement of the 15th century, when the inhabitants obtained a bull from the pope, authorising them to consecrate a cemetery adjoining the town, for the burial of their dead, who had, previously to that time, been carried to Hornchurch burying-ground. In this chapel were, in Catholic times, a guild and a chantry; the former of which was valued at 4*l.* 10*s.* 2*d.*, and the latter at 13*l.* annual revenue, at the era of the dissolution. The principal monuments here are those of Sir George Hervey, knight, lieutenant of the Tower, who died in 1605, and his lady, both of whom are represented kneeling; and of Sir Anthony Cook of Gidea-Hall, and his lady, whose effigies are exhibited in similar positions. On the latter tomb are several inscriptions in Latin, said to have been written by the daughters of the deceased, who were the most learned females of the age. Not far from the church is a charity school for forty boys, and another for twenty girls, which were founded and endowed in 1728; and at a short distance from the western end of the town are barracks for the accommodation of a regiment of cavalry, erected in 1795. According to the population census of 1811, the parish of Romford, including the Town ward, Collier-row ward, Harrold's-wood ward, and Noah-hill ward, contained 620 houses, and 3244 inhabitants.

The district called Havering-atté ward, which comprehends the three adjacent parishes of Hornchurch, Romford, and Havering, anciently constituted part of the demesnes of the Saxon kings: and even to this day it possesses peculiar privileges, both as prescriptive rights, and by charter, granted by Henry IV., and since confirmed by several of his successors. Near the village of Havering-atté-Bower was formerly a palace, which tradition ascribes to king Edward the Confessor, and which subsequently became the occasional residence of more than one monarch of the Norman line. The situation of this palace is very fine, and commands extensive views over parts of Essex, Hertfordshire, Kent, Middlesex, and Surrey, as well as of the river Thames. The surrounding park, now the property of the crown, but let on lease, exceeds a thousand acres in extent. To the westward of this park, about two miles, lies Hainault-Forest, in which stood the famous tree, called Fairlop-oak, which Gilpin informs us, in his "Remarks on Forest Scenery," is traced by tradition "half way up the Christian era." It is generally said to have been the largest tree in this kingdom, (measuring 36 feet in girt near the base or root, and spreading its branches over a circumference of 300 feet). But at Hampstead, in Essex, there was a tree of much larger dimensions.

About a mile to the eastward of Romford is Gidea-Hall, an ancient seat of the Cook family; and near it stands Hare-Hall, a mansion formerly belonging to John Arnold Wallenger, Esq. The house was built under the direction of Mr. Payne, in 1769, and is constructed of Portland stone; it consists of a centre, with two wings, connected by colonnades. A small villa in this neighbourhood, at Hare-street, is the residence of Humphry Repton, Esq. distinguished for his taste and talents as a landscape-gardener. He is also author of two or three elegant volumes on picturesque scenery, and the principles of taste, as displayed in the embellishment of parks and gentlemen's mansions. His son, John Adey Repton, is also justly celebrated for his intimate knowledge of the principles and history of the ancient architecture of England. Four miles to the eastward is the village of Brentwood, or Burnt-wood, which was anciently a market town; but this privilege is now lost. Its former importance, however, may be conjectured from the fact of the county assizes having been held here for many years. The remains of the town-hall and prison are still discernible in the main street, which stretches itself along the Harwich road, and abounds with inns and public houses for the accommodation of travellers. Here is a grammar-school, founded in 1537 by Sir Anthony Brown. Camden supposed the Roman station of Cæsaromagus to have been situated at or near Brentwood; but this opinion is not supported by any facts, or even probability.

Five miles westward from Romford formerly stood Wanstead House, the seat of William Pole Tilney Long Wellesley, Esq. M. P., who acquired it by marriage with Miss Tilney Long, eldest daughter and co-heiress of the late Sir James Tilney Long. It was a very spacious and magnificent building, measuring 260 feet in front, and nearly 80 feet in depth. Within the park, on its southern side, a tessellated Roman pavement was discovered in the year 1735. It was about 20 feet long, and was conjectured by Mr. Lethieullier to have been the pavement of a banquetting room. In the centre was the figure of a man, and around him a great variety of ornaments.

ROMHILD, a small town of Germany, in the duchy of Saxe-Meinungen, the chief place of a domain belonging in common to the princes of Saxe-Meinungen and Saxe-Coburg. Population 1600; 17 miles south-south-east of Meinungen.

ROMI a village of Diarbekir, in Asiatic Turkey; 45 miles south of Kerkesieh.

ROMILEY, or Romleigh, a township of England, in the parish of Stockport, Chester, near Altrincham. Population 1015.

ROMILLY (Sir Samuel), an eminent lawyer, distinguished also as a partriot and philanthropist. Descended from a race of ancestors, whose attachment to civil and religious liberty constrained them to sacrifice their property, to abandon their native land, and to seek an asylum from persecution in this country, it was reserved for him to maintain and perpetuate the honour of the family from which he derived his origin. Of his family and its emigration, it will be sufficient to transcribe the following account given by himself in an address to the citizens of Bristol, when they invited him to become a candidate for representing them in parliament. "It has been published in this city that I am a foreigner, and that if you elect me, you will send a foreigner to represent you in a British parliament. Gentlemen, I was born and educated, and have passed my whole life in England, with the exception of a short interval, which was spent in visiting foreign countries. My father too was born and educated in England, and spent his whole life in it; my grandfather, it is true, was not an Englishman by

by birth, but he was an Englishman by choice. He was born the heir to a considerable landed estate at Montpellier, in the south of France. His ancestors had early imbibed and adopted the principles and doctrines of the reformed religion, and he had been educated himself in that religious faith. He had the misfortune to live soon after the time when the edict of Nantz, the great toleration act of the Protestants of France, was revoked by Louis XIV., and he found himself exposed to all the vexations and persecutions of a bigoted and tyrannical government, for worshipping God in the manner which he believed was most acceptable to him. He determined to free himself from this bondage; he abandoned his property, he tore himself from his connections, and sought an asylum in this land of liberty, where he had to support himself only by his own exertions. He himself embarked in trade; he educated his sons to useful trades; and he was contented at his death to leave them, instead of his original patrimony, no other inheritance than the habits of industry he had given them; the example of his own virtuous life; an hereditary detestation of tyranny and injustice; and an ardent zeal in the cause of civil and religious freedom. To him I owe it, among other inestimable blessings, that I am an Englishman. Gentlemen, this is my origin; and I trust that I need not blush to own it."

The father of Sir Samuel was an eminent jeweller, and realized a handsome fortune; his mother, whose maiden name was Garnault, was descended from a family of French refugees; and he being the youngest of nine children, of whom three only attained to maturity, was born in Frith-street, Soho, in the city of Westminster, on the 1st of March, 1757.

In early life he manifested those powers of the understanding, and those affections of the heart, which, under proper direction and assiduous culture, augured his future advancement to eminence of station and character; and having chosen the profession of the law for the exercise of his talents, he soon exhibited those powers and that persevering application, which, without the advantages of a patrimonial estate, and an education at a public school or university, ensured his future eminence. Having enrolled his name in one of the Inns of Court, and previously acquired some notion of business in the "Six-Clerks' Office," connected with the court to which he directed his views, he was called to the bar in 1783; and from the reputation he gained as an "equity draughtsman," he soon rose to the higher departments of his profession. Upon the removal of Thurlow, Scott, and Mitford, from the chancery court, Mr. R. became a leader, and was retained in almost every cause. In the summer of 1797, whilst he was upon a visit at the seat of the Marquess of Landsdowne, he met with a daughter of Francis Garbett, Esq. of Knill-Court, in the country of Hereford; a young lady, whose youth and beauty and other amiable qualities engaged his affection, and determined his choice; and to whom he was married in the following year. This connection opened to his views the prospect of a growing family, and of course induced him to apply to the business of his profession with additional ardour and assiduity. Accordingly when Mr. Fox and Lord Grenville assumed the reins of government in the year 1806, he was nominated solicitor-general, after some suspense about committing to his custody the great seal, and received the honour of knighthood.

It is recorded to the honour of Sir Samuel, as well as to that of his colleague, Sir Arthur Pigott, the attorney-general, that though the press, according to the language of Lord Chatham, was become, during their time, a "chartered libertine," and political contention had arrived at its height, yet with a kind of triumph over all provocations which assailed the administration of this period, no prosecution for libel occurred. Indeed, the mind of Sir Samuel was occupied about a much higher object, which was the reform of the English system of jurisprudence. His first attempt with this view was an amendment of the bankrupt laws; and though he did not succeed to the extent of his wishes, so as to render the freehold estates of persons liable to the bankrupt laws, who might die indebted, assets for the payment of their simple-contract debts (for which he was allowed to bring a bill into the House of Commons in 1807, which bill was lost on a division), he nevertheless obtained an act by means of which the debts of traders have been more effectually secured, for the benefit of the public. About this time he acted as a manager at the trial of the late Viscount Melville, for high crimes and misdemeanours in his office as treasurer of the navy, which terminated in an acquittal. On occasion of the abolition of the slave-trade, which conferred immortal honour on this short-lived administration, Sir Samuel delivered a speech which made great impression on the house: and it is said that one passage of it, which he uttered with an uncommon degree of animation, was honoured by three distinct plaudits. On the dismissal of the ministry, of which he formed so distinguishing a part, he vindicated and applauded their conduct, during the year of their existence; expressing in terms of cordial approbation their decisive measures with regard to the abolition of the slave-trade, and the emancipation of Ireland, as well as their refusal to give the king a pledge not to renew the Roman Catholic question; and deprecating the return of Lord Melville to office, notwithstanding his acquittal, as no one had moved for rescinding the vote against him.

The attention of Sir Samuel, both in and out of office, was much occupied concerning the state of our criminal code, and the adoption of measures for reforming it. He lamented, in common with many other enlightened patriots, that the loss of life should be annexed to a greater variety of actions in England than in any other country in the world, and that criminals of very different descriptions should be subject, by the administration of our laws, to the same kind and degree of punishment. To rectify this anomaly in our jurisprudence appeared to Sir Samuel Romilly an object of great importance, in its connection both with the equity and humanity of legislation, and the prevention of crimes. Accordingly on the 18th of May, 1808, he moved for leave to bring in a bill for the repeal of certain objectionable laws; and in this bill he introduced a clause for granting compensation to persons who were unjustly accused and tried. He soon after published a pamphlet, intitled "Observations on the Criminal Law of England, as it relates to capital Punishments, and to the Mode in which it is administered." In this pamphlet, which passed through three editions, he explained his views, and pursued his refutation of the theory of Dr. Paley. "The certainty of punishment," says this excellent writer, "is much more efficacious than any severity of example for the prevention of crimes. So evident is the truth of this maxim, that if it were possible that punishment, as the consequence of guilt, could be reduced to an absolute certainty, a very slight penalty would be sufficient to prevent almost every species of crime, except those which arise from sudden gusts of ungovernable passion."

The subject of this memoir soon afterwards distinguished himself by his opposition to the appointment of a new judge and tribunal for facilitating public business and alleviating the labours of the Lord Chancellor. This he considered and represented as an innovation, from which neither the chancellor, nor the suitors of his court, nor the public in general, would eventually derive any advantage. In a pamphlet under the title of "Objections to the Project of creating a Vice-chancellor of England," he announced to the public his opinions on this subject, "the general result of which was, that the new division of chancery into two courts, and the creation of an intermediate court of appeal between it and the House of Lords, would tend greatly to enhance the expense of suits 'already greviously and oppressively high,' to multiply the business of the court, and to protract the final decision of causes."

No man ever devoted his time and talents to important and useful purposes with greater assiduity and zeal than Sir Samuel Romilly. His professional practice, which was very extensive, demanded a great portion of his time and attention; and yet

yet whenever the public interest required his attendance in the house, he never absented himself on account of any personal engagements. His practice and his parliamentary duties occupied the whole of the day from the morning dawn frequently till midnight; and his publications were the productions of those hours that ought to have been devoted to rest and sleep. It is not at all surprising that talents like his, and so employed, should command general notice and respect. At the general election, he was proposed as a fit representative for Westminster, his native city; and he was chosen in the most honourable manner, without trouble, expense, and solicitation, by a decided majority, and amidst the applauses of an immense body of electors. But a circumstance occurred which rendered the closing period of his life gloomy and distressing, and which disappointed the expectations of his constituents. Lady Romilly, to whom he was affectionately attached, and with whom he had enjoyed a high degree of connubial felicity, had been for some time in a state of declining health, and his mind was agitated by very disquieting and depressing apprehensions on her account. During their residence at their country house at Tanhurst, in Surrey, in August, 1818, her complaint seems to have abated, and with the flattering hope that her convalescence would be confirmed by the mild air of the Isle of Wight, they accepted an invitation from Mr. and Mrs. Nash, to spend the remainder of his vacation at their hospitable castle at East Cowes, whither they removed in the month of September. Here lady Romilly's disorder recurred with circumstances of peculiar aggravation; and Dr. Roget, the nephew of Sir Samuel, was summoned to her relief. Her complaint, however, was irremediable; and after various fluctuations, which excited alternate hope and alarm, she died of a dropsy in the chest, in the night of the 29th of October. During the progress of her disorder to its fatal termination, Sir Samuel's mind was kept in a state of constant suspense and anxiety, until at length his sympathy with the amiable sufferer, and an apprehension of the uncertain issue of her complaint, disordered his whole frame, deprived him of sleep, or scared him with frightful dreams; and it is said, that on one occasion, after having been in a state of great distress, he intimated to a friend, that he felt a burning sensation in his head; and this seems to have been the only occasion on which he made a complaint of this kind. Alarmed about himself, he sought relief, and tried a variety of medicines without any permanent effect. "He frequently expressed his surprise, that his want of sleep did not interfere with his bodily health, that his appetite and digestion continued in full vigour, that no indication of fever existed, and that he felt no uneasy sensation in his head. In conversing with Dr. Roget and Mr. Dumont, he dwelt much on this apparent anomaly, and drew from it the most ominous presage, as to the probability of its ending in insanity —an apprehension which unfortunately took deep root in his mind. A striking instance of this feeling appears in one of the testamentary papers written by him about this time, in which he gave particular directions as to the management of his property, the care of his children, and the custody of his person and estate, in the event of his becoming a lunatic. It may be remarked also, that the circumstance of his losing sight, in a great measure, of the primary cause of his grief, and of fixing his attention so much upon his own feelings, was so opposite to his natural disposition, as in itself to constitute a strong feature of aberration." Other circumstances, which occurred on his interviews with his friends, confirm the same observation.

On the morning after lady Romilly's death, when Dr. Roget informed him of the event, he received the intelligence with calmness and resignation, and without any effusion of grief; and prepared to quit the scene of his sorrows at the suggestion of his friends, without hesitation or demur. At Murrel-green, where they lodged in their way to London, we learn from Dr. Roget, who passed the night in the same room with him, that, although he was in general restless, yet, at intervals, he enjoyed tranquil sleep: nor did he betray, at any period, the smallest sign of impatience or irritability. As he approached London, however, on the following day, his agitation increased, and he once complained to his daughter that his head was disturbed. After his arrival at his own house in town, he ate his dinner with his usual appetite; he then sent for Dr. Marcet, who inquired particularly concerning the state of his head, and was informed by Sir Samuel, "that he had no head-ache, nor any uneasy sensation whatever in his head." The symptoms present were those of a high degree of nervous irritation, unaccompanied by fever or any inflammatory action; but they were of a nature to excite considerable alarm as to the state of his mind. During the greatest part of the night, Dr. Roget, who slept in the same room, reports that he was perfectly tranquil and apparently asleep; though in the morning Sir Samuel assured him, that he had never, for an instant, dropped asleep.

The next morning the restlessness returned, and was attended with symptons of fever; the tongue became white during the night, and the pulse at one time rose to 130 in a minute. Upon consulting Dr. Marcet, it was proposed, at his suggestion, to apply ice to the head, and to have recourse to cupping; but before these measures were adopted, Dr. Babington was sent for, and before he arrived the excitement had subsided, and Sir Samuel was much relieved by a copious perspiration. Upon consultation, it was agreed, that the measures proposed by Dr. Marcet, in existing circumstances, would not be expedient; and other medicines of an active nature were prescribed. These were taken by Sir Samuel without reluctance; and he continued tranquil and apparently asleep till about two o'clock. His daughter remained at the side of his bed, who observed upon his awaking, that he became restless and agitated. Upon being asked whether Dr. Roget should be called, he replied in the negative; but upon a second inquiry, he faintly assented. During the short interval of Miss Romilly's absence, a sudden paroxysm had seized him, hurried him from the bed, and armed his hand against his own life. The razor with which he had inflicted the fatal wound was in his hand when Dr. Roget entered his apartment. Before he expired, as his biographer proceeds in the relation of the melancholy catastrophe, he made signs that he wished to write, but though supplied with pen and ink, nothing intelligible could be collected from his attempts. He then desisted from making them, and joining his hands, appeared, from the movements of his lips and eyes, to be absorbed in fervent prayer. It is hardly necessary to state, that the jury summoned on the coroner's inquest brought in a verdict, "that the deceased had destroyed himself in a state of temporary mental derangement."

Sir Samuel and his lady were interred at the same time, in the same grave, at Knill, the seat of her ancestors, in Herefordshire. The funeral, agreeably to the instructions of his will, was private; being attended only by his nearest relations and most intimate friends. Six sons and one daughter survived to lament the irreparable loss which they sustained. The calamitous event, which thus awfully terminated the life of Sir Samuel Romilly on the 2d of November, 1818, in the 62d year of his age, made a deep impression, not only in the circle of his family and friends, but through the country in general. So highly was he respected and esteemed, that on this melancholy occasion, "the solicitors suspended their practice; the counsel abandoned the courts; while the judge forsook the bench, after he had shed a torrent of tears!"

ROMILLY, a small town in the east of France; department of the Aube, near the Seine. It has manufactures of caps, stockings, and tricots, and some iron works. The body of Voltaire lay interred in the church of this place, until removed to the pantheon at Paris. Population 2000; 12 miles east of Nogent-sur-Seine, and 23 north-east of Troyes.

ROMILLY SUR ANDELLE, a small town in the north of France, department of the Eure, near Pont de l'Arche. It contains

contains 1300 inhabitants, a large manufactory of copper instruments, and fulling mills for the cloth manufactures of Elbœuf and Louviers.

RO'MISH, *adj.* Roman; respecting the people of Rome. —The *Romish* people wise in this. *Drant.*

To mart
As in a *Romish* stew. *Shakspeare.*

Bulls or letters of election only serve in the *Romish* countries. *Ayliffe.*

ROMISHORN, or ROMANSHORN, a small town in the north-east of Switzerland, in the canton of Thurgau, on the lake of Constance. It has an ancient Roman fortification, and is 11 miles east-south-east of Constance.

RO'MIST, *s.* A papist.—The *Romists* hold fast the distinction of mortal and venial sins. *South.*

ROMKALA, the ruins of a large castle, situated on the Euphrates, where it receives the river Simeren. It is supposed by Dr. Pocock to have been built by the Greek emperors, and is about half a mile in circuit. There are two churches in the castle, in the Grecian style of architecture; and on the top of the hill are some very magnificent old buildings, and a small church, in a very grand Gothic taste. The castle is bordered on the south by a chain of mountains, from which it is separated by a fosse, so deep, that it appears to have been once the intention to have conducted the river Simeren through it, and to have insulated the place. There are four terraces cut in the rock, with a gateway to each; these have a gentle ascent, and communicate with each other by steps. The church on the top of the hill is much resorted to on certain days by the neighbouring Christians. The castle has been made use of by the Turks as a place of banishment for great men in disgrace. The Euphrates is here confined by cliffs to the breadth of a furlong, in consequence of which a ferry has been established; 60 miles north-east of Aleppo.

ROMNEY, NEW, one of the Cinque-ports, locally situated, partly within the liberty of Romney Marsh, partly within the level of Walland Marsh, and partly in the lower half hundred of St. Martin's Pountney, lathe of Shepway, county of Kent, England. It is distant 37 miles south-east from Maidstone, and 71 miles south-east-by-east from London. This town is described as having risen from the ruins of Old Romney, at least a century previous to the Norman conquest. Subsequent to that event, it was bestowed by King William I. on Odo, bishop of Baieux, and earl of Kent, and was declared to be privileged as one of the Cinque-ports, having Old Romney, Lydd, Dengemarsh, and Oswardestone, and part of Promhill parish, annexed to it as members, which were to send out jointly five vessels of war, with twenty-one men and one boy to each of them. At this period, and for many years afterwards, New Romney was a very flourishing place. It was divided into twelve wards, and contained within its liberty five parish churches, a priory, and an hospital for the sick. In the reign of Edward I., however, a great part of it was destroyed by a dreadful tempest and earthquake, which likewise choaked up its haven, and thereby prevented its revival as a commercial and shipping town. When Henry VIII. ascended the throne, the sea had retired from it nearly two miles, and all its churches were demolished, except that of St. Nicholas, which is still standing. Henry therefore united the whole liberty into one parish, as it continues at the present day.

In very early times the Cinque-ports were enfranchised with various priveleges and customs, though of what antiquity they are, or when so enfranchised, has not been determined with any certainty; they are held therefore to enjoy their privileges by prescription, though these were confirmed by Magna Charta, and since by a charter of king Edward I. New Romney, as one of these ports, is consequently a corporation by prescription; but in Edward III.'s time, it was incorporated by charter, first by the style of "barons of the town and port of New Romney," and afterwards by that of "jurats and commonaltie of the town and port of New Romney." Queen Elizabeth again corporated this town, and under her charter the corporation now consists of a mayor, twelve jurats, a chamberlain, recorder, town-clerk, and twenty-six common council-men. The mayor, who is coroner by virtue of his office, is chosen on Lady-day, yearly; and together with the jurats, who are the exclusive justices within the liberty, hold a court of general sessions of the peace and goal delivery, and also a court o record. Romney returns two members to parliament, who are usually styled barons, and are elected by the mayor, jurat, and freemen. The first return mentioned on record, is in the forty-second of Edward III., soon after its separate incorporation.

The town of Romney stands on elevated ground, in the centre of a marshy country. It consists principally of one broad well-paved street, intersected by a second, in which the hall or brotherhood house is situated, where the mayors, jurats, and commons of the Cinque-ports, and of the two ancient towns of Rye and Winchelsea, usually keep their court, called the brotherhood; but as it is too small for the purpose, the court called the Guestling, or Gesling, is held in the church. The market-house stands in the main street, and is a modern structure. The day on which the market is held is Saturday, weekly; besides which there is an annual fair on the 22d of August. The church of St. Nicholas is an ancient structure, and consists of three aisles and three chancels, with a square tower at its western extremity. The columns separating the aisles are massive, and support circular arches with zig-zag and billeted mouldings. The west door-way under the tower is likewise formed by a circular arch, similarly ornamented. Within this edifice is a great variety of monumental erections, chiefly in memory of persons who have been mayors and jurats of the town. Anciently, the church of New Romney belonged to the abbot and convent of Pontiniac, in France, who had a cell or priory here, which was suppressed by king Henry V. Here was also an hospital for lepers, founded and endowed by Adam de Cherrying, in the time of king Henry II. There was likewise a house called St. John's house, in this town previous to the reign of Edward IV. The only charitable institution now in the parish is an hospital and school-house for the residence of a school-master and four poor persons. According to the population census of 1811, New Romney parish contained 159 houses, and 841 inhabitants.

Old Romney is situated two miles to the westward of New Romney, of which it is a member. This place is said to have been anciently of much importance, and to have constituted one of the original Cinque-ports. Here, in the times of the Romans and of the Saxons, was a commodious haven for shipping, but the sea deserting it occasioned the decay of the town. Somner conjectures, that the Portus Lemanis of Antoninus was situated either at Old or at New Romney: but this opinion is contradicted by later antiquaries, who fix that station near Stutfal castle, at the base of Limne hill. Old Romney now consists only of about twenty houses, with a church, which is an ancient building in the massive circular style. In the north chancel is a very old tomb, with a vault underneath, but there is no inscription to identify its possessor. The front is rudely sculptured, and is supported on four stone pillars.

Romney Marsh is an extensive level of the richest pasture land in England, situated between the upland hills and the sea-shore. This district measures about ten miles in length and five in breadth. It comprehends four divisions, all under different jurisdictions and constitutions, viz. Romney Marsh, strictly so called; Walland Marsh; Dengemarsh, with Southbrooks; and Guildford Marsh, part of which is within Sussex. Vast stocks of sheep and herds of black cattle are pastured here. The bullocks of this Marsh are reckoned the largest in England, and the sheep equal to those of Leicestershire and Lincolnshire. So careful were our ancient monarchs of this fertile district, that they granted to the inhabitants various important privileges. Edward IV. incorporated the towns of Lydd and Romney, with nineteen parishes, by the title of the bailiff, twenty-four jurats, and the commonalty

commonalty of Romney Marsh; but the inhabitants exercised many privileges for several centuries, anterior to that era. Under the above charter the bailiff, jurats, and commonalty, are empowered to hold a court every three weeks, and to decide on all pleas of action real and personal, civil and criminal. They are likewise empowered to choose four justices of the peace of their own, yearly, besides the bailiff, who possesses similar authority ex officio. They have nothing, however, to do with the superintendence or management of the embankments and drainage, which by ancient custom is vested in the lords of twenty-three neighbouring manors, who appoint a bailiff as chief supervisor of the works, who is commonly, though not always, the same person with the bailiff under king Edward's charter. The courts are held in a new hall, in Dimchurch; and at a general one holden on Whit-Thursday, all scots and levies, which on an average of years amount to two shillings annually, are paid. Romney Marsh is protected from encroachments of the sea by a wall of great strength, called Dimchurch wall, which extends somewhat more than three miles in length. This wall forms the only highway for carriages along its whole extent, on the road between Hithe and Romney. It measures from twelve to twenty feet in height above the level of the Marsh; and from fifteen to thirty feet in breadth at its summit. "The drainage," says Marshall in his Rural Economy of the Southern Counties, "is effected by arched sluices passing under the bank; each having two pair of flood-gates, one on the outside, the other on the inside, to provide against accidents to the outer pair. These gates permit the interior waters to pass off when the tide is low; and prevent those of the sea from entering at high tide." The History and Topographical Survey of the County of Kent, by Edward Hasted, Esq. Beauties of England and Wales, vol. iii. by E. W. Brayley.

ROMNEY, a post-town of America, the capital of Hampshire county, in Virginia, situated on the west bank of the south-west branch of the river Patowmac; 50 miles west-by-north from Winchester. It contains about 30 houses, a brick court-house, and a stone gaol.

ROMNEY, or Rumney, a township of the United States, in Grafton county, New Hampshire. Population 794.

ROMORANTIN, a town in the central part of France, department of the Loir and Cher. It stands on the Saudre, and contains 6100 inhabitants, who carry on extensive manufactures, chiefly of coarse woollens. In 1356, the year of the famous battle of Poitiers, a party of French who had attempted to cut off the advanced guard of the Black Prince, shutting themselves up in the castle near this place, were obliged to surrender at discretion; 25 miles south-east of Blois.

ROMP, *s.* [From the verb *ramp*, signifying both to rage, and to sport or play.]—A rude, awkward, boisterous, untaught girl. "Fy on thee, thou *rampe*, thou rig!" Com. of Gamm. Gurton's Needle, 1551.—"Although she were a lusty bouncing *rampe*." Harvey, Pierce's Supererogat. 1593. —She was in the due mean between one of your affected courtesying pieces of formality, and your *romps* that have no regard to the common rules of civility. *Arbuthnot.*—Rough rude play.

Romp-loving miss
Is haul'd about in gallantry robust. *Thomson.*

To ROMP, *v. n.* To play rudely, noisily, and boisterously.—In the kitchen, as in your proper element, you can laugh, squall, and *romp* in full security. *Swift.*

ROMPEE, or Rompu, in Heraldry, is applied to ordinaries that are represented as broken; and to chevrons whose upper points are cut off.

RO'MPISH, *adj.* Inclined to rude or rough play. *Ash.*

RO'MPISHNESS, *s.* Disposition to rude sport. *(Used by Addison).*

ROMPNEY, a small river of Wales, in Glamorganshire.

ROMRA, a town on the west coast of the island of Lombock. Lat. 8 15. S. long. 115. 54. E.

ROMROD, a small town of the west of Germany, in Hesse-Darmstadt; 22 miles north-west of Fulda, with 900 inhabitants.

ROMSDAL, a district in the central part of Norway, in the bishopric of Drontheim, the chief town of which is Christiansand. It gives name to a number of small islands in the German ocean, lying on its coast.

ROMSEY, or Rumsey, a market town of England, in the county of Hants, situated on the river Test, on the road between Salisbury and Southampton. It is surrounded by pleasant meadows, which are rendered very productive by the overflowings of the river It is divided into two parishes, Infra and Extra. The church, which is common to both, is a very venerable and interesting structure. It is the only remains of the abbey which was founded here by Edward the Elder. It is a spacious building, in the form of a cross, with a low tower rising from the intersection of the nave and transept. It bears various marks of the period of its erection, but it has since received various alterations and additions, and now exhibits a very instructive series of examples of the different styles of architecture. It contains several ancient memorials of abbesses, and other monuments. On the roof is an apple tree, which has for many years borne fruit of different kinds. The abbey was enlarged by king Edgar; all the first abbesses were of royal birth, and so distinguished for their piety, as to be regarded as saints. The subsequent benefactors of the abbey were numerous, and at the dissolution, its revenues were estimated at £.330 10s. Besides the church, there is in the town a large meeting-house for Presbyterians, an alms-house for six widows, a charity school for thirty boys, and a free school for ten. The town-hall is a small old building, near the Hundred Bridge. The audit-house is a large square building, near the centre of the town, standing on piers, and having an open space below for the market people. Romsey had formerly a considerable clothing trade, but this is now reduced to the manufacture of shalloons and sacking; some trade in beer is also carried on, and there are several paper and corn mills in the vicinity. Romsey is a corporation, consisting of a mayor, recorder, six aldermen, and twelve capital burgesses. Sir William Petty, the ancestor of the Marquis of Landsdowne, was born here in 1623. Market on Saturday, very large, for corn. Population 5217; 8 miles north-north-west of Southampton, and 74 west-by-south of London. Lat. 50. 59. N. long. 1. 31. W.

ROMSLEY, a village of England, in Salop; 8½ miles south-east from Bridgenorth.

ROMSOE, a small island of Denmark, in the Great Belt, belonging to Funen, overgrown with wood, and full of rabbits. Lat. 55. 30. N. long. 10. 48. E.

ROMULEA, a name given by Maratti, in honour of the founder of Rome, to the Linnæan Ixia Bulbocodium. See Ixia.

ROMULUS, the founder of Rome: see Rome, p. 215.

ROMULUS, a township of the United States, in Seneca county, New York, on the west side of Cayuga lake; 200 miles west of Albany. Population 2766.

ROMZEE, a small town of the interior of the Netherlands. Population 1000; 5 miles from Liege.

RON, Lynder, a cluster of small islands in the Cattegat; 12 miles south of Lessoe.

RONA, one of the western islands of Scotland, is situated about sixteen leagues north-west from the Butt of Lewis, and is supposed to lie farthest to the north-west of any land in Europe. It is about a mile in length, and half a mile in breadth; and is included in the parish of Barvas, in the isle of Lewis. In this island is an ancient chapel, which is fenced round with a stone wall, and is kept clean and in good repair by the inhabitants. On the altar lies a large plank of wood about ten feet long, having as many holes in it, each pegged with a stone, to which the natives ascribe many virtues, particularly the promotion of speedy delivery to a woman in travail. The products of Rona are a few cows and sheep, and a small quantity of barley and oats The custom of walking round a person sunways, to whom

it is intended to express high esteem, is yet practised by the natives of Rona, all of whom are employed as servants by the tacksman of the island, which was let on lease about fifteen years ago for the annual rent of four pounds. A Description of the Western Islands of Scotland, by M. Martin, 1716, 8vo. Carlisle's Topographical Dictionary of Scotland, 4to. 1813. The Statistical Account of Scotland, &c. by Sir John Sinclair, Bart. vol. xix. Edin. 8vo. 1797.

RONA, a small island of the Hebrides, lying between Benbecula and North Uist; 1 mile north of the latter. Lat. 57. 27. N. long. 7. 8. W.

RONA, a small island of Scotland, at the north end of the island of Rasay.

RONA, a mountain in Shetland, on the mainland, in the parish of Northmaven, which was found by accurate mensuration, to be 3944 feet above the level of the sea.

RONABEA, an unexplained botanical term used by Aublit. This genus appears, as Jussieu says, very near Pæderia.

RONALDSHAY, North, a small island of the Orkneys, about two miles long, and one broad, two leagues north of the isle of Sanday. The surface is low and flat, and the soil sandy, with a mixture of clay in some places. The shores are flat and rocky, affording a considerable quantity of sea-weed, from which 120 tons of kelp are sometimes made in one year. There are some coarse slates found at the north-east extremity. It belongs to the parochial charge of Cross and Burness. It contained in 1811, 384 inhabitants.

RONALDSHAY, South, the most southern of the Orkney islands, is six miles long and three broad. The surface is pretty level, and the soil, though various, is in general tolerably fertile. It possesses several excellent harbours, particularly Widewall bay on the west side, and St. Margaret's Hope at the northern extremity. The shore is extremely rugged, and at three places forms lofty promontories, each of which are at least 250 feet perpendicular to the sea. At the harbour of St. Margaret's Hope, there is a considerable village of the same name. South Ronaldshay contains about 1600 inhabitants.

RONALDSHAY, South, and Burray, an united parish in Orkney, comprehending the islands of South Ronaldshay, Burraa, and Swinna, besides three uninhabited islets, viz. Glimsholm, Horda, and Pentland Skerry. Population in 1801, 1881; in 1811, 1631.

RONAY, an island of the Hebrides, lying between the mainland of Scotland and the isle of Sky, belonging to the parish of Portree. It is about four miles long and two broad, containing 2200 acres. The surface is pretty level, and the soil is tolerably fertile. It has a good harbour. Around the coast are extensive caves, some of which afford fine specimens of stalactites.

RONCADOR, or Rum Key, one of the smaller Bahama islands. Lat. 23. 26. N. long. 75. 3. W.

RONCADOR, a small island in the Carribean sea; 35 miles east-north-east of Old Providence. Lat. 13. 32. S. long. 80. 4. W.

RONCAGLIA, a village of Italy, in the grand duchy of Parma, on the Po; 8 miles east of Piacenza.

RONCESVALLES, a valley in the north-east of Spain, in the province of Navarre, between Pampeluna and St. Jean Pied du Port, surrounded by mountains, one of which, called Ronceval, is among the very highest of the Pyrenees. This valley is celebrated in romance for the defeat of Charlemagne by Loup, duke of Gascony, assisted by the Saracens. The account of this expedition divested of fable, seems to be that, on the return of Charlemagne from an expedition into Spain, the rear of his army was attacked in the narrow passes of the mountains, and all that were separated from the main body were killed. Among these were several chiefs of note, Egbart, Anselm, and Roland. A pillar erected on the spot, in commemoration of the victory, was destroyed by the French troops in 1794. The small town of Roncesvalles is 14 miles north-north-east of Pampeluna.

RONCIGLIONE, a small town of Itlay, in the States of the Church, finely situated on the Tereia, near a lake called Vico di Ronciglione, supposed, from its shores being covered with pumice stone, to be the crater of an extinct volcano. Ronciglione is said to have been formerly more considerable than at present. It is 12 miles south of Viterbo, and 30 north-north-west of Rome.

RONCOFERRATO, a small town of Austrian Italy; 7 miles east of Mantua.

RONCQ, a small town in the north-east of France, department of the north. Population 2900; 8 miles north of Lisle.

RONDA, a large town of the south of Spain, in Granada, on the river Guadiaro. It consists of the town and a large suburb called El Mercadello, on the other side of the river. The two contain about 20,000 inhabitants, with six churches, four monasteries, and two convents. Ronda has few remarkable buildings or specimens of the fine arts; but its natural curiosities render it one of the most interesting places in the Peninsula. Few towns can be more romantically situated: it stands on the summit of a rocky mountain, divided by a deep ravine or fissure, which winds around the town on three sides, the river rushing along its bottom with great impetuosity. This ravine is full of abrupt cliffs and broken crags, lightly covered with earth; over the fissure there are two bridges at some distance from each other, but each of a single arch: the one is at the height of 120 feet above the water, but the other is of the almost unparalleled height of 280 feet; so that a tower as high as the monument in London, if placed under it, would be far from reaching it. This arch is 110 feet in span, and is supported, not by the opposite cliffs, but by solid pillars of masonry built from the bottom of the river. The Guadiaro, contemplated from this elevation, seems dwindled to a brook. The inhabitants of Ronda are supplied with water from the river, and from springs at the bottom of the ravine, to which they descend by means of stairs. Nothing can be more striking than the view from below of this aerial bridge, and of part of the houses and spires of the town, which seem to overhang the head of the spectator. The public walk at Ronda is extremely romantic and beautiful: the footpaths are paved with marble, and bordered with vine branches in trellises, which in hot weather afford an agreeable shade, and the parterres are filled with evergreens.

The chief manufactures of Ronda are leather and silk stuffs. The environs are well cultivated and fertile; they produce corn, wine, and oil, and supply Cadiz and Seville with the fruits and vegetables of northern climates. The plain abounds in cattle, and the hills in all kinds of game. The Sierra de Ronda, which takes its name from this town, is a chain of mountains of considerable height, forming part of the Sierra Nevada. It extends all the way to Gibraltar, and is remarkable in several respects. About a league south-east of the town of Ronda, is the Cresta de Gallo, so called from a supposed resemblance to a cock's comb. It is of such height that it is frequently the first land discerned at sea, on approaching Cadiz. It consists of two parallel ridges joined at the bottom. It contains mines of iron, tin, and lead, and attempts have been made to work them, but without success, so backward is this country in mechanical improvement. The roe-buck and fallow deer are found on the sides of the Sierra de Ronda, and the wild boar is common among the woods. Wolves are numerous, and so fierce as sometimes to attack horses and mules with their riders on their backs, on which account the peasantry, when they go from home, are always armed with a musket.

The inhabitants of this mountain track appear at first to be a different race from those of the low country; but on a closer inspection, there is found no farther diversity than what arises from difference of situation. They have all the activity, the muscular form, the fresh complexion, and restless disposition of mountaineers; their dress also is calculated for warmth, but they have at the same time all the features of the lower and

and middle classes in Andalusia; 38 miles west-by-north of Malaga, and 48 south-east of Seville.

RONDE, in French Music, a semibreve.

RONDE de Table, a French kind of *chanson à boire*, or drinking song, with a refrain, or burden to it, and generally mixed with sentiments of gallantry, composed of different stanzas, which are sung by turns at table, and in which all the guests join chorus in the refrain.

RONDE ISLE, a small island of the St. Lawrence, at the entrance into Lake St. Peter. It belongs to the British government. It is low; but is well clothed with timber. It abounds also with all sorts of wild fowl.

RONDE ISLE, a small island of the St. Lawrence, nearly in front of Montreal.

RONDE, RHONDE ISLAND, or REDONDA, one of the Grenadines, dependant on the island of Grenada, in the West Indies; situate about mid-way between Cariacou or Cariovacou, and the north end of Grenada, about six miles north of Orenada, and 11 south-west of Cariovacou. It contains about 500 acres of excellent land, which are wholly applied to pasturage, and the cultivation of cotton. Lat. 12. 19. N. long. 61. 39. W.

RONDEAU, *s.* [Fr.] A kind of ancient poetry, commonly consisting of thirteen verses; of which eight have one rhyme and five another: it is divided into three couplets, and at the end of the second and third, the beginning of the *rondeau* is repeated in an equivocal sense, if possible. *Trevoux.*—He used to read to him a book of sonnets, *rondeaus*, and virelays. *Warton.*—A piece of music which ends with the first strain repeated.

The term *rondeau*, derived from *rondel*, is of great antiquity in France. In old English it was called a *roundelay*.

Rousseau has very justly censured the writing and setting vocal rondeaus, in which the thought is begun in one strain, and continued or ended in another; or begins with a simile, of which the application is made in the second strain

But Rousseau, after pointing out poetical and musical defects in the composition of rondeaux, indicates the means of avoiding both. "Whenever a sentiment, expressed in the first strain, suggests a reflexion which confirms and enforces it in the second; whenever a description of the singer's state of mind is the subject of the first strain, and illustrates a simile in the second; whenever an affirmation in the first strain, contains its proof and confirmation in the second; every time, in short, that the first strain contains a proposition to perform some action, and a reason for it is given in the second; in these, and similar cases, a rondeau will be always well placed."

RONDEHAYE, La, a large village of France, department of La Manche. Population 1000; 6 miles north of Coutances.

RONDEL, in Fortification, a round tower, sometimes erected at the foot of a bastion.

RONDELET (William), an eminent physician and naturalist, born at Montpellier in 1507, was the son of a druggist in that city. A weak state of health in his youth retarded his education so much that he was eighteen when he went to Paris to complete his course of Latin and philosophy. He returned to Montpellier in 1529 for the study of medicine, and as soon as he had obtained a batchelor's degree he settled at a small town in Provence. His professional emoluments here were so scanty that he was obliged to open a grammar-school for a subsistence. He afterwards revisited Paris, where he studied the Greek language, and lived some time with the Viscount Turenne, as preceptor to his son. Returning to Montpellier, he was admitted to the degree of M. D. in 1537. Soon after, he was appointed physician to the Cardinal de Tournon, whom he accompanied in his journeys as ambassador to Italy and other countries. Rondelet made use of his opportunities to collect information, especially in what regarded his intended history of fishes. In 1545 he was nominated to a medical chair in the University of Montpellier, but for some years longer he continued to attend the Cardinal de Tournon. He was much attached to anatomical inquiries, and this passion so far overcame his other feelings, that he is said to have brought the body of one of his own children into the dissecting room. He also urged one of his colleagues, whom he visited in a dangerous disease, to suffer his body to be opened after death. He obtained at court the erection of an anatomical theatre at Montpellier, under Henry II. in 1556. In that year he was elected chancellor of the university, which office he filled with great attention till his death in 1566. Rondelet was of so liberal a disposition with regard to money, that notwithstanding his considerable appointments and professional gains, he left scarcely any property but his writings. Rabelais, his contemporary, has thrown some ridicule upon him under the name of *Rondibilis*, alluding both to his real name and to the roundness of his form.

This physician was not only learned, but was also an attentive observer of nature, qualities (as Haller truly observes) not frequently in conjunction. He is best known by his works on fishes, which were "De Piscibus Marinis, Libr. XVIII.," fol., 1554; and "Universæ Aquatilium Historiæ Pars altera," fol., 1555; both translated into French by Laurence Joubert, under the title of "Histoire entiere des Poissons," fol., 1558. This work is accompanied with figures, and contains much curious information with respect to this class of the animal creation, and many valuable anatomical remarks arising from his own researches. Some observations in human anatomy are interspersed, and he appears to have been the first who has described the valve of the colon. His principal medical writings were "De Ponderibus, seu justa Quantitate et Proportione Medicamentorum," 8vo., 1555, often reprinted; "Methodus de Materia Medicinali et Compositione Medicamentorum," 8vo., 1556; "Methodus curandorum omnium Morborum Corporis Humani," 8vo., 1574, several times reprinted. *Halleri.*

RONDELETIA, (so named by Plumier in memory of Rondelet.) In botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of rubiaceæ, *(Juss.)* Generic character.—Calyx: perianth one-leaved, superior, five-parted, acute, permanent. Corolla: one-petalled, funnel-shaped; tube cylindrical, longer than the calyx, bellying a little at top; border five-parted, from reflex flat; segments roundish. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, almost the length of the corolla; anthers simple. Pistil: germ roundish, inferior; style filiform, the length of the corolla; stigma bifid. Pericarp: capsule roundish, crowned, two-celled. Seeds several, or sometimes solitary.—*Essential Character.*—Corolla funnel-shaped. Capsule two-celled, inferior, many-seeded, (or with one or two seeds only,) roundish, crowned.

I.—With many seeds.

1. Rondeletia Americana.—Leaves sessile, panicle dichotomous.—This rises with a woody stalk ten or twelve feet high, branching out on every side; the branches covered with a smooth greenish bark. Leaves oblong, ending in acute points, entire, the upper surface lucid green, the under pale; they are a little crumpled, and stand alternate. The flowers come out in bunches at the end of the branches, are white, and have little scent. They appear in autumn, but are not followed by seeds in England.

The seeds were first sent here by Mr. Robert Miller, who collected them on the north side of the island of Jamaica.

2. Rondeletia odorata.—Leaves petioled, subovate, blunt. —This is an inelegant, irregular, upright shrub, five or six feet high. Branches round. Leaves opposite, entire, somewhat rugged on the upper surface. Stipules within the petioles, wide, acute. Common peduncles erect, terminating, in threes, three-flowered. Flowers scarlet, with the projecting rim of the tube orange coloured, smelling like violets. The corolla is very often six-parted, with a six-leaved calyx, though it has always five stamens. The capsules have many angular seeds.—Native of the West Indies.

3. Rondeletia trifoliata. — Leaves tomentose underneath, panicles axillary.—This is an upright tree, twelve feet in height. The younger branches are obtusely triangular and hirsute. Leaves lanceolate, acute, quite entire, smooth on the upper, slightly tomentose on the lower surface, three inches long, on hirsute petioles.

Stipules roundish-acuminate, in threes, alternating with the leaves. Racemes hirsute, unequal, branched axillary, an inch and half in length. Flowers small, reddish, sessile and peduncled, void of scent. Fruit two-valved with the partition opposite to the valves.—Native of America and Jamaica; flowering in February.

4. Rondeletia virgata.—Leaves roundish, branches filiform, spreading, peduncles trifid, flowers clustered four stamened.—This is a shrub, a fathom in height, with very long, alternately spreading, unarmed branches, with a rugged bark. Leaves opposite, half an inch long, entire, subreflex, veined, paler underneath, quite smooth, on very short petioles. Stipules between the petioles, small, acute. Peduncles axillary and terminating, opposite, elongated, upright, having a pair or two of leaves, three-parted or terminating, only three-flowered and leafless. Flowers terminating, subsessile, or sometimes on very short pedicels, upright, dusky-purple, silky-pubescent on the outside. Bractes very small, linear, two or four, under the flowers. Calyx four-leaved. Leaflets linear, upright. Corolla salver-shaped; tube filiform, widening a little at top; border four-parted; segments convex, with a yellow notched ring placed on the aperture. Filaments four, very short, in the middle of the tube; anthers linear, striated, yellow. Style longer than the stamens, awl-shaped. Stigma below the ring of the aperture bifid; segments obtuse. Capsule subdidymous, hoary-pubescent, crowned with the calyx, two-celled, two-valved, with the partition contrary. Seeds very many, acuminate, compressed, small, brown, inserted or fastened to their proper ovate receptacle in each cell.—Native of Hispaniola, in maritime coppices towards the north; flowering and bearing fruit in December.

5. Rondeletia pilosa.—Leaves ovate, hairy on both sides, peduncles axillary, shorter than the leaves, trifid. Flowers four-stamened.—This is a shrub with round or four-cornered branches, leafy towards the top. Leaves opposite, two or three inches long, hairy. Petioles short, villose. Stipules between the petioles, acuminate, hairy. Peduncles opposite, filiform, hairy, at the top trifid, the flowers pedicelled. Bractes two, awl-shaped at the base of the lateral pedicels; and two others at the base of the germ, shorter by half than the calyx. Calyx four-parted; segments villose. Corolla salver-shaped; tube subcylindrical, the length of the calycine segments, wider at top, on the outside villose or somewhat silky. Filaments four, very short, inserted in the tube above the middle; anthers oblong, linear, included. Germ villose; style the length of the tube; segments of the stigma linear, blunt. Capsule small, subglobular, twin, villose, two-valved with the partition contrary. Seeds numerous, brown.—Native of the West Indies, in the islands of Santa Cruz and Montserrat.

II. With sub-solitary seeds.

6. Rondeletia thyrsoidea.—Leaves oblong, acute, membranaceous, pubescent underneath, thyrses axillary.—This is a small tree or shrub six feet high, branched, upright, even, with an ash-coloured bark. Branches simple, almost upright, long, spreading, round or bluntly four-cornered, smooth. Leaves opposite decussated, three inches long. Stipules between and above the petioles, pressed to the branchlet, wide and ovate. Thyrses solitary opposite, shorter than the leaves, oblong, spreading; on a common petiole, an inch in length, angular, striated, smooth; branchlets opposite, decussated, subdivided; the outmost commonly three-flowered. Flowers small, dull, whitish-yellow or ferruginous. Bractes small, awl-shaped, or little leaflets under the ramifications of the thyrse. Calyx very minute, five-toothed. Tube of the corolla elongated cylindrical; border five-parted; segments roundish. Filaments five, inserted into the upper part of the tube; anthers very small, ovate, pale, placed in the very aperture. Germ roundish; style awl-shaped, bifid at the top; stigmas simple. Capsule roundish, with a groove along the middle, the size of a coriander seed, crowned with the very small calyx, two-celled; having two angular-rounded, striated seeds in each cell.—Native of the driest hills of Jamaica, in the western part of the island; flowering in May; the flowers smell very sweet during the night.

7. Rondeletia racemosa.—Leaves lanceolate-ovate, acuminate, smooth on both sides, stipules elliptic with a short point, racemes axillary, trichotomous, patulous.—This is a shrub with round spreading branches, covered with an irregular hoary bark; branchlets four-cornered. Leaves decussated, quite entire. Petioles longish, four-cornered, smooth. Racemes solitary, opposite, from upright spreading, shorter than the leaves; common peduncle the length of the petioles, compressed; branches decussated, almost horizontal, with sessile awl-shaped spreading bractes, every where at the subdivisions of the raceme; flowers pedicelled, distinct not clustered. Calyx small, with five very short upright teeth. Corolla small; tube short, oblong, equal; border five-parted, segments ovate, spreading, pubescent; aperture naked, five-cornered; filaments from the middle of the tube; anthers oblong, yellowish in the aperture of the tube. Germ ovate, smooth; style simple, upright, the length of the tube; stigma thickish, with the apex more acute and undivided. Capsule ovate, crowned with the calyx, smooth. Seeds convex on one side, flat on the other, joined at the middle, distinct from the partition at the sides.—Native of Jamaica, on the mountains.

8. Rondeletia laurifolia.—Leaves lanceolate, oblong, acute, smooth on both sides, stipules deltoid, racemes compound, axillary, erect, tube of the flowers very short.—Native of Jamaica.

9. Rondeletia tomentosa. — Leaves ovate, acuminate, tomentose, peduncles three-parted, axillary, short.

It differs from Rondeletia thyrsoidea in being smaller, in having the leaves pubescent on both sides, and tomentose underneath, and the racemes, flowers and fruit, very small.

10. Rondeletia umbellulata. — Leaves lanceolate-ovate, acute, sub-hirsute, peduncles axillary, trichotomous at top, flowers sub-umbelled.

It is distinguished by its shagginess, the size of the flowers, and the inflorescence.

11. Rondeletia incana.—Leaves ovate-lanceolate, underneath hoary, rugged, peduncles axillary, simple, three-flowered.

12. Rondeletia hirsuta.—Leaves oblong, acute, hirsute, peduncles axillary, trichotomous, loose; flowers hirsute.

13. Rondeletia hirta.—Leaves oblong, acuminate, rough-haired, rigid nerved underneath, peduncles axillary, trichotomous, erect.

14. Rondeletia buxifolia.—Leaves obovate, smooth; flowers four-stamened, axillary, solitary.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants being very tender cannot be preserved in England, unless they are kept in a warm stove. They are propagated by seeds, which should be sown on a hot-bed early in the spring; and when the plants are come up and fit to remove, they must be transplanted into separate small pots, and plunged into a moderate hot-bed of tanner's-bark, where they must be treated in the same manner as hath been directed for other tender plants from the West Indies: in winter they must be placed in the tan-bed in the stove, where the plants will thrive, and in two or three years will flower, and make an agreeable variety amongst other tender exotic plants, as they retain their leaves all the year.

RONDIZONE, a small town in the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont, north of the Po, on the river called Doria Baltea. Population 2500; 20 miles north-north-east of Turin.

RO'NDLE, *s.* [*rondelle*, old Fr.] A round mass.—Certain *rondles* given in arms, have their names according to their several colours. *Peacham.*

RO'NDURE, *s.* [*rondeur*, Fr.] A circle; a round. *Not in use.*

All things rare
That heaven's air in this huge *rondure* hems. *Shakspeare.*

RONG, the old pret. and part. of *ring*.—A fool's bell is soone *ronge*. *Chaucer.*

RONGERES,

RONGERES, a large village in the interior of France, department of the Allier, with 1000 inhabitants.

RONGOS, or PONGOS, trumpets, or rather French horns, of the kingdom of Loango, in Africa. These instruments are made of ivory, and resemble hunting-horns of the ancients: their widest diameter at the mouth is an inch and a half, or two inches; they are of various kinds, and probably serve for treble and base to each other.

RO'NION, *s.* A term applied to a woman, meaning, as far as can be traced, much the same with *scall*, or *scab*, spoken of a man.

Give me, quoth I;
Aroynt thee, witch! the rump-fed *ronyon* cries.
Shakspeare.

Out of my door, you witch, you polecat, you *ronyon!* *Shakspeare.*

RONKONKAMA, a small lake of the United States, in the central part of Long Island, between Brookhaven and Islip; about three miles in circuit, and very deep. It is remarkable for being subject to a regular rise and fall, eachh of which continues seven years. It abounds in fish; 55 miles east of New York.

RONNE, or RONDE, a small town of Denmark, in the island of Bornholm, and the residence of the governor of the island. It has a manufacture of porcelain, and a fortified, but not deep harbour. Population 2200; 93 miles east-south-east of Copenhagen.

RONNEBURGH, a small town of the interior of Germany, in the principality of Altenburgh, belonging to Saxe-Gotha. It contains 2600 inhabitants, employed partly in weaving and dyeing woollens, partly in manufacturing earthenware; 12 miles south-west of Altenburgh, and 60 west of Dresden. Lat. 50. 48. N. long. 12. 15. E.

RONNEN, a small island of Denmark, near the north-west coast of Lapland. Lat. 56. 5. N. long. 11. 15. E.

RONNOW, a small town in the interior of Bohemia; 7 miles south-east of Czaslau, with 9000 inhabitants.

RONSARD (Peter de), a French poet of great celebrity in his time, was born in 1524 of a noble family at the castle la Poissonière in the Vendemois. He was educated at the college of Navarre in Paris, but he quitted his studies at an early age, and became page to the Duke of Orleans. That prince transferred him to the service of James V. of Scotland, who was married to Magdalen of France. With that king he passed two years, partly in Scotland and partly in England; and then returning to France, was again employed by the Duke of Orleans. He accompanied Lazare du Baif, master of requests, to the diet of Spire; and his taste for belles-lettres being revived in the society of that learned man, he applied with great assiduity to the study of the Greek under Dorat, with the son of Baif. He at length entirely devoted himself to poetry, and composed a great number of works, by which he obtained the title of the Prince of the poets of his time. He gained the first prize at the floral games of Toulouse; and the ordinary recompence being thought unequal to his merit, the city made him a present of a Minerva of massy silver. The successive Kings Henry II., Francis II., Charles IX., and Henry III., all patronized him, especially Charles IX., who entertained a poetical correspondence with him. Mary Queen of Scots also greatly esteemed him, and made him a rich present. He had some benefices conferred upon him, though he was not in priest's orders; and he displayed great zeal in opposing those of the reformed religion, against whom, in 1562, he fought at the head of some troops in the Vendemois. Like many other religious zealots, he made his faith stand in the stead of morals, for he was much addicted to licentious pleasures, by which he brought on a premature old age. He was extremely vain, as well of his birth as his poetry, and was a great boaster of his successes with the fair sex. He had many admirers, and some enemies. The Calvinist ministers have not spared him, on account of his severities towards their sect, and the famous Rabelais maintained a constant warfare of wit against him. He felt contrition in in his latter years for the licentiousness of his muse at an earlier period, and resolved for the future to confine himself to sacred subjects. He died in 1585 at the age of 61, at St. Cosme-les-Tours, one of his benefices, and his memory was honoured by eulogies from many of the literary characters of the time. The compositions of Ronsard were odes, eclogues, epigrams, sonnets, hymns, and a poem entitled "La Franciade." It is acknowledged that Ronsard had many qualities of a true poet, warmth, invention, enthusiasm, and the talent of painting to the imagination: but a bad taste rendered him pedantic, turgid and obscure in his language, and often extravagant in his thoughts, and his works appear at present to live only in traditionary reputation. Three of the best, entitled "La Promesse," "Hymne a l'Eternité," and "Les Quatre Saisons de l'Année," have been reprinted in the *Annales Poetiques.*

RONSBERG, a small town in the south-west of Bohemia; 24 miles west-north-west of Klattau, with 1300 inhabitants.

RONSDORF, a small town of the Prussian province of Cleves and Berg. It contains 3400 inhabitants, almost all employed in manufacturing silks, ribbons, cotton, and linen. It was a mere hamlet until 1730, when some religious disputes among the manufacturers at Elberfeld caused part of them to remove to this place; 14 miles south-south-east of Dusseldorf.

RONSENAC, a small town in the west of France, department of the Charente. Population 1200.

RONT, *s.* An animal stinted in the growth: commonly pronounced *runt.*

My ragged *ronts* all shiver and shake,
As doen high towers in an earthquake;
They wont in the wind wag their wriggle tails.
Pearke as a peacock; but now it avales. *Spenser.*

RONTO, a village of the east of Hungary, in the county of Bihar.

RONYA, or ROVNANI, a village of the north-west of Hungary, near the river Ipola, inhabited by Slowacs.

ROO, a provincial term signifying rough or coarse, in the way of pastures, or the crops on other sorts of land.

ROOAC, a provincial word used to signify a fog or mist.

ROOD, *s.* [ꝓoƀ, Sax.] The fourth part of an acre in square measure, or one thousand two hundred and ten square yards.

No stately larch-tree there expands a shade
O'er half a *rood* of Larissèan glade. *Harte.*

A pole; a measure of sixteen feet and a half in long measure.

Satan,
With head uplift above the wave;——
His other parts besides—
Prone on the flood, extended long and large,
Lay floating many a *rood.* *Milton.*

[ꝓoƀe, Sax. from the old Goth. and Icel. *roda*, an image. Junius, and Serenius.] The cross; an image or picture of our Saviour upon the cross, with those of the Virgin Mary and St. John on each side of it. Chaucer writes this word *rode.*

And nigh thereto a little chappel stoode,
Which, being all with ivy overspred,
Deckt all the roofe; and, shadowing the *roode,*
Seem'd like a faire grove braunched over hed. *Spenser.*

By the holy *rood,*
I do not like these several councils. *Shakspeare.*

In Scotland, the *rood* contains 40 square falls.

ROODERPORE, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi, and district of Moradabad. Lat. 29. 1. N. long. 79. 29. E.

ROO'DLOFT, *s.* A gallery in the church on which the cross, or the representation mentioned under ROOD, was set to view

view.—They shall see that all *roodlofts*, in which wooden crosses stood, be clean taken away.—*Irish Constitutions and Canons.*—Under the king's arms, placed over the *roodloft*, is [a] distich. *Ashmole.*

ROODY SAND, or WAVEREN, a district in the territory of the Cape of Good Hope, situated between the mountains of Drakenstein. It abounds in grain, pulse, fruits, and wine; 70 miles east of Cape Town.

ROOF, *s.* [hpoꝼ, Sax. In the plural Sidney has *rooves*, now obsolete. Dr. Johnson.]—The cover of a house.

Her shoulders be like two white doves,
Perching within square royal *rooves*. *Sidney.*

Return to her, and fifty men dismiss'd?
No, rather I abjure all *roofs*, and chuse
To wage against the enmity o' th' air. *Shakspeare.*

For the structure and proportion of *roofs*, see the article ARCHITECTURE, 114—116.—The house in general.

I'll tell all strictly true,
If time, and foode, and wine enough accrue
Within your *roofe* to us; that freely we
May sit and banquet. *Chapman.*

The inside of any arch; as the roof of heaven.—The roof of the mouth.

Swearing till my very *roof* was dry
With oaths of love. *Shakspeare.*

Some fishes have rows of teeth in the *roofs* of their mouths; as pikes, salmons, and trouts. *Bacon.*

To ROOF, *v. a.* To cover with a roof.

He enter'd soon the shade
High *roofed*, and walks beneath, and alleys brown. *Milton.*

I have not seen the remains of any Roman buildings, that have not been *roofed* with vaults or arches. *Addison.*—To inclose in a house.

Here had we now our country's honour *roof'd*,
Were the grac'd person of our Banquo present. *Shakspeare.*

ROO'FLESS, *adj.* [poꝼleaꝼ, Sax.] Wanting a roof; uncovered.

And columns, awful in decay,
Rear up their *roofless* heads to form the various scene. *Hughes.*

ROO'FY, *adj.* Having roofs.

Snakes,
Whether to *roofy* houses they repair,
Or sun themselves abroad in open air,
In all abodes of pestilential kind
To sheep. *Dryden.*

ROOG. See PORT BALTIC.

ROOK, *s.* [hpoc, Sax. Serenius pronounces it formed from the sound, like the Swed. *kraeka*, a crow; and Skinner from the Lat. *raucus*, hoarse.] A bird resembling a crow; but feeding on grain.

Huge flocks of rising *rooks* forsake their food,
And crying seek the shelter of the wood. *Dryden.*

The jay, the *rook*, the daw,
Aid the full concert. *Thomson.*

One of the pieces used at the game of chess. [*roc*, "la *tour*, piece des échecs." *Lacombe.*]

So have I seen a king on chess,
His *rooks* and knights withdrawn,
His queen and bishops in distress,
Shifting about grow less and less,
With here and there a pawn. *Dryden.*

A cheat; a trickish rapacious fellow.—I am like an old *rook*, who is ruined by gaming, forced to live on the good fortune of the pushing young men. *Wycherley.*

To ROOK, *v. n.* To rob; to cheat.

They *rook'd* upon us with design,
To out-reform and undermine. *Hudibras.*

How any one's being put into a mixed herd of unruly boys, and there learning to *rook* at span-farthing, fits him for conversation, I do not see. *Locke.*

To ROOK, *v. a.* To cheat; to plunder by cheating.—He (Sir John Denham) was much *rooked* by gamesters. *Aubrey.*

To ROOK. To squat. See To RUCK.

ROOKE (Sir George), a distinguished naval commander, born in 1650, was the son of Sir William Rooke, a gentleman of ancient family in Kent. Though destined to another profession, a strong inclination for the sea induced him to enter into the navy, where his courage and conduct raised him to the rank of captain before he was 30 years of age. In the reign of James II. he was appointed to the command of the Deptford man-of-war. His obligations to this prince, however, did not prevent his hearty concurrence in the revolution; and in 1689 he was employed as commodore of a squadron off the Irish coast, with which he prevented the intercourse of King James with Scotland, and assisted in the relief of Londonderry, and in other military operations. In 1690, he was made rear-admiral of the red, in which quality he was present at the unfortunate battle off Beachy-head; but no blame in that action was imputed to him. He was employed more than once in the subsequent years to convoy King William to Holland; and being promoted to the rank of vice-admiral of the blue, was partaker of the glory obtained at La Hogue, under Admiral Russel, in May, 1692. Besides his share in the action, the important business of burning the French ships on the next day was committed to him, which he performed with great skill and success, the number destroyed being twelve of the line and one of 56 guns. In 1693, the honour of knighthood was conferred upon him, and he was made vice-admiral of the red. The grand fleet of English and Dutch proceeding to sea in May, Sir G. Rooke was detached from it with a squadron of twenty-three ships of both nations, to convoy a great fleet of merchantmen up the Mediterranean. The French, in the meantime, had been indefatigable in repairing their losses, and with a very powerful fleet, of which the English ministry had obtained no proper intelligence, were lying in Lagos-bay, on the coast of Portugal, to intercept the combined fleet. On descrying the enemy, Rooke ordered the smaller of the merchant-ships to make their escape into the nearest Spanish ports, and stood off under an easy sail for the protection of the rest. Although two Dutch men-of-war and a great number of merchant ships were captured, the conduct of the English Admiral, who saved his own squadron and the best part of the fleet committed to his charge, was exempted from all blame. He received the thanks of the merchants, and his promotion was not impeded by this misfortune, which was principally owing to the mismanagement in the naval department during that reign. In 1696, having the chief command of the Channel fleet, he was ordered to prevent the Toulon squadron from getting into Brest, which from the defective manning of his ships, he was unable to accomplish. On this account he underwent a long examination before the House of Commons, but nothing appeared upon which a charge against him could be founded. He continued in the command till the peace of Ryswick, in 1697, gave him an interval of repose.

In 1698, he was chosen representative to parliament for Portsmouth; and voting with the opposition, an attempt was made to induce the King to remove him from his seat at the Admiralty-board; but William, who had juster notions than his ministers of freedom of opinion, observed, that Sir George had served him faithfully at sea, and should not be displaced for acting as he thought most for the good of his country in the House of Commons. In 1700, he was sent with an English squadron, in conjunction with a Dutch one, into the Baltic, to preserve the balance of power in the North, where a confederacy had been formed against the young King of Sweden, Charles XII. Rooke bombarded Copenhagen, and a peace being effected in the course of the year, he returned. In the following year he acted as commander

mander of the Channel fleet; and being again chosen representative for Portsmouth, he continued to vote as an anti-courtier. This conduct gave him a merit with the ministry of Queen Anne, who came to the crown in 1702; and when war with France was declared, he was appointed, as vice-admiral of England, to the command of an united English and Dutch fleet in an expedition against Cadiz; the Duke of Ormond being commander of the land-forces. The plan failed, apparently for want of that cordiality between the sea and the land service which has so often been detrimental to their combined operations. Soon after, Sir George, obtaining intelligence that twenty-two Spanish galleons, guarded by a squadron of French men-of-war, were arrived in the harbour of Vigo, sailed thither; and sending a detachment of his fleet with fire-ships into the harbour, destroyed all the enemy's men-of-war and a number of the galleons, and took the rest. A great booty was brought home, and a new coinage of silver, with the stamp *Vigo*, was issued as a national memorial of this brilliant success. Sir George, on his return, was created a privy-counsellor; and an enquiry having been moved in the House of Lords into his conduct at Cadiz, it was voted that he had honourably discharged his duty.

In 1704, this admiral was appointed to the command of the fleet destined to convey to Lisbon Charles, the competitor for the crown of Spain. Having performed that service, he proceeded to the Mediterranean, where he cruised for some time. On his return through the Straits, he was joined by Sir Cloudesly Shovel with a large reinforcement; and several schemes of further service being proposed, he determined to make a sudden attempt upon Gibraltar. This was brought to effect in July; and the prince of Hesse with the land forces being disembarked on the neck, the ships proceeded to cannonade the fortifications at the mole. The enemy were driven from their guns, and a party of seamen landing, took possession of the batteries. The governor, intimidated by this bold action, capitulated; and that important fortress has ever since remained in the hands of the English. Sir George Rooke then proceeded to Malaga, where he encountered the French fleet under the Count de Toulouse. The numbers on each side were nearly equal in ships of the line, but the French were superior in men and weight of metal. The engagement which ensued, August 13th, was undecided, neither party losing a ship; and each returned to their own ports. Factions now ran high in the nation; and Rooke, whom the Tories placed in a degree of competition with Marlborough, was so coldly received by the Whigs, that he retired from public life, and spent the remainder of his days chiefly at his seat in Kent. He died in January, 1708, in the 58th year of his age, and was interred in the cathedral of Canterbury. He had been thrice married, but left no other issue than one son. Sir George Rooke has merited the reputation of a brave and able seaman, who maintained the honour of the British flag at a period when its superiority was much less decided than at present. He was a worthy character in private life; and proved his honesty by the moderateness of the fortune he left, which, he said "never cost a sailor a tear, or the nation a farthing."

ROOKE (Lawrence), an able English mathematician and astronomer in the 17th century, was descended from a respectable family, and born at Deptford, in Kent, in the year 1623. He was educated in grammar-learning at Eton school; whence he removed, in 1639, to King's-college, in the University of Cambridge. Here he led a very studious life, cultivating with great success the various branches of academical literature, and more particularly the mathematical sciences. His assiduity was the more commendable, since he appears at this time, as well as afterwards, to have enjoyed but an indifferent state of health; on which account he was admitted, in 1643, to his degree of B. A. by proxy. In 1647, he commenced M. A., and then retired for some time to his estate in Kent. This retirement he quitted in 1650, and went to Oxford, where he took apartments in Wadham-college, for the sake of improving by the conversation of Dr. Wilkins, the warden, and Mr. Seth Ward, the astronomical professor in the University, who was a member of that college. At the warden's rooms several learned and curious gentlemen were then accustomed frequently to meet, for the purpose of cultivating the new philosophy, whose society was so agreeable to Mr. Rooke, that he became a fellow-commoner of the college, and made it his principal place of residence for some years; during which he accompanied Mr. Boyle in his chemical experiments. In the year 1652, a vacancy taking place in the professorship of astronomy at Gresham-college, London, Mr. Rooke was elected to that chair. A few months after his election, he made some observations at Oxford on the comet which appeared in December, 1652, which were printed by Mr. Seth Ward in 1653. Of the respect which Dr. Wallis entertained for our professor, his dedication of his treatise "De Sectionibus Conicis," published in 1655, jointly to him and Mr. Seth Ward, is an honourable testimony. In 1657 Mr. Rooke was permitted to exchange the astronomical professorship at Gresham-college for that of geometry. This exchange at first occasioned a little surprise, as astronomy always continued to be his favourite study; but it appears that his motive for it was, the convenience of the apartments allotted to the professor of geometry, which opened behind the reading-hall, and were therefore well situated for the reception of those gentlemen after the lectures, who formed, the Royal Society there, in the year 1660. Many of these gentlemen were those with whom he had been accustomed to assemble at Oxford, who upon coming to London, joined with other philosophical gentlemen, and after attending Mr. Rooke's lectures, withdrew into his apartments, to converse and read papers on philosophical subjects. This practice they begun in 1658, and continued it regularly till their meetings were prevented by the quartering of soldiers in the college. After the Restoration, when the Royal Society had been formed and settled into a regular body, Mr. Rooke was very zealous and serviceable in promoting the objects of that great and useful institution; but he did not live to see it established by the royal charter. Among the men of rank who cultivated his acquaintance, was the Marquis of Dorchester, who was not only a patron of learning, but learned himself. After the Restoration, this nobleman frequently entertained Mr. Rooke as a visiter at his seat at Highgate, whence he used to bring him every Wednesday in his coach to the Royal Society, which then met on that day of the week at Gresham-college. But the last time that Mr. Rooke was at Highgate, he walked from thence to town; and as it was a warm summer's day, by overheating himself he caught a cold, and that cold threw him into a fever, which proved fatal to him. He died at Gresham-college, on the 27th of June, 1662, in the 40th year of his age.

Mr. Rooke left his property, by a nuncupatory will, to Dr. Seth Ward, who had lately been made Bishop of Exeter, permitting him to receive what was due to his estate upon bond, provided that the debtors offered payment willingly, but prohibiting him from compelling them to pay in any instance: "For," said he, "as I never was in law, nor had any contention with any man, in my lifetime, neither would I be so after my death." Few persons have had higher characters given them than Mr. Rooke, by all those who were intimately acquainted with him, or knew how to estimate justly his great endowments. Dr. Pope, in his "Life of Seth, Lord Bishop of Salisbury," passes this encomium upon him: He was "profoundly skilled in all sorts of learning. I durst venture my life upon the truth of any proposition he asserted, either in mathematics, natural philosophy, or history; for I never knew him affirm any thing positively, that was dubious. And when I have asked his opinion of an hypothesis, his usual answer was, *I have no opinion.* He was very modest, and sparing of his words, unless amongst intimate friends, and never talked idly. I may truly say, I never was acquainted with any person, who knew more, and spoke less." Mr. Hook, in the preface to his "Micographia," places him with those who were most eminent for their knowledge and improvement of astronomy. Dr. Sprat, in his "History of the Royal Society," speaks of him

him as "a man of a profound judgment, a vast comprehension, prodigious memory, solid experience. His skill in the mathematics was reverenced by all the lovers of those studies, and his perfection in many other sorts of learning deserves no less admiration. But above all, his knowledge had a right influence on the temper of his mind; which had all the humility, goodness, calmness, strength, and sincerity of a sound and unaffected philosopher." Dr. John Ward, in the work referred to below, observes, that "these accounts give us his picture only in miniature; but his successor, Dr. Barrow, has drawn it in full proportion in his oration at Gresham-college." The only pieces which were published from his papers, consist of "Observationes in Cometam, qui mense Decembri, Anno 1652, apparuit," mentioned above, and which was printed by Dr. Seth Ward, in his "Lectures on Comets;" "Directions for Seamen going to the East and West Indies," which were drawn up at the appointment of the Royal Society, and are inserted in the "Phil. Transactions" for 1665; "A Method for observing the Eclipses of the Moon, free from the common Inconveniences," to be seen in the "Phil. Transact." for 1666; "A Discourse concerning the Observations of the Eclipses of the Satellites of Jupiter," printed in "The History of the Royal Society;" and "An Account of an Experiment made with Oil in their long Tube," read to the Royal Society, April 25th, 1662, and entered in the 1st vol. of their Registers. By this experiment it was found, that the oil sunk when the sun shone out, and rose when it was clouded; and the account mentions the proportions of its rise and fall.

ROO'KERY, *s.* A nursery of rooks.—No lone house in Wales, with a mountain and a *rookery*, is more contemplative than this court. *Pope.*

ROOKY, *adj.* Inhabited by rooks.

Light thickens, and the crow
Makes wing, to the *rooky* wood. *Shakspeare.*

ROOM, *s.* [ꝑum, Saxon, and Su. Goth. *rums*, M. Goth. space, a place.] Space; extent of place great or small.—If you will a young man to put his travels into a little *room*, and in short time gather much, this he must do. *Bacon.*—Space or place unoccupied; way unobstructed.—Make *room*, and let him stand before our face. *Shakspeare.*—Place of another; stead.—In evils, that cannot be removed without the manifest danger of greater to succeed in their *rooms*, wisdom of necessity must give place to necessity. *Hooker.*—By contributing to the contentment of other men, and rendering them as happy as lies in our power, we do God's work, are in his place and *room*. *Calamy.*—Unobstructed opportunity.—It puts us upon so eager a pursuit of the advantages of life, as leaves no *room* to reflect on the great author of them. *Atterbury.*—Possible admission; possible mode.

Will you not look with pity on me?
Is there no hope? is there no *room* for pardon? *A. Philips.*

An apartment in a house; so much of a house as is inclosed within partitions.

I found the prince in the next *room*,
Washing with kindly tears his gentle cheeks. *Shakspeare.*

Particular place of station.

With price whereof they buy a golden ball,
And purchase highest *rooms* in boure and hall. *Spenser.*

Office. *Obsolete.*—He exercised his high *rome* of chancellorship, as he was accustomed. *Cavendish.*

ROO'MAGE, *s.* Space; place.—Man, of all sensible creatures, has the fullest brain to his proportion, for the lodging of the intellective faculties: it must be a silent character of hope, when there is good store of *roomage*, and receipt, where those powers are stowed. *Wotton.*

ROO'MFUL, *adj.* Abounding with rooms. *Not in use.*—Now in a *roomful* house. *Donne.*

ROO'MINESS, *s.* Space; quantity of extent.

ROOMTH, *s.* Space; place. *Old word.*

Unto his root all put their hands to hew,
Whose *roomth* but hinders others that would grow. *Drayton.*

Not finding fitting *roomth* upon the rising side. *Drayton.*

ROOM'THY, *adj.* Spacious. *Old word.*—The land was far *roomthier* than the scale of miles doth make it. *Fuller.*

ROO'MY, *adj.* Spacious; wide; large.

With *roomy* decks, her guns of mighty strength,
Deep in her draught, and warlike in her length. *Dryden.*

ROONAY, a town of Bengal, district of Birbhoom. It formerly possessed a small fort, which commanded the high road. Lat. 24. 26. N. long. 87. E.

ROOP, *s.* [*hroop*, Icel, vociferation; from the Goth. *hropian*, to cry out; often, as Dr. Jamieson observes, the cause of hoarseness.] A hoarseness. *Northern.*

ROOPAT, a town in the east coast of Sumatra. Lat. 1. 3. N. long 101. 12. E.

ROOPNAGUR, a town of Hindostan, province of Agmeer, belonging to the rajah of Jyenagur. Lat. 26. 39. N. long. 75. 52. E.

ROOPOOR, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi, but belonging to the Seiks. It is situated on the south-east bank of the river Suttelege. Lat. 31. 7. N. long. 75. 50. E.

ROOSEBECKE, a small town of the Netherlands, in West Flanders, with nearly 4000 inhabitants. Here the French and Burgundians obtained a complete victory over the Flemings in 1382; 8 miles north of Courtrai, and 20 south-west of Ghent.

ROOSEVILLE, a post village of the United States in Delaware county, New York.

ROOSLAER, a small town of the Netherlands, in South Brabant, district of Nivelles. Population 1200.

ROOST, *s.* [hpoꝛc, Sax.] That on which a bird sits to sleep.

Sooner than the mattin-bell was rung,
He clapp'd his wings upon his *roost*, and sung. *Dryden.*

The act of sleeping.—Large and strong muscles move the wings, and support the body at *roost*. *Derham.*

To ROOST, *v. n.* [*roesten*, Dutch.] To sleep as a bird.—The cock *roosted* at night upon the boughs. *L'Estrange.*—To lodge. (*In burlesque*).

ROOT, *s.* [*rôt*, Swedish, *roed*, Danish.] That part of the plant which rests in the ground, and supplies the stems with nourishment; see BOTANY, p. 237-8.—The layers will in a month strike *root*, being planted in a light loamy earth. *Evelyn.*—When you would have many new *roots* of fruit trees, take a low tree and bow it, and lay all its branches aflat upon the ground, and cast earth upon them, and every twig will take *root*. *Bacon.*

A flower in meadow ground, amellus call'd;
And from one *root* the rising stem bestows
A wood of leaves. *Dryden.*

In October, the hops will settle and strike *root* against spring. *Mortimer.*—The bottom; the lower part.

Deep to the *roots* of hell the gather'd beach
They fasten'd. *Milton.*

These subterraneous vaults would be found especially about the *roots* of the mountains. *Burnet.*—A plant of which the root is esculent.

Nor were the cole-worts wanting, nor the *root*,
Which after-ages call Hybernian fruit. *Harte.*

The original; the first cause.—The love of money is the *root* of all evil, is a truth universally agreed in. *Temple.*—The first ancestor.

Whence,
But from the author of all ill, could spring
So deep a malice, to confound the race
Of mankind in one *root*. *Milton.*

They were the *roots*, out of which sprang two distinct people,

people, under two distinct governments. *Locke.*—Fixed residence; impression; durable effect. — That love took deepest *root*, which first did grow. *Dryden.*

ROOTS OF WORDS are primitive words of a language.

Thus, in the Latin, *fluo* is the root of *fluctus, fluxio, flumen, fluvialis, influxus, refluens, fluctifer, fluctisonus, fluctivagus, &c.* Thus also the Greek θεος is the root of αθεος, ενθεος, ενθουσιασμος, &c.

And thus also, though in a less proper sense, the Danish *rood* is the root of the English word *root;* the Latin *radix* the root of the French *racine*, as *rado* is the root of *radix;* and perhaps ραδιος the root of *rado.*

Roots in the Hebrew language, consist of those letters that are denominated *radical*, and are generally verbs, consisting commonly of three, sometimes of two, and rarely of four letters. Of whatever letters, whether radical or servile, any word consists, it must, at least, contain one of a radical character. The investigation of the radical and a primitive is an object of importance in grammar. In order to facilitate their investigation in the Hebrew, and other eastern languages, it is necessary to be well acquainted with the division of the letters into *radical* and *servile* because these last must be rejected before the root is obtained.

If the root consists of pure radicals, commonly *three* in number, it is easily found, and as easily divested of the serviles which attend it. But, as the servile letters may also constitute roots, it is sometimes a matter of difficulty to distinguish when these letters ought to be considered in their *radical*, and when in their *servile* capacity. This difficulty is increased in the verbs denominated *imperfect.* For, in some of their parts, either by contraction, or commutation, these verbs lose sometimes one, sometimes two of their radical letters, which must be restored to their place before the root can be exhibited in its true form.

The learner must therefore endeavour, by frequent practice, to acquire a dexterity in discovering the radical letters, in divesting them of their serviles, and in restoring them where they are lost by the abbreviated flexions. This exercise is the most necessary, as, in almost all lexicons, the words are arranged according to the alphabetical order of the roots. These are commonly printed in a larger character, and have below them their derivatives, as children and descendants. By this plan, neither the signification of any verb, nor of any noun derived from it, can be found, till its root be investigated and determined.

The following directions will be found useful in the investigation of radical words.

The chief things to be attended to are, what letters are commonly servile, either in nouns or verbs; in what part of the word they most generally appear; and what is the most probable conjecture to be formed, in order to restore such radicals as are lost by the abbreviated flexions.

The servile letters in nouns are such as form the feminine gender, and the plural terminations, the prefixes, including the signs of the cases, the heëmantic letters, and the possessive pronouns, or affixes.

The servile letters in verbs are the personal prefixes and postfixes, formerly named the *pronominal serviles*, the characteristics of the different forms, and the verbal affixes.

ו and י, whether inserted in nouns or verbs, must be rejected in the investigation of the root.

As the serviles generally appear in the greatest number at the end of words, the most proper method of discovering the root seems to be this:—

Begin from the left hand, remove the serviles as you go along, retain the pure and the supposed radicals, reject the inserted ו and י, restore or commute the radicals lost by abbreviations, and, finally, reject the prefixes.

Directions for finding the Root, and for restoring the deficient Radicals:—

I. If, after rejecting the serviles, three pure radicals remain, you may conclude these to be the root.

II. If only two remain, as is the common case in abbreviated roots, prefix to these either נ or י, or insert ו betwixt them, or postpone ה, or double the second.

The investigation of roots is not peculiar to the Hebrew, but common to all languages, and is of singular advantage, if we would attend to accuracy and propriety of writing.

In such languages as do not admit of the distinction between radical and servile letters, the following may be observed as general rules for reducing words to their first principles. Let that part of the word which remains unvaried be considered as the radical term, and let the changes of termination be disregarded or cut off. Compound words must be resolved into their component parts, and the prepositions excluded. In those words which seem reducible to Hebrew roots consisting entirely of consonants, the intermediate vowels employed for their enunciation, are not to be considered as essential, or as constituting a part of the root.—See Wilson's Elements of Hebrew Grammar. Masclef Gram. Heb. vol. i. c. 21. p. 214, &c. Robertson's Gram. Heb. Appendix, iii.

The Greek and Hebrew tongues are learned by roots. Of dictionaries, some are in alphabetical order, others are disposed by roots, as Scapula, Faber's Thesaurus, and the first edition of the Dictionary of the French Academy.

ROOTS OF EQUATIONS. See ALGEBRA, 297—303. It will be requisite in this place, merely to add a table of the Square and Cube Roots of Numbers, 1 to 1200, which are of obvious and very general use.

TABLE of Square Roots and Cube Roots, from 1 to 1200.

Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.
1	1.0000000	1.0000000	51	7.1414284	3.7084298	101	10.0498756	4.6570095
2	1.4142136	1.2599210	52	7.2111026	3.7325111	102	10.0995049	4.6723287
3	1.7320508	1.4422496	53	7.2801099	3.7562858	103	10.1488916	4.6875482
4	2 0000000	1.5874011	54	7.3484692	3.7797631	104	10.1980390	4.7026694
5	2.2360680	1.7099759	55	7.4161985	3.8029525	105	10.2469508	4.7176940
6	2.4494897	1.8171206	56	7.4833148	3.8258624	106	10.2956301	4.7326235
7	2.6457513	1.9129312	57	7.5498344	3.8485011	107	10.3440804	4.7474594
8	2.8284271	2.0000000	58	7.6157731	3.8708766	108	10.3923048	4.7622032
9	3.0000000	2.0800837	59	7.6811457	3.8929965	109	10.4403065	4.7768562
10	3.1622777	2.1544347	60	7.7459667	3.9148676	110	10.4880885	4.7914199
11	3.3166248	2.2339801	61	7.8102497	3.9364972	111	10.5356538	4.8058955
12	3.4641016	2.2894286	62	7.8740079	3.9578915	112	10.5830052	4.8202845
13	3.6055513	2.3513347	63	7.9372539	3.9790571	113	10.6301458	4.8345881
14	3.7416574	2.4101422	64	8.0000000	4.0000000	114	10.6770783	4.8488076
15	3.8729833	2.4662121	65	8.0622577	4.0207256	115	10.7238053	4.8629442
16	4.0000000	2.5198421	66	8.1240384	4.0412401	116	10.7703296	4.8769990
17	4.1231056	2.5712816	67	8.1853528	4.0615480	117	10.8166538	4.8909732
18	4.2426407	2.6207414	68	8.2462113	4.0816551	118	10.8627805	4.9048681
19	4.3588989	2.6684016	69	8.3066239	4.1015661	119	10.9087121	4.9196847
20	4.4721360	2.7144177	70	8.3666003	4.1212853	120	10.9544512	4.9324242
21	4.5825757	2.7589243	71	8.4261498	4.1408178	121	11.0000000	4.9460874
22	4.6904158	2.8020393	72	8.4852814	4.1601676	122	11.0453610	4.9596757
23	4.7958315	2.8438670	73	8.5440037	4.1793390	123	11.0905365	4.9731898
24	4.8989795	2.8844991	74	8.6023253	4.1983364	124	11.1355287	4.9866310
25	5.0000000	2.9240177	75	8.6602540	4.2171633	125	11.1803399	5.0000000
26	5.0990195	2.9624960	76	8.7177979	4.2358236	126	11.2249722	5.0132979
27	5.1961524	3.0000000	77	8.7749644	4.2543210	127	11.2694277	5.0265257
28	5.2915026	3.0365889	78	8.8317609	4.2726586	128	11.3137085	5.0396842
29	5.3851648	3.0723168	79	8.8881944	4.2908404	129	11.3578167	5.0527743
30	5.4772256	3.1072325	80	8.9442719	4.3088695	130	11.4017543	5.0657970
31	5.5677644	3,1413806	81	9.0000000	4.3267487	131	11.4455231	5.0787531
32	5.6568542	3.1748021	82	9.0553851	4.3444815	132	11.4891253	5.0916434
33	5.7445626	3.2075343	83	9.1104336	4.3620707	133	11.5325626	5.1044687
34	5.8309519	3.2396118	84	9,1651514	4.3795191	134	11.5758369	5.1172299
35	5.9160798	3.2710663	85	9.2195445	4.3968296	135	11.6189500	5.1299278
36	6.0000000	3.3019272	86	9.2736185	4.4140049	136	11.6619038	5.1425632
37	6.0827625	3.3322218	87	9.3273791	4.4310476	137	11.7046999	5.1551367
38	6.1644140	3.3619754	88	9.3808315	4.4479602	138	11.7473444	5.1676493
39	6.2449980	3.3912114	89	9.4339811	4.4647451	139	11.7898261	5.1801015
40	6.3245553	3.4199519	90	9.4868330	4.4814047	140	11.8321596	5.1924941
41	6.4031242	3.4482172	91	9.5393920	4.4979414	141	11.8743421	5.2048279
42	6.4807407	3.4760266	92	9.5916630	4.5143574	142	11.9163753	5.2171034
43	6.5574385	3.5033981	93	9.6436508	4.5306549	143	11.9582607	5.2293215
44	6.6332496	3.5303483	94	9.6953597	4.5468359	144	12.0000000	5.2414828
45	6.7082039	3.5568933	95	9.7467943	4.5629026	145	12.0415946	5 2535879
46	6.7823300	3.5830479	96	9.7979590	4.5788570	146	12.0830460	5.2656374
47	6.8556546	3.6088261	97	9.8488578	4.5947009	147	12.1243557	5.2776321
48	6.9282032	3.6342411	98	9.8994949	4.6104363	148	12.1655251	5.2895725
49	7.0000000	3.6593057	99	9.9498744	4.6260650	149	12.2065556	5.3014592
50	7.0710678	3.6840314	100	10.0000000	4.6415888	150	12.2474487	5.3113298

Table of Square Roots and Cube Roots.

Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.
151	12.2882057	5.3250740	201	14.1774469	5.8577660	251	15.8429795	6.3079935
152	12.3288280	5.3368033	202	14.2126704	5.8674643	252	15.8745079	6.3173596
153	12.3693169	5.3484812	203	14.2478068	5.8771307	253	15.9059737	6.3247035
154	12.4096736	5.3601084	204	14.2828569	5.8867653	254	15.9373775	6.3330256
155	12.4498996	5.3716854	205	14.3178211	5.8963685	255	15.9687194	6.3413257
156	12.4899960	5.3832126	206	14.3527001	5.9059406	256	16.0000000	6.3496042
157	12.5299641	5.3946907	207	14.3874946	5.9154817	257	16.0312195	6.3578611
158	12.5698051	5.4061202	208	14.4222051	5.9249921	258	16.0623784	6.3660968
159	12.6095202	5.4175015	209	14.4568323	5.9344721	259	16.0934769	6.3743111
160	12.6491106	5.4288352	210	14.4913767	5.9439220	260	16.1245155	6.3825043
161	12.6885775	5.4401218	211	14.5258390	5.9533418	261	16.1554944	6.3906765
162	12.7279221	5.4513618	212	14.5602198	5.9627320	262	16.1864141	6.3988279
163	12.7671453	5.4625556	213	14.5945195	5.9720926	263	16.2172747	6.4069584
164	12.8062485	5.4737037	214	14.6287388	5.9814240	264	16.2480768	6.4150687
165	12.8452326	5.4848066	215	14.6628783	5.9907264	265	16.2788206	6.4231583
166	12.8840987	5.4958647	216	14.6969385	6.0000000	266	16.3095064	6.4312276
167	12.9228480	5.5068784	217	14.7309199	6.0092450	267	16.3401346	6.4392767
168	12.9614814	5.5178484	218	14.7648231	6.0184617	268	16.3707055	6.4473057
169	13.0000000	5.5287748	219	14.7986486	6.0276502	269	16.4012195	6.4553148
170	13.0384048	5.5396583	220	14.8323970	6 0368107	270	16.4316767	6.4633041
171	13.0766968	5.5504991	221	14.8660687	6.0459435	271	16.4620776	6.4712736
172	13.1148770	5.5612978	222	14.8996644	6.0550489	272	16.4924225	6.4792236
173	13.1529464	5.5720546	223	14.9331845	6.0641270	273	16.5227116	6.4871541
174	13.1909060	5.5827702	224	14.9666295	6.0731779	274	16.5529454	6.4950653
175	13.2287566	5.5934447	225	15.0000000	6.0822020	275	16.5831240	6.5029572
176	13.2664992	5.6040787	226	15.0332964	6.0911994	276	16.6132477	6.5108300
177	13.3041347	5.6146724	227	15.0665192	6.1001702	277	16.6433170	6.5186839
178	13.3416641	5.6252263	228	15.0996689	6.1091147	278	16.6733320	6.5265189
179	13.3790882	5.6357408	229	15.1327460	6.1180332	279	16.7032931	6.5343851
180	13.4164079	5.6462162	230	15.1657509	6.1269257	280	16.7332005	6.5421326
181	13.4536240	5.6566528	231	15.19°6842	6.1357924	281	16.7630546	6.5499116
182	13.4907376	5.6670511	232	15.2315462	6.1446337	282	16.7928556	6.5576722
183	13.5277493	5.6774114	233	15.2643375	6.1534495	283	16.8226038	6.5654144
184	13.5646600	5.6877340	234	15.2970585	6.1622401	284	16.8522995	6.5731385
185	13.6014705	5.6980192	235	15.3297097	6.1710058	285	16.8819430	6.5808443
186	13.6381817	5.7082675	236	15.3622915	6.1797466	286	16.9115345	6.5885323
187	13.6747943	5.7184791	237	15.3948043	6.1884628	287	16.9410743	6.5962023
188	13.7113092	5.7286543	238	15.4272486	6.1971544	288	16.9705627	6.6038545
189	13.7477271	5.7387936	239	15.4596248	6.2058218	289	17.0000000	6.6114890
190	13.7840488	5.7488971	240	15.4919334	6.2144650	290	17.0293864	6.6191060
191	13.8202750	5.7589652	241	15.5241747	6.2230843	291	17.0587221	6.6267054
192	13.8564065	5.7689982	242	15.5563492	6.2316797	292	17.0880075	6.6342874
193	13.8924440	5.7789966	243	15.5884573	6.2402515	293	17.1172428	6.6418522
194	13.9283883	5.7889604	244	15.6204994	6.2487998	294	17.1464282	6.6493998
195	13.9642400	5.7988900	245	15.6524759	6.2573248	295	17.1755640	6.6569302
196	14.0000000	5.8087857	246	15.6843871	6.2658266	296	17.2046505	6.6644437
197	14.0356688	5.8186479	247	15.7162336	6.2743054	297	17.2336879	6.6719403
198	14.0712473	5.8284767	248	15.7480157	6.2827613	298	17.2626765	6.6794200
199	14.1067360	5.8382725	249	15.7797338	6.2911946	299	17.2916165	6.6868831
200	14.1421356	5.8480355	250	15.8113883	6.2996053	300	17.3205081	6.6943295

TABLE of Square Roots and Cube Roots.

Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.
301	17.3493516	6.7017593	351	18.7349940	7.0540041	401	20.0249844	7.3741979
302	17.3781472	6.7091729	352	18.7616630	7.0606967	402	20.0499377	7.3803227
303	17.4068952	6.7165700	353	18.7882942	7.0673767	403	20.0748599	7.3864373
304	17.4355958	6.7239508	354	18.8148877	7.0740440	404	20.0997512	7.3925418
305	17.4642492	6.7313155	355	18.8414437	7.0806988	405	20.1246118	7.3986363
306	17.4928557	6.7386641	356	18.8679623	7.0873411	406	20.1494417	7.4047206
307	17.5214155	6.7459967	357	18.8944436	7.0939709	407	20.1742410	7.4107950
308	17.5499288	6.7533134	358	18.9208879	7.1005885	408	20.1990099	7.4168595
309	17.5783958	6.7606143	359	18.9472953	7.1071937	409	20.2237484	7.4229142
310	17.6068169	6.7678995	360	18.9736660	7.1137866	410	20.2484567	7.4289589
311	17.6351921	6.7751690	361	19.0000000	7.1203674	411	20.2731349	7.4349938
312	17.6635217	6.7824229	362	19.0262976	7.1269360	412	20.2977831	7.4410189
313	17.6918060	6.7896613	363	19.0525589	7.1334925	413	20.3224014	7.4470342
314	17.7200451	6.7968844	364	19.0787840	7.1400370	414	20.3469899	7.4530399
315	17.7482393	6.8040921	365	19.1049732	7.1465695	415	20.3715488	7.4590359
316	17.7763888	6.8112847	366	19.1311265	7.1530901	416	20.3960781	7.4650223
317	17.8044938	6.8184620	367	19.1572441	7.1595988	417	20.4205779	7.4709991
318	17.8325545	6.8256242	368	19.1833261	7.1660957	418	20.4450483	7.4769664
319	17.8605711	6.8327714	369	19.2093727	7.1722809	419	20.4694895	7.4829242
320	17.8885438	6.8399037	370	19.2353841	7.1790544	420	20.4939015	7.4888724
321	17.9164729	6.8470213	371	19.2613603	7.1855162	421	20.5182845	7.4948113
322	17.9443584	6.8541240	372	19.2873015	7.1919663	422	20.5426386	7.5007406
323	17.9722008	6.8612120	373	19.3132079	7.1984050	423	20.5669638	7.5066607
324	18.0000000	6.8682855	374	19.3390796	7.2048322	424	20.5912603	7.5125715
325	18.0277564	6.8753443	375	19.3649167	7.2112479	425	20.6155281	7.6184730
326	18.0554701	6.8823888	376	19.3907194	7.2176522	426	20.6397674	7.5243652
327	18.0831413	6.8894188	377	19.4164878	7.2240450	427	20.6639783	7.5302482
328	18.1107703	6.8964345	378	19.4422221	7.2304268	428	20.6881609	7.5361221
329	18.1383571	6.9034359	379	19.4679223	7.2367972	429	20.7123152	7.5419867
330	18.1659021	6.9104232	380	19.4935887	7.2431565	430	20.7364414	7.5478423
331	18.1934054	6.9173964	381	19.5192213	7.2495045	431	20.7605395	7.5536888
332	18.2208672	6.9243556	382	19.5448203	7.2558415	432	20.7846097	7.5595263
333	18.2482876	6.9313008	383	19.5703858	7.2621675	433	20.8086520	7.5653548
334	18.2756669	6.9382321	384	19.5959179	7.2634824	434	20.8326667	7.5711743
335	18.3030052	6.9451496	385	19.6214169	7.2747864	435	20.8566536	7.5769849
336	18.3303028	6.9520533	386	19.6468827	7.2810794	436	20.8806130	7.5827865
337	18.3575598	6.9589434	387	19.6723156	7.2873617	437	20.9045450	7.5885793
338	18.3847763	6.9658198	388	19.6977156	7.2936330	438	20.9284495	7.5943633
339	18.4119526	6.9726826	389	19.7230829	7.2998936	439	20.9523268	7.6001385
340	18.4390889	6.9795321	390	19.7484177	7.3061436	440	20.9761770	7.6059049
341	18.4661853	6.9863681	391	19.7737199	7.3123828	441	21.0000000	7.6116626
342	18.4932420	6.9931906	392	19.7989899	7.3186114	442	21.0237960	7.6174116
343	18.5202592	7.0000000	393	19.8242276	7.3248295	443	21.0475652	7.6231519
344	18.5472370	7.0067962	394	19.8494332	7.3310369	444	21.0713075	7.6288837
345	18.5741756	7.0135791	395	19.8746069	7.3372339	445	21.0950231	7.6346067
346	18.6010752	7.0203490	396	19.8997487	7.3434205	446	21.1187121	7.6403213
347	18.6279360	7.0271058	397	19.9248588	7.3495966	447	21.1423745	7.6460272
348	18.6547581	7.0338497	398	19.9499373	7.3557624	448	21.1660105	7.6517247
349	18.6815417	7.0405806	399	19.9749844	7.3619178	449	21.1896201	7.6574138
350	18.7082869	7.0472987	400	20.0000000	7.3680630	450	21.2132034	7.6630943

TABLE of Square Roots and Cube Roots.

Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.
451	21.2367606	7.6687665	501	22.3830293	7.9422931	551	23.4733892	8.1981753
452	21.2602916	7.6744303	502	22.4063565	7.9475739	552	23.4946802	8.2031319
453	21.2837967	7.6800857	503	22.4276615	7.9528477	553	23.5159520	8.2080825
454	21.3072758	7.6857328	504	22.4499443	7.9581444	554	23.5372046	8.2130271
455	21.3307290	7.6913717	505	22.4722051	7.9633743	555	23.5584380	8.2179657
456	21.3541565	7.6970023	506	22.4944438	7.9686271	556	23.5796522	8.2220985
457	21.3775583	7.7026246	507	22.5166605	7.9738731	557	23.6008474	8.2278254
458	21.4009346	7.7082388	508	22.5388553	7.9791122	558	23.6220236	8.2327463
459	21.4242853	7.7138448	509	22.5610283	7.9843444	559	23.6431808	8.2376614
460	21.4476106	7.7194426	510	23.5831796	7.9895697	560	23.6643191	8.2425706
461	21.4709106	7.7250325	511	22.6053091	7.9947883	561	23.6854386	8.2474740
462	21.4941853	7.7306141	512	22.6274170	8.0000000	562	23.7065392	8.2523715
463	21.5174348	7.7361877	513	22.6495033	8.0052049	563	23.7276210	8.2572633
464	21.5406592	7.7417532	514	22.6715681	8.0104032	564	23.7486842	8.2621492
465	21.5638587	7.7473109	515	22.6936114	8.0155946	565	23.7697286	8.2670294
466	21.5870331	7.7528606	516	22.7156334	8.0207794	566	23.7907545	8.2719039
467	21.6101828	7.7584023	517	22.7376340	8.0259574	567	23.8117618	8.2767726
468	21.6333077	7.7639361	518	22.7596134	8.0311287	568	23.8327506	8.2816355
469	21.6564078	7.7694620	519	22.7815715	8.0362935	569	23.8537209	8.2864928
470	21.6794834	7.7749801	520	22.8035085	8.0414515	570	23.8746728	8.2913444
471	21.7025344	7.7804904	521	22.8254244	8.0466030	571	23.8956063	8.2961903
472	21.7255610	7.7859928	522	22.8473193	8.0517479	572	23.9165215	8.3010304
473	21.7485632	7.7914875	523	22.8691933	8.0568862	573	23.9374184	8.3058651
474	21.7715411	7.7969745	524	22.8910463	8.0620180	574	23.9582971	8.3106941
475	21.7944947	7.8024538	525	22.9128785	8.0671432	575	23.9791576	8.3155175
476	21.8174242	7.8079254	526	22.9346899	8.0722620	576	24.0000000	8.3203353
477	21.8403297	7.8133892	527	22.9564806	8.0773743	577	24.0208243	8.3251475
478	21.8632111	7.8188456	528	22.9782506	8.0824800	578	24.0416306	8.3299542
479	21.8860686	7.8242942	529	23.0000000	8.0875794	579	24.0624188	8.3347553
480	21.9089023	7.8297353	530	23.0217289	8.0926723	580	24.0831891	8.3395509
481	21.9317122	7.8351688	531	23.0434373	8.0977589	581	24.1039416	8.3443410
482	21.9544984	7.8405949	532	23.0651252	8.1028390	582	24.1246762	8.3491256
483	21.9772610	7.8460134	533	23.0867928	8.1079128	583	24.1453929	8.3539047
484	22.0000000	7.8514244	534	23.1084400	8.1129803	584	24.1660919	8.3586784
485	22.0227155	7.8568281	535	23.1300670	8.1180414	585	24.1867732	8.3634466
486	22.0454077	7.8622242	536	23.1516738	8.1230962	586	24.2074369	8.3682095
487	22.0680765	7.8676130	537	23.1732605	8.1281447	587	24.2280829	8.3729668
488	22.0907220	7.8729944	538	23.1948270	8.1331870	588	24.2487113	8.3777188
489	22.1133444	7.8783684	539	23.2163735	8.1382230	589	24.2693222	8.3824653
490	22.1359436	7.8837352	540	23.2379001	8.1432529	590	24.2899156	8.3872065
491	22.1585198	7.8890946	541	23.2594067	8.1482765	591	24.3104916	8.3919423
492	22.1810730	7.8944468	542	23.2808935	8.1532939	592	24.3310501	8.3966729
493	22.2036033	7.8997917	543	23.3023604	8.1583051	593	24.3515913	8.4030981
494	22.2261108	7.9051294	544	23.3238076	8.1633102	594	24.3721152	8.4061180
495	22.2485955	7.9104599	545	23.3452351	8.1683092	595	24.3926218	8.4108326
496	22.2710575	7.9157832	546	23.3666429	8.1733020	596	24.4131112	8.4155419
497	22.2934968	7.9210994	547	23.3880311	8.1782888	597	24.4335834	8.4202460
498	22.3159136	7.9264085	548	23.4093998	8.1832695	598	24.4540385	8.4249448
499	22.3383079	7.9317104	549	23.4307490	8.1882441	599	24.4744765	8.4296383
400	22.3606798	7.9370053	550	23.4520788	8.1932127	600	24.4948974	8.4343267

TABLE of Square Roots and Cube Roots.

Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.
601	24.5153013	8.4390098	651	25.5147016	8.6668310	701	26.4764046	8.8832661
602	24.5356883	8.4436877	652	25.5342907	8.6712665	702	26.4952826	8.8874882
603	24.5560583	8.4483605	653	25.5538647	8.6756974	703	26.5141472	8.8917063
604	24.5764115	8.4530281	654	25.5734237	8.6801237	704	26.5329983	8.8959204
605	24.5967478	8.4576906	655	25.5929678	8.6845456	705	26.5518361	8.9001304
606	24.6170673	8.4623479	656	25.6124969	8.6889630	706	26.5706605	8.9043366
607	24.6373700	8.4670001	657	25.6320112	8.6933759	707	26.5894716	8.9085387
608	24.6576560	8.4716471	658	25.6515107	8.6977843	708	26.6082694	8.9127369
609	24.6779254	8.4762892	659	25.6709953	8.7021882	709	26.6270539	8.9169311
610	24.6981781	8.4809261	660	25.6904652	8.7065877	710	26.6458252	8.9211214
611	24.7184142	8.4855579	661	25.7099203	8.7109827	711	26.6645833	8.9253078
612	24.7386338	8.4901848	662	25.7293607	8.7153734	712	26.6833281	8.9294902
613	24.7588368	8.4948065	663	25.7487864	8.7197596	713	26.7020598	8.9336687
614	24.7790234	8.4994233	664	25.7681975	8.7241414	714	26.7207784	8.9378433
615	24.7991935	8.5040350	665	25.7875939	8.7285187	715	26.7394839	8.9420140
616	24.8193473	8.5086417	666	25.8069758	8.7328918	716	26.7581763	8.9461809
617	24.8394847	8.5132435	667	25.8263431	8.7372604	717	26.7768557	8.9503438
618	24.8596058	8.5178403	668	25.8456960	8.7416246	718	26.7955220	8.9545029
619	24.8797106	8.5224321	669	25.8650343	8.7459846	719	26.8141754	8.9586581
620	24.8997992	8.5270189	670	25.8843582	8.7503401	720	26.8328157	8.9628095
621	24.9198716	8.5316009	671	25.9036677	8.7546913	721	26.8514432	8.9669570
622	24.9399278	8.5361780	672	25.9229628	8.7590383	722	26.8700577	8.9711007
623	24.9599679	8.5407501	673	25.9422435	8.7633809	723	26.8886593	8.9752406
624	24.9799920	8.5453173	674	25.9615100	8.7677192	724	26.9072481	8.9793766
625	25.0000000	8.5498797	675	25.9807621	8.7720532	725	26.9258240	8.9835089
626	25.0199920	8.5544372	676	26.0000000	8.7763830	726	26.9443872	8.9876373
627	25.0399681	8.5589899	677	26.0192237	8.7807084	727	26.9629375	8.9917620
628	25.0599282	8.5635377	678	26.0384331	8.7850296	728	26.9814751	8.9958829
629	25.0798724	8.5680807	679	26.0576284	8.7893466	729	27.0000000	9.0000000
630	25.0998008	8.5726189	680	26.0768096	8.7936593	730	27.0185122	9.0041134
631	25.1197134	8.5771523	681	26.0959767	8.7979679	731	27.0370117	9.0082229
632	25.1396102	8.5816809	682	26.1151297	8.8022721	732	27.0554985	9.0123288
633	25.1594913	8.5862047	683	26.1342687	8.8065722	733	24.0739727	9.0164309
634	25.1793566	8.5907238	684	26.1533937	8.8108681	734	27.0924344	9.0205293
635	25.1992063	8.5952380	685	26.1725047	8.8151598	735	27.1108834	9.0246239
636	25.2190404	8.5997476	686	26.1916017	8.8194474	736	27.1293199	9.0287149
637	25.2388589	8.6042525	687	26.2106848	8.8237307	737	27.1477439	9.0328021
638	25.2586619	8.6087526	688	26.2297541	8.8280099	738	27.1661554	9.0368857
639	25.2784493	8.6132480	689	26.2488095	8.8322850	739	27.1845544	9.0409655
640	25.2982213	8.6177388	690	26.2678511	8.8365559	740	27.2029410	9.0450419
641	25.3179778	8.6222248	691	26.2868789	8.8408227	741	27.2213152	9.0491142
642	25.3377189	8.6267063	692	26.3058929	8.8450854	742	27.2396769	9.0531831
643	25.3574447	8.6311830	693	26.3248932	8.8493440	743	27.2580263	9.0572482
644	25.3771551	8.6356551	694	26.3438797	8.8535985	744	27.2763634	9.0613098
645	25.3968502	8.6401226	695	26.3828527	8.8578489	745	27.2946881	9.0653677
646	25.4165301	8.6445855	696	26.3818119	8.8620952	746	27.3130006	9.0694220
647	25.4361947	8.6490437	697	26.4107576	8.8663375	747	27.3313007	9.0734726
648	25.4558441	8.6534974	698	26.4196896	8.8705757	748	27.3495887	9.0775197
649	25.4754784	8.6579465	699	26.4386081	8.8748999	749	27.3678644	9.0815631
650	25.4950976	8.6623911	700	26.4575131	8.8790400	750	27.3861279	9.0856030

TABLE of Square Roots and Cube Roots.

Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.
751	27.4043792	9.0896392	801	28.3019434	9.2870440	851	29.1719043	9.4763957
752	27.4226184	9.0936719	802	28.3196045	9.2909072	852	29.1890390	9.4801061
753	27.4408445	9.0977010	803	28.3372546	9.2947671	853	29.2061637	9.4838136
754	27.4590604	9.1017265	804	28.3548938	9.2086239	854	29.2232784	9.4875182
755	27.4772633	9.1057485	805	28.3725219	9.3024775	855	29.2403830	9.4912200
756	27.4954542	9.1097669	806	28 3901391	9.3063278	856	29.2574777	9.4949188
757	27.5136330	9.1137818	807	28.4077454	9.3101750	857	29.2745623	9.4986147
758	27.5317998	9 1177931	808	28.4253408	9.3140190	858	29.2916370	9.5023078
759	27.5499546	9.1218010	809	28.4429253	9.3178599	859	29.3087018	9.5059980
760	27.5680975	9.1258053	810	28.4604989	9.3216975	860	29.3257566	9.5096854
761	27.5862284	9.1298061	811	28.4780617	9.3255320	861	29.3428015	9.5133699
762	27.6043475	9.1338034	812	28.4956137	9.3293634	862	29.3598365	9.5170515
763	27.6224546	9.1377974	813	28.5131549	9.3331916	863	29.3768616	9.5207303
764	27.6405499	9.1417874	814	28.5306852	9.3370167	864	29.3938769	9.5244063
765	27.6586334	9.1457742	815	28.5282048	9.3408386	865	29.4108823	9.5280794
766	27.6767050	9.1497576	816	28.5657137	9.3446575	866	29.4278779	9.5317497
767	27.6947648	9.1537375	817	28.5832119	9.3484731	867	29.4448637	9.5354172
768	27.7128129	9.1577139	818	28.6006993	9.3522857	868	29.4618397	9.5390818
769	27.7308492	9.1616869	819	28.6181760	9.3560952	869	29.4788059	9.5427437
770	27.7488739	9.1656565	820	28.6356421	9.3599016	870	29.4957624	9.5464027
771	27.7668868	9.1696225	821	28.6530976	9.3637049	871	29.5127091	9.5500589
772	27.7848880	9.1735852	822	28.6705424	9.3675051	872	29.5296461	9.5537123
773	27.8028775	9.1775445	823	28.6879766	9.3713022	873	29.5465734	9.5573630
774	27.8208555	9.1815003	824	28.7054002	9.3750963	874	29.5634910	9.5610108
775	27.8388218	9.1854527	825	28.7228132	9.3788873	875	29.5803989	9.5646559
776	27.8567766	9.1894018	826	28.7402157	9.3826752	876	29.5972972	9.5682982
777	27.8747197	9.1933474	827	28.7576077	9.3864600	877	29.6141858	9.5719377
778	27.8926514	9.1972897	828	28.7749891	9.3902419	878	29.6310648	9.5755745
779	27.9105715	9.2012286	829	28.7923601	9.3940206	879	29.6479342	9.5792085
780	27.9284801	9.2051641	830	28.8097206	9.3977964	880	29.6647939	9.5828397
781	27.9463772	9.2090962	831	28.8270706	9.4015691	881	29.6816442	9.5864682
782	27.9462629	9.2130250	832	28.8444102	9.4053387	882	29.6984848	9.5900939
783	27.9821372	9.2169505	833	28.8617394	9.4091054	883	29.7153159	9.5937169
784	28.0000000	9.2208726	834	28.8790582	9.4128690	884	29.7321375	9.5973373
785	28.0178515	9.2247914	835	28.8963666	9.4166297	885	29.7489496	9.6009548
786	28.0356915	9.2287068	836	28.9136646	9.4203873	886	29.7657521	9.6045696
787	28.0535203	9.2326189	837	28.9309523	9.4241420	887	29.7825452	9.6081817
788	28.0713377	9.2365277	838	28.9482297	9.4278936	888	29.7993289	9.6117911
789	28.0891438	9.2404333	839	28.9654967	9.4316423	889	29.8161030	9.6153977
790	28.1069386	9.2443355	840	28.9827535	9.4353880	890	29.8328678	9.6190017
791	28.1247222	9.2482344	841	29.0000000	9.4391307	891	29.8496231	9.6226030
792	28.1424946	9.2521300	842	29.0172363	9.4428704	892	29.8663690	9.6262016
793	28.1602557	9.2560224	843	29.0344623	9.4466072	893	29.8831056	9.6297975
794	28.1780059	9.2599114	844	29.0516781	9.4503410	894	29.8998328	9.6333907
795	28.1957444	9.2637973	845	29.0688837	9.4540719	895	29.9165506	9.6369812
796	28.2124720	9.2676798	846	29.0860791	9.4577999	896	29.9332591	9.6405690
797	28.2311884	9.2715592	847	29.1032644	9.4615249	897	29.9499583	9.6441542
798	28.2488938	9.2754352	848	29.1204396	9.4652470	898	29.9666481	9.6477367
799	28.2665881	9.2793081	849	29.2376046	9.4689661	899	29.9833287	9.6513166
800	28.2842712	9.2831777	850	29.1547595	9.4726824	900	30.0000000	9.6548938

Table of Square Roots and Cube Roots.

Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.
901	30.0166620	9.6584684	951	30.8382879	9.8339238	1001	31.6385840	10.0033322
902	30.0333148	9.6620403	952	30.8544972	9.8373695	1002	31.6643836	10.0066622
903	30.0499584	9.6656096	953	30.8706984	9.8408127	1003	31.6701752	10.0099899
904	30.0675128	9.6691762	954	30.8868904	9.8442536	1004	31.6859590	10.0133155
905	30.0832179	9.6727403	955	30.9030743	9.8476920	1005	31.7017349	10.0166389
906	30.0998339	9.6763017	956	30.9192497	9.8511280	1006	31.7175030	10.0199601
907	30.1164407	9.6798604	957	30.9354166	9.8545617	1007	31.7332633	10.0232791
908	30.1330383	9.6834166	958	30.9515751	9.8579929	1008	31.7490157	10.0265958
909	30.1496269	9.6869701	959	30.9677251	9.8614218	1009	31.7647603	10.0299104
910	30.1662063	9.6905211	960	30.9838668	9.8648483	1010	31.7804972	10.0332228
911	30.1827765	9.6940694	961	31.0000000	9.8682724	1011	31.7962262	10.0365330
912	30.1993377	9.6976151	962	31.0161248	9.8716941	1012	31.8119474	10.0398410
913	30.2158899	9.7011583	963	31.0322413	9.8751135	1013	31.8276609	10.0431469
914	30.2324329	9.7046989	964	31.0483494	9.8785305	1014	31.8433666	10.9464506
915	30.2489669	9.7082369	965	31.0944491	9.8819451	1015	31.8590646	10.0497521
916	30.2654919	9.7117723	966	31.0805405	9.8853574	1016	31.8747549	10.0530514
917	30.2820079	9.7153051	967	31.0996236	9.8887673	1017	31.8904374	10.0563485
918	30.2985148	9.7188354	968	31.1126984	9.8921749	1018	31.9061123	10.0596435
919	30.3150128	9.7223631	969	31,1287648	9.8955801	1019	31.9217794	10.0629364
920	30.3315018	9.7258883	970	31.1448230	9.8989830	1020	31.9374388	10.0662271
921	30.3479818	9.7294109	971	31.1608729	9.9023835	1021	31.9530906	10.0695156
922	30.3644529	9.7329309	972	31.1769145	9.9057817	1022	31.9687347	10.0728020
923	30.3809151	9.7364484	973	31.1929479	9.9091776	1023	31.9843712	10.0760863
924	30.3973683	9.7399634	974	31.2089731	9.9125712	1024	32.0000000	10.0793684
925	30.4138127	9.7434758	975	31.2249900	9.9159624	1025	32.0156212	10.0826484
926	30.4302481	9.7469857	976	31.2409987	9.9193513	1026	32.0312348	10.0859262
927	30.4466747	9.7504930	977	31.2569992	9.9227379	1027	32.0468407	10.0892019
928	30.4630924	9.7539979	978	31.2729915	9.9261222	1028	32.0624391	10.0924755
929	30.4795013	9.7575002	979	31.2889757	9.9295042	1029	32.0780298	10.0957469
930	30.4959014	9.7610001	980	31.3049517	9.9328839	1030	32.0936131	10.0990163
931	30.5122926	9.7644974	981	31.3209195	9.9362613	1031	32.1091887	10.1022835
932	30.5286750	9.7679922	982	31.3398792	9.9396363	1032	32.1247568	10.1055487
933	30.5450487	9.7714845	983	31.3528308	9.9433092	1033	32.1403173	10.1088117
934	30.5614136	6.7749743	984	31.3687743	9.9463797	1034	32.1558704	10.1120726
935	30.5777697	9.7784616	985	31.3847097	9.9497479	1035	32.1714159	10.1153314
936	30.5941171	9.7829466	986	31.4006369	9.9531138	1036	32.1869539	10.1185882
937	30.6104557	9.7854288	987	31.4165561	9.9564775	1037	32.1024844	10.1218428
938	30.6267857	9.7889087	988	31.4324673	9.9598389	1038	32.2180074	10.1250953
939	30.6431069	9.7923861	989	31.4483704	9.9631981	1039	32.2335229	10.1283457
940	30.6594194	9.7958611	990	31.4642654	9.9665549	1040	32.2490310	10.1315941
941	30.6757233	9.7963336	991	31.4801525	9.9699095	1041	32.2645316	10.1348403
942	30.6920185	9.8028036	992	31.4960315	9.9732619	1042	32.2800248	10.1380845
943	30.7083051	9.8062711	993	31.5119025	9.9766120	1043	32.2955105	10.1413266
944	30.7245830	9.8097362	994	31.5277555	9.9799599	1044	32.3109888	10.1445667
945	30.7498523	9.8131989	995	31.5436206	9.9833055	1045	32.3264598	10.1478047
946	30.7571130	9.8166591	996	31.5594677	9.9866488	1046	32.3419233	10.1510406
947	30.7733651	9.8201169	997	31.5753068	9.9899900	1047	32.3573794	10.1542744
948	30.7896086	9.8235723	998	31.5911380	9.9933289	1048	32.3728281	10.1575062
949	30.8058436	9.8270252	999	31.6069613	9.9966656	1049	32.3882695	10.1607359
950	30.8220700	9.8304757	1000	38.6227766	10.0000000	1050	32.4037035	10.1639636

TABLE of Square Roots and Cube Roots.

Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.	Number	Square Roots.	Cube Roots.
1051	32.4191301	10.1671893	1101	33.1813200	10.3259284	1151	33.9263909	10.4799314
1052	32.4345495	10.1704129	1102	33.1963853	10.3290537	1152	33.9411255	10.4829656
1053	32.4499615	10.1736344	1103	33.2114438	10.3321770	1153	33.9558537	10.4859980
1054	32.4653662	10.1768539	1104	33.2264955	10.3352985	1154	33.9705755	10.4890286
1055	32.4807635	10.1800714	1105	33.2415403	10.3384181	1155	33.9852910	10.4920575
1056	32.4961536	10.1832868	1106	33.2565783	10.3415358	1156	34.0000000	10.4950847
1057	32.5115364	10.1865002	1107	33.2716095	10.3446517	1157	34.0147027	10.4981101
1058	23.5269119	10.1897116	1108	33.2866339	10.3477657	1158	34.0293990	10.5011337
1059	32.5422802	10.1929209	1109	33.3016516	10.3508778	1159	34.0440890	10.5041556
1060	32.5576412	10.1951283	1110	33.3166625	10.3539880	1160	34.0587727	10.5071757
1061	32.5729949	10.1993336	1111	33.3316666	10.3570964	1161	34.0734501	10.5101942
1062	32.5883415	10.2025369	1112	33.3466640	10.3602029	1162	34.0881211	10.5132109
1063	32.6036807	10.2057382	1113	83.3616546	10.3633076	1163	34.1027858	10.5162259
1064	32.6190129	10.2089375	1114	33.3766385	10.3664103	1164	34.1174442	10.5192391
1065	32.6343377	10.2121347	1115	33.3916157	10.3695113	1165	30.1320963	10.5222506
1066	32.6496554	10.2153300	1116	33.4065862	10.3726103	1166	34.1467422	10.5252604
1067	32.6649659	10.2185233	1117	33.4215499	10.3757076	1167	34.1613817	10.5282685
1068	32.6802693	10.2217146	1118	33.4365070	10.3788030	1168	34.1760150	10.5312749
1069	32.6955654	10.2249039	1119	33.4514573	10.3818965	1169	34.1906420	10.5342795
1070	32.7108544	10.2280912	1120	33.4664011	10.2849882	1170	34.2052627	10.5372825
1071	32.7261363	10.2312766	1121	33.4813381	10.3880781	1171	34.2198773	10.5402837
1072	32.7414111	10.2344599	1122	33.4962684	10.3911661	1172	34.2344855	10.6432832
1073	32.7566787	10.2376413	1123	33.5111921	10.3942523	1173	34.2490875	10.5462810
1074	32.7719392	10.2408207	1124	33.5261092	10.2973366	1174	34.2636834	10.5492771
1075	32.7871926	10.2439981	1125	33.5410196	10.4004192	1175	34.2782730	10.5522715
1076	32.8024389	10.2471735	1126	33.5559234	10.4934999	1176	34.2928564	10.5552642
1077	32.8176782	10.2503470	1127	33.5708206	10.4065787	1177	34.3074336	10.5582552
1078	32.8329103	10.2535186	1128	33.5857112	10.4096557	1178	34.3220046	10.5612445
1079	32.8481354	10.2566881	1129	33.6005952	10.4127310	1179	34.3365694	10.5642322
1080	32.8633535	10.2598557	1130	33.6154726	10.4158044	1180	34.3511281	10.5672181
1081	32.8785644	10.2630213	1131	33.6303434	10.4188760	1181	34.3656805	10.5702024
1082	32.8937684	10.2661850	1132	33.6452077	10.4219458	1182	34.3802268	10.5731849
1083	32.9089653	10.2693467	1133	33.6600653	10.4250138	1183	34.3947670	10.5761658
1084	32.9231553	10.2725065	1134	33.6749165	10.4280800	1184	34.4093011	10.5791449
1085	32.9393382	10.2756644	1135	33.6897610	10.4311443	1185	34.4238289	10.5821225
1086	32.9545141	10.2788203	1136	33.7045991	10.4342069	1186	34.4383507	10.5850983
1087	32.9696830	10.2819743	1137	33 7194306	10.4372677	1187	34.4528663	10.5880725
1088	32.9848450	10.2851264	1138	33.7342556	10.4403267	1188	34.4673759	10.5910450
1089	33.0000000	10.2882765	1139	33.7490741	10.4433839	1189	34.4818793	10.5940158
1090	33.0151480	10.2814247	1140	33.7638860	10.4464393	1190	34.4963766	10.5969850
1091	33.0302891	10.2945709	1141	33.7786915	10.4494929	1191	34.5108678	10.5999525
1092	33.0454233	10.2977153	1142	33.7934905	10.4525448	1192	34.5253530	10.6029184
1093	33.0605505	10.3008577	1143	33.8082830	10.4555948	1193	34.5398321	10.6058826
1094	33.0756708	10.3039982	1144	33.8230691	10.4586431	1194	34.5543051	10.6088451
1095	33.0907842	10.3071368	1145	33.8378486	10.4616896	1195	34.5687720	10.6118060
1096	33.1058907	10.3102735	1146	33.8526218	10 4647343	1196	34.5832329	10.6147652
1097	33.1209903	10.3134083	1147	33.8673884	10.4677773	1197	34.5976879	10.6177228
1098	33.1360830	10.3165411	1148	33.8821487	10.4708185	1198	34.6121366	10.6206788
1099	33.1511689	10.3195721	1149	33.8969025	10.4738579	1199	34.6265794	10.6236331
1100	33.1662479	10.3228012	1150	33.9116499	10.4768955	1200	34.6410162	10.6265857

To ROOT, *v. n.* To fix the root; to strike far into the earth.

Her fallow leas
The darnel, hemlock, and rank fumitory
Doth *root* upon. *Shakspeare.*

After a year's *rooting*, then shaking doth the tree good, by loosening of the earth. *Bacon.*—To turn up earth; to search in the earth.

No lusty neatherd thither drove his kine,
Nor boorish hogherd fed his *rooting* swine. *Browne.*

To sink deep.—If any irregularity chanced to intervene, and cause misapprehensions, he gave them not leave to *root* and fasten by concealment. *Fell.*

To ROOT, *v. a.* To fix deep in the earth.

When ocean, air, and earth at once engage,
And *rooted* forests fly before their rage,
At once the clashing clouds to battle move. *Dryden.*

Where the impetuous torrent rushing down
Huge craggy stones, and *rooted* trees had thrown,
They left their coursers. *Dryden.*

To impress deeply.—The great important end that God designs it for, the government of mankind, sufficiently shews the necessity of its being *rooted* deeply in the heart, and put beyond the danger of being torn up by any ordinary violence. *South.*—They have so *rooted* themselves in the opinions of their party, that they cannot hear an objection with patience. *Watts.*—To turn up out of the ground; to eradicate; to extirpate; with a particle; as, *out* or *up.*

He's a rank weed,
And we must *root* him *out.* *Shakspeare.*

Soon shall we drive back Alcibiades,
Who, like a boar too savage, doth *root up*
His country's peace. *Shakspeare.*

To destroy; to banish; with particles.—Not to destroy, but *root* them *out* of heaven. *Milton.*

ROOT-BOUND, *adj.* Fixed to the earth by a root.

If I but wave this wand,
Your nerves are all chain'd up in alabaster,
And you a statue, or, as Daphne was,
Root-bound, that fled Apollo. *Milton.*

ROOT-BUILT, *adj.* Built of roots.

Philosophy requires
No lavish cost; to crown its utmost prayer
Suffice the *root-built* cell, the simple fleece,
The juicy viand, and the crystal stream. *Shenstone.*

ROOT-HOUSE, *s.* An edifice of roots.—Here, entering a gate, you are led through a thicket of many sorts of willows into a large *root-house*, inscribed to the Earl of Stamford. *Dodsley.*

ROOT RIVER, a river of Louisiana, which runs into the Mississippi. It is about 20 yards wide at the point of junction, and is navigable for canoes 60 miles from its mouth.

ROOTED, *adj.* Fixed; deep; radical.

Pluck from the memory a *rooted* sorrow,
Raze out the written troubles of the brain. *Skakspeare.*

You always joined a violent desire of perpetually changing places with a *rooted* laziness. *Swift.*

ROO'TEDLY, *adv.* Deeply; strongly.—They all do hate him as *rootedly* as I. *Shakspeare.*

ROO'TER, *s.* One who tears up by the root.—The *rooters* and thorough reformers made clean work with the church, and took away all. *South.*

ROOTS, a township of the United States, in Portgage county, Ohio. Population 216.

ROO'TY, *adj.* Full of roots.

ROOZENBURGH, a petty island of the Netherlands, in the Maese, opposite to Briel, in south Holland. Population 500.

ROOZENDAEL, an inland town of the Netherlands, in the province of North Brabant, with a castle, and 4600 inhabitants. It has a considerable trade in corn; 7 miles east-north-east of Bergen-op-Zoom.

ROPALON, in Botany, a name given by some authors to the *nymphæa*, or water lily, and also to the *faba Ægyptia* of the river Nile.

ROPCZYCE, a small town of Austrian Poland; 17 miles west of Rzezou.

ROPE, *s.* [ꝓap, Saxon; *reep, roop,* Dutch; *raip,* M. Goth. The Yorkshire dialect is *rape.*] A cord; a string; a halter; a cable; a haulser.

Thou drunken slave, I sent thee for a *rope,*
And told thee to what purpose. *Shakspeare.*

An anchor, let down by a *rope*, maketh a sound; and yet the *rope* is no solid body, whereby the sound can ascend. *Bacon.*

Who would not guess there might be hopes,
The fear of gallowses and *ropes*
Before their eyes, might reconcile
Their animosities a while. *Hudibras.*

Hang yourself up in a true *rope* that there may appear no trick in it. *Arbuthnot.*—Any row of things depending; as, a *rope* of onions.—I cannot but confess myself mightly surprized, that, in a book, which was to provide chains for all mankind, I should find nothing but a *rope* of sand. *Locke.*—The intestines of birds. [ꝓoppaȝ, Sax.] As, the *ropes* of a woodcock.

To ROPE, *v. n.* To draw out into viscosities; to concrete into glutinous filaments.—Such bodies partly follow the touch of another body, and partly stick to themselves; and therefore *rope* and draw themselves in threads; as pitch, glue, and birdlime. *Bacon.*

RO'PEDANCER, *s.* An artist who dances on a rope.—Statius, posted on the highest of the two summits, the people regarded with terror, as they look upon a daring *ropedancer*, whom they except to fall every moment. *Addison.*—Nice bounced up with a spring equal to that of one of your nimblest tumblers or *ropedancers*, and fell foul upon John Bull, to snatch the cudgel he had in his hand. *Arbuthnot.*

RO'PELADDER, *s.* A portable ladder made of rope.

RO'PEMAKER, or ROPER, *s.* One who makes ropes to sell.

The *ropemaker* bear me witness,
That I was sent for nothing but a rope. *Shakspeare.*

ROPEMAKING. This manufacture may be considered as highly important in any state of society; but amongst maritime nations it is an art of the highest utility. In this country, accordingly, we find it has been more cultivated, and with greater success, than in any other.

Ropes are made of every substance that is sufficiently fibrous, flexible, and tenacious, but chiefly the barks of plants. The Chinese and other orientals even make them of the ligneous parts of several plants, such as certain bamboos and reeds, the stems of the aloes, the fibrous covering of the cocoa nut, the filament of the cotton pod, and the leaves of some grasses, such as the sparte (*Lygeum*, Linn.) The aloe (*Agave*, Linn.) and the sparte exceed all others in strength. But the barks of plants are the most productive of fibrous matter fit for this manufacture. Those of the linden tree, (*Tilia,*) of the willow, the bramble, the nettle, are frequently used: but hemp and flax are of all others the best; and of these the hemp is preferred, and employed in all cordage exceeding the size of a line.

Hemp differs greatly according to its soil, climate, and culture. The best in Europe comes to us through Riga, to which port it is brought from very distant places to the southward. It is known by the name of *Riga rein* (that is, clean riga). Its fibre is not the longest, but the most flexible, and strongest. The next to this is supposed to be the Peters burgh braak hemp.

It has been demonstrated by direct experiment as well as by deductions from more general physical laws, that the

fibres of hemp, laid side by side, and connected at each end, form a stronger line, than when they are twisted together. The entanglement of the fibres is therefore only necessary to give them union and length; and every twist carried further than is necessary for these purposes is improper.

The first process in the art of rope-making is *hatchelling the hemp*. This is the combing or clearing the hemp, and so preparing it ready for the spinner. In this process particular attention must be paid by the hatchellers that they do not use too great a quantity of oil, as in such case it will prevent the yarn from imbibing its proper proportion of tar, and thereby prove a serious injury.

The second and principal process to be attended to in the manufacturing of cordage, is *spinning the yarn*. It is done in a manner analogous to that of ordinary spinning. The spinner carries a bundle of dressed hemp round his waist. The two ends of the bundle unite in front. Having drawn out a proper number of fibres with his hand, he twists them with his fingers, and fixing this twisted part to the hook of a whirl, which is driven by a wheel put in motion by an assistant, he walks backward down the rope-walk, the twisted part always drawing out of the bundle round his waist more fibres, as in the common spinning wheel. The spinner takes care that these fibres are properly supplied, and that they always enter the twisted part with their ends, and never by their middle. As soon as he has reached the end of the walk, another spinner takes the yarn off the whirl, and gives it to another person to put upon a reel, while he himself attaches his own hemp to the whirl-hook, and proceeds down the walk. When the person at the reel begins to turn, the first spinner who has completed his yarn holds it firmly at the end, and advances slowly up the walk while the reel is turning, keeping it equally tight all the way, till he reaches the reel, where he waits till the second spinner takes his yarn off the wheel hook, and joins it to the end of that of the first spinner, in order that it may follow it on the reel.

The common size of rope-yarns is from one-twelfth of an inch in diameter, to a little more than one-ninth of an inch, about 160 fathoms of them weighing from two and a half to four pounds, as in the following table; the first column shewing the sizes of the yarns.

Sizes.	lbs.	ozs.	drs.	Sizes.	lbs.	ozs.	drs.
16	4	0	0	21	3	0	4
17	3	12	4	22	2	14	7
18	3	8	14	23	2	12	8
19	3	5	14	24	2	10	10
20	3	3	3	25	2	8	15

The third process to be attended to in the manufacturing of cordage, is *warping the yarn*. This consists in stretching the yarns, previously to their being tarred, all to one given length, which in full length rope grounds, is two hundred fathoms, and putting a slight turn or twist into it. The usual method is to warp the yarn either in whole or half hawls, which is done by putting the number of threads you mean to draw down at once in a bite, into a block with one sheave, (the one end of the bite of yarn being fast at the upper end,) which being drawn down and fixed over the end of a hook made fast to a post at one hundred fathoms distance from the warping post, forms, when opened, a length of two hundred fathoms, as above mentioned. The number of half bites, or blocks of yarn, contained in a whole or half hawl, is to be governed, in a great meausure, by the size of the yarn to be warped,—as, for instance, 16 to 19-thread yarn is warped three hundred and thirty-six threads in a hawl, 20 to 25-thread yarn is warped four hundred threads in a hawl. In winding the yarns on the winches after they are spun, it is most usual to wind them on in companies of four in a company; but as that method cannot always be pursued, it frequently happens that whole or half hawls of yarn are obliged to be warped in half bites of an odd number.

The fourth process in ropemaking is the *tarring of the yarn*. Sometimes the yarns are made to wind off one reel, and having passed through a vessel of hot tar, are wound up on another, the superfluous tar being removed by causing the yarn to pass through a hole surrounded with spongy oakum; but the general method is to tar it in skains or hanks which are drawn by a capstan with a uniform motion through the tar kettle. In this process great care must be taken that the tar is boiling neither too fast nor too slow, for if too hot it will injure, and if too cold it will not penetrate the yarn. Yarn for cables requires more tar than for hawser laid ropes, and for standing and running rigging it requires only to be well covered. Tarred cordage has been found to be weaker than what is untarred, but this is very much prevented by boiling the tar so long in water, as to deprive it of its acid, and boiling it so long *per se* as to evaporate its essential oil, remembering to add sufficient suet, fixed oil or other matter, to remedy the tenacity produced in the tar by this process.

The last part of the process of ropemaking is to *lay the cordage*. For this purpose two or more yarns are attached at one end to a hook. The hook is then turned the contrary way from the twist of the individual yarn, and thus formed what is called a *strand*. Three strands, sometimes four, besides a central one, are then stretched at length, and attached at one end to three contiguous but separate hooks, and at the other end to a single hook, and the process of combining them together, which is effected by turning the single hook in a direction contrary to that of the other three, consists in so regulating the progress of the twists of the strands round their common axis, that the three strands receive separately at their opposite ends just as much twist as is taken out of them by their twisting the contrary way in the process of combination. In this way is formed what is technically called a *shroud laid rope*. But cables, or large ropes which are said to be *cable laid*, are formed by the combination of lesser ropes twisted around their common axis, in the same manner as a shroud laid rope is formed by the combination of strands twisted round their common axis. Cables of water ropes are formed on this principle, even when their size is not very great, as they are thus made more hard and compact, which makes them resist the easy admission of water.

This succinct account may serve to give our readers an idea of the principles of ropemaking; but the manner in which the process is managed differs very materially; machinery is now almost every where taking the place of manual labour, and a multitude of patents have been taken out, having for their ends, the saving of room (which in the old method is very considerable), the diminution of human labour, and lastly the improvement of cordage both in strength and durability. Our plan by no meanss allows our entering into any of these details, which can of course only be of use to the artificer. Such as may wish for this particular sort of information, will find the whole history of ropemaking fully detailed in Mr. Chapman's "Treatise on the progressive endeavours to improve the Manufacture and duration of Cordage."

We may be permitted to remark that the great problem to be solved in this art, is how to approximate all the fibres of a rope to an equal strain.

RO'PERY, *s.* Rogue's tricks. See ROPETRICK.—What saucy merchant was this, that was so full of his *ropery?* *Shakspeare.*—Place where ropes are made.—The new *ropery*, and the forges where they put fresh touchholes into old cannon, are established upon an extensive plan; but there is little activity in either. *Swinburne.*

RO'PETRICK, *s.* Probably a rogue's trick; a trick that deserves the halter.—She may perhaps call him half a score knaves, or so: an' he begin once, he'll rail in his *ropetricks. Shakspeare.*

RO'PEWALK, *s.* Walk or place where ropes are made.

RO'PINESS, *s.* Viscosity; glutinousness.

ROPITZ, a village of Austrian Silesia, in the circle of Teschen, with 500 inhabitants.

ROPLEY, a township of England in Southamptonshire; 4 miles east-by-south of New Arlesford. Population 533.

ROPSCH, or Ropscha, a castle in the district adjacent to St. Petersburgh, in which the unfortunate Peter III. was put to death in 1762.

ROPSLEY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 6 miles west-by-north of Folkingham.

RO'PY, *adj.* Viscous; tenacious; glutinous; "as, ale or other licoure." *Prompt. Parv.*

Ask for what price thy venal tongue was sold;
Tough, wither'd truffles, *ropy* wine, a dish
Of shotten herrings, or stale stinking fish. *Dryden.*

Take care
Thy muddy beverage to serene, and drive
Precipitant the baser *ropy* lees. *Philips.*

ROQUE (John de la), a writer of voyages and travels, was the son of a merchant of Marseilles. He studied in his native city, and afterwards travelled into the East, in what capacity is not known. In 1689, he visited Syria, Mount Lebanon, and some other countries. He appears to have been resident in Paris, in 1715; and when his brother Antony had, in 1722, obtained the privilege of writing and publishing the Mercure de France, he was associated in the work. He died in 1745, in his 84th year. The publications of this writer were "Voyage de l'Arabie Heureuse par l'Ocean oriental et le detroit de la Mer Rouge fait par les François, &c., avec Un Memoire concernant l'Abre du Caffee," 12mo., 1716; "Voyage de la Palestine fait par l'Ordre de Louis XIV.," 12mo., 1717; to this is annexed a translation of Abulfeda's description of Arabia; "Voyage de Syrie et du Mont Liban, &c. avec un Abrégé de la Vie de M. M. de Chastenil," 2 vols. 12mo., 1722. He had long promised a "Voyage Litteraire de Normandie," but did not live to publish it. He was an associate of the Royal Academy of Belles Lettres at Marseilles. *Moreri.*

ROQUE, a very prominent point of the coast of Brazil, in the province of Rio Grande. Lat 5. 3. S. long. 35. 45. W.

ROQUE, La, a small town in the south of France, department of the Gard, to the north of that city. Population 1000.

ROQUE, St. a small town in the south of Spain, in Andalusia, situated on an eminence about a mile north of the rock of Gibraltar. It was built by part of the Spanish inhabitants of Gibraltar who quitted it when it was taken by Sir George Rooke. It was defended by a fort on each side; and a strong line of military works across the isthmus, was erected here to mask Gibraltar, after the failure of the great siege in 1779. These lines were demolished by the garrison of Gibraltar when the advance of the French in Andalusia afforded a ground for that step, without exciting the jealousy of the Spaniards.

ROQUE, San, a small town in the north-east of Spain, in Biscay; 16 miles south-south-east of Santander.

ROQUE, San, a parish of the province of Buenos Ayres, situated near the Lake Iberi. Lat. 28. 33. S. long. 58. 37. W.

ROQUE D'ANTHERON, a small town in the south of France, departments of the Mouths of the Rhone. Population 1300; 15 miles north-west of Aix.

ROQUEBROU, a small town in the south of France, department of the Cantal, on the small river Cev. It has 1300 inhabitants, and some manufactures of leather; 14 miles west of Aurillac, and 22 south-west of Mauriac.

ROQUEBRUNE, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Var, near the river Argens. The environs contain quarries of porphyry. It gives name to a neighbouring mountain of nearly 2000 feet in height. Population 1700; 12 miles south-by-east of Draguignan.

ROQUEBRUSANNE, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Var. Population 1500; 16 miles north of Toulon.

ROQUECORT, a small town in the south-west of France, department of the Lot and Garonne, near the river Senne. Population 1500; 20 miles north-east of Agen.

ROQUECOURBE, a small town in the south of France, department of the Tarn, on the river Agout, with 1500 inhabitants, employed for the most part in manufactutes of woollens, stockings, and caps; 6 miles north-north-east of Castres.

ROQUEFEUIL, a small town in the north-east of France, department of the Aube. Population 900; 22 miles south-west of Limoux.

ROQUEFORT, a petty town in the south of France, department of the Aveyron. It contains only 300 inhabitants, but is the depôt of the cheese made in the surrounding district, and well known in France under the name of *fromage de Roquefort.* It is made of the milk of goats and sheep.

ROQUEFORT, a small town in the south-west of France, department of the Landes, situated on the Douze, and containing about 1400 inhabitants, employed chiefly in the rearing of sheep, and the care of bees. The wax and wool of this place are both in repute; 14 miles north-east of Mont de Marson.

ROQUELAURE, a small town in the south of France, department of the Gers. Population 1800; 6 miles north of Auch.

RO'QUELAURE, *s.* [Fr.] A cloak for men. "The French tailors, he [Dr. Harris, Bp. of Landaff,] observed, invent new modes of dress, and dedicate them to great men, as authors do books; as was the case with the *roquelaure* cloak, which then [about the year 1715] displaced the surtout; and was called the *roquelaure* from being dedicated to the duke of Roquelaure, whose title was spread, by this means, throughout France and Britain." Noble, Continuat. of Granger, iii. 490.

ROQUEMAURE, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Gard, situated on a steep rock near the Rhona, with a castle and 3200 inhabitants, partly occupied in the manufacture of silk; 9 miles north of Avignon.

ROQUEPIC, an island in the Eastern seas, covered with cocoa and other trees, flowers, and odoriferous plants. Lat. 9. 56. N. long. 65. 14. E.

ROQUES (Peter), a learned French Protestant divine in the 18th century, was born at Caune, a small town in Upper Languedoc, in the year 1685. Having been educated to the ministry, at the age of 25 he was chosen pastor of the French Protestant church at Basil, in connection with which he spent his life, diligently and faithfully discharging the duties of his pastoral office, greatly admired as a preacher, universally respected for his learning, probity, and piety, and beloved for the frankness, generosity, and benevolence of his disposition, as well as for his pleasing, amiable manners. He died in 1748, when about 63 years of age. He was the author, or editor, of numerous works, which bear honourable testimony to his extensive learning, his sound judgment, and his laborious industry. They consist of "A Picture of the behaviour of a Christian;" "The Evangelical Pastor," in 4to., a work greatly esteemed in the author's communion, and translated into several languages; "Elements of the Historical, Dogmatic, and Moral Truths, contained in the Sacred Scriptures; "Genuine Pietism;" "The Duties of Subjects;" "A Treatise on Judicial Tribunals;" "Sermons;" an enlarged edition of "Moreri's Dictionary," Basil, 1731, in 6 vols. folio: the first continuation of M. Saurin's "Discourses on the Old and New Testament," in folio; a new edition of M. Martin's edition of "The Holy Bible," with prefaces, corrections, notes, and parallel passages, in 2 vols. 4to.; an enlarged edition of M. Basnage's "Dissertation on Duelling, and Orders of Chivalry;" various theological and critical "Dissertations;" controversial treatises; and numerous papers inserted in the "Journal Helvetique," and the "Bibliothèque Germanique." *Nouv. Dict. Hist. Dict. Hist. et Bibl. portatif par M. l'Abbe Ladvocat.*

ROQUET, the name of a species of American lizard, of small size, and of a reddish brown colour, variegated with black and yellow spots. Its fore-legs are remarkably long for a creature of this kind; its eyes are particularly vivid and sparkling, and its head is carried continually erect; and the creature is almost always in motion, hopping about like a bird, and it usually carries its tail bent into a semicircle

over

over the back. It is far from being shy or timorous, and is delighted at the sight of men; when tired with play or with running, it will open its mouth and pant, and loll out its tongue as the dogs do.

ROQUE TIMBAUT, a small town in the south-west of France, department of the Lower Garonne. Population 1200; 8 miles north-east of Agen.

ROQUEVAIRE, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the mouths of the Rhone, on the small river Veaune. It is noticed for its muscadel wine, of which large quantities are cultivated in the neighbourhood; also for its capers, raisins, figs, almonds, and other fruits. In the neighbourhood there is a coal-mine. Population 3100; 14 miles north-east of Marseilles, and 15 south-by-east of Aix.

ROQUITE, a river of the Sahara, in Western Africa, which falls into the Atlantic.

RORAAS, an inland town in the north of Norway, in the bishopric of Drontheim. It stands on a mountain of great height, and occupies the most elevated inhabited situation in this country. Frost and snow prevail here during almost the whole year, and the cattle can scarcely be put out to pasture till Midsummer. It contains 3000 inhabitants, whose principal means of subsistence arise from the copper mines in the neighbourhood, which give employment to 200 workmen, and bring to the crown nearly 7000*l.* of annual income; 67 miles south-south-east of Drontheim.

RO'RAL, *adj.* [*roralis*, Lat.] Dewy. *Coles.*

These see her from her dusky plight
With *roral* wash redeem her face,
And prove herself of Titan's race;
And mounting in loose robes the skies,
Shed light and fragrance as she flies. *Green.*

RORARIUS (Jerome), was a native of Pordenone in Italy, who, about the middle of the 16th century, appeared in the character of nuncio from Pope Clement VII. at the court of Ferdinand, King of Hungary. He was the author of a curious and not ill-written book, entitled, "Quod Animalia Bruta Ratione utantur melius Homine;" in which he undertook to shew, not only that beasts are rational creatures, but also that they make a better use of their reason than man. Among the proofs which he brings forward, will be found a great number of singular particulars, relating to the ingenuity of beasts, and the perversity of man. This work, after lying concealed in the obscure recesses of libraries for near 100 years, was introduced to the world by the celebrated M. Naudé, who published it at Paris, in the year 1645; and it has been reprinted in Holland more than once. Bayle, to whom we are indebted for these particulars, has taken the opportunity, when commenting upon them, of introducing much learned and curious matter relating to the capacity of brutes, and the opinions of ancient and modern writers on the question, whether they have a rational soul? which will afford no little entertainment to readers who take pleasure in such speculations.

RORA'TION, *s.* [*roris*, Lat.] A falling of dew. *Johnson.*

RORGEN, a small town of the Prussian province of the Lower Rhine, near Aix-la-Chapelle, with 3000 inhabitants.

RO'RID, *adj.* [*roridus*, Lat.] Dewy.—A vehicle conveys it through less accessible cavities into the liver, from thence into the veins, and so in a *rorid* substance through the capillary cavities. *Brown.*

RORIDULA, [dimin. from Ros, dew.] In botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-leaved; leaflets lanceolate, equal, permanent. Corolla: petals five, oblong, equal, larger than the calyx. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, shorter by half than the corolla; anthers inserted above their base, awl-shaped, semibifid, gaping at the top; nectary from the scrotiform base of the anther protruded downwards. Pistil: germ oblong; style filiform, the length of the stamens; stigma truncate, subtrilobate. Pericarp: capsule oblong, three-cornered, three-celled, three-valved; partitions contrary to the valves. Seeds solitary, oval, angular on one side.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-leaved. Corolla five-petalled. Anthers scrotiform at the base. Capsule three-valved.

Roridula dentata.—This is a suffruticose plant, with the habit of Drosera. Leaves clustered, alternate, sessile, half-embracing, awl-shaped, with filiform teeth, ciliate. Scape branched into peduncles; which are axillary and terminating, few-flowered in a sort of spike, each pedicel having one bracte. The whole plant, like Drosera, is viscid with glandular hairs. Capsule pyramidal, acuminate, roundly three-cornered: partitions fastened to the axis, and separating in such a manner from the valves when ripe, that a three-sided pyramidal column remains in the midst. In each cell is one seed, biggish, ovate, compressed a little, flattish on the back, obscurely angular on the belly, deeply honey-combed with very minute excavations in longitudinal rows, of a reddish ferruginous colour. The seeds are fastened to the axis of the capsule, a little above the base.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

RORI'FEROUS, *adj.* [*ros* and *fero*, Lat.] Producing dew. *Johnson.*

RORI'FLUENT, *adj.* [*ros* and *fluo*, Lat.] Flowing with dew. *Johnson.*

RORIPA, or RORIPPA, a name which Scopoli gave to SISYMBRIUM; see that article.

RORSCHACH, or ROSCHACH, a small town in the north-east of Switzerland, on the lake of Constance, about six miles from the place where the Rhine enters that lake. Its situation is uncommonly beautiful. Its harbour is the best on the lake, and the trade in corn is considerable. The inhabitants manufacture and bleach linen, and carry on also a traffic in wine and salt. Population 2800; 6 miles north-east of St. Gall.

ROS *Solis*, Sun Dew, a plant so called from the clear drops of viscid moisture, standing on the bristles which clothe its foliage; most abundant and conspicious in hot bright weather. See DROSERA.

ROS *Vitrioli*, among the old Chemists, sometimes used for the first phlegm distilled from vitriol in balneo Mariæ.

ROSA, [from the Celtic *ros* or *rhos*, or from the Greek ῥοῦσιος.] In botany, a genus of the class icosandria, order polygynia, natural order of senticosæ, rosaceæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved; tube ventricose, contracted at the neck, with the border spreading, five-parted, globular; segments long, lanceolate-narrow (in some of them two alternate ones appendicled on both sides; two others, also alternate, naked on both sides; the fifth appendicled on one side only.) Corolla: petals five, obcordate, the length of the calyx, inserted into the neck of the calyx. Stamina: filaments very many, capillary, very short, inserted into the neck of the calyx; anthers three cornered. Pistils: germs numerous, in the bottom of the calyx; styles as many, villose, very short, compressed close by the neck of the calyx, inserted into the side of the germ; stigmas blunt. Pericarp none; berry fleshy, turbinate, coloured, soft, one-celled, crowned with the rude segments, contracted at the neck, formed from the tube of the calyx. Seeds numerous, oblong, hispid, fastened to the inner side of the calyx. The calyx of the pericarp resembles a berry.—*Essential Character.* Calyx pitcher-shaped, five-cleft, fleshy, contracted at the neck. Petals five. Seeds very many, hispid, fastened to the inner side of the calyx.

This genus can scarcely be mistaken. It consists of shrubs, which for the most part are prickly. The leaves are unequally pinnate, with wing-shaped stipules fastened to the common petiole. The flowers are either solitary or in a sort of corymb at the ends of the branches; in their natural state they have five petals, which are often large and generally red, but sometimes white, seldom yellow. The tube of the calyx becomes a sort of berry, crowned with the border; and being of a globular shape in some species, and ovoid in others, the genus divides commodiously into two sections.

But though the genus be easy, it is very difficult to determine

mine the species, or to ascertain what is a species and what a variety. Scopoli, Gerard, and others, regard all the European species as varieties from one source. Haller, on the contrary, thought he perceived sufficient marks of distinction, accompanied with no more obscurity than in other large genera. Linnæus remarks, that the species of roses are not without great difficulty circumscribed within any certain limits, and perhaps that there are no such limits set by nature.

It is scarcely necessary to add that the rose has been a favourite flower, in all ages, among all the polished people both of Asia and Europe. Some species are found in Africa, and others in North America. We are not acquainted with the native country of some double roses, and they are probably creatures of art and cultivation. The first species is the only one which has single leaves.

I. With sub-globular fruits.

1. Rosa berberifolia, or single-leaved rose.—Fruits globular, with the peduncles prickly, stem with prickles usually in pairs, hooked, leaves simple subsessile.—Native of Persia.

2. Rosa lutea. The single yellow rose, and the Austrian rose. Fruits globular, with the peduncles smooth, calyxes and petioles spinulose, prickles of the branches straight.

The Austrian rose has the stalks, branches and leaves like those of the single yellow rose, but the leaves are rounder. The flowers are also larger; the petals have deep iudentures at their points; are of a pale yellow on the outside, and of a reddish copper-colour, orange-scarlet, or Barré colour within; are single; have no scent, or a disagreeable one; and soon fall away. It has sometimes flowers entirely yellow on one branch, and copper-coloured on another.

Ray says that the flowers smell like honey; Miller that they smell more like bugs: but that the scent varies much.

3. Rosa sulphuria, or double yellow rose.—Fruits globular, petioles and stem prickly, prickles of the stem of two sorts, larger with numerous smaller ones, leaves oval.

This flower, says Parkinson, is so thick and double, that very often it breaketh out on one side or another, but a few of them abiding whole and fair in our country: being fair blown open, it doth scarce give place for largeness, thickness and doubleness, unto the great Provence or Holland rose.

4. Rosa blanda, or Hudson's-bay rose.—Fruits globular, smooth; the stems, when adult, and the peduncles even and unarmed.

5. Rosa cinnamomea, or cinnamon rose.—Fruits globular, with the peduncles smooth, stem with stipular prickles, petioles mostly unarmed.

The cinnamon rose rises about four feet high. The branches are covered with a purplish smooth bark, and have no spines, except at the joints immediately under the leaves, where they are commonly placed by pairs; they are short and crooked. Leaflets seven, ovate, serrate, hairy on their under side. Leaves of the calyx narrow and entire. Flower small, with a scent like cinnamon, whence its name.

6. Rosa arvensis, or white dog rose.—Fruits globular, with the peduncles unarmed, prickles of the stem and petioles hooked, flowers subcymed.

7. Rosa pimpinellifolia, or small burnet-leaved rose.—Fruits globular, with the peduncle smooth, prickles on the stem scattered, straight, petioles rugged, leaflets blunt.

This Siberian shrub is very elegant, a foot and a half or at most two feet in height; the trunk thorny all over, the thickness of the little finger, very much branched, the branches collected into an ovate form.—Native of the south of Europe as well as Asia. It flowers here in May and June.

8. Rosa spinosissima, or Scotch rose.—Fruits globular, smooth, peduncles smooth (or hispid,) prickles on the stem very numerous, straight, bristle-shaped, leaflets roundish, smooth. The varieties are the common Scotch rose, the red Scotch rose, and double Scotch rose.

Dr. Withering speaks of a specimen of the last variety from Lanscale Haws in Lancashire, with prickly peduncles, and cream-coloured flowers, changing to white. Mr. Atkinson, who sent it, relates that it covered several acres of land, to the exclusion of every other vegetable.

9. Rosa paviflora, or small flowered American rose.—Fruits globular-depressed, with the peduncles hispid, petioles pubescent, somewhat prickly, stem smooth, stipular prickles straight, leaflets elliptic, flowers mostly in pairs.

10. Rosa lucida, or shining-leaved American rose.—Fruits globular-depressed, with the peduncles subhispid, petioles smooth, somewhat prickly, stem smooth, stipular prickles straight, leaflets oblong-elliptic, shining, smooth, flowers mostly in pairs.

11. Rosa Carolina, or Carolina rose.—Fruits globular, with the peduncles subhispid, petioles hairy, somewhat prickly, stem smooth, stipular prickles somewhat hooked, leaflets oblong-lanceolate, flowers corymbed.

12. Rosa villosa, or apple rose.—Fruits globular, with the peduncles hispid, prickles on the stem straightish, leaflets elliptic, tomentose on both sides.

The apple rose, well known in gardens and plantations, both in a single and double state, is found in many parts of Europe and Asia. It grows copiously with us in Westmoreland, Cumberland, and the north of Yorkshire, as well as in some parts of Scotland. It flowers in June, and the large deep red fruit remains till eaten by birds, or destroyed by frost and wet.

Dillenius mentions a downy-leaved rose, found by Sherard near Kingston-upon-Thames, which, by his description, seems to be a variety of this.

The fruit has a pleasant acid pulp surrounding the seeds, which is sometimes made into a conserve or sweetmeat, and served up in desserts.

13. Rosa rugosa, or wrinkled-leaved rose.—Fruits globular, smooth, peduncles, stem, and petioles prickly, leaves tomentose underneath.—Native of Japan.

14. Rosa Provincialis, or Provence rose.—Fruits roundish, peduncles and petioles hispid, prickles of the branches scattered, somewhat bent back, leaflets ovate, villose underneath, serratures glandular.

The common Provence rose is well known in the English gardens, and is one of the most beautiful sorts yet known.

The great double damask Provence or Holland rose, hath its bark, says Parkinson, of a reddish or brown colour. It usually groweth very like the damask rose, and much to the same height. The flowers are of the same deep blush colour, or rather somewhat deeper, but much thicker and broader. The scent cometh nearest unto the damask rose, but yet is short of it by much.

The stem and branches of the red Provence rose are not so great as those of the other, but greener; the bark being not so red. This is not so plentiful in bearing as the damask Provence.

The stalks of the blush Provence rose rise from three to four feet high, and are unarmed: the leaves are hairy on their under side: the peduncles have some small spines: the segments of the calyx are semi-pinnate: the corolla has five or six rows of petals, which are large, and spread open; they are of a pale blush colour, and have a musky scent.

The white Provence rose differs only in the colour of the flowers.

The two dwarf Provence roses, both called rose de Meaux, differ from each other in little except size. The smaller of the two is generally known to nurserymen and gardeners by the name of Pompone rose. This throws out numerous stems, which rarely exceed a foot or a foot and half in height; usually straight, rigid and very prickly. Flowers very small, and distinguished by the brilliant colour of the central petals: they appear in June.

II. With ovate fruits.

15. Rosa centifolia, or hundred-leaved rose.—This rises with prickly stalks about three feet high. The leaves have three or five leaflets, which are large, oval, smooth, and of a dark green with purple edges. The peduncles are set with brown bristly hairs. The segments of the calyx

calyx are smooth and semipinnate. The flowers are very double and of a deep red colour, but have little scent.

The petals are so closely wedged together that the flower appears as if it came out of the hand of the turner—*flos quasi tornatus.*

The varieties of this species are as follows:—Rosa multiplex media; rosa centifolia Batavica; Dutch hundred-leaved rose; blush hundred-leaved rose; Singleton's hundred-leaved rose; Burgundy rose; single velvet rose; double velvet rose; sultan rose; Stepney rose; garnet rose; bishop rose; Lisbon rose. They have all less scent than the ordinary red rose.—Several of the other varieties are of more modern date. The Burgundy rose is an elegant little plant, not more than a foot or eighteen inches in height.

According to Loureiro, the rosa centifolia is a native of China.

16. Rosa Gallica, or red rose.—Fruits ovate, with the peduncles hispid, stem and petioles hispid-prickly.

The stalks of this grow erect, and have scarce any spines; they rise from three to four feet high. The leaves are composed of three or five large oval leaflets, which are hairy on their under side. The leaves of the calyx are undivided. The flowers are large, but not very double, spread open wide, and decay soon; they are of a deep red colour, and have an agreeable scent.

Parkinson gives the red rose the epithet of English, because this and the white are the most ancient and known roses to our country, and assumed by our precedent kings, of all others to be cognizances of their dignity, and because the red is more frequent and used in England than in other places. The flowers vary in colour; some are of an orient red or deep crimson colour, and very double, although never so double as the white; some, again, are paler, tending somewhat to a damask; and some are of so pale a red, as that they are rather the colour of the canker rose; yet all for the most part with larger leaves than the damask, and with many more yellow threads (stamens) in the middle. The scent hereof is much better than in the white, but not comparable to the excellency of the damask rose; yet this being well dried and kept, will hold both colour and scent longer than the damask.

The Mundi rose has the flowers very elegantly striped or variegated with red and white; in other circumstances it perfectly resembles the red rose.

The childing, marbled, and double virgin roses, says Mr. Miller, have great affinity with each other.

The infusion of these roses is a grateful cooling sub-astringent; its efficacy however depends chiefly on the acid. The syrup derives its use merely from its colour.

17. Rosa damascena, or damask rose.—The damask rose rises with prickly stalks eight or ten feet high, covered with a greenish bark, and armed with short prickles. The leaves are composed of five or seven oval leaflets, dark green above, but pale underneath; the borders frequently turn brown and are slightly serrate; the peduncles are set with prickly hairs; the calyxes are semipinnate and hairy; the corolla is of a soft pale red, and not very double, but has an agreeable odour; the heps are long and smooth.—It is a native of the South of France, and was cultivated in 1596 by Gerarde.

These garden roses were early cultivated and highly esteemed in England. Hakluyt says that the damask rose was brought in by Dr. Linaker, physician to Kings Henry VII. and VIII.

Of this elegant species, which has not been well distinguished from the provincialis and centifolia, there are three varieties.

The red and blush damask rose differ only in the shade of colour.

The York and Lancaster rose, agrees with the damask in stalk, leaf, &c. differing only in the flower being variegated with white stripes. The flowers in these being less double than in several others, are frequently succeeded by fruit, and have ripe seeds, from which other varieties may be obtained. The smell is of a weak damask rose scent.

The red and white monthly roses are so called from their continuing to blow in succession during the greater part of the summer; not that they blow in every month, as the name implies. They are in every respect like the damask rose; unless it be, as Ferrarius observes, more full of prickles than that.

The blush Belgick rose, which Mr. Miller gives as a distinct species, rises about three feet high, with prickly stalks. The leaves are composed of five or seven leaflets, which are oval, hairy on their under side, and slightly serrate: the peduncles and calyxes are hairy, and without prickles; the calyxes are large and semipinnate; the flowers very double, of a pale flesh colour, with little scent, generally in great quantities. The red Belgick rose differs only in having the colour of the flower a deep red.

18 Rosa sempervirens, or ever-green rose.—The ever-green rose has slender stalks which trail upon the ground unless they are supported, and if trained up to a pole or the stem of a tree, will rise twelve or fourteen feet high; they are armed with crooked reddish spines, and have small leaves, with seven oval acute leaflets, of a lucid green, and serrate. The leaves continue on all the year. The flowers are small, single, white, and have a musky odour. In their natural place of growth they continue in succession great part of the year, but their time of flowering in England is June.

19. Rosa pumila, or dwarf Austrian rose.—Fruits ovate, with the peduncles hispid, petioles and stem prickly, leaves glaucous underneath, with the serratures glandular.

20. Rosa turbinata, or Frankfort rose.—Fruits turbinate, with the peduncles hairy, petioles villose, prickles scattered, recurved.—Its native place is not known. Parkinson cultivated it in 1629.

21. Rosa rubiginosa, or sweet-briar rose.—The sweet-briar, or eglantine, has yellow hooked prickles on the stem. Leaflets seven, very fragrant, elliptic or subovate, above smooth and wrinkled, underneath rust-coloured with resinous atoms or little dots; serratures glandular. Petioles also glandular and prickly. Peduncles muricate and in corymbs. Calyx glandular. Petals rose-coloured, white at the base. Fruit scarlet, muricate but sometimes smooth, farinaceous, insipid.—Native of most parts of Europe on heaths, in thickets, hedges, and woods, chiefly in a gravelly soil.

There are eight varieties. Those with double flowers are very elegant shrubs in ornamented plantations.

22. Rosa muscosa, or moss Provence rose.—The moss Provence rose, commonly called the moss rose, from the moss-like pubescence on the calyx, has the stalks and branches closely armed with brown spines. The peduncles and calyx are covered with long hair-like moss. The flowers are of an elegant crimson colour, and have a most agreeable odour.

This elegant rose is known to us only in its double state, and we are ignorant of the country to which we are indebted for it.

23. Rosa moschata, or musk rose.—Fruits ovate, with the peduncles villose, stem and petioles prickly, leaflets oblong, acuminate, smooth, peduncles many-flowered.

The musk rose rises with weak stalks to the height of ten or twelve feet, covered with a smooth greenish bark, and armed with short strong spines. Leaflets seven, light green and serrate. Flowers in large bunches, in form of umbels, at the end of the branches, they are white, and have a fine musky odour, appear in July and August, and continue in succession till the frost stops them. The stalks are too weak to support themselves. It varies with double flowers.

24. Rosa rubrifolia, or red-leaved rose.—Fruits ovate, with the peduncles smooth and glaucescent, petioles prickly, stem with scattered uncinate prickles, leaflets oblong, finely serrate, smooth, flowers subcorymbed.

25. Rosa lagenaria, or bottled-fruited rose.—Fruits obovate smooth, peduncles and petioles glandular-hispid, stem unarmed, leaflets oval, smooth.

26. Rosa alpina, or alpine rose.—Fruits ovate, smooth, peduncles and petioles hispid, stem unarmed.

27. Rosa Pyrenaica, or Pyrenean rose.—Fruits ovate, with the peduncles hispid, coloured, petioles hispid-prickly, calyxes altogether leafy.

28. Rosa pendulina, or smooth pendulous rose.—Unarmed, fruits oblong, peduncles and petioles hispid, stem and branches smooth, fruits pendulous.

29. Rosa montana, or mountain rose.—Fruits oblong, with the peduncles hispid, petioles prickly, stipular hooked, prickles on the stem, leaflets smooth, obovate, glandular-serrate.

30. Rosa multiflora, or many-flowered rose.—Fruits ovate, with the peduncles unarmed, villose, stem and petioles prickly.

31. Rosa canina, dog rose, wild briar, or hep-tree.—The common dog rose or wild briar has the stem smooth, with two alternate hooked prickles between the knots, growing to the height of six feet or more. Branches elongated, from upright spreading. Prickles conical-hooked, compressed, bright red when young, but afterwards ash-coloured. Leaves alternate, having for the most part seven scentless serrate leaflets, the serratures terminated by minute purple glands; naked and quite smooth on both sides, the upper side shining, the lower paler; the lower leaflets gradually smaller; the midrib and petiole prickly underneath, the edges beset with purple glands. Stipules finely toothed, the teeth tipped with red, and terminated by a globule. Peduncles forming a sort of corymb of two or three to six flowers together; but sometimes they are solitary, round, even and naked. Calyx pubescent within and at the edge; the leaflets lanceolate and long-tailed, two-simple, two pinnate on each side, and one pinnate only on one side. Petals obcordate, a little remote, pale red, fainter towards the base, sometimes white, sweet-scented. Fruit, which is a sort of berry formed from the ripened calyx, scarlet, quite smooth and shining, sometimes closed and sometimes pervious at the top; containing about thirty seeds, which are bony, ovate-acuminate, angular, having white silky bristles dispersed among them, terminated by the permanent style, pale; the outer ones are immersed in the excavations of the fleshy substance of the calyx, but those in the middle have fleshy, saffron-coloured, subvillose peduncles. It is sometimes seen with a hispid fruit.—Native of Europe, in hedges and woods, decorating them with its lively odorous flowers in the months of June and July. From these a perfumed water may be distilled, which is said to be much more fragrant than that from garden roses. The leaves are recommended as a substitute for tea, giving out a fine colour, a sub-astringent taste, and a gratefull smell, when dried, and infused in boiling water. The fruit, commonly known by the name of heps, is agreeable enough when ripe and mellowed by the frost: beaten up with sugar, it makes a pleasant conserve, more used as a vehicle for other medicines, than for any virtue of its own. A mossy protuberance is common on various parts of the wild rose, which is occasioned by an insect called cynips rosæ: formerly, under the name of bedeguar it was used medicinally, but it is now justly discarded. The fruit in winter is much sought after by birds, especially the pheasant.

32. Rosa tomentosa, or downy-leaved dog-rose.—Fruits ovate with the peduncles hispid, prickles on the stem hooked, leaflets ovate tomentose on both sides.

33. Rosa collini, or hill rose.—Fruits ovate smoothish, peduncles and petioles glandular-hirsute, stem prickly.

34. Rosa parvifolia, or small-leaved rose.—Fruits ovate smoothish, peduncles glandular, petioles and stem with very fine prickles, leaflets wrinkled somewhat villose underneath, ovate, glandular-serrate.

35. Rosa semperflorens, or deep-red China rose.—Fruits oblong, with the peduncles hispid, stem and petioles prickly-hispid, leaves subternate prickly.

36. Rosa Chinensis, or pale China rose.—This is very nearly allied to the preceding, and perhaps may be only a variety of it.

37. Rosa Indica, or Indian rose.—Fruits ovate, with the peduncles smooth, stem almost unarmed, petioles prickly.

38. Rosa longifolia, or long-leaved rose.—Fruits ovate, smooth, peduncles glandular-subaculeate, stem almost unarmed, petioles prickly, leaflets smooth, ovate, acuminate.

39. Rosa bracteata, or bracted rose.—Fruits obovate, peduncles bracted with the branchlets villose, stem and petioles prickly, leaflets smooth, roundish, crenate, somewhat prickly.

40. Rosa alba, or white rose.—The white rose, in its wild state, has an affinity to No. 6., but differs from it in having wider ovate leaves, smooth and deep green above, paler and slightly hairy underneath, unequally serrate and blunt; stem and petioles villose, prickly; peduncles solitary, long, hispid; fruits ovate, smooth, but more frequently having a few slender prickles on them; calyxes smooth, green, half-pinnate. There are five varieties.

To these species Sir James Smith adds seventeen others, and remarks, "that many more probably exist. We shall not swell the catalogue of these useless distinctions. The above author remarks, that botanists have not sufficiently adverted to some characters, that appear to him more important than several they have depended upon. The number, and precise situation of the substipulary prickles, the form of the stipulas, and the structure of the calyx, appear more constant, than the absence or presence of glands, or of pubescence, in certain parts."

Propagation and Culture.—Most of the sorts of roses are of foreign growth, and have been at various times introduced into the English gardens, but they are generally natives of northern countries, or grow upon the cold mountains in the warmer parts of Europe, so they are very hardy in respect to cold, but love an open free air, especially the yellow rose, the Austrian rose, and the monthly rose. The two former will not flower in a warm soil and situation, nor near the smoke of London, and the monthly rose will flower much better in a free open air.

The usual time of these shrubs producing their flowers is from the middle or latter end of May, till the middle of July.

All the sorts of roses may be propagated either from suckers, layers, or by budding them upon stocks of other sorts of roses; which latter method is only practised for some peculiar sorts, which do not grow very vigorous upon their own stocks, and send forth suckers very sparingly, or where a person is willing to have more sorts than one upon the same plant; but where this is designed, it must be observed to bud only such sorts upon the same stock, as are nearly equal in their manner of growth; for if there be a bud of a vigorous growing sort, and others of a weak growth budded in the same stock, the strong one will draw all the nourishment from the weaker, and entirely starve them.

If these plants are propagated by suckers, they should be taken off annually in October, and transplanted out either into a nursery in rows (as has been directed for several other sorts of flowering-shrubs), or into the places where they are to remain: for if they are permitted to stand upon the roots of the old plants more than one year, they grow woody, and do not form so good roots as if planted out the first year, so there is more danger of their not succeeding.

But the best method to obtain good-rooted plants is to lay down the young branches in autumn, which will take good root by the autumn following (especially if they are watered in very dry weather), when they may be taken from the old plants, and transplanted where they are to remain. The plants, which are propagated by layers, are not so apt to send out suckers from their roots as those which are from suckers, therefore should be preferred before them; because they may be much easier kept within compass, and these will also flower much stronger. These plants may be transplanted any time from October to April; but when they are designed to flower strong the first year after planting, they should be planted early; though, if they are planted late in the spring, it will cause them to flower in autumn, provided they do not suffer by drought.

Most of these sorts delight in a rich moist soil and an open situation, in which they will produce a greater quantity of flowers, and those much fairer, than when they are upon a dry soil or in a shady situation. The pruning which they require, is only to cut out their dead wood, and take off all the

the suckers, which should be done every autumn; and if there are any very luxuriant branches, which draw the nourishment from the other parts of the plant, they should be taken out, or shortened, to cause them to produce more branches, if there be occasion for them to supply a vacancy; but you must avoid crowding them with branches, which is as injurious to these plants as to fruit-trees; for, if the branches have not equal benefit from the sun and air, they will not produce their flowers so strong, nor in so great plenty, as when they are more open, and better exposed to the sun, so that the air may circulate the more freely between them.

Those little elegant varieties of the Provence rose, called greater rose de meaux, and smaller rose de meaux or pompone rose, may be increased, like most of the other species, by suckers, which, however, are not very plentifully produced in these, and do not extend to any great length.

The roots should not be divided oftener than once in three years. If the old wood be cut down every year, after the plants have done blowing, they will throw out more vigorous shoots, and flower more freely.

The moss Provence rose rarely sends up suckers, and when the branches are laid down they are long before they put out roots; it is therefore frequently propagated, by budding it upon stocks of the other sorts; but the plants so raised are not so durable as those which are propagated by layers; and this latter method is now most usually adopted.

ROSA FATUINA, in Botany, a name given by some authors to the piony.

ROSA JUNOIS, a name given by some authors to the lily.

ROSA (Salvator), an eminent Italian Painter, who also shone considerably as a poet and a musician. He was born in 1615, in the Borgo de Renella, near Naples. His father, Vito Antonio Rosa, was an architect and land-surveyor. Salvator very soon lost his baptismal name for the nick-name of Salvatoriello, in consequence of his mischievous tricks and lively gesticulations when a boy, or more probably, this was the common diminutive of it given to all children. He was intended by his parents for the church, but early showed a truant disposition, and a turn for music and drawing. He used to scrawl with burnt sticks on the walls of his bed-room, and contrived to be caught in the act of sketching outlines on the chapel walls of the Certosa, when some priests were going by to mass, for which he was severely whipped. He was then sent to school at the monastery of the Somasco in Naples, where he remained two years, and laid in a good stock of classical learning, of which he made great use in his after life, both in his poems and pictures. It appears that during this period, he cultivated the composition of music and the writing of lyric poetry, amusements he never entirely abandoned in after life. Of his merits as a musician, Dr. Burney has spoken very favourably in his history of music, and it is said that in one of his cantatas, he anticipated Corelli (to whom the invention is usually attributed) in the introduction of a moving base. The poetry of Salvator had much spirit, originality and depth of feeling. But it has been said that he was incapable of sustained excellence, and that his satire, though biting, was often coarse. Yet he was so great a favourite, that his epitaph at Florence describes him as the "first of Tuscan poets."

Salvator's first passion for painting, was excited by carelessly sketching in the work-shop of Francesco Francanzani (a painter at that time of some note in Naples, who had married one of his sisters), whose praises encouraged him, and under whose eye he pursued his professional studies. Soon after this he is supposed to have made a tour through the mountains of the Abruzzi, and to have been detained a prisoner by the banditti there, but of this circumstance there is no evidence, and indeed it was probably surmised only from the subjects of his pictures. On the death of his father, he endeavoured to maintain his family by sketches in landscape or history, which he sold to the brokers in Naples, and one of these (his Hagar in the wilderness) was noticed and purchased by the celebrated Lanfranc, who was passing the broker's shop in his carriage. Salvator, finding it in vain to struggle any longer with chagrin and poverty in his native place, went to Rome, where he met with little encouragement and fell sick, and once more returned to Naples. An accident, or rather the friendship of an old school-fellow, now introduced him into the suite of the Cardinal Brancaccia, and his picture of Prometheus brought him into notice, and recalled him to Rome.

It is doubtful, however, how long he might have remained here in precarious dependence, had not his talents as an improvisatrice brought him into popular notice: on a festal occasion he appeared in a car with a masked troop in the character of a charlatan. The pleasantry of his verse, the sprightliness of his music, and the satirical hits he directed against the nobles, ravished the people; he became the delight of the vulgar, and a fashion with the great. In a short time his paintings attracted universal attention, and the means of bettering his fortune were soon at his disposal.

His satirical spirit induced him, however, to attack Bernini, the court artist, and the party he offended by this indiscretion, opposed and irritated him through life. His brilliant talents and agreeable accomplishments gained him, however, many friends, and his painting was much patronized, though not exactly in the way he wished. He had a notion that his excellence lay in historical drawing, but his cotemporaries, as well as posterity, decided that his landscapes were the true supporters of his reputation. Nothing, however, could exceed the irritability he displayed on this topic. Lady Morgan, in her romantic "Life and Times of Salvator Rosa," relates on the subject two anecdotes worth transcribing.

The Prince Ximines, having arrived at Rome, found time in the midst of the honours paid to him, to visit Salvator Rosa, and being received by the artist in his gallery, he told him frankly, that he had come for the purpose of seeing and purchasing some of those beautiful small landscapes, whose manners and subjects had delighted him in many foreign galleries.—"Be it known then to your Excellency," interupted Rosa impetuously, "that I know nothing of landscape painting! Something, indeed, I do know of painting *figures* and historical subjects, which I strive to exhibit to such eminent judges as yourself, in order that, once for all, I may banish from the public mind that fantastic humour, of supposing I am a landscape, and not an historical painter."

Shortly after, a very rich Cardinal, whose name is not recorded, called on Salvator to purchase some pictures; and as his eminence walked up and down the gallery, he always paused before some certain *quadretti*, and never before the historical subjects, while Salvator muttered from time to time between his teeth, "Sempre sempre pæsi picoli." When at last the Cardinal glanced his eye over some great historical picture, and carelessly asked the price, as a sort of company question, Salvator bellowed forth "*Une Milione:*" his eminence, stunned or offended, hurried away, and returned no more.

Salvator was a party in the famous conspiracy of Massiniello at Naples, and he left a beautiful sketch of that unfortunate patriot. At the end of the short lived revolution, Salvator returned to Rome disheartened, disappointed, and gave vent to his feelings on this occasion by his two poems, *La Babilonia* and *La Guerra*, which are full of the spirit of love and hatred, of enthusiasm and bitterness. About the same time, he painted his two allegorical pictures of "Human Frailty," and "Fortune." These were exhibited in the Pantheon, and from the sensation they excited, and the sinister comments that were made on them, had nearly conducted Salvator to the Inquisition. In the picture of "Fortune" more particularly, the nose of one powerful ecclesiastic, and the eye of another, were detected in the brutish physiognomy of the swine who were treading pearls and flowers under their feet; a Cardinal was recognized in an ass, scattering with his hoof the laurel and myrtle which lay in his path, and in an old goat reposing on roses, some there were who even fancied they saw the infallible lover of Donna Olympia, the Sultana Queen of the Quirinal! The cry of atheism and sedition, and of contempt for established authorities, was thus raised

raised under the influence of private pique and long cherished envy. It soon found an echo on the painted walls, where the conclave sat "in close divan," and it was bandied about from mouth to mouth till it reached the ears of the Inquisitor within the dark recesses of his house of terrors. The consequence was, our artist was obliged to fly from Rome, after waiting a little to see if the storm would blow over, and to seek an asylum in the court of the grand Duke of Tuscany, at Florence. Here he passed some of the happiest years of his life, flattered by princes, feasting with nobles, conversing with poets, receiving the suggestions of critics, painting landscape or history as he liked best, composing and reciting his own verses, and making a fortune, which he flung away as soon as he had made it, with the characteristic improvidence of genius.

But Rosa still lingered after Rome: he had formed a warm friendship for a rich merchant named Carlo Rossi, who had bought his pictures at high prices, and who afterwards honoured him with a monument. Such was his impatient desire to see this man and the rest of his friends, that after three years absence he risked his life for the interview; he took post horses and set off for Rome at midnight. Having arrived at an inn in the suburbs, he dispatched messages to eighteen of his friends, who all came, thinking he had got into some new scrape; breakfasted with them and returned to Florence, before his Roman persecutors or his Tuscan friends were aware of the adventure.

Salvator, however, was discontented even with his splendid lot at Florence, and sought to embower himself in entire seclusion, and in deeper bliss, in the palace of the Counts Maffei, at Volterra, and in the solitudes in its neighbourhood. Here he wandered night and morn, drinking in that slow poison of reflection which his soul loved best, planning his *Catiline Conspiracy*—preparing his Satires for the press, and weeding out their Neapolitanisms, in which he was assisted by the fine taste and quick tact of his friend Redi. This appears to have been the only part of his life to which he looked back with pleasure or regret. He however left this enviable retreat soon after, to return to Rome, partly for family reasons, and partly, no doubt, because the deepest love of solitude and privacy does not wean the mind that has once felt the feverish appetite, from the desire of popularity and distinction. Here then he planted himself on the Monte Pincio, in a house situated between those of Claude Lorraine and Nicholas Poussin, and used to walk out of an evening on the fine promenade near it, at the head of a group of gay cavaliers, musicians, and aspiring artists; while Nicholas Poussin, the very genius of antiquity personified, and now bent down with age, led another band of reverential disciples, side by side, with some learned virtuoso or pious churchman: meantime, commissions poured in upon Salvator, and he painted successively his *Jonas*, for the King of Denmark—his battle piece for Louis 14th, still in the Museum at Paris—and lastly, to his infinite delight, an altar piece for one of the churches in Rome. Salvator about this time, seemed to have imbibed some idea of making the best use of his time and talents.

The height of Salvator's ambition was gratified by his receiving a commission to paint an altar-piece. This was his Martyrdom of St. Damian and St. Cosmus. He bestowed on this composition such extraordinary labour, that when he had nearly finished it he was obliged to go to bed, and in the course of its progress he neglected the calls of hunger to an amazing degree; his health became gradually impaired, and though he painted, during the intervals of his sickness, several fine paintings, he soon sank and died at the age of 58. He is one of the many instances in which men of genius, nearly approaching to the highest, led a miserable, discontented, cynical life. He was continually making enemies by his satirical attacks, while his overwcening vanity admitted no retaliation. He was persecuted, thought himself neglected, and held in the profoundest contempt all who were not admirers of his favourite historic pictures.

ROSA, MOUNT, a mountain of the Alps, which, next to Mont Blanc, is the highest in Europe. It stands in Switzerland, between the canton of the Valais and Piedmont, to the east of Mont Cervin. Different measurements of this very lofty mountain have been published; Saussure, who visited it in 1789, calculated it to be 15,600 feet above the sea, or only 70 feet lower than Mont Blanc; but Sir George Shuckburgh calls it 15,240 feet above the Mediterranean, or about 180 feet lower than he made Mont Blanc. Its shape is remarkable, as it consists of a number of lofty peaks, all rising from a centre somewhat like the leaves of a rose, from which it derives its name. See Baron Wilden's Work, Der Monte Rosa, and Brewster's Journal of Science, vols. i. and ii.

ROSA, a missionary settlement of the Jesuits, in Paraguay, situate on a small branch of the Paraguay, lat. 25. 22. S., long. 57. 3. W. It is the name of numerous other inconsiderable settlements, scattered through South America.

ROSA, a cape of the island of St. Domingo, east-north-east half-east of Cape Dame Marie, the west point of the island.

ROSA, SANTA, an Indian settlement of Paraguay, on the confines of Lake Iberi. Lat. 26. 53. S., long. 56. 54. W.

ROSACCIO, a small town of the Austrian empire, in Friuli, near Aquileia.

ROSACEÆ, the 92d natural order in Jussieu's system; the 10th of his 14th class. The characters of this large and important order, named from the rose, and rose-like flowers which compose it, are the following.

Calyx either superior, and tubular; or inferior, pitcher or wheel-shaped; its limbs mostly divided, and generally permanent. Petals definite, usually five, inserted into the upper part of the calyx and alternate with its divisions; sometimes wanting. Stamens indefinite, rarely definite, inserted into the same part below the petals; anthers often roundish. Germen in some cases simple, inferior, the styles and stigmas mostly numerous; in others superior, simple with one style, or manifold with many styles; the styles in every instance lateral, or proceeding from the side of each germen. Structure of the fruit various; in some an inferior apple, of many cells, or a sort of cup or urn, apparently inferior, bearing many seeds, over which it closes; in others the seeds, or seed-vessels, each of one cell, and mostly single seeded, indefinite or definite, are superior, standing on a common receptacle; in others, again, there is either a solitary superior capsule of one cell, or a superior nut, with one or two seeds, which is either naked, or invested with a drupaceous coat. The scar of each seed is lateral, just below the summit, connected by a thread, or umbilical cord, with the lower part of the seed-vessel. Corculum straight, without an albumen. Stem herbaceous, shrubby, or arboreous. Leaves either simple or compound, alternate, accompanied by stipulas.

ROSACEOUS COROLLA, is one which consists of several petals ranged in a circle; so that, according to Tournefort's acceptation of the word, it includes not only the natural order of ROSACEÆ (see that article), and other flowers agreeing therewith in having mostly five petals, as ranunculus; but even such as have only two, like circæa. The author is obliged to exclude the cruciform and umbelliferous plants from this order by a particular and arbitrary exception; for according to his primary idea, it would admit every polypetalous regular flower, as well as some that are irregular, as cassia, &c.

ROSACLORUM, or, according to some authors, Rosichiero, a fine red used to enamel on gold with. It is prepared in this manner: take ten pounds of crystal-glass, put it into a pot, and when it is well melted, add to it, at twice, a pound of the best red-lead; stir the mass well together, and afterwards cast it into water. Repeat this process three times, then when the matter is again in fusion, mix with it five ounces of calcined brass, and the same quantity of the deepest cinnabar; stir the whole well together, and let it settle three hours; then add of glass of tin three ounces, mix the whole, and it will be of a fine rose-colour. *Merret's Notes on Neri.*

ROSADE, a kind of liquor, prepared of pounded almonds and milk, mixed with clarified sugar.

ROSAIE, a village of Farsistan, in Persia.

ROSALBA (Carriera), was of Chiozza, and carried crayon

crayon painting to a high degree of perfection. Orlandi celebrates her miniatures. Her crayon painting arrives often at the strength of painting in oil. Her portraits, spread all over Europe, are as elegant and graceful in conception and attitude, as fresh, neat, and alluring in colour. Her Madonnas, and other sacred subjects, rise from grace to dignity, and even majesty. Equal and incessant application deprived her of sight during the last ten years of her life. She died in 1757, at the age of 82.

Rosalba is celebrated by Walther for her musical talents and exquisite taste in singing.

ROSALGATE, a cape of Arabia, forming the most easterly point of that country. Here the coast, which has hitherto run in a north-easterly direction, turns to the north-west, till it joins the Persian gulf. The land over the cape is high and uneven, but facing the sea it is low and level. Lat. 22. 20. N. long. 60. 10. E.

ROSAMOND, daughter of Lord Clifford, was a young lady of great beauty, fine accomplishments, and endowed with the most engaging wit and sweetness of temper. She had been educated, according to the custom of the times, in the nunnery of Godstow, and the popular history of her is as follows. Henry II. of England saw her, was smitten with her beauty, and triumphed over her honour. To avoid the jealousy of his queen, Eleanor, he kept her in a labyrinth at Woodstock, and by his connection with her had two children, who were afterwards William Longsword, Earl of Salisbury, and Geoffrey, bishop of Lincoln. On Henry's absence in France, the queen found means to discover her, and, jealous of her great beauty, caused her to be poisoned. This story is not well supported by historical documents. Several writers mention no more of her, than that the queen caused her to be so harassed, that she did not long survive after she was discovered. Other writers assert, that she died a natural death, and the story of her being poisoned is supposed to have arisen from the figure of a cup being placed on her tomb. She was buried in the church of Godstow, opposite to the high altar, where her body remained till it was ordered to be removed with every mark of disgrace, by Hugh, bishop of Lincoln, in 1191. By many, however, she has been regarded as a saint, but her history is in every respect very uncertain. See *Grose's Antiq. of Eng. and Wales.*

ROSANI, a cape in European Turkey, on the coast of Romania, near the Grecian archipelago. Lat. 40. 35. N. long. 24. 14. E.

ROSANNA, or Roscienie, a small town of the north-west of European Russia, in the government of Grodno. It was formerly the residence of the princess Sapihea; 56 miles south-by-west of Novogrodek.

ROSARBA, the name of a substance which has given great trouble to the commentators on the works of the ancients.

The Arabian writers, Avicenna, Serapian, and others, have mentioned it as a kind of carob or ceration. It was probably only the succus acaciæ, or inspissated acacia juice of the shops.

ROSARIA, among the Romans, a kind of perfumes, so called either from their being chiefly made of roses, or because they had a most exquisite odour.

ROSARIA, El, a town of Mexico, in the intendancy of Sanora, situated near the rich mines of Copala. The mines which used to be the source of its opulence, are now for the most part filled with water. It contains 5600 inhabitants; 400 miles north-west of Mexico. Lat. 23. 28. N. long. 106. 9. W.

ROSARIO, a town of the province and government of Buenos Ayres, situated at the mouth of the Tercero river, where it enters the Parana, about 75 miles south of Santa Fé. Lat. 32. 56. S. long. 60. 51. W. It is the name of a settlement in Cuba, 45 miles south of Havannah; and also of several other inconsiderable settlements.

ROSARIO, a large and abundant river, formerly of Peru, now in the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres, and province of Tucuman.

ROSARIO, another small river of the same province; which runs east, and enters the Salado.

ROSARIO, a small river of the province of Buenos Ayres, which runs south, and enters the Plata.

ROSARIO, a river of New Granada, in the province of Carthagena, which communicates with the Magdalena, and may be called an arm of that river; whence it runs north-north-west, and enters the Cauca. There is also a small river of this name in the province of Choco, and district of Barbacous, which falls into the Pacific Ocean.

ROSARNO, a small town of Italy, in the south of the kingdom of Naples, in Calabria Ultra. Population 2500. Vines and olives are cultivated in the neighbourhood; 5 miles south-south-east of Nicotera, and 30 north-by-east of Reggio.

RO'SARY, *s.* [*rosarium*, Lat.] A bunch of beads, on which the Romanists number their prayers. It consists of five or fifteen decads of beads, to direct the recitation of so many Ave-Maria's, in honour of the Virgin. "The *rosary*, otherwise called the *Virgin's psalter*, is a new manner of praying, which, saies Navarrus, never was nor can ever be valued at what it is worth; for it is made up of 150 ave-maries, and 15 paters, tacked together with little buttons upon a string!" Brevint, Saul, &c. at Endor, 1674, p. 169.—A bed of roses; a place where roses grow.—The sweetest and the fairest blossom that ever budded, either out of the white or red *rosary*. *Proceed. against Garnet.* —A chaplet.—Christ hath now knit them into *rosaries* and coronets. *Bp. Taylor.* Every day propound to yourself a *rosary* or chaplet of good works, to present to God at night. *Bp. Taylor.*

Rosary also denotes a particular mass or form of devotion addressed to the Virgin, to which the chaplet of that name is accommodated. It consists of fifteen repetitions of the Lord's prayer, and a hundred and fifty salutations of the blessed Virgin, whilst the crown, as it is called, according to the different opinions of the learned concerning the age of the Virgin, consists of six or seven repetitions of the Lord's prayer, and six or seven times ten salutations of Ave-Maria's.

Some attribute the institution of the rosary to St. Dominic; but F. d'Achery shews it was in use the year 1100; so that St. Dominic could only make it more celebrated. Others attribute it to Paulus Libycus, and others to St. Benedict; others to the Chartreux; others to the venerable Bede; and, finally, others to Peter the Hermit. Those who ascribe it to St. Dominic, differ as to the particular time of its institution; some referring it to the year 1208, when he preached against the Albigenses; others will have him to have set it on foot in the course of his missions in Spain, before he passed into France.

Rosary, *Order of the*, or of *our Lady of the Rosary*, is an order of the knights, supposed by Schoonebeck, and the Jesuit Bonanni, to have been instituted by St. Dominic, but by mistake; for that saint never instituted any order under this name, and these authors apparently make a military order of an army of crusaders, who, under the command of the Count de Montfort, fought against the Albigenses.

The abbot Justiniani, and M. Hermant, will have this order to have been established by an archbishop of Toledo, named Frederic, after St. Dominic's death; and to have borne for a badge a black and white cross, in the middle of which was represented our Lady, holding her little son in one hand, and in the other a rosary. F. Mendo adds, that they were obliged to rehearse the rosary on certain days. After all, F. Helyot doubts whether or no such an order in reality ever existed. Edmondson refers the institution of this order to the year 1212; and he says, the badge of the order was a cross patonce per cross counterchanged argent and sable, surmounted on the centre with a medal or, enamelled with the image of the Virgin, supporting the infant in one hand, and holding a rosary in the other, all proper.

The order of the "Celestial Collar of the Holy Rosary" is a religious order for ladies, instituted at the request of father Francis Arnoul, a Dominican, by queen Anne of Austria, widow of the French king Lewis XIII., and mother of Lewis XIV., for fifty young ladies of the first families in France. The collar of the order was composed of a blue interlaced

ribbon, enriched with white, red, and maiden's blush roses, interlaced with the capital letters A. V. in cypher affixed to it: and pendant at the breast by a silk cordon, a cross of eight points pometee, and in each angle a fleur-de-lis: on the centre the image of the Virgin Mary, and on the reverse the image of St. Dominic, enamelled.

Rosary is a word also frequently met with in the ancient histories of Ireland, and used to express a peculiar sort of base money coined abroad, in the form of the penny, current in that kingdom; but of so much baser an alloy, that it was not worth quite half the real value of the penny. This and many other such coins were decried, and it was made death to import any of them, by Edward I., in 1300.

The Persian Rosary, is a beautiful compendium of oriental ethics, written by a Persian poet, whose name was Eddin Sadi; who, about the middle of the 13th century, when the Turks invaded Persia, withdrew from his own country, and settled at Bagdad, for the purpose of prosecuting his studies. After experiencing much vicissitude of fortune, he returned home, and compiled the book just mentioned, which he completed in the year 1257. This book, we are informed, has been universally read in the East; and has been translated into Latin, and into several modern languages. As our readers in general may not have access to the original work, which is divided into eight chapters, nor to extracts from it, we shall here subjoin, both for their information and amusement, the following citations.

1. Paradise will be the reward of those kings who restrain their resentment, and know how to forgive. A king who institutes unjust laws, undermines the foundation of his kingdom. Let him, who neglects to raise the fallen, fear, lest, when he himself falls, no one will stretch out his hand to lift him up. Administer justice to your people, for a day of judgment is at hand. The dishonest steward's hand will shake, when he comes to render an account of his trust. Be just, and fear not. Oppress not thy subjects, lest the sighing of the oppressed should ascend to heaven. If you wish to be great, be liberal; for, unless you sow the seed, there can be no increase. Assist and relieve the wretched, for misfortunes may happen to yourself. Wound no man unnecessarily; there are thorns enough in the path of human life. If a king take an apple from the garden of a subject, his servants will soon cut down the tree. The flock is not made for the shepherd, but the shepherd for the flock.

2. Excel in good works, and wear what you please: innocence and piety do not consist in wearing an old or coarse garment. Learn virtue from the vicious; and what offends you in their conduct, avoid in your own. If you have received an injury, bear it patiently: by pardoning the offences of others, you will wash away your own. Him, who has been every day conferring upon you new favours, pardon, if, in the space of a long time, he should have once done you an injury. Respect the memory of the good, that your good name may live for ever.

3. In your adversity, do not visit your friend with a sad countenance; for you will embitter his cup: relate even your misfortunes with a smile; for wretchedness will never reach the heart of a cheerful man. He who lives upon the fruits of his own labour, escapes the contempt of haughty benefactors. Always encounter petulance with gentleness, and perverseness with kindness: a gentle hand will lead the elephant itself by a hair. When once you have offended a man, do not presume that a hundred benefits will secure you from revenge: an arrow may be drawn out of a wound, but an injury is never forgotten. Worse than the venom of a serpent is the tongue of an enemy, who pretends to be your friend.

4. It is better to be silent upon points we understand, than to be put to shame by being questioned upon things of which we are ignorant. A wise man will not contend with a fool. It is a certain mark of folly, as well as rudeness, to speak whilst another is speaking. If you are wise you will speak less than you know.

5. Although you can repeat every word of the Koran, if you suffer yourself to be enslaved by love, you have not yet learned your alphabet. The immature grape is sour; wait a few days, and it will become sweet. If you resist temptation, do not assure yourself that you shall escape slander. The reputation, which has been fifty years in building, may be thrown down by one blast of calumny. Listen not to the tale of friendship, from the man who has been capable of forgetting his friend in adversity.

6. Perseverance accomplishes more than precipitation; the patient mule, which travels slowly night and day, will in the end go further than an Arabian courser. If you are old, leave sports and jests to the young: the stream, which has passed away, will not return into its channel.

7. Instruction is only profitable to those who are capable of receiving it: bring an ass to Mecca, and it will still return an ass. If you would be your father's heir, learn his wisdom: his wealth you may expend in ten days. He who is tinctured with good principles while he is young, when he is grown old will not be destitute of virtue. If a man be destitute of knowledge, prudence, and virtue, his door-keeper may say, Nobody is at home. Give advice where you ought; if it be not regarded, the fault is not yours.

8. Two kinds of men labour in vain: they who get riches, and do not enjoy them; and they who learn wisdom, and do not apply to the conduct of life. A wise man, who is not at the same time virtuous, is a blind man carrying a lamp: he gives light to others, whilst he himself remains in darkness. If you wish to sleep soundly, provide for tomorrow. Trust no man, even your best friend, with a secret; you will never find a more faithful guardian of the trust than yourself. Let your misfortunes teach you compassion: he knows the condition of the wretched, who has himself been wretched. Excessive vehemence creates enmity; excessive gentleness, contempt: be neither so severe, as to be hated; nor so mild as to be insulted. He who throws away advice upon a conceited man, himself wants an adviser. In a single hour you may discover, whether a man has good sense; but it will require many years to discover whether he has good temper. Three things are unattainable; riches without trouble, science without controversy, and government without punishment. Clemency to the wicked is an injury to the good. If learning were banished from the earth, there would, notwithstanding, be no one who would think himself ignorant. *Brucker's His. of Philos.*

ROSAS, anciently *Rhodia*, a small town in the north-east of Spain, on the coast of Catalonia, near Cabo de Creuz, on a bay of the Mediterranean, to which it gives name. It has a small but deep harbour, well defended against the north and north-east winds. Its bay is large and deep, but somewhat exposed to the south and west. The town is defended by two forts. The number of inhabitants is 2600. It was taken by the French in 1793 and 1794, and again on the 6th December, 1808, when part of the town was burned; 22 miles north-east of Cerona. Lat. 42. 16. 6. N. long. 3. 10. 13. E.

ROSAS, a river of the new kingdom of Granada, in the province of Venezuela, which rises east of the city of Barquisimeto, runs south, and turning to the west, enters the Tucyo.

ROSATE, a small town of Austrian Italy, delegation of Milan; 10 miles south-south-west of that city.

ROSBACH, a petty town of Prussian Saxony; 10 miles west of Lutzen, and 9 south-south-west of Merseburg. It contains only 500 inhabitants, but is remarkable in history for the victory obtained by the Prussians, under Frederick II., over the French, in November, 1757.

ROSBACH, Upper, a small town of the West of Germany, in Hesse Darmstadt. Population nearly 1000; 10 miles north of Frankfort on the Maine.

ROSBEGH, Point, a cape on the west coast of Ireland. Lat. 52. 6. N. long. 9. 52. W.

ROSCELINE, the founder of the scholastic sect which was known by the name of Nominalists, was a native of the French province of Bretagne, who flourished in the latter part of the 11th and the commencement of the 12th century. He

He distinguished himself by his proficiency in the literature of the times, particularly in logic and metaphysics, and acquired the character of a most profound dialectician. Having been presented to a canonry in the church of St. Cornelius, at Compeign, in the diocese of Soissons, he delivered lectures on scholastic philosophy, in which he maintained tenets at variance with the principles of the peripatetic school. For, on the subject of ideas, or the universal forms of things, instead of the opinion of Aristotle, that universals subsist not prior to individual bodies, nor after them, but within them, and are the forms eternally united to matter, which make bodies to be such as they are, he adopted the stoic opinion, that universals have no real existence either by or in individuals, but are mere names and words by which the kinds of individuals are expressed. Hence he and his followsrs obtained the name of Nominalists, while their opponents were distinguished from them by that of Realists. By applying his tenet to the doctrine of the Trinity, Rosceline brought upon himself a suspicion of heresy, and he was obliged to retract this opinion, in a council held at Soissons towards the close of the year 1092; but he resumed it when the council was dismissed, and all danger over. Persecuted anew for his doctrine, and compelled to quit France, he took refuge in England, where he excited contests of another kind, by maintaining, among other things, that persons born out of lawful wedlock ought to be deemed incapable of admission to holy orders. This doctrine, which was by no means suited to the times, and could not but be alarming to some who were even possessed of the episcopal dignity, excited against Rosceline many enemies, and was in a great measure the occasion of his being obliged to withdraw from England. Returning to France, he chose Paris for the place of his retreat, and there revived his old dispute concerning the Trinity. By so doing he provoked a host of foes, who, by their attacks from all quarters, exposed him to much trouble and vexation. Fatigued at length with their persecutions, he retired into Aquitain, where he acquired universal esteem by his piety and extraordinary charity to the poor, and passed the rest of his days in tranquillity and repose. The time of his death is not known; but there is reason for concluding that he did not live beyond the year 1107, or 1108. None of his writings are any longer extant. *Moreri.*

ROSCHESTVENSK, a small town, or rather a village, of European Russia, on the river Oredisha; 32 miles south-by-west of St. Petersburgh.

ROSCHILD, a small town of Denmark, in the island of Zealand, situated at the bottom of a small bay, about 15 miles west of Copenhagen.

ROSCHUTZ, a market town of Lower Austria, on the river Bulka; 2 miles south-west of Schrattentaal.

RO'SCID, *adj.* [*roscidus*, Lat.] Dewy: abounding with dew; consisting of dew.—The ends of rainbows fall more upon one kind of earth than upon another; for that earth is most *roscid.* *Bacon.*

ROSCIUS (Quintus), a roman actor of great fame, was a native of Gaul, as some suppose, of the Narbonnensian province. He was contemporary at Rome with the celebrated tragic actor Esopus. His own talents for the stage appear to have been universal; and such was the degree of perfection to which he had carried his art, that, according to Cicero, a complete master in any other art was popularly called the Roscius of it. Cicero also mentions him as being accustomed to say, "that he had hitherto met with no disciple whom he could approve; not that some of them were without qualities deserving of approbation, but that he could not tolerate any kind of defect." Roscius was not less esteemed for his morals and conduct, than admired for his professional talents. Cicero, in defending him from a pecuniary action brought against him by C. Fannius, after stating the vast profits he gained and might gain by his acting, says that he was liberal and munificent even before he was rich, and that for ten years he had refused the public compensation of his labours, and yet continued to serve the Roman people. He is said not to have been favoured by nature in his features, and to have had some obliquity of vision, yet his speech and action were so pleasing that he had no occasion to use a mask. The greatest men in the state were his intimate friends, and his loss was universally lamented. "Which of us (says Cicero in his oration for Archias) was so rude and unfeeling as not to be affected by the recent death of Roscius, who, though he died at an advanced age, appeared, on account of his excellence in his art, and the gracefulness of his manners, worthy of immortal life." His death took place at Rome, B. C. 61. He composed a "Parallel between theatrical and oratorical action," which, unhappily, is not come down to modern times. *Ciceronis Oper. Pliny. Moreri.*

ROSCOEA, (so named by Sir J. E. Smith, in honour of his friend, William Roscoe), in Botany, a genus of the class monandria, order monogynia, natural order Scitamineæ, Cannæ, *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth superior, of one leaf, tubular cylindrical, its limb sheathing, erect, undivided, membranous at the edge. Corolla: of one petal, irregular; tube scarcely longer than the calyx, erect, straight, triangular upwards: outer limb ringent, two-lipped; its upper lip broadest, erect, obovate, acute, concave; lower about as long, in two deep, linear-lanceolate, acute, reflexed lobes: inner limb ringent, two-lipped; the upper lip erect, shorter than the outer limb, of two cohering, half-ovate lobes, tapering at the base, and embracing the organs of fructification; lower, much longer, and broader, spreading, cloven. Stamina: filament one, inserted into the top of the tube, short, linear, channelled, erect; anther much longer than the filament, linear, channelled, greatly incurved, bearing pollen in the upper part only, its base extended in the form of two lanceolate, horizontal, ascending, acute, membranous lobes. Pistil: germen inferior, oval, very small; style thread-shaped, lodged in the groove of the filament, and of the anther, to whose curvature it conforms; stigma obtuse, concave, downy, just projecting beyond the anther. Pericarp: capsule—analagous to that of other Scitamineæ.—*Essential Character.* Anther two-lobed, incurved, terminal, embracing the style, with a cloven appendage at its base. Outer limb of the corolla irregular; upper lip vaulted; lower deeply divided: inner limb in three parts, two-lipped.

Roscoea purpurea, or purple Roscoea.—This plant was found at Narainhetty, in the mountains of Upper Nepaul, by Dr. Francis Buchanan, flowering in April, 1802. It is the only species hitherto discovered of this very well-defined genus, which should be arranged near Hedychium and Kæmpferia, to both of which genera it has some points of affinity; but Roscoea is distinguished from other known plants of the Scitamineæ, by the irregularity of its two-lipped outer limb, and the peculiar appendages to the base of the anther. The root is perennial, of several clustered, spreading, oblong, tapering knobs, producing branched fibres. No aromatic or pungent flavour is perceptible in our specimens. Stem solitary, erect, a foot or more in height, simple, leafy, compressed. Leaves spreading in two ranks, alternate, oblong, pointed, folded, wavy, entire, smooth, with many oblique parallel veins; pale at the under side; somewhat rounded and heart shaped at the base, running down into broad, sheathing, compressed, furrowed, purplish, footstalks, which embrace and conceal the stem. Stipula crowning the inside of the footstalk, very short, entire. Flowers several, opening in succession, terminal, clustered, sessile, erect, large, and handsome, of a violet-purple, with whitish organs of impregnation; the tube of the calyx of each concealed by the sheaths of the upper leaves.

ROSCOF, a small town in the north-west of France, department of Finisterre, situated on the coast, between the bay and a small island called Bas. Population 2500. It has a small harbour and a fine roadstead. It has a considerable traffic in wine and brandy with Great Britain, and in linen with Spain; 3 miles north of St. Pol. de Leon.

ROSCOLYN, a parish ot Wales, in Anglesey; 6 miles from Caernarvon. Population 504.

ROSCOMMON. See DILLON.

ROSCOMMON, a county of Ireland, in the province of Connaught, separated from the counties of Longford and Westmeath,

Westmeath, by the river Shannon on the east. It is bounded by Galway on the south, on the west by Mayo, on the north by Sligo, and on the north-east by Leitrim. Its greatest extent from north to south is, according to Dr. Beaufort, 60 English miles, and its breadth about the middle of the county, 37 English miles. The latter varies considerably, being in some parts less than 10 miles. Roscommon is a flat open country, in some places sprinkled with rocks, in many interrupted by extensive bogs, and but little diversified with hills. The only mountains within the county are in a narrow part between Lough Arrow and Lough Allen; and these are become valuable, on account of the coal and iron which they are found to contain. The lofty Curlew mountains, which join Lough Arrow, separate this county from Sligo. The Shannon beautifully delineates the eastern confines, branching in a course of 50 miles into several fine lakes, of which Lough Ree, Lough Baffin, and Lough Allen, are the largest. The Suck divides it from Galway for a great length of way, till it loses its name and waters in the Shannon. A number of small streams from the interior intersect the county, fertilizing and enlivening the fields. The largest of the lakes is Lough Key, in the north of the county, which is rendered delightful by wooded islands and surrounding groves. The soil is fertile; limestone and marl are abundant, and the climate not severe. The county has long been famed for its pastures; but as population increases, wants and cares are augmented, and pasturage gives way to tillage, as a more abundant source of supply. Hence we find, that although pasturage is calculated to cramp population, yet, by the introduction of manufactures, the latter may be so increased, that pastures must be broken up and tilled. This natural course of events has operated very powerfully in Roscommon. The manufacture of linen and woollen stuffs has been diffused; bounties have also been offered for farinaceous produce; and under these necessities and incitements, pasturage has considerably decreased. The area measures 346,650 acres, or 545 square miles, equal to 556,847 acres, or 869 square English miles. This county contains 56 parishes, 22 of which have churches. The population is estimated at 86,000. Roscommon is the county town; but Boyle is more thriving.

ROSCOMMON, a town of Ireland, in the county of the same name. It is a place of great antiquity, and has a castle, which was erected in 1268. Before the Union, it sent two members to the Irish parliament; 36 miles north-east of Galway, and 68 west-north-west of Dublin. Lat. 53. 35. N. long. 8. 8. W.

ROSCOMMON, a post village of the United States, in Steuben county, New York.

ROSE, *s.* [rope, Sax. *rose*, Fr. *rosa*, Lat.] A flower. See ROSA.—Here without thorn the *rose*. *Milton*.—For her the unfading *rose* of Eden blooms. *Pope*.—A riband gather'd into a knot in the form of a rose, and serving as a kind of ornamental shoe-tye, or knee-band.

Those *roses*
Were big enough to hide a cloven foot. *B. Jonson*.

Under the ROSE. Of this vulgar saying, Dr. Johnson produces only the following opinion of Sir Thomas Brown, from his Vulgar Errours: "By desiring a secrecy to words spoke under the rose, we mean, in society and compotation, from the ancient custom in symposiack meetings, to wear chaplets of *roses* about their heads." Sir Thomas has elsewhere considered the *rose* as the *symbol of silence*; which others also have stated, calling it the flower of Venus, consecrated by Cupid to Harpocrates, the god of silence. Todd says there is a curious passage in an old book, which has hitherto escaped observation, that graphically illustrates the secrecy required in respect to *speaking under the rose*. "Among the pagans (in old tyme) those, that invited any, shewed them the doore threshold, saying these words; Let nothing pass over this, that is to say, let nothing be reported over this threshold of any thing that shall be done at this banquet. And for this cause (for the present) in many countries they lay table-cloths upon their tables, whereupon are painted roses, *shewing thereby*, that all the words spoken thereat, ought to be hidden under it." Wodroephe, Fr. and Eng. Gramm. 4to. 1623. This, though curious, only points to a "foregone conclusion;" shewing rather the effect than the origin of the phrase in question. We are inclined to think, that the saying arose during the wars of York and Lancaster, from the very natural circumstance that whatever was said by men *wearing the rose*, was expected to be held secret from the opposite party; or, they might have sworn secrecy by the rose. This seems particularly borne out by Beaumont and Fletcher, saying, "I speak it now *without* the rose."

If this make us speak
Bold words anon, 'tis all *under the rose*
Forgotten! *Beaum.*

Now that you and I are together, and *under the rose* too, as they say, why should not we drink somewhat briskly? *Goodman*.

We must not, however, forget to mention, that there was a tradition among the ancients, that the god of love made a present to Harpocrates, the god of silence, of a beautiful rose, the first that had been known, to engage him not to discover any of the private practices of his mother Venus. And hence it became a custom to have a rose placed in their rooms of mirth and entertainment, that under the assurance thereof, they might be induced to lay aside all constraint, and speak what they pleased.

ROSE, pret. of *rise*.—Eve—*rose* and went forth among her flowers. *Milton*.

ROSE, a small river of Guadaloupe, which runs east, and enters the sea in the bay of Cul de Sac.

ROSE BAY. See NERIUM.—ROSE, Campion. See AGROSTEMMA.—ROSE, China, the name by which some call the ketmia of botanists. See HIBISCUS.—ROSE, Christmas. See HELLEBORUS.—ROSE, Corn. See PAPAVER.—ROSE, mountain-bay, or dwarf-bay, a name by which the chamærhodendros of botanists is sometimes called. See KALMIA and RHODODENDRUM.—ROSE, Guelder, a name sometimes given to the opulus, or water-elder. See VIBURNUM.—ROSE, Virginian Guelder. See SPIRÆA.—ROSE, Martinico. See HIBISCUS.—ROSE of Jericho, a name by which some call the hesperis. See ANASTATICA.—ROSE Mallow. See ALIZA.—ROSE, South Sea, a name sometimes given to the Nerium of botanists; which see.—ROSE, Rock. See CISTUS.

ROSES, Essence of. There is scarcely a more valuable perfume in the world, than the essence of damask roses, and scarcely any thing is obtained from its subject with more difficulty, and in less quantity. All essences or essential oils are, while in the plant, contained in certain vesicles lodged in different parts, and of different structure; these vesicles are in the rose particularly small and tender, and are placed very superficially; the consequence of this is, that there is originally but a very little of this essence in the flower, and this is the very subject that will be dissipated and lost when the flowers are gathered and thrown in a heap together, as they are succulent, and very quickly heat in lying together. To avoid all dissipation and waste of this choice essence, the roses should be thrown into the still as soon as gathered, and distilled with very little water, and that in a balneum Mariæ; then the fire is to be continued so long as the flowers float separate about in the water; but as soon as they form themselves into a cake, and stick to the bottom, the distillation should be finished, as they then yield no more essence. With all these precautions, however, it is with great difficulty we can procure any essence of roses. What we obtain by this distillation being chiefly a very odoriferous and fragrant water. In the warmer countries the same caution affords a larger quantity of oil, which may be separated and preserved under the name of the essence. In Italy, they make some quantity of it, but there it is very dear; a vast quantity of the flowers yielding only a very little essence, and that being thick

thick and troublesome in the procuring, as it every where sticks to the vessels.

It is to be observed, that the season of the year as to wet or dry, makes a very great difference in the essential oils of all plants; they are always much finer in dry and hot seasons, than in cold and moist; we find our rose-water in England much finer, and more fragrant, though distilled in the same proportion, in hot and dry summers, than in cold and rainy ones; and Mr. Geoffroy gives an account that he succeeded, one very hot and dry year, in the making essence of roses in France in the following manner.

As the roses were brought to him fresh gathered, he turned them immediately into the still; and drawing over the water into a glass matrass, when it had stood by some time, and was perfectly cold, he discovered some of the essence fixed to the sides of the matrass, and the surface of the water covered with a thin reticular pellicle. All the contents of the matrass were put to filter through a paper, supported by a fine linen cloth; and the filtrated water was added to new roses for many succeeding distillations, the produce of which was all filtered through the same paper. After a long course of distillations, with fresh flowers every time, but still with the same vessels and the same water, there was found in the paper of the filtre a quantity of thick essence; this being carefully washed out of the paper, with a small quantity of the most fragrant of the water, and afterwards separated pure from its surface, was very white and extremely fragrant, and as thick as fine butter. This is not the only essential oil which naturally concretes into this firm state: oil of aniseed, though fluid when distilled, always concretes in the same manner on the first approach of cold; and another oil of this kind is that of the laurel, which is used in some places, though very improperly, to give the scent and taste of bitter almonds, or apricot kernels, to foods of different kinds.

Monsieur Homberg has taught us how to gain a larger quantity of the essential oil of roses than in the usual distillation, by the previous addition of mineral acids, as the spirit of salt, vitriol, &c. thereto; which increase the fermentation, and joining with the oil, render it more liquid, and easier to be raised by heat. He advises a perfumer (who before scarcely obtained an ounce of oil from a hundredweight of roses) to steep his flowers, for fifteen days, in water made sharp with the spirit of vitriol; by which means the perfumer, upon distillation, found his quantity of oil increased almost a third.

The perfumers keep the structure of the vessel they employ in this distillation a great secret. M. Homberg tells us, it is a large convenient still, that opens in a tube at the top to receive the water, which must often be poured upon the roses, to bring over the oil with it; this it does but very slowly, and so requires that its quantity be large; the still also opens below, that the flowers, when they will yield no more oil, may be easily taken out; but the principal contrivance is the figure of the vessel which receives the oil; this is made like an ordinary matrass, from the lower part of the belly of which comes a tube, as from an old-fashioned cruet, and rising to the bottom of the neck of the receiver, it bends outward; so that though the vessel usually contains but two or three French pints, it conveniently receives and lets pass many hundred pints of the rose-water, without any necessity of being changed; for a change would lose the small quantity of the oil obtained. The water distilled runs through a pipe into a second receiver; the oil, being lighter than the water, floats upon its surface, and adheres to the neck of the vessel, as high as the aperture of the little pipe, while the water runs from the bottom of the first receiver into the second. See Mém. de l'Acad. des Sciences, 1700.

The process for making attar, or essential oil of roses, so much esteemed as a perfume, is related in the "Asiatic Researches," (vol. i. p. 332.) by Lieutenant-colonel Polier, and is as follows. "Forty pounds of fresh roses, with their calyces, but the stems cut close, are put in a still with sixty pounds of water. The mass is then well mixed together with the hands, and a gentle fire is made under the still When the water begins to grow hot, and fumes to rise, the cap of the still is put on, and the pipe fixed; the chinks are then well luted with paste, and cold water put on the refrigeratory at the top. The receiver is also adapted at the end of the pipe; and the fire is continued under the still, neither too violent nor too weak. When the impregnated water begins to come over, and the still is very hot, the fire is lessened by gentle degrees, and the distillation continued till thirty pounds of water are come over, which is generally done in about four or five hours. This rose-water is to be poured again on a fresh quantity (forty pounds) of roses; and from fifteen to twenty pounds of water are to be drawn by distillation, following the same process as before. The rose-water thus made and cohobated, will be found, if the roses were good and fresh, and the distillation carefully performed, highly scented with the roses. It is then poured into pans either of earthenware or of tinned metal, and left exposed to the fresh air for the night. The attar, or essence, will be found in the morning congealed, and swimming on the top of the water. This is to be carefully separated, and collected, either with a thin shell or a skimmer, and poured into a vial. When a certain quantity has thus been obtained, the water and feces must be separated from the clear essence, which, with respect to the first, will not be difficult to do, as the essence congeals with a slight cold, and the water may then be made to run off. If, after that, the essence is kept fluid by heat, the feces will subside, and may be separated; but if the operation has been neatly performed, these will be little or none. The feces are as highly perfumed as the essence, and must be kept after as much of the essence has been skimmed from the rose-water as could be. The remaining water should be used for fresh distillations, instead of common water; at least as far as it will go.

"The above is the whole process of making genuine attar of roses. But, as the roses of this country give but a very small quantity of essence, and it is in high esteem, various ways have been thought of to augment the quantity, though at the expense of the quality. In this country it is usual to add to the roses, when put in the still, a quantity of sandal-wood raspings, some more, some less, from one to five tolahs, or half ounces. The sandal contains a deal of essential oil, which comes over freely in the common distillation, and mixing with the rose-water and essence, becomes strongly impregnated with their perfume. The imposition, however, cannot be concealed; the essential oil of sandal will not congeal in common cold; and its smell cannot be kept under, but will be apparent and predominate, in spite of every art. In Cashemire they seldom use sandal to adulterate the attar; but I have been informed, to increase the quantity, they distil with the roses a sweet-scented grass, which does not communicate any unpleasant scent, and gives the attar a high clear green colour. This essence also does not congeal in a slight cold, as that of roses."

The quantity of essential oil to be obtained from the roses is very precarious, as it depends not only on the skill of the distiller, but also on the quality of the roses, and the favourableness of the season. In order to obtain four mashes (about $1\frac{1}{2}$ drachm) from 80 pounds, which deducting the calyces, amounts to something less than 3 drachms per 100 pounds of rose-leaves, the season must be very favourable, and the operation carefully performed. The colour of the attar of roses is no criterion of its goodness, quality, or country. In the year 1787, Col. Polier had attar of a fine emerald green, of a bright yellow, and of a reddish hue, from the same ground, and obtained by the same process, only of roses collected at different days. The calyces, he observes, do not in any degree diminish the quality of the attar, nor impart any green colour to it; though perhaps they may augment the quantity; but the trouble necessary for stripping them must, and ought, to prevent its being ever put in practice.

ROSE, St. a parish in the south side of the island of St. Domingo. It formerly contained about 2000 inhabitants, for the most part people of colour.

ROSE ISLAND, Great and Little, two small islands among the Bahamas; 12 miles north of Providence.

ROSE ISLAND, an island in the North Pacific ocean, near the west coast of America. Lat. 59. 35. N. long. 146. 50. W.

ROSE RIVER, a river of North America, which rises on the eastern side of the Rocky mountains, and falls into the Yellow Stone. It is so called from the number of beautiful roses which bloom on its banks.

RO'SEAL, *adj.* [*roseus*, Lat.] Rosy; like a rose in smell or colour.

From *roseal* Aurora's door
Fair Titan shak'd his locks, and marched out. *Beaumont.*

The rich and *roseal* spring of those rare sweets. *Crashaw.*

ROSE-ASH, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 6 miles east-south-east of South Moulton.

RO'SEATE, *adj.* Rosy; full of roses.

I come, ye ghosts, prepare your *roseate* bowers,
Celestial palms, and ever-blooming flowers. *Pope.*

Blooming; fragrant; purple, as a rose.

Here pride has struck her lofty sail
That roam'd the world around;
Here *roseate* beauty cold and pale
Has left the power to wound. *Boyle.*

ROSEAU, or Charlotte Town, the capital of Dominica in the West Indies. It is situated about seven leages from Prince Rupert's bay. It is on a point of land on the south-west side of the island, which forms two bays, viz. Woodbridge's bay on the north, and Charlotteville bay to the southward. Roseau is about half a mile in length from Charlotteville to Roseau river, and mostly two furlongs in breadth, but is of an irregular figure. It contains more than 500 houses, besides cottages occupied by negroes. Whilst in possession of the French, it contained upwards of 1000 houses. Lat. 15. 25. N. long. 61. 27. W.

ROSEBERRY TOPPING, a hill of England, in Yorkshire, 1022 feet in height.

ROSEBURGH, a post town of the United States, in Armstrong county, Pennsylvania.

ROSEDALE, East and West, two villages of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 10 miles north-west of Pickering.

RO'SED, *adj.* Crimsoned; flushed.—Can you blame her, being a maid yet *rosed* over with the virgin crimson of modesty, if she deny the appearance of a naked blind boy? *Shakspeare.*

ROSE ENGINE, Rose Lathe, or Figure Lathe, in the Mechanic Arts, is a machine used for turning any articles in wood, ivory, or metal, in the same manner as a common lathe, but it has additional parts, by which the surface of the subject which has been turned, can afterwards be engraved with a great variety of patterns of curved lines, which in general, are denominated from the French rosette, from a slight general resemblance which they have to a full-blown rose, and hence the machine is called a rose engine. See Turning.

ROSEHEARTY, a fishing village of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, in the parish of Pitsligo. It has a tolerable harbour, where vessels may deliver their cargoes during the summer months; 4 miles west of Fraserburgh, and 18 east of Banff. Population 200.

ROSELAND, a fertile vale of England, in Cornwall, lying between a creek of Falmouth haven and Tregony.

ROSELESTON, a parish of England, in Derbyshire; 4½ miles south-by-west of Burton-upon-Trent.

RO'SE-MALLOW, *s.* A plant larger than the common mallow.

ROSEMARKET, a village of Wales, in the county of Pembroke, once a considerable market town. The woollen manufactures were introduced here by a settlement of Flemings; and here are the remains of Rose castle, which was built by them; 4 miles from Haverford West.

ROSEMARKIE, a parish of Scotland, in Ross-shire, 6 miles long, and 3 broad, lying on the shore of the frith of Cromarty, with a bold and rocky coast, abounding in romantic views and tremendous precipices. Population 1312.

RO'SEMARY, *s.* [*rosmarinus*, Lat. *rosmarin*, Fr. *rosmarjn*, Teut. And so our old form of *rosemary*. "His herbe propre is *rosemarine*." Gower, Cons. Am. B. 7.] A verticillate plant. See Rosmarinus.

Bedlam beggars, with roaring voices,
Strike in their numb'd and mortify'd bare arms
Pins, wooden pricks, nails, sprigs of *rosemary;*
And with this horrible object, from low farms,
Inforce their charity. *Shakspeare.*

Around their cell
Set rows of *rosemary* with flowering stem. *Dryden.*

The neighbours
Follow'd with wistful look the damsel bier,
Sprigg'd *rosemary* the lads and lasses bore. *Gay.*

ROSE MILLS, a post village of the United States, in Amherst county, Virginia.

ROSENAU, or Rosnau, a small town in the north of Hungary, palatinate of Gomer, on the river Sajo. It is the see of a bishop, and is inhabited by a mixed race, the descendants of Germans, Hungarians, and Sclavonians, partly Catholics, and partly Lutherans. In the neighbourhood are mines of iron, copper, quicksilver, and cinnabar, but particularly of antimony; one of which, called the Rose, gives name to the place. In 1766, this town received great injury from fire. Population 3200; 9 miles north-east of Gomer, and 24 north of Caschau.

ROSENAU, a market town and strong castle of Transylvania, in the district of Cronstadt, inhabited by descendants of Saxon settlers; 7 miles south-west of Cronstadt.

ROSENBERG, a small town of the north-west of Hungary, on the Waag, with 2100 inhabitants; 23 miles north-by-east of Neusohl.

ROSENBERG, a small town of Germany, in Bavarian Franconia, near Wurzburgh.

ROSENBERG, a small town of West Prussia; 11 miles east of Marienwerder, with 1100 inhabitants.

ROSENBERG, a small town of Bohemia, on the Moldau, close to the borders of Austria, with 1200 inhabitants; 22 miles south of Budweis. Near it is a small lake called the Rosenberger Teich.

ROSENBERG, a fortress of Bavarian Franconia, in the principality of Branberg, near Cronach.

ROSENBERG, a small town of the west of Germany, in Baden; population 800; 37 miles east-by-north of Heidelburgh.

ROSENBERG, a small town of Prussian Silesia; 24 miles east-north-east of Oppeln, with 1400 inhabitants.

ROSENBERG, Great, a village of Prussian Saxony, on the Saale; 16 miles south-south-east of Magdeburgh. Population 1000.

ROSENDORF, a village in the north of Bohemia; 28 miles east-south-east of Dresden, with 1000 inhabitants.

ROSENEATH, a parish of Scotland, the most westerly of Dumbartonshire, being a peninsula nearly in the form of a parallelogram, about 7 miles long, and 2 broad. Population 747.

ROSENESS, a cape on the south coast of the island of Pomono. Lat. 58. 45. N. long. 2. 42. W.

ROSENFIELD, a small town of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, with 1000 inhabitants; 38 miles south-south-west of Stutgard.

ROSENGYN, one of the Banda isles, about 7 miles south-east of Lantore. It produces nutmegs, mace, and some yams, and feeds a few cattle. When the island was in possession of the Dutch, the convicts of Amboyna used to be kept on it, and were compelled to cultivate the land for the use of the supreme government.

ROSENHEIM, a small town of Bavaria, on the river Inn. It has manufactures of copper and brass, the only manufactures of the kind in the kingdom. It has also salt works, the brine for which is conducted thither by canals from the salt springs

springs of Reichenhall. Population 1700; 38 miles west of Salzburg.

ROSENIA, (so called by Thunberg, in honour of two brothers of the name of Rosen, both eminent as physicians and botanists), in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia superflua, natural order compositæ discoideæ, corymbiferæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Common calyx of many leaves, imbricated; scales ovate, obtuse, undivided, smooth, transparent, with a brown, opaque, longitudinal line. Corolla compound, radiated; florets of the disk perfect, tubular, five-cleft; those of the radius female, ligulate, convolute, arched. Stamina: (in the perfect florets) filaments five, very short; anthers united into a cylindrical tube. Pistil (both in the disk and radius): germen small, style thread-shaped; stigma cloven. Pericarp none, except the unchanged calyx. Seed (in both kinds of florets) angular, smooth; down, of two kinds of capillary scales; the two innermost of the radius generally setaceous and longest; the outermost capillary, united at the base into several parcels. Receptacle composed of lanceolate, membranaceous scales.—*Essential Character.* Receptacle chaffy. Seed-down of two kinds, chaffy. Corolla radiated. Calyx scariose.

Rosenia glandulosa, stem shrubby, round, smooth, wavy, erect, much branched, generally more than two feet high. Branches and branchlets alternate, three or four together, in a cluster, spreading, striated: the branchlets lateral, very short, leafy. Leaves somewhat clustered, approximating, sessile, ovate, obtuse, undivided, slightly concave, chiefly glandular at the margin, downy, thickish, imbricated half as long as the nail. Flowers capitate, terminal. *Thunberg.*

ROSE-NOBLE, *s.* An English gold coin, in value anciently sixteen shillings. They are so named because stamped with a rose.—The succeeding kings coined *rose-nobles* and double *rose-nobles. Camden.*

It must be observed, that the value of this coin varied much in different reigns. When first struck in the reign of Edward III. it was the penny of gold; and was current at 6*s.* 8*d.*, and consequently formed half a "mark," so called as being a grand limited sum in account (Marc. limes, Goth.) 8 oz. in weight, and ⅔ds of the money pound. This as one half of the commercial pound of 16 ounces, is sometimes called "selibra." The noble, was so called from the nobility of the metal, being of the finest gold then or now used in the world for coinage; and it was attended by its half and quarter: the proportion of silver to gold being then 1 to 11. This coin was sometimes called the "rose-noble," from both sides being impaled in an undulating circle, resembling the outline of an expanded rose, together with its half and quarter; and these continued the only gold coins till the angels of Edward IV. 1465, stamped with the angel Michael and the dragon, and the angelets, equal to half the angel, or 3*s.* 4*d.* were substituted in their place. Antiquaries likewise assert, that gold being scarce in Henry V.'s time, that prince diminished the noble, retaining its former value; but that Henry VI. restored it to its size, and caused it to pass for 10*s.* under the new name of ryal. Accordingly, the noble of Henry V. weighs only 108 grains now, while those preceding his reign weigh 120. This speaks gold to have increased in value about 10 per cent. The old noble of Edward III. and Richard II. at 120 grains, passed but for 6*s.* 8*d.*; but in the fifth year of Edward IV. 1465, the angel was of equal value, though but 80 grains in weight; which shews gold to have increased in value then no less than 30 per cent. Certain it is that the ryal of 10*s.* and the angel of 6*s.* 8*d.* with their divisions of half and quarter, were the sole gold coins till, in 1485, Henry VII. published the double ryal, or sovereign of 20*s.* accompanied by the double sovereign of 40*s.*

ROSENTHAL, a small town in the south of Bohemia; 20 miles south of Budweis, with 1200 inhabitants.

ROSENTHAL, a small town on the west of Germany, in Hesse-Cassel; 12 miles north of Marburg. Population 1100.

ROSENTHAL, a village of Prussian Silesia, in the county of Glatz, with 850 inhabitants; 14 miles south of Glatz.

ROSENTHAL, or ROZMITAL, a small town in the south of Bohemia, on the river Lomnitz; 40 miles south-south-west of Prague, with 1100 inhabitants.

ROSEOLA, a term of Willan's, denoting a rose-coloured efflorescence of the skin, not elevated, nor contagious. See PATHOLOGY, p. 352, where the disease is termed EXANTHESIS ROSEOLA.

ROSES, ISLANDS OF, two small islands in the Indian sea near the eastern coast of Africa. Lat. 17. S.

RO'SET, *s.* [*rosette*, Fr. *Cotgrave.*] A red colour for painters.—Grind ceruss with a weak water of gum-lake, *roset*, and vermillion, which maketh it a fair carnation. *Peacham.*

ROSETO, a river of Italy, in the south of the kingdom of Naples, which runs into the gulf of Taranto.

ROSETO, a small town of Italy, in the central part of the kingdom of Naples, Principato Ultra, with 2800 inhabitants; 13 miles west-south-west of Lucera.

ROSETTA, ROSSETTA, or RASCHID, a town of Egypt, of considerable size and population, founded in the eighth century, as some have said; though Elmacin informs us, that it was built during the reign of Elmetouakkel, caliph of Bagdad, towards the year 870 of our era, and under the pontificate of Cosma, patriarch of the Jacobites at Alexandria. Others date its foundation at a much later period; and Belon, who travelled in Egypt in 1530, says that this town was much smaller than Faöué, but at present it is much larger. It has borne the Arabic name Raschid ever since the time of Edrissi, the geographer, in 1153, and of this the Europeans have made Rosetta or Rossetta. Some have erroneously asserted, that it was built on the spot where Canopus was situated; whereas the Canopic branch of the Nile is the lagoon of Maadiê, and the ruins of Canopus are at Aboukir. Rosetta affords no trace of antiquity; nevertheless, it is certain, says Sonnini, that it cannot be far from the place where stood Metelis or Metilis, of which Strabo and Ptolemy make mention, and which was on the western bank, and near the mouth of the Bolbitic branch of the Nile. The heaps of sand, which this river is continually accumulating, no longer permit vessels to reach as far as Faöué. Although Rosetta was built at the mouth of the river, it is already two leagues from it. According to Abulfeda it was very inconsiderable in the 13th century; nor was it much increased for 200 years after this time. But when the Ottomans added Egypt to their conquests, they neglected the support of the canals. Thus, the canal of Faöué ceasing to be navigable, Rosetta became the emporium of the merchandize of Alexandria and Cairo. Commerce soon made it flourish, and it is at this day one of the handsomest towns in Egypt. It extends along the western bank of the Nile, and is above a league in length, by a quarter of a mile in breadth. Although it has no remarkable place, nor any one street quite regular, yet all the houses, being built with terraces, and well disposed, have, by Savary's description of it, an air of cleanliness and elegance, which is very agreeable; to which Sonnini adds, that here are seen long streets formed by two rows of shops, in which are found all sorts of goods; the necessaries of life being very plentiful, and procured at a low price. Within the houses are spacious apartments, well ventilated by a great number of windows, which are always open. The blinds and transparent linen, which they stretch over them, keep out the rays of the sun, afford a moderate light, and mitigate the excessive heats. The only public buildings worthy of notice are the mosques, with their lofty minarets, of light architecture, and constructed with much boldness. They thus produce a very picturesque effect into a town where all the roofs are flat, and throw great variety in the picture. The houses in general have a view of the Nile, and of the Delta, which form a most magnificent spectacle. The river is always covered with vessels, mounting and descending with oars, or under sail. The tumult of the harbour, the joy of the mariners, their noisy music, exhibit a moving and animated scene. The Delta, that immense garden, where the earth is never weary

weary of production, furnishes the whole year a succession of harvests, of vegetables, of flowers, and of fruits; various species of cucumbers and delicious melons, the fig, the orange, the banana, the pomegranate, of the most exquisite flavour. To the north of the town are gardens, where lemon and orange trees, date trees, and sycamore trees, are planted at random; by their foliage affording an arch impenetrable to the rays of the sun, and by their flowers rendering the shade of these groves delightful. The houses of Rosetta, says Sonnini, are much better built, in general, than those of Cairo; its situation upon the banks of the river; the view of the Delta, which presents, as Savary describes it, the delightful prospect of the most beautiful culture, the perfumed groves in its neighbourhood, and its pure and wholesome air, have most deservedly procured for it the name of the "Garden of Egypt." Commerce constitutes the principal wealth of the inhabitants of Rosetta. The importation of foreign merchandize to Cairo, and of the productions of Egypt into the port of Alexandria, employs a great number of mariners. The bar of the Nile is totally shut during two months of the year, and the commerce of Alexandria is interrupted. But if all the ships in Egypt were to perish, the Ottoman government, says Savary, would not remove one inch of ground of the canal of Faöué to render it navigable. It suffers every thing to go to ruin, and repairs nothing.

In the town of Rosetta a profound silence reigns, uninterrupted by the noise of any carriage. The inhabitants move with gravity through the streets, clad in long robes which hang down to their heels. Their heads are covered with heavy turbans, or bound round with a schale or shawl, which is a long piece of stuff made of silk or wool. The girdle is made use of by both sexes. The citizen is armed with a knife, the soldier with a sabre, and a pair of pistols. The women of the lower class, whose dress consists of a large blue shift, and a long pair of drawers, have their faces covered with a piece of linen, with holes opposite to the eyes. The rich wear a large white veil, with a cloak of black silk, that wraps up their whole body. But though thus masked, they are not scrupulous in making signs, nor in ogling.

The most ordinary pastime here is smoking and drinking coffee. From morning to night the inhabitants have their pipes in their mouths; at home, in each other's houses, in the streets, on horseback, they keep their pipe lighted, and the tobacco-bag is hung at their waist. If the inhabitants of Rosetta be less barbarous, says Sonnini, than those of the other parts of Egypt, they are not less ignorant, less superstitious, nor less intolerant. We find among them, although with shades more softened down, the same roughness of character, the same implacable aversion towards the nations of Europe, and disposition to insult both Christians and Jews, the same revengeful disposition—in a word, the same treachery; and they are addicted to the same shameful vices, some of which we cannot name.

The country round Rosetta is an immense surface, without a mountain or hill, intersected by innumerable canals, covered with harvest and a variety of trees, which winter never strips of their leaves. The soil is a black mould, the fertility of which is inexhaustible. The chief article of cultivation is rice, called in the vicinity of Rosetta "sultani," which is sown from the month of March to that of May, transplanted on the banks of the Nile, and on the borders of the canals at the end of July, and cut in November. Rice forms a principal article of exportation, which they dry by spreading upon the terraces of the houses and in the public squares; and to this operation is attributed the multitude of gnats, with which the town and the inside of the houses are filled at the time when it is performed.

Rosetta, besides being the great emporium of the trade that is carried on between Cairo and Alexandria, has some branches of commerce peculiar to itself; such as spun-cotton, dyed red, which is drawn from the adjacent districts; dressed flax, linen cloths, silk dyes for the eastern dresses, &c. The flax of the country, which is long, soft, and silky, would make beautiful linen, if they knew how to employ it; but the spinsters are very inexpert, and the thread they make is clumsy, hard, and uneven. The linens they bleach serve for the table; the rest, dyed blue, is employed for the clothing of the people. In Rosetta there are store-houses of natron, and manufactories where it is used. Most of the merchants of this town are Turks or Syrians, and some from Barbary. The Copts are numerous, together with some Arabs. The command of the town is vested in an officer of the Mamlouks, who bears the title of Aga. About a league from the sea, northward of Rosetta, are two castles, one on the western bank of the Nile, and the other on the opposite bank of the river, constructed to defend the entrance of the river. The former, which is ascribed to St. Lewis in the time of the crusades, is almost entirely demolished; and the few cannon which remain in it are unfit for service. These two forts, though inconsiderable, and in a ruinous state, would be sufficient to stop vessels from entering the river, if the Turks knew how to make use of the cannon; but here they have no occasion for it; as nature has guarded the mouth of the Nile, by raising a dangerous bar, called the *Boghass* or *Bogaz*, which is the terror of mariners. About half a league to the south of Rosetta is a tower, called the tower of Canopus, from the erroneous supposition that Rosetta is on the scite of the ancient Canopus. This tower has been built, in modern times, upon a hillock of sand, which at this place forms the west bank of the Nile. It is square and partly demolished. In the lower part the inhabitants of this district shew the opening of a subterraneous passage, which, as they say, led to Alexandria. Near the top of the same is presented a general view of the country, having no bounds except those which nature has prescribed; and near its foot, close to the edge of the Nile, stands a mosque, consecrated to a holy Mussulman, called "Abou-Mandour," which signifies father of the light. This saint, if he be the father of the light, is also the terror of the sands, as, but for him, they would long ago have overwhelmed Rosetta, and added it to their dreary domain. Opposite to this mosque, upon the east bank of the Nile, are two or three houses, called Maadée, because they stand at the place facing the usual passage to the Delta. On the west bank, at a short distance above Abou-Mandour, is Dgeddie, a considerable village, in the environs of which a great number of vine-plants grow in the sand; from hence Rosetta and Alexandria are supplied with grapes.

At the foot of the tower above-mentioned, a large semicircular basin announces a port, which has been choaked up by the sand. In digging at the bottom of this hillock, twenty beautiful marble pillars were discovered by a Turkish merchant, who was stripped of his fortune by the Beys, from an imagination that he had carried off a treasure from this place. M. d'Anville suspects that the ancient Bolbitina must have been at a very small distance from the spot on which Rosetta now stands. The ruins now mentioned seem to confirm his conjecture; as they are at the extremity of a town, and can only belong to the Bolbitina spoken of by Steph. Byz. and which gives its name to one of the branches of the Nile. This place is very picturesque; the tower, falling into ruins, is surrounded by tombs, and to the westward is a desart plain, whose burning extent the eye cannot look over without horror; but on the east the contrast is very striking, presenting a majestic river, and the Delta, uniting most profusely the graces of the spring, the beauty of the summer, and the rich luxuriance of the autumn.

Sir R. Wilson has given us a picture of Rosetta, very different from that which we have above exhibited. He says, it is built of a dingy red brick, and that a great part of the town is in ruins, many of the houses having been pulled down by the French for fuel. The streets are not more than two yards wide, and full of wretches, which the pride of civilization revolts at acknowledging to be human. The number of blind persons is prodigious; nearly every fifth inhabitant having either lost, or having some humour in, his eye. The erysipelas, the dropsy, the leprosy, the elephantiasis, and lusi naturæ, constantly offend the sight. Filth, musquitos of the most dreadful sort, vermin of every kind, women so ugly, that, fortunately for Europeans, their faces are concealed by a black cloth veil, in which are cut two eye-holes; stench intolerable;

intolerable; houses almost uninhabitable:—these form the charms of Rosetta, and Savary's garden of Eden. The quay, however, is allowed to be a handsome object, and might be made noble. The baths are represented as horridly disgusting. Dr. Wittman, cited also by Crutwell, observes, that though it contains but few striking public edifices, Rosetta must be considered as a handsome place by those who have been accustomed to mud walls and sandy desarts; the mosques and their minarets, as well as their houses, built with bricks, plastered over and white-washed. The population he estimates at 8 or 10,000, but from the number of empty houses, it appeared capable of containing at least treble that number. In 1807, the British were defeated here, with considerable loss, by the Turks; 90 miles north-west of Cairo. Lat. 31. 24. N. long. 30. 40. E. *Savary. Sonnini. Niebuhr.*

ROSETTES, an ornamental bunch of ribbands, or cut leather, which was worn both by officers and soldiers in the British service, on the upper part of their cues.

ROSETTES, are also two small bunches of ribbands that are attached to the loops by which the gorget of an officer is suspended upon his chest. The colour of the ribband must correspond with the facing of the uniform. The French use the same term.

ROSETTI (Donato), an ingenious Italian mathematician and natural philosopher in the 17th century, concerning the time of whose birth or death we have no information. He was a native of Leghorn, where he appears to have been educated, and was so successful in the cultivation of the sciences, that, at an early age, he become qualified to teach philosophy and the mathematics in different universities. While he was professor of logic at Pisa, he published a treatise relating to the system of the earth, which was received with great applause. It is entitled, "Antignome fisico mathematiche con il nuovo Orbe e Systema terrestre." This was followed by "A collection of physico-mathematical Instructions," "A Treatise on the composition of Dutch glasses, and glass drops;" and "A collection of physico-mathematical demonstrations," of seven different propositions which he had undertaken to prove. In his "Antignome," he has advanced a singular opinion respecting the number of the senses, which is not undeserving of notice. Not satisfied with the commonly received number of five external senses, he wishes to make them amount to eleven, by considering the different modes in which we touch bodies as so many different senses, and endeavouring to shew, that the perceptions arising from them cannot properly be ascribed to the sense of feeling in general. He maintains, for instance, that the sense by which we judge concerning the superficies of bodies, whether they are rough or smooth, ought to be distinguished from the sense by which we ascertain whether the same superficies be hard or soft, dry or moist; and that the sense by which we judge of the bodies which we feel, ought to be distinguished from that by which we form a judgment of their different shapes and conformations. He also maintains, that there is another sense, distinct from the preceding, by which, when we touch bodies, we form a comparative judgment of their relative magnitudes. He was the author of another treatise, entitled "Polista fedele," intended to explain the inclination of bodies to unite at their poles, and various phenomena respecting their hardness, their elasticity in recovering their original forms after the removal of any extraneous force by which they may have been compressed, their extension, the causes which convert solids into fluids, &c. Rosetti was living at Pisa in the year 1678. *Moreri.*

ROSEVILLE, a post village of the United States, in Delaware county, New York.

ROSEWA'TER, *s.* Water distilled from roses.

Attend him with a silver bason
Full of *rosewater.* *Shakspeare.*

ROSEWAY PORT, a populous sea-port town on the south-east coast of Nova Scotia, north-east-by-east of Cape Negro and harbour.

ROSEWAY, a small island at the mouth of Port Wager, on the south-east coast of Nova Scotia.

ROSHEIM, a small town in the north-east of France, in Alsace, on the river Mogel. It has a variety of manufactures on a small scale, viz. hardware, pottery and coarse woollens. Population 3400; 14 miles west-by-south of Strasburg.

ROSIA, a cape of the United States, in Penobscot bay, district of Maine.

ROSICRU'CIAN, *s.* [from *ros*, Lat. dew, and *crux*, a cross. "*Crux* stands for *lux*, light, because the figure of the cross × exhibits the three letters of which the word *LVX* is formed; and *light* is what, in the opinion of the Rosicrucians, when properly modified, produces gold. And of all natural bodies, *dew* is the most powerful dissolvent of gold. *Mosheim, Ecc. Hist.*] See ROSYCRUCIANS.

ROSICRU'CIAN, *adj.* Of the Rosicrucians.

Rosicrucian virtuosos
Can see with ears, and hear with noses;
And, when they neither see nor hear,
Have more than both supply'd by fear,
That makes 'em in the dark see visions! *Hudibras.*

ROSIENIE, a town in the north-west of European Russia, government of Wilna, situated on the river Dobisza. It was formerly the capital of Samogitia, and the meeting-place of the diets, but is now much decayed; 76 miles south of Mittau, and 100 north-east of Conigsberg. Lat. 55. 30. N. long. 41. 57. E.

RO'SIER, *s.* [*rosier*, Fr. Chaucer writes it *roser.*] A rose-bush.—By the *roser*, or by other bushes. *Chaucer.*

Her yellow golden hair
Was trimly woven, and in tresses wrought,
No other tire she on her head did wear,
But crowned with a garland of sweet *rosiere.* *Spenser.*

ROSIERES, a small town in the north of France, department of the Somme. Population 2800; 17 miles east-by-south of Amiens.

ROSIERES AUX SALINS, a small town in the north-east of France, on the river Meurthe. It was much improved by Stanislaus, the retired king of Poland, in the first half of the 18th century, and derives its name from its salt springs. There is here a large stud of horses kept by the government. Population 2200; six miles west of Luneville, and 12 south-east of Nancy.

ROSIERS, a small town in the north-west of France, department of the Maine and Loire. Population 3800; 9 miles north-west of Saumur, and 18 south-east of Angers.

ROSIERS, CAPE, the south limit of the mouth of the river St. Lawrence, from whence it is 90 miles across to the north shore, measuring by the west end of the island of Anticosti. This is the easternmost point of the district of Gaspee, in Lower Canada. It has Florell Isle and Cape Gaspee on the south. Lat. 48. 56. N. long. 63. 40. W.

ROSIGNANO, a small town of the north-west of Italy, in the Continental Sardinian states, situated on the declivity of a hill. Population 2000; 6 miles south of Casale.

ROSIL, or ROSSILS, *s.* A provincial word for earth of a medium stiffness, between sand and clay

RO'SIN, *s.* [properly *resin; resina* Lat.] Inspissated turpentine; a juice of the pine.

The billows from the kindling prow retire,
Pitch, *rosin*, searwood on red wings aspire. *Garth.*

Any inspissated matter of vegetables that dissolves in spirit.—Tea contains little of a volatile spirit; its *rosin* or fixed oil, which is bitter and astringent, cannot be extracted but by rectified spirit. *Arbuthnot.*

To RO'SIN, *v. a.* To rub with rosin.

Bouzebeus who could sweetly sing,
Or with the *rosin'd* bow torment the string. *Gay.*

ROSINAR, a small town of Transylvania, in the province of Hermannstadt, and the see of a Walachian bishop.

RO'SINESS, *s.* State or quality of being rosy.—Some may delight themselves in a black skin, and others in a white; some in a gentle natural *rosiness* of complexion. *Spence.*

ROSINGTON, a village of England, West Riding of Yorkshire, near Doncaster.

RO'SINY, *adj.* Resembling rosin.—The best soil is that on a sandy gravel or *rosiny* sand. *Temple.*

ROSITO, a cape of Italy, on the east coast of Calabria. Lat. 40. 5. N. long. 16. 40. E.

ROSLA, a small town of Prussian Saxony, on the river Helm. Population 1400; 36 miles west of Halle, and 10 south-south-east of Stolberg.

RO'SLAND, *s.* Heathy land; also watery, moorish land. *Bailey.*—*Rhôs*, Welsh, is a moist large plain; *rôs*, Cornish, moss.

ROSLAVI, a town in the interior of European Russia, in the government of Smolensko, on the river called the Bach Ostra. It is the chief place of a circle, has 4000 inhabitants, and is 60 miles south-south-east of Smolensk.

ROSLEY, a village of England, in Cumberland; 5½ miles east-south-east of Wigton.

ROSLIN, or ROSELYN, or ROSKELYN, a village in the parish of Laswade, and county of Midlothian, Scotland; is about 6 miles south-south-west from Edinburgh. This place is much celebrated on account of its castle and chapel, and for the romantic character of the scenery in its immediate vicinity. An excursion to Roslyn is one of the favourite summer recreations of the inhabitants of the northern metropolis; and no traveller of taste leaves that part of the kingdom without contemplating its beauties. The castle is seated on a bold and lofty rock, overhanging the river North-Esk, which dashes over a rugged channel at the base in a semi-circular sweep; and the precipitous banks are covered with a profusion of wood. Only a very small portion of the ancient building is now standing, but a modern mansion has been erected on part of the old walls. It is uncertain when this castle was built; but that event most probably occurred about the commencement of the 12th century, when William de Sancto-Clere (son to Waldernus de St. Clere, who came to England with William the Conqueror) obtained a grant of the barony of Roslyn from the Scottish king, Malcolm Canmore. No mention of it is made in history, however, till the reign of James II. of Scotland, when Sir William Hamilton is stated to have been confined here, for joining the rebellious standard of Earl Douglas. In 1554 it was set fire to, and in great part demolished, by the forces of king Henry VIII. The St. Clere family, or, as the name is now spelt, St. Clair, was anciently of great note in Scotland. Their possessions were very extensive, and their titles numerous, being Earls of Caithness and Orkney, lords of Nithsdale, and barons of Pentland, Couslande, Cardain, St. Clair, Herbertshire, Hertfoord, Grahamshaw, Kirkton, Cavers, Newborough, and Roxburgh. Their affluence and power exceeded that of most contemporary nobles, either in England or Scotland; and they lived in a style of magnificence and splendour, which even the Scottish monarchs were scarcely able to rival. James II. conferred upon them the honour of being hereditary patrons and grand masters of masonry in Scotland; privileges which they continued to enjoy for several generations.

The chapel of Roslyn occupies the summit of a hill above the castle. It was founded in the year 1446, by William St. Clair, Earl of Caithness and Orkney, for a provost, six prebendaries, and two singing boys; and was endowed by him with considerable landed possessions. He did not, however, live to complete his undertaking, notwithstanding he spared neither trouble nor expense to effect this purpose before his death, which happened in 1479. From a manuscript memoir of the house of Douglas, deposited in the library of the Faculty of Advocates at Edinburgh, we learn many curious particulars relative to the building of this chapel. It is there said, that the founder "caused artificers to be brought from other regions and forraigne kingdomes, and caused dayly to be abundance of all kinde of workemen present;" and it is subsequently added, "and to the end the worke might be more rare, he caused the draughts to be drawn upon Eastland boords, and made the carpenters to carve them according to the draughts, and then gave them for patterns to the masons, that they might thereby cut the like in stone." The present building is generally supposed to have been intended only for the choir of a large collegiate church, which, according to tradition and probability, it was the desire of the founder to have erected. Though in a mutilated state, its architecture is unique, and combines, according to Mr. Gandy, "the Egyptian, Grecian, Roman, and Saracenic styles;" and exhibits the arch "in all its possible forms and principles." This structure measures in the interior 68 feet in length, and 35 in breadth. The exterior is supported by 21 buttresses, surmounted by pinnacles, each differing from the others in its ornaments. Two of these buttresses have double pinnacles, the outer shafts of which are smaller than the inner, with which they are connected by flying abutments. Similar members also unite the larger pinnacles with the upper part of the chapel. The eastern end displays five buttresses, with four pointed windows intervening, all of uniform size and style, though varying somewhat in the tracery-work with which they are ornamented. Each window is divided by a stone mullion, faced, both internally and externally, with double columns; and the transom of the arch is decorated with half-figures of persons in the attitude of supplication, and with different kinds of foliage. On the north and south sides of the chapel, in the lower compartment, are five windows of a similar kind, also a pointed arched doorway, recessed under a large semicircular arch, above which is an irregular triangular window, highly ornamented. Another tier of windows, on each side, gives light to the upper part of the building; but these are now much mutilated, having lost their mullions, tracery, &c. Between every two windows are two canopied niches, and a bracket, which appear to have been designed for statues. This portion of the building is supported by two opposite ranges of five arches each, separating the body of the chapel from the side aisles, beyond which, at the east end, there are two columns, and two more in the centre between them, all of them supporting stone beams, exhibiting a great variety of sculptural ornaments. One of the centre pillars is wreathed, and is popularly called the apprentice's pillar, from a tradition respecting its execution by an apprentice of the master mason of the structure, who, it is said, finding himself unable to understand the model furnished to him, went abroad for instructions, during which time the work was accomplished by the apprentice. It is singular that a similar story is told of some of the best sculptures in Melrose abbey; and we believe, also, of a much later production of art, the statue of king Charles II. in the Parliament-square at Edinburgh. Two heads in the chapel are said to represent the master and the apprentice. The former is shewn as frowning, and the latter with a scar, or indention, on the forehead, to denote that he was murdered by his master, through envy of his superior genius. At the east end of the chapel are four altars, dedicated to different saints. "Of arches," says Mr. Britton, in his Architectural Antiquities, "there are more than thirteen varieties to be found in this building. A flat, or segment, beneath the roof of the aisles, and over the door to the sub-chapel; semicircular in the vault of the roof, and over the entrance doors; groined, acutely pointed over the western aisle; flat-pointed between the centre and side aisles; sharp-pointed in the lower windows; ogee to the piscinas; flattened, and latest of the pointed style, inside of the doorway, south side; half segment in the flying buttresses; counter arch in the triangular windows; flat arch and segment joined in a door in the vault; several arches of various forms in the windows, niches, and canopies: also in the battlements." The vault above-mentioned is the burying-place of the family of the Sinclairs. The soil of it is so dry, that

that bodies have been found entire eighty years after their interment. They were formerly buried in armour, and without a coffin. "The late Roslin," says father Hay, in his MS. memoirs, "was the first that was buried in a coffine, contrary to the sentiments of James VII., who was then in Scotland;" and he adds, "that the great expense my mother was at in burying her husband, occasioned the sumptuary acts that were made in the next parliament."

The village of Roslyn was anciently a place of considerable importance. King James II. constituted it a burgh of barony in the year 1456, and granted to the inhabitants a weekly market and a fair; but these privileges are now abandoned. The fields immediately contiguous are celebrated in history as the scene of three sanguinary engagements betwixt the English and Scotch; all fought on the same day, the 24th of February, 1303. The particulars are thus narrated by the Scottish historians. During a truce, Ralph Confroy, treasurer to Edward I., invaded Scotland at the head of thirty thousand men. With a view to plunder, he divided his forces into three bodies, and having reached the vicinity of Roslyn, encamped them in three distant stations. On being apprised of this invasion, Sir John Cumming and Sir Simon Frazer marched with 10,000 men to watch the motions of the enemy; and finding the first division unprepared, attacked and routed it with great slaughter. The second division coming up immediately after the battle, shared the same fate; as did likewise the third division, which appeared in a similar manner at the close of the second action. This engagement excited much interest both at home and abroad, and is ranked among the noblest efforts of Scottish bravery. About half a mile lower down the Esk, is situated the house of Hawthornden, remarkable not only for its having belonged to Drummond, the celebrated poet and historian, but also for the caves under it. There are various conjectures as to the original intention of these subterraneous cavities. Stukely has given credit to a fabulous tradition, that they were strong holds of the Pictish kings; and accordingly one cave is called the king's gallery, another the king's bed-chamber, and a third the guard-room. Setting aside this tradition, the most probable opinion is, that they were resorted to as places of refuge during the destructive wars between the English and Scotch. Detached from the principal caves is a smaller one, called the Cypress grove, where Drummond is said to have composed many of his poems. It was in these caverns that the famous Sir Alexander Ramsay, one of the ancestors of the Dalhousie family, who performed such exploits of valour in the contest for the crown between Bruce and Baliol, used to conceal himself. Here he was resorted to by the young warriors of his day, who considered it as a necessary part of military education to have been of his band. From thence he sallied forth, as occasion presented itself, and attacked the English, then in possession of Edinburgh. The Statistical Account of Scotland, by Sir John Sinclair. Architectural Antiquities of Great Britain, vol. iii. 4to. by John Britton, F. S. A. A Companion and useful Guide to the Beauties of Scotland and the Hebrides, &c., by the Hon. Mrs. Murray Aust, of Kensington, 2 vols. 8vo. Lond. 1810.

ROSMALEN, a village of the Netherlands, in North Brabant, with 1100 inhabitants; 3 miles north-east of Bois le Duc.

ROSMARINHAL, a small town of Portugal, on a hill near the Tagus and the Spanish frontier; 8 miles west of Alcantara, in Spain, and 51 east of Abrantes.

ROSMARINO, a small town in the east of Sicily, in the Val di Demona. It is situated at the mouth of a river to which it gives name; 11 miles north-east of Mistretta.

ROSMARINUS (from *ros* dew; and *marinus* marine. This dew-bespangled plant growing on the sea-shore). In Botany, a genus of the class diandria, order monogynia, natural order of verticillatæ. Lobiatæ, (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, tubular, compressed above; mouth upright, two-lipped; upper lip entire, lower bifid. Corolla unequal; tube longer than the calyx; border ringent; upper lip two-parted, upright shorter, acute, with the edges bent back; lower lip bent back, trifid; the middle segment very large, concave, narrow at the base, the lateral ones narrow, acute. Stamina: filaments two, awl-shaped, simple with a tooth, inclined towards and longer than the upper lip: anthers simple. Pistil: germ four-cleft. Style of the same figure, situation and length with the stamens. Stigma simple, acute. Pericarp, none. Calyx containing the seeds at the bottom. Seeds four, ovate. This genus approaches very near to that of salvia, but is distinguished by not having the stamens at all forked.—*Essential Character.* Corolla unequal, with the upper lip two-parted. Filaments long, curved, simple with a tooth.

1. Rosmarinus officinalis, officinal rosemary, or broad-leaved or wild rosemary.—Root strong, woody, fibrous. Stem shrubby, covered with a rough gray bark, divided into many branches, and in gardens rising frequently to the height of eight or ten feet; but in its natural state much lower. Leaves numerous, sessile linear, entire, blunt, contracted at the edges, dark green above, grayish or whitish underneath, with small glandular excavations, placed in whorls on the branches. Flowers from the axils of the leaves, from six to twelve together, large, pale blue, sometimes white with blue spots and dots. Calyx subtomentose.—Native of the south of Europe, the Levant and Barbary. There are two varieties; one of the garden sort, with striped leaves, which the gardeners call the silver rosemary: the other, of the wild sort, striped with yellow, and called gold-striped rosemary. The former is somewhat tender, and all the plants of this variety were killed in the severe winter of 1740. The latter is pretty hardy, and will live in the open air through our common winters, on a dry soil. It has a fragrant aromatic smell, and a bitterish pungent taste. The leaves and tops are strongest in their sensible qualities: the flowers ought not to be separated from their calyxes; the active matter residing principally, if not wholly, in the latter. Rosemary yields its qualities completely to rectified spirit, but only partially to water. The leaves and tops, distilled with water, yield a thin light pale essential oil of great fragrancy, though not quite so agreeable as the rosemary itself.

2. Rosmarinus chilensis, or Chili rosemary.—This is a shrub known only from a short description given by Ignatius Molina. Future observations will inform us whether it belong really to this genus or not.—Native of Chili.

Propagation and Culture.—Rosemary thrives prodigiously upon dry rocky soils near the sea, in the south of France, in Spain and Italy. It is hardy enough to bear the cold of our ordinary winters in the open air, provided it be planted upon a poor dry gravelly soil, or near a wall. The varieties with striped leaves are somewhat tender. Young plants are procured by slips or cuttings in the spring, just before the plants begin to shoot, planted upon a bed of light fresh earth. When rosemary is by accident rooted in a wall, it will endure the greatest cold of our winters.

ROSMARUS, a name of the animal called by some the sea-horse, and more usually known by the name of morse.

ROSNIATOV, a small town of Austrian Poland, in the circle of Stryi.

ROSNY, a village in the north of France, near the Seine; 3 miles west of Mantes. It has a castle, and is remarkable as being the birth-place of the well-known duke of Sully, minister to Henry IV.

ROSOCZ, a small town in the south-east of Poland; 42 miles south-east of Siedlec.

ROSOLIS, or Ros-solis, popularly Rosa-solis, sun-dew, an agreeable spirituous liquor, formerly much in repute.

ROSOY, a petty town in the north of France, department of the Seine and Marne. It has a castle, and 1500 inhabitants; 17 miles north-east of Melun.

ROSOY, another petty town of the north of France, department of the Aisne, on the river Serre. Population 1400; 25 miles north-east of Laon.

ROSPUS, a name used by some authors for the Sea-devil.

ROSS (Alexander), was born at Aberdeen, and became master of the grammar school, at Southampton, and chaplain

lain to King Charles I. His works are numerous, of which the best known is "A view of all Religions," and a curious performance, called "Virgilius Evangelizans," taken wholly from the Æneid. He died in 1654, aged 61.

ROSS (John), a learned prelate, born in Herefordshire, and educated at St. John's college, Cambridge, who published a pamphlet in defence of Dr. Middleton, against the criticisms of Dr. Markland, and in 1749, an edition of Cicero's "Epistolæ ad Familiares," in two vols. 8vo. He died in 1792.

ROSS (John Lockhart), the fifth son of Sir James Lockhart, was born in November 1721, and having manifested an inclination for the sea service, he was, at the age of 14, placed under Captain Osborne, who then commanded his majesty's ship the Portland of 50 guns, which sailed in September, 1735, for Constantinople. He served in several different ships, and under different commanders, till 1743, when he was advanced to the rank of lieutenant. It was not till 1755, that he was appointed to a command, which was in the Savage sloop of war, of 12 guns and 70 men. In a very short time he took a St. Domingo merchant-man, valued at 30,000*l*. In the following year he was appointed to the command of the Tartar sloop of 24 guns, and 200 men. War was now declared against the French, and on the 20th of September, he chased and engaged two French frigates of 28 guns, and drove them into Morlaix. Without particularizing the instances of his success, we may observe that, between the 20th of September, 1756, and the 19th of October, 1758, he took nine privateers, containing 220 guns, and about 2500 men, with the loss of only five men killed and two wounded in the different engagements. At length the name of captain Lockhart was almost sufficient to terrify the enemy to strike. The following fact, which stands upon the most indubitable authority, shews in what manner he was regarded on the seas. A privateer belonging to Bristol, called the King George, and commanded by a Mr. Read, having fallen in with an enemy's ship of far superior force, during the night, and finding that the exigencies of her situation demanded the most prompt and vigorous exertions to preserve herself from capture, the commander ran with great spirit along-side, and hailing the enemy, commanded her to strike to the Tartar, Captain Lockhart, and was instantly obeyed without the smallest hesitation. Captain Lockhart's conduct in protecting the trade of the country was so meritorious, that the magistrates of Plymouth, immediately after his return to port, voted him the freedom of their corporation to be presented him in a gold box. A present equally honourable was made him the ensuing year, by the merchants and underwriters of London, which consisted of a silver cup and salver, curiously chased, and embossed with his arms, and the representation of the Tartar, and the several privateers which had been captured by him.

In 1759, he was promoted to the Chatham, of 50 guns, and had two smaller vessels put under his command. In a short cruise he took the Arethusa, a French frigate of 32 guns. In the following year he was promoted to the Bedford, a third rate, but did not long retain the command. In the same year, by the death of a brother, he changed his name to Ross, and was elected a representative in parliament. It was not till 1777 that he was called again to serve his country in the sea-service. In that year he was employed under the orders of Admiral Keppel, in the famous battle on the 27th of July. In 1779 he was raised to the rank of rear-admiral of the blue, and appointed fourth in command of the Channel fleet, having hoisted his flag on board the Royal George of 100 guns. About this period he succeeded his brother to the dignity of a baronet. He next accompanied Sir George Rodney on his fortunate expedition, undertaken for the relief of Gibraltar. After his return he went but little to sea; but in 1787 he was advanced to the rank of vice-admiral of the blue; and here closed the professional career of Sir John Lockhart Ross, who, considering his great zeal and activity in the prosecution of the duties of his profession, and the vast benefits which the commercial interests of his country reaped from his exertions, must be allowed to rank very high in his profession. His coolness and intrepidity in the hour of battle were never surpassed; and, in the course of a very long service, to fight and to conquer were alike habitual to him. He died in June, 1790, after a lingering and painful illness; and his remains were interred in the Ross aisle, forming the east end of the church of Fearn, which had been the burying-place of all the respectable families of the name of Ross for many ages. *Stockdale's edition of Campbell's Lives of the Admirals*, vol. vi.

ROSS, one of the most extensive counties in Scotland, extending from the eastern to the western seas, taking in the whole breadth of the island, and having the insular district of Lewis politically annexed to it. It is bounded on the north by Sutherland, on the east by Cromarty and the Moray frith, on the south by Inverness-shire, and on the west by the ocean, lying between 57. 8. and 57. 59. north lat. and between 4. 0. and 5. 46. west long. from Greenwich; towards the middle being 56 miles from north to south, but in other meridians form 23 to 34 miles; and its greatest extent from west to east exceeding 70 miles. It consists of about 2070 square miles, or 1,324,800 English acres. The form of this county is very irregular, being much indented by numerous lakes and friths, particularly the friths of Cromarty and Dornoch on the east coast, and on the west coast by Loch Carron, Loch Broom, and various other inlets of the sea, called lochs, which run a great way inland in different directions. The eastern coast of Ross-shire, to a short distance from the sea, is well improved, abundantly fertile, and ornamented with a variety of country seats. Beyond this track, the inland districts become rude, lofty, and terrific; but, though wild and mountainous, there are many pleasant glens, or valleys, which afford abundance of pasture for black cattle and sheep. The general aspect of the western districts is extremely uninviting to a stranger, as they exhibit vast piles of rocky mountains, with broken summits, and snowy glaciers lodged in their deep shaded recesses. Yet, even in that dreary and desolate region, there are some sheltered tracks of shallow and not unfruitful soil. Some of the mountains in this county are of great height. Benvaish is seen from a great distance; and its summit is almost perpetually covered with snow. There are many lakes of considerable extent in the valleys, the chief of which are Loch Mari, Loch Fannich, Loch Morrar, Loch Lichart, &c. which give rise to numerous rivers, that fertilise the valleys, and afford plenty of salmon and other fish to the inhabitants. The principal rivers are the Conon, the Orrin, the Beauly, which forms its boundary with Inverness-shire, and Oickel, which is the boundary with Sutherland. The valleys or straths are mostly covered with wood; indeed the whole country seems to have been an immense forest, the most considerable remain of which is the forest of Alfraig, which is nearly 20 miles in length. Great numbers of horses, black cattle, sheep, and goats, are fed on the hills, which also abound with game; and the sea, rivers, and lakes, teem with fish and water-fowl. The lochs, especially on the western coast, are finely adapted for fishing stations, as they are visited regularly by a shoal of herrings. This has induced the British society for the encouragement of the fisheries to erect one of their towns (Ullapool) on the coast of Loch Broom: but this trade is decaying, in consequence, it is said, of overfishing. This county is subdivided into many districts, the most considerable of which are the following:—Ferindonald, the country of the Munroes, comprehends the two parishes of Kiltearn and Kintail, and is remarkable for the diversity of its scenery, consisting of hills, mountains, lakes, rivers, woods, and plantations, interspersed with some cultivated fields on the north side of Cromarty frith. Freewater, Balnagowan, Derrymoor, &c. inland districts northward of Benvaish, are wild, rugged, and mountainous; but there are many valleys covered with natural wood, or pastures. Groinord, the north-west division of the shire, situated between Loch Broom and Loch Maree, comprehends an area of 400 square miles nearly. It is indented by inlets of the sea, along the borders of which are some strips of arable land. Gairloch is a mountainous and barren track, 25 miles long,

long, and from 5 to 12 broad, between Loch Maree and Loch Torridon, on the west coast. Applecross, between Loch Torridon and Loch Carron, has a triangular form of about 12 miles on every side. It is bleak, dreary, and mountainous, with a small proportion of arable land and pasture. Loch Carron, traversed by the river Carron, is a pleasant highland country, 20 miles from south-west to north-east, and 4 or 5 in breadth. Loch Alsh, between Loch Carron and Loch Luing, is a district about 18 miles long, and 4 broad, abounding in good pastures. Kintail is a mountainous district, 16 miles long, and from 5 to 8 broad, between Loch Duich and Loch Luing, opposite nearly to the east corner of Skye, and almost inaccessible by land. Glenshiel is a recluse glen, about 16 miles long, and from 2 to 6 broad, on the military road from Fort Augustus to Bernera, in Glenelg. The proprietors of Ross-shire have of late been attentive to the improvement of the country, by forming good roads, building bridges over every rivulet, and covering barren moors with plantations of fir, larch, oak, elm, and beech; and large tracks of waste ground have been brought under cultivation with the greatest success. It is said that the crops on many lands equal some of the finest of England; that a spirit of improvement is fast arising amongst the peasantry, and that in a short time the language, dress, and idle habits of the highlanders will be entirely superseded.

At present, a few of the Mackenzies, Rosses, Frazers, Mackays, Macraes, and Munroes, speak Gaelic and wear the highland garb. They count the Earl of Seaforth their head, as being the lineal descendant of Mackenzie, Lord Seaforth, who was attainted in 1719, for his concern in the rebellion. Ross-shire sends one member to parliament, and gives the Irish title of earl to the family of Gore. The minerals hitherto discovered are free-stone and lime-stone, often of the nature of marble and marle. Iron-stone is also abundant; and there is a tradition that it was smelted some hundred years ago on the banks of Loch Eu. A rich vein of silver and lead ore was lately discovered in the parish of Alness, on the estate of Munro and Lealdie. Attempts have been made for the discovery of coal, but the only stratum found is not more than 4 inches thick. This county contains three royal burghs, viz. Dingwall, Tain, and Fortrose. It is divided into 30 parochial districts, including the island of Lewis, which contain 60,853 inhabitants. The valued rent of Ross-shire, exclusive of Cromarty, is £75,043; and in 1811, the real land rent was estimated at £91,089 sterling: it is now with Cromarty about £80,000.

Ross-shire contains a considerable number of remains of antiquity, which are not unworthy of notice. These consist chiefly of Druidical temples, and Pictish or Danish forts, called Duns, and of the castles of the ancient chieftains. In the parish of Kiltearn, in the eastern district, is a Druidical temple, consisting of a row of twelve large stones, so disposed as to form two conjoined ovals. The area of each oval is 13 feet long and 10 feet broad in the centre. At the western extremity of one of them is a stone, which rises 8 feet above the surface of the ground; but the other stones do not exceed 6 feet in length. In the middle of the western oval is a flat stone, which was probably the altar; and at the distance of three paces from the eastern oval is a circular hollow, said to have been a well of considerable depth, but it is now filled up. These ovals occupy the summit of an eminence, round which are drawn three concentric circular ditches; and at the distance of half a mile to the westward is a cairn, 30 paces in diameter, containing in the centre a grave of 3½ feet long, 18 inches broad, and 14 deep, lined by four flat stones, and covered by another. Cairns are also numerous on the adjoining hill. In the parish of Nigg, on the same coast, stands a large obelisk, on one side of which are cut the figures of different animals, and on the other a cross. The former is supposed to be a much older work than the latter; and the tradition is, that the stone was erected in memory of a shipwreck, by which three sons of one of the Danish monarchs are said to have lost their lives, and their bodies are buried under the obelisk. The rock opposite, where the vessel struck, is from this circumstance still called the King's-Sons. Another obelisk, similar to the above, formerly stood in Nigg church-yard, but the base of it alone remains. Near Dunskeath, on the ledge of a rock over-hanging the Moray frith, are the remains of a castle, built in 1179, by William, surnamed the Lion, king of Scotland. In the parish of Kincardine is Craigchenican, where the gallant marquis of Montrose fought his last battle. He swam to Kyle, and lay some time concealed in Assint; but being discovered and apprehended he was sent prisoner to Inverness. The ground where the battle took place received its present name from the event of that memorable day. Near the church, in the same parish, is an alley walled in, and terminating in a large semicircle, appropriated to the military exercise and discipline, distinguished by the name of Weapon-shawing; and in the cemetery is a stone sculptured with an imperial crown, and a man on horseback, in the act of darting a lance. Tradition reports it to be the upper part of a stone coffin, in which the remains of a prince of Loellin, who died of his wounds in the neighbourhood, were deposited. In the same neighbourhood are also several Druidical circles, and likewise some of the round buildings which were formerly mentioned under the denomination of Picts-houses. Near Avoch, the foundations still remain of a large old castle, or fortalice. To this ruin tradition gives the name of Douglas castle. It is about 350 feet long and 160 feet broad, divided into numerous apartments, which appear to have been constructed of coarse red quarry-stone and lime, and was defended on one side by a deep fosse, and on another by bastions. Throughout every part of the eastern district are abundance of places where battles with the Danes and Norwegians, or between rival clans, are said to have been fought. Numbers of cairns point out the spots where the ashes of the dead have been deposited, though concerning most of them tradition is silent. In the parish of Eddertoun, however, on a plain to the west of the church, tradition says a great battle was fought against the Danes, one of whose princes, who fell in action, lies buried in the centre of a large circular barrow in the immediate vicinity. In the parish of Fearn are several Druidical temples; but the most interesting monuments of antiquity here are the abbey and castle of Lochlin. The abbey-church was long used for divine service, but is now in a state of ruin. The castle occupies the summit of a very lofty eminence, and is one of the most conspicuous objects in the country. It is built in the form of two squares, joined together at the corners. Another very ancient castle was situated at Cadboll, whence it derived its name. Few remains of it now exist, except the vaults under ground; but it deserves notice on account of a singular tradition concerning it, which is fully credited by the vulgar, viz. that though it was inhabited for many centuries, no person ever died in it; in short that it possessed a magical charm against death, though not against disease, or the evils attendant on extreme old age. Hence many of the inhabitants, it is said, when they became weary of life, requested to be carried out of the castle, that they might obtain relief. The castle of Craighouse, in the parish of Kirk-Michael, stands close to the shore, inclosed on the land side by a ditch and high wall. All the apartments of that portion of the mansion now most entire are vaulted with stone. This castle was long the property of the family of Williamson, who emigrated to Germany; it afterwards became the occasional residence of the bishops of Ross. In this vicinity is a great number of ancient encampments, likewise various tumuli and cairns. In Killernan parish are two ancient structures, Killcoy and Redcastle, of considerable strength. The latter was anciently of some importance. It was annexed to the crown in 1455, and was constituted a borough of barony, and a free-port, with the right of holding weekly markets, and levying toll and anchorage dues. Rory Mackenzie, the proprietor of Redcastle in 1646, having joined the rebellious standard of the gallant marquis of Montrose, was taken prisoner near Balveny, in Morayshire, and suffered the death of a traitor. During his absence the castle was garrisoned by his sons and dependants, but was soon after stormed and taken by a party of royalists, who put the garrison

rison to the sword and set fire to the buildings. In the mountainous peninsula of Kintail, on the west coast, stand the ruins of the castle of Donan, which was built by Alexander III, of Scotland, to resist the depredations of the Danes. Colin Fitzgerald, ancestor to the late Earl of Seaforth, was made constable of the castle, for his bravery at the battle of Largs, fougbt in 1263. In 1715 it was taken from the king's forces by stratagem; but two years afterwards, having been attacked on the sea-side, by a line-of-battle ship, it was demolished. In the front of a clergyman's house in Kintail stands Donan-Diarmed, or the fort of Diarmed. It is of a circular form, twenty feet in diameter, and of the same height. Diarmed's tomb is on the north-east side of the fort.

ROSS, a market-town and parish of England, in the county of Hereford, pleasantly situated on an eminence on the banks of the river Wye, in a fine healthy air. The streets are mostly on a slope, and are extremely rough and narrow. The church is a handsome building, having a tower and well-proportioned spire, rising from the west end. The views from the church-yard, and the contiguous prospect ground, are much celebrated. The market house is in a very decayed state, though erected so lately as the reign of Charles II. The bishops of Hereford had formerly a palace here, the site of which is still called the bishops' court. There are in the town two charity schools and an alms-house. The man of Ross, celebrated by Pope, was John Kyrle, who resided here, and spent his income in acts of benevolence and utility. He died in 1724, at the age of 84. He formed the prospect ground, a kind of pasture, and a fine broad causeway, extending from thence to the southward. He also raised the church spire 100 feet in height, and inclosed a piece of ground with a wall, and sunk a reservoir in the centre of it, for the use of the inhabitants. Ross was formerly a place of more importance than at present. In Camden's time, it was famous for its cyder, and for the manufacture of iron-wares. Its iron trade has declined, but it is still noted for its cyder. It was made a free borough by Henry III. It is governed by a serjeant and four constables, but their powers are very limited. Population 2261. Market on Thursday; 12 miles south-east of Hereford, and 115 west-by-north of London. Lat. 51. 54. N. long. 2. 35. W.

ROSS, a sea-port town of Ireland, in the county of Cork, on a bay to which it gives name; the see of a bishop, united to the see of Cork, in the year 1586. The harbour of Ross was formerly very famous; so that Ross Carbery became both a bishop's see, and a celebrated university. But the port being gradually filled up with sand, the place sunk from its former grandeur, though it still retains the title of a bishopric. The cathedral is a small Gothic structure; and the ruins of an old abbey still remain; 25 miles south-west of Cork. The harbour, a little to the south, is in lat. 51. 34. N. long. 8. 58. W.

ROSS, the former name of the greater part of the island of Mull, in Scotland, which was named the parish of Ross; but about 1720 it was divided into two parishes, viz. Torosay and Kilfinichen, and Kilviceuen.

ROSS, a parish of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles from Partington.

ROSS, a township of the United States, in Allegany county, Pennsylvania; Population 1327.

ROSS, a county of the United States in Ohio, watered by the Scioto. Population, 15,514; chief town, Chilicothe.

ROSS ISLAND, a peninsula of Ireland, on the south-west part of Killala bay.

ROSS, New, a seaport town of Ireland, in the county of Wexford, pleasantly situated on a large stream formed by the junction of the Nore and the Barrow. The river is navigable up to the town, and vessels of 400 tons burden can lie close to the quay. This ensures a considerable trade, and a great deal of butter and beef is exported. Here are the ru ns of some religious houses. It was formerly a place of great strength, being surrounded with high walls, towers, and bastions. It made, however, a feeble defence against Cromwell, though defended by a numerous garrison. In the year 1798, the old walls were destroyed. A battle was fought here in 1798, supposed to be the most bloody during the insurrection: the loss of the royal army, who were victorious, amounted to 230 killed and wounded, of whom 90 fell on the field. The conquered lost nearly 2000. New Ross sends one member to the imperial parliament; 17 miles west of Wexford, and 11 north-east of Waterford. Lat. 52. 22. N. long. 6. 58. W.

ROSS, Old, a town of Ireland, in the county of Wexford. In 1798, the church of this place was burned during the insurrection; 3 miles east of New Ross.

ROSSALL, a village of England, in Yorkshire, on the banks of the Derwent, north-west of Wilton.

ROSSALL, Up and Down, two villages of England, in Salop, situated on the banks of the Severn, north-west of Shrewsbury.

ROSSANO, a town of Italy, in the south of the kingdom of Naples, in Calabria Citra. It is situated on a rocky eminence, is the see of an archbishop, and contains a population of 7000. The environs are fertile, and produce abundance of olives, capers, and saffron. It is said, that so lately as the 16th century, the inhabitants of this town spoke the Greek language, and followed the rites of the Greek church; 30 miles north-east of Cosenza, and 110 north-north-east of Reggio. Lat. 39. 38. N. long. 16. 44. E.

ROSSBERG, a mountain of the interior of Switzerland, near the east bank of the lake of Zug, and not far from the great mountain of Rige. A dreadful calamity was occasioned by the fall of part of this mountain, in 1806. A long continuance of heavy rain had loosened the rock, which is naturally of a crumbling quality, and an immense mass detached itself, covering with desolation the adjacent valley of Goldau. Part of it extended to the lake of Lowerz, which rose above its banks: a great number of cattle perished, and above 100 human lives were lost by this disaster.

ROSSBODENSTOK, a great mountain among the Alps, in the south of the Swiss canton of Berne, 8735 feet in perpendicular height.

ROSSCHOKA, a river of Asiatic Russia, which falls into the Indigirka. Lat. 67. 50. N. long. 140. 14. E.

ROSSDORF, a small town to the west of Germany, in Hesse-Darmstadt, with 1200 inhabitants.

ROSSDORF, a small town of the interior of Germany, in the duchy of Saxe-Meinungen. Population 900; 10 miles north-north-west of Meinungen.

ROSSEL, a small town of East Prussia; 51 miles south-south-east of Konigsberg. Population 2300.

RO'SSEL, *s.* A true *rossel* or light land, whether white or black, is what tbey are usually planted in. *Mortimer.*

RO'SSELLY, *adj.* In Essex, moory land is thought to be most proper: that which I have observed to be the best soil is a *rossely* top, and a brick earthy bottom. *Mortimer.*

ROSSENA, a small town of Italy, in the duchy of Parma; 14 miles south-south-east of Parma.

ROSSHAUPTEN, a large village of Bavaria, near Augsburg, with 1000 inhabitants.

ROSSI (Gian-Vittorio), (Latin, Janus Nicius Erythreus,) an Italian man of letters, was born of a good family at Rome, 1577. He was educated under the Jesuits of the Roman college, where he joined the studies of law and pbilosophy to that of polite literature, till being disappointed in his views with respect to the first of these pursuits, he limited his attention to the last. His first publication was a kind of satire on the corrupt manners of the Romans, entitled, "Eudemiæ, Lib. X.," 8vo., which is rather declamatory than philosophical. He also published two volumes of "Epistles," addressed to Cardinal Chigi, afterwards Alexander VI. His principal work is entitled "Pinnotheca Imaginum illustrium Virorum," being eulogies or biographical accounts of many learned men his contemporaries.

ROSSI (Girolamo), (Latin, Hieron. Rubeus,) a physician and man of letters, was born of an ancient family at Ravenna, in 1539. His progress in literature was so rapid, that he was appointed at the age of 15 to compliment Cardinal Farnese, Archbishop of Ravenna, in a Latin oration, which

which was greatly applauded; and from that time, on almost every public occasion of the like kind, he was chosen to perform the office of orator. His education was completed at Rome and other seats of academical instruction, through the care of an uncle, who was afterwards general of the Carmelites. The profession he chose was that of medicine, in which he became so eminent, that several cities offered him a large salary to become their public physician. The work for which this writer is principally commemorated, is his "Historiarum Ravennatum, Lib. X.," first printed at the expense of the senate of that city in 1572, folio, and reprinted, with the addition of one book and other augmentations, in 1589. The first edition is in request on account of some passages which are omitted in the second. This history is written in a polished and dignified Latin style; and on account of its learned researches into antiquity, and the light it throws upon Italian history in general, it brought much honour to the author during his life, and has ever since been regarded as one of the best productions of that age. He published various other works on medical and miscellaneous topics. *Moreri. Tiraboschi.*

ROSSIA, or Capo Rossia, a promontory of Naples, in Calabria Citra, in the bay of Rossano.

ROSSIE, a township of the United States, in Lawrence county, New York.

ROSSIGNOL, a port on the south coast of Nova Scotia, to the south-west of Port de l'Heve.

ROSSIGNOL, a considerable lake of Nova Scotia, between Liverpool and Annapolis.

ROSSINGTON, a parish of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 4½ miles north-west of Bawtry.

ROSKEEN, a parish of Scotland, in Ross-shire, the inhabited part of which extends about 10 miles in length from the coast of the frith of Cromarty, and about 6 miles in breadth; but the mountainous district extends much farther. The soil upon the coast is partly gravelly and partly loam; above this it becomes clay and wet, and the interior is only fit for pasture. Population 2390.

ROSSLEBEN, a small town of Prussian Saxony, in the government of Merseburg, on the river Unstrut. Here is a celebrated free school, formerly a convent. Population 1100; 23 miles west of Merseburg, and 3 north of Wiehe.

ROSSMORE ISLAND, a small island of Ireland, in Kenmare river; 9 miles south-west of Kenmare. Lat. 51. 48. N. long. 9. 44. E.

ROSSO (del Rosso), an Italian painter, called by the French Maitre Roux, was born at Florence, in 1496. Without any regular instruction, he acquired the art of painting from the study of the works of Michael Angelo and other masters, and formed a style of his own, which, with some extravagance of conception, combined much life, expression, force of colouring, and grandeur of grouping. After a variety of fortune in his own country, and the loss of all his property at the sack of Rome, he visited France, where he was taken into the service of Francis I., and was highly favoured by that friend to the arts. He had a good figure, and possessed various talents and acquirements, being an anatomist, poet, musician, and architect. The king made him superintendant of all his works at Fontainebleau, where he erected the little gallery, which he decorated with many curious works of art, and especially with 14 large pieces by his own hand, representing the actions of Francis I., and stories from ancient history and mythology. These display great facility of invention and boldness of execution; and with his other works are sufficient to denominate him a man of genius, if not a faultless artist. "His great merit (says Mr. Fuseli) in general consists in the principal group, and the diffusion of that dying and nearly nocturnal light which tones the whole with sombre gravity." He particularly excelled in painting women, and the heads of old men. Several of his works at Fontainebleau were destroyed by his rival Primaticcio to make room for his own. Rosso was richly remunerated by Francis, and lived in great prosperity, when an event happened which proved his ruin. He was often visited by a Florentine painter named Pellegrino, with whom he was on terms of intimacy. Having been robbed of a large sum of money, he suspected this man, and caused him to be apprehended and put to the torture to force confession. Pellegrino sustained the trial with fortitude, and being discharged as innocent, commenced a prosecution against Rosso. This artist, overwhelmed with remorse and the fear of infamy, swallowed poison, and died in 1541, much regretted by the king, who regarded him as the ablest painter who had ever visited France. Many of his works are seen in the cities of Italy, as well as at Fontainebleau. A considerable number have been engraved. *D'Argenville. Pilkington.*

ROSSTRAPPE, a valley of Prussian Saxony, among the Hartz mountains, near the village of Thala. It is one of the most romantic and beautiful parts of this extensive mountain track, and has a fine cascade formed by the river Bude.

ROSSVILLE, a post village of the United States, in York county, Pennsylvania.

ROSSVILLE, a township of the United States, in Butler county, Ohio, on the great Miami, opposite Hamilton. Population 1321.

ROSVILLE, a township of the United States, in the New Madrid district, territory of the Missouri.

ROSVILLE, a post village of the Cherokee nation, on the south side of the Tennessee river, four or five miles below the mouth of Chickamaugah creek, and 50 south-south-west of Washington Tennessee.

ROSSWAG, a small town of Austrian Silesia; 6 miles north of Jagerndorf.

ROSSWEIN, or Ruspen, a small town of Germany, in Saxony, on the river called the Freyberg Mulda; 24 miles west of Dresden. Population 2700. They are employed chiefly in weaving softer kinds of woollen, such as flannel, baize, duffle, &c.

ROST (John Christopher), a German poet, was born at Leipsic in 1717. He received a good education, and applied with great assiduity to jurisprudence, antiquities, and the belles-lettres. His principal instructor was Ernesti; but he studied philosophy also under Hoffman, and attended the lectures of Gottsched, to whose praise he devoted the first fruits of his muse, though he afterwards wrote against him a satirical poem, which was published in 1743. It is said to be the best of his productions, and to abound with genuine and delicate wit. About this period, the German poetry possessed nothing of the pastoral kind which could serve as a model; but as Rost had a genius suited to this species of writing, he made some attempts in it about the year 1735. These pastorals were printed at Berlin, in 1742; but they deserve, it is said, no praise for their morality, as vice is exhibited in them under the captivating form of innocence. A new edition of them appeared at Dresden in 1744, entitled "An Attempt at pastoral Poetry, with other poetical Pieces," and a third was published in 1768. In 1746, Rost was appointed secretary and librarian to Count Bruhl, and died in 1765, in the forty-eighth year of his age. His miscellaneous poems were published, after his death, in 1769. *Grohmann.*

ROSTGAARD (Frederick), a learned Danish writer, was born in Kraagerup in Zealand, in 1671. He received the early part of his education in the school of Copenhagen, and in 1690, undertook a tour through Europe, in the course of which he paid a visit to the most celebrated Universities of Germany, Holland, England, France, and Italy. He died in 1745, and bequeathed to the library of the University of Copenhagen a great many of his manuscripts and several printed books, consisting mostly of historical works, together with a fount of Arabic and Persian types. Among his literary labours were the following: "Deliciæ Poetarum Danorum," Lugd. Bat. 1693. 12mo. 2 tom.; "A Danish Translation of Corneille's Cid." Paris, 1696, 4to.; "Project d'une nouvelle Methode pour dresser le Catalogue d'une Bibliothèque selon les Matieres, avec le Plan;" "Enchiridion studiosi, Arabice cum Versione Latina, edit. ab Hadriano Relando;" "Variantes Lectiones ad Thucydidem." He collected also with great care, and at considerable expense, in various parts of France and Italy, manuscripts of "Libanii Epistolæ," from

from which the edition of J. C. Wolf, of Hamburgh, was published, Amst. 1738, fol. It was through Rostgaard's exertions that the "Fragmentum Theotiscum Isidosi Hispalensis" was brought to light, and published in the second volume of the Danish Bibliothèque. He wrote likewise a great many Latin and Danish poems, and was employed for several years on a Danish Lexicon, as well as in collecting rare Arabic and Greek manuscripts and heraldic documents relating to the Danish nobility. *Jens Worm.*

ROST, a term used by the miners at Chremnitz, to express the ore of gold after it has been washed and powdered, and melted first with lime stone, and afterwards burnt with charcoal alone.

ROSTAK, a city of Ommon, in Arabia, the residence of the Imam, though all the intercourse with Europeans is carried on by the port of Maskat. It stands at some distance from the sea, near Jebel Akdar, the largest and highest mountain in Ommon, and distinguished for its fertility in fruits, especially grapes; 70 miles west of Maskat.

ROSTAC, a village of Laristan, in Persia: 70 miles south of Lar.

ROSTAN, a village of Syria, in the pachalic of Damascus; 45 miles north-north-east of Damascus.

ROSTHERN, a parish of England, in Cheshire; 3½ miles north-by-west of Nether Knutsford.

ROSTINO, a small town of Corsica, a little to the north-east of Bastia.

ROSTOCK, a large town of the north of Germany, in the grand-duchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, situated on the river Warrow, eight miles from its mouth. It is surrounded with old fortifications, has three suburbs, and is divided into three parts, the old, middle, and new towns, but the whole is built in an old fashioned style. It is the largest place of the grand duchy, containing nearly 13,000 inhabitants, and is the seat of the highest ecclesiastical and civil courts. It is also the only seaport of consequence in the states of the grand duke, and has long enjoyed certain immunities, having been a member of the Hanseatic confederacy. Its vessels bear the flag, not of Mecklenburg, but of Rostock; and appeals in certain law-suits are carried before the chamber of Lubeck. This town contains a grand ducal mansion, and a university on a small scale, the number of students varying from 160 to 180, but that of professors exceeding 20. Here is a museum, a botanical garden, a public library, and a seminary for educating country teachers and clergymen. Here is also a poor-house and a Lutheran convent.

The trade of Rostock is carried on chiefly with Holland, England, and the seaports of the Baltic. Its chief export is corn; its imports, more varied, consist of sugar, rum, coffee, tobacco, and bay-salt; the latter in large quantities. Small vessels, drawing only eight feet of water, are enabled to come up to the town: those of larger size unload at Warnemunde (the mouth of the Warnow), where there is very good anchorage. The annual number of arrivals, great and small, is about 600 sail; the value of the exports from 150,000*l.* to 200,000*l.* Rostock has various manufactures on a small scale, viz. canvas, linen, ships'-anchors, soap, vinegar; also some breweries, distilleries, and sugar refineries. From its exposed situation, it was repeatedly occupied by hostile troops in the course of the 18th century, but fortunately without standing a siege. It was the birth-place of Marshal Blucher, and is 40 miles west-south-west of Stralsund.

ROSTORF, a large village in the south of Hanover, province of Gottingen; 3 miles south-west of Gottingen.

ROSTOV, a town of the central part of European Russia in the government of Jaroslav, on a beautiful lake called Nero. It is a straggling place, is divided into the town and the suburb, and is above five miles in circumference; but the number of inhabitants does not much exceed 5000. It contains an ancient and richly ornamented cathedral, an archiepiscopal mansion, a seminary, and five churches. Some of its traders carry on an intercourse with Astracan, Moscow, and St. Petersburg. Of the lower classes, a number are gardeners, and some of them are known to go to Poland for employment; 40 miles south-south-west of Jaroslav.

ROSTOV, a fortified town of the south-east of European Russia, on the Don, between Azov and Tscherkask. The inhabitants are a mixture of Russians, Don Cossacks, and Greeks.

RO'STRAL, *adj.* [from *rostrum*, Lat. "*rostrata* corona," a garland given to a captain for a victory at sea.] Having some resemblance to a beak of a ship, or rostrum.—Commerce wore a *rostral* crown upon her head, and kept her eyes fixed on a compass. *Tatler.*

RO'STRATED, *adj.* [*rostratus*, Lat.] Adorned with the beaks of ships.—He brought to Italy an hundred and ten *rostrated* galleys of the fleet of Mithridates. *Arbuthnot.*

ROSTRENEN, a small town in the north-west of France, in Brittany, department of the Côtes du Nord, near the river Blavet. The neighbouring country contains good pastures. Population 1500; 25 miles south-south-west of Guingamp, and 33 south-west of St. Brieux.

RO'STRUM, *s.* [Lat.] The beak of a bird; the beak of a ship; the scaffold whence orators harangued.—Vespasian erected a column in Rome, upon whose top was the prow of a ship, in Latin *rostrum*, which gave name to the common pleading place in Rome, where orations were made, being built of the prows of those ships of Antium, which the Romans overthrew. *Peacham.*

Myself shall mount the *rostrum* in his favour,
And strive to gain his pardon from the people. *Addison.*

The pipe which conveys the distilling liquor into its receiver in the common alembicks; also a crooked scissors, which the surgeons use in some cases for the dilatation of wounds. *Quincy.*

ROSWEIDE (Heribert), a learned Dutch Jesuit, and voluminous writer in ecclesiastical antiquities, was born at Utrecht, in the year 1569. He entered among the disciples of Loyola, at Doway in Flanders, when he was twenty years of age, and soon discovered the subjects of study peculiarly adapted to his genius, by spending the time which he was allowed to devote to exercise and recreation, in examining the libraries of the monasteries in that city, and rescuing the ancient manuscripts deposited in them from dust and oblivion. His days were shortened by a malignant fever, caught from a person whom he charitably attended on his death-bed, which carried him off in the year 1629, at the age of 60. He published "Fasti sanctorum quorum Vitæ in Belgicis Bibliothecis Manuscriptæ asservantur;" "Notationes in Vetus Martyrologium hactenus desideratum a Baronio, et aliis," 1613, folio; "Martyrologium, Adonis, Archiepiscopi Viennensis, &c." of the same date, which was reprinted at Paris in 1645, and at Rome in 1745, in 2 vols. folio; "Vitæ Patrum, seu, de Vita et Verbis seniorum Lib. X. Historiarum Heremeticam complectentes, &c.;" "Vindiciæ Kempenses," 1717, 12mo., in support of the claims of Thomas à Kempis to the celebrated book, "De Imitatione Christi;" "Joannes Buschius de Origine Cænobii, et Capituli Windeshinnensis," 1621, 8vo.; "D. Paulini Episcopi Nolani Opera, notis illustrata," 1622, 8vo.; some controversial pieces against Isaac Casaubon, in defence of Baronius, and against Joseph Scaliger, in defence of Justus Lipsius; together with the following works in the dialect of the Low-Countries: "The Lives of the Saints," 1619, folio, and in subsequent editions enlarged into 2 vols.; "An account of the Hermits of Egypt and Palestine," 1619, 4to.; "An Ecclesiastical History from the Time of Christ to Pope Urban VIII.," 1623, in 2 vols. folio; "The history of the Belgic Church," of the same date, in folio, &c. *Sotvelli Bibl. Script. Soc. Moreri.*

ROSY, *adj.* [*roseus*, Lat.] Resembling a rose in bloom, beauty, colour or fragrance.

A smile that glow'd
Cœlestial *rosy*-red, love's proper hue. *Milton.*

Made in the form of a rose.

His cloak with orient velvet quite lined through,
His *rosy* ties and garters so o'erblown. *B. Jonson.*

ROSYCRUSIANS, ROSACRUCIANS, or *Brothers of the Rosy-cross*, a name assumed by a sect or cabal of hermetical philosophers,

philosophers, or of Theosophists; who arose, as it has been said, or at least became first taken notice of, in Germany, in the beginning of the 14th century.

They bound themselves together by a solemn secret, which they all swore inviolably to preserve; and obliged themselves, at their admission into the order, to a strict observance of certain established rules.

They pretended to know all sciences, and chiefly medicine; of which they published themselves the restorers. They pretended to be masters of abundance of important secrets; and, among others, that of the philosopher's stone; all which they have affirmed to have received by tradition from the ancient Egyptians, Chaldeans, the Magi, and Gymnosophists.

Their chief was a German gentleman, called Christian Rosencruz, educated in a monastery, where he learnt the languages. About the close of the 14th century, he went to the Holy Land, and visited the holy sepulchre; and falling sick at Damascus, he consulted the Arabs, and other eastern philosophers, by whom he was supposed to be initiated into this wonderful art. At his return into Germany, he formed a society, to whom he communicated the secrets he had brought with him out of the East, under an inviolable oath of secrecy, and finally died in 1484.

This society remained concealed till the beginning of the 17th century, when two books were published; the one entitled "Fama Fraternitatis laudabilis Ordinis Rosæcrusis," The Report of the laudable Fraternity of Rosicrucians; the other, "Confessio Fraternitatis," The Confession of the Fraternity. In these works the world was informed, that the fraternity was enabled, by divine revelation, to explain the most important secrets both of nature and grace; that they were appointed to correct the errors of the learned world; particularly in philosophy and medicine; that they were possessed of the philosopher's stone, and understood both the art of transmuting metals and of prolonging human life; and in fine, that by their means the golden age would return. As soon as these grand secrets were divulged, the whole tribe of the Paracelsists, Theosophists, and chemists, flocked to the Rosicrucian standard, and every new and unheard-of mystery was referred to this fraternity. Various were the opinions that were formed of this society; but though its laws and statutes had appeared, no one could tell where the society itself was to be found, or who really belonged to it. It was imagined by some sagacious observers, that a certain important meaning was concealed under the story of the Rosicrucian fraternity, though they were wholly unable to say what it was. One conjectured that some chemical mystery lay hid behind the allegorical tale; another supposed that it foretold some great ecclesiastical revolution. At last Michael Brele, in the year 1620, had the courage publicly to declare, that he certainly knew the whole story to have been the contrivance of some ingenious persons, who chose to amuse themselves by imposing upon the public credulity. This declaration raised a suspicion against the whole story; and as no one undertook to contradict it, this wonderful society daily vanished, and the rumours which had been spread concerning it ceased. The whole was probably a contrivance to ridicule the pretenders to secret wisdom and wonderful power, particularly the chemists, who boasted that they possessed the philosopher's stone. It has been conjectured, says Brucker, and the satirical turn of his writings, and several particular passages in his works, favour the conjecture, that this farce was invented and performed, in part at least, by John Valentine Andrea, a divine of Wurtenburg.

Their society is frequently signed by the letters F. R. C., which some among them interpret *fratres roris cocti;* it being pretended, that the matter of the philosopher's stone is dew concocted, exalted, &c.

Some, who are no friends to free-masonry, make the present flourishing society of free-masons a branch of Rosicrucians; or rather the Rosicrucians themselves, under a new name or relation; viz. as retainers to building. And it is certain, there are some free-masons who have all the characters of Rosicrucians; but how the era and original of masonry, as traced by Mr. Anderson, and that of Rosicrucianism, here fixed from Naudæus, who has written expressly on the subject, consist, we leave others to judge.

Notwithstanding the pretended antiquity of the Rosicrucians, it is probable that the alchemists, Paracelsists, or *fire philosophers*, who spread themselves through almost all Europe, about the close of the 16th century, assumed, about this period, the obscure and ambiguous title of Rosicrucian brethren, which commanded, at first, some degree of respect, as it seemed to be borrowed from the arms of Luther, which were a cross placed upon a rose.

ROSZ, a river of Prussian Poland, in Podolia, which falls into the Dnieper.

To ROT, *v. n.* [ꝏtian, Sax. *rotten*, Dutch.] To putrify; to lose the cohesion of its parts.—A man may *rot* even here. *Shakspeare.*

From hour to hour we ripe and ripe,
And then from hour to hour we *rot* and *rot*. *Shakspeare.*

To ROT, *v. a.* To make putrid; to bring to corruption.

Frowning Auster seeks the southern sphere,
And *rots*, with endless rain, th' unwholesome year. *Dryden.*

ROT, *s.* Putrefaction; putrid decay.

Brandy scarce prevents the sudden *rot*
Of freezing nose, and quick decaying feet. *Philips.*

A distemper among sheep. See Ovis.—This disease is readily known to experienced shepherds by a careful examination of the eye; for when the blood-vessels of the tunica albuginea, or white, being brought into view, are red, and in great numbers, the sheep is supposed to be in good health; but if they are pale, and the veins are in small quantities, and faint-coloured, or livid, the sheep is in a debilitated state, or afflicted with the rot. By thus examining the eyes in dangerous seasons, shepherds may always discover the rot before the sheep begin to shrink, and, consequently, in time to prevent any material injury.

Dr. Harrison, of Lincolnshire, has traced the nature and effects of the disease in the following manner: when in warm, sultry, and rainy weather, sheep that are grazing on low and moist lands feed rapidly, and some of them die suddenly, there is reason to fear that they have contracted the rot. This suspicion will be further increased, if, in a few weeks afterwards the sheep begin to shrink, and become flaccid in their loins. By pressure about the hips at this time, a crackling is sometimes perceptible, and upon parting the fleece, the wool is easily separated from the pelt. As the disorder advances, the skin becomes dappled with yellow, or black spots. To this succeed debility and emaciation, which increase continually till the sheep die; or else ascites, and perhaps general dropsy supervene, before the fatal termination. These symptons are rendered more severe by an obstinate purging, which comes on at an uncertain period of the disorder. In the progress of the complaint, sheep become what the graziers call chockered, that is, affected with a swelling under the jaws, which proceeds from a fluid contained in the cellular membrane, under the throat. And our author adds, that in five or six days after contracting the rot, the thin edge of the small lobe of the liver becomes of a transparent white, or blueish colour, and this spreads along the upper and lower sides, according to the severity of the complaint. Sometimes it does not extend more than an inch from the margin. In severe cases, the whole peritoneum investing the liver is diseased; and then it commonly assumes an opaque colour, interspersed with dark red lines or patches. The upper part of the liver is sometimes speckled like the body of a toad, to which it is said to bear a striking resemblance; round the ductus communis choledocus and hepatic vessels, a jelly-like matter is deposited, which varies according to the severity of the attack, from a table-spoonful, or less, to five or six times that quantity. Upon boiling, the liver loses its firmness, and separates into small pieces in the water, or remains soft and flaccid. And it

it is observed, that graziers and butchers having remarked that sheep are much disposed to feed during the first three or four weeks after being tainted, avail themselves of this circumstance very commonly to increase their profits. When the first stage is over, flukes begin to appear in the pori biliarii, the ductus communis choledocus, and in the gall-bladder. At first the number of these creatures is small; but as the disease advances they increase, and before death, are often very numerous. In the last part of the complaint, they are sometimes to be found in the stomach as well as in the intestines and liver. This, like the visceral disorders of the human body, may terminate in effusion or suppuration, or schirrus. Thus, when sheep die suddenly in the first stage of the disorder, an effusion of serum, or of wheyish-coloured fluid, may be commonly discovered in the cavity of the abdomen, and then the peritoneum surrounding the liver is generally covered with a membrane or coat of coagulable lymph.

Abscesses in the liver exhibit another termination of this malady. They are seldom considerable enough to kill immediately; but, in consequence of the absorption of purulent matter from them, the sheep frequently waste away, and die hectical or dropsical. When the collections are small, sheep will recover sufficiently to bear lambs, for three or four seasons, and afterwards become tolerable mutton. But the most common termination is in schirri, or what the shepherds call knots in the liver. The whole substance of this important viscus has been found so full of small roundish lumps, or schirrous bodies, that it was difficult to find any sound part in it. The first attack is unfortunately so very insidious, that the disorder is scarcely observable before the animal begins to waste and lose flesh. In this advanced state it is said to labour under the rot or pourriture, from overlooking the commencement of the disorder. And hydatids are observed to effect schirrous and purulent livers more frequently than others. When livers are much diseased, the butcher carefully conceals them from the public eye. To him it is always a matter of surprise to find the mutton saleable in these severe cases. It shews, in an extraordinary manner, the accommodating power of living matter, which is able to maintain life, and increase corpulence, under such unfavourable circumstances. Shepherds and breeders, who make it a general rule to kill every sheep that becomes indisposed, from an opinion that very few of them ever recover from any illness, would do well to examine the livers and other viscera of slaughtered sheep. By such a practice they would soon be convinced that sheep are able to endure a great deal.

In respect to the cause of the disease, it seems to be occasioned by poisonous effluvia, which, under certain circumstances, are emitted from marshy soils, and that the only dependence in the cure of this affection is to be placed upon the removal of sheep into dry situations, keeping them warm and sheltered, and giving them dry food in the yard.

We have already in the article Ovis, before referred to, spoken of the use of salt, and we may add, that turpentine, in doses of a table spoonful every third night has also been much extolled, but we have no faith in any thing, without the removal of the *cause*. See Ovis, p. 99.

ROT, in Timber. See Dry Rot and Timber.

ROTA, *s.* A particular court of papal jurisdiction, consisting of twelve doctors.—Staphileus, dean of the *rota*, was there. *Burnet.*—A club of politicians, who, when the government of this country so often wavered in 1659, were for contriving an equal government by rotation.

Sidrophel, as full of tricks
As *rota* men of politicks,
Straight cast about to over-reach
The unwary conqueror with a fetch. *Hudibras.*

ROTA, a town in the south-west of Spain, in Andalusia, situated on the Atlantic, on the north side of Cadiz bay. It contains 6000 inhabitants, and has a castle and a monastery, but is most remarkable for the wine which is produced on the hills around the town. This wine, called in England tent, is thick, heating, and aromatic, and is considered as one of the best kinds produced in the peninsula. This town suffered, like Cadiz, by the prevalence of a malignant fever, in 1800 and 1819; 7 miles north-north-west of Cadiz.

ROTA, a village in the south part of the kingdom of Naples, in Calabria Citra, district of Bisignano, with 800 inhabitants.

ROTACEÆ, in Botany, the 20th natural order among the fragmenta of Linnæus, named from *rota*, a wheel, in allusion to the form of the corolla, which is wheel-shaped, rotata. The genera stand thus: trientalis, centunculus, anagallis, lysimachia, phlox, exacum, chlora, gentiana, swertia, chironia, and sarothra. To which are subjoined, in a separate section, ascyrum, hypericum, and cistus.

ROTAH, or Rattah, a pass in the mountain of Bahar, province of Mougier. It formerly possessed a fort, which commanded the road. Lat. 24. 55. N. long. 87. 7. E.

ROTAI, or Rotte, a small island in the Eastern seas. A Dutch factor resides here to trade with the natives. The chief article is sugar; 27 miles south-west of Timor.

ROTALA, in Botany, a genus of the class triandria, order monogynia, natural order of caryophylleæ.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, tubular, membranaceous, three-toothed, permanent. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments three, capillary, the length of the calyx; anthers roundish. Pistil: germ superior, ovate; style filiform; stigma trifid. Pericarp: capsule ovate, subtrigonal, inclosed within the calyx, three-celled, three-valved; seeds very many, roundish.—*Essential Character.* Calyx three-toothed. Corolla none. Capsule three-celled, many seeded.

Rotala verticillaris.—This is an annual plant, with a simple creeping root. Stem ascending, a palm high, round, jointed, even. Branches quite simple, stiff; the lower opposite, the upper alternate, fewer; the joints below round, above somewhat four-cornered. Leaves in fours, sometimes on the branches from five to eight, sessile, linear, sharpish, even, somewhat keeled, spreading. Flowers in fours, one from each axil of the leaves, sessile, small. Calyx covering the whole capsule, very finely membranaceous. Fruit the size of mustard seed. Whorls remote.—Native of the East Indies.

RO'TARY, *adj.* [*rota*, Lat.] Whirling as a wheel.

ROTAS. See Rhotas.

RO'TATED, *adj.* [*rotatus*, Lat.] Whirled round.

ROTA'TION, s. [*rotatio*, Lat.] The act of whirling round like a wheel; the state of being so whirled round; whirl.—Of this kind in some disposition of bodies to *rotation* from east to west; as the main float and refloat of the sea, by consent of the universe as a part of the diurnal motion. *Bacon.*—Vicissitude of succession.—This is all the possible *rotation* our speculative state-botcher can in reason promise to himself. *Butler.*

For the laws of rotation, see Mechanics, p. 623.

ROTA'TOR, *s.* [Lat.] That which gives a circular motion.—This articulation is strengthened by strong muscles, on the inside by the triceps and the four little *rotators*. *Wiseman.*

RO'TATORY, *adj.* [*rotatus*, Lat.] Whirling; running round with celerity. Dr. Johnson thus defines the second sense of *giddy*, with *rotatory* prefixed.—The ball and socket joint allows a *rotatory* or sweeping motion. *Paley.*

ROTAU, Upper and Lower, two large villages of the north-west of Bohemia, near the town of Heinrichsgrun. They contain a number of iron mines and forges.

ROTCHET, an English name for the fish called by authors *cuculus*, and more frequently by us the red *gurnard*. See Trigla Cuculus.

ROTE, *s.* [*Rote*, old Fr. from the Lat. *rota*, a wheel.] What we call the hurdy-gurdy; a musical instrument, frequently mentioned in the French Fabliaux, and supposed to mean the valle, an instrument played with a wheel, instead of a bow.—Wel, couthe he sing, and playen on a *rote*. *Chaucer.*

There did he find, in her delicious bower,
The faire Pæana playing on a *rote*. *Spenser.*

[*Rotine*,

[*Rotine*, old Fr. *par rotine*, by rote. *Cotgrave.*] Words uttered by mere memory without meaning; memory of words without comprehension of the sense.

First rehearse this song by *rote*,
To each word a warbling note. *Shakspeare.*

Learn Aristotle's rules by *rote*,
And at all hazards boldly quote. *Swift.*

To ROTE, *v. a.* To fix in the memory, without informing the understanding.

Speak to the people
Words *roted* in your tongue; bastards and syllables
Of no allowance to your bosom's truth. *Shakspeare.*

To ROTE, *v.* [*rota*, Lat.] To go out by rotation or succession.—A third part of the senate, or parliament, should *rote* out by ballot every year, and new ones be chosen in their room. *Grey.*

ROTEBRO, a small town of Sweden, in the province of Upland; 30 miles north-north-west of Stockholm.

ROTELE, a name by which some call the *rutilus latior*, or *rubellus fluviatilis*, more frequently known by the name of the roach. See CYPRINUS.

ROTENBURG, a small town in the interior of Switzerland, on the river Rothbach, over which there is here a stone bridge. It is said to have been formerly a place of more importance; 4 miles north of Lucerne.

ROTENBURG, a small town of the north of Germany, in Hanover, on the river Wumme. It was considered a very important position in the war of 1756. Population 800; 24 miles east of Bremen, and 14 north-north-east of Verden.

ROTGANS (Luke), a Dutch poet, was born of a distinguished family at Amsterdam, in 1645. He died of the small pox in 1710, in his 66th year. Rotgans was the author of a number of poems, greatly esteemed in his own country. One of these is a "Life of William III. in eight books," a poem of the epic class. His other pieces are moral and miscellaneous, and, with two tragedies, were printed at Lewarden, in 1715, 4to. *Moreri.*

ROTGEN, a large village of the Prussian province of the Lower Rhine, near Eschweiler, with 800 inhabitants. There are large coal mines in the neighbourhood.

ROTGUT, *s.* Bad beer.—They overwhelm their paunch daily with a kind of flat *rotgut*, we with a bitter dreggish small liquor. *Harvey.*

ROTH, a small town of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg. Population 900; 25 miles south of Ulm, and 12 east-south-east of Biberach.

ROTHARIS, king and legislator of the Lombards. See LOMBARDY.

ROTHBACH, a village of Bavarian Franconia. It has, on a small scale, manufactures of glass, copper, steel, iron, and paper; 3 miles north-west of Altdorf.

ROTHBEIN. See SCOLOPAX.

ROTHBERG. See ROUGEMONT.

ROTHBURY, a parish and market town of England, in the county of Northumberland. It is situated on the river Coquet, and has a charity school and a tolerable weekly market on Friday. The church front is remarkable for its curious sculpture. Near the town are the remains of a Roman station, called Old Rothbury. Population of the town 750, of the parish 3732; 11 miles south-west-by-west of Alnwich, and 306½ north-north-west of London.

ROTHEHUTTE, a village of the north of Germany, in Hanover, province of Gottingen, near Elbingerode. It contains only 700 inhabitants, but has a number of large iron works, which produce annually about 3000 tons of that metal.

ROTHENACKER, a large village of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, on the Danube; 14 miles above Ulm. Population 1100.

ROTHENBERG, one of the twelve departments into which the kingdom of Wirtemberg was divided in 1810. It lies adjacent to Baden, is watered by the Neckar, and contains Stutgard, the capital of the kingdom. Its area is 340 square miles; its population 112,000. It is divided into the five upper bailiwics of Cannstadt, Esslingen, Leonsberg, Stutgard, and Waiblingen, besides the city of Stutgard, which has its own magistrates.

ROTHENBERG, a small fortress of Bavarian Franconia, situated on a hill near the small town of Schnaitach. It was formerly a stronghold, but is now only a station for invalids.

ROTHENBERG, a small town of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, department of the Upper Neckar. Population 900.

ROTHENBUCH, a small town of the Bavarian circle of the Lower Maine, in the hilly track called the Spessart. Population 800; 13 miles east-by-south of Aschaffenburg.

ROTHENBURG-ON-THE-TAUBER, a town of Bavarian Franconia, situated on a mountain, near the Tauber. Its manufactures are inconsiderable, but it has a high school and a public library, said to contain some valuable manuscripts. The town is old, and consequently irregularly built; it contains, however, a square and several public buildings. The water in the fountains is raised from the river by machinery. Population 5700; 28 miles south-south-east of Wurzburg, and 18 west-north-west of Anspach.

ROTHENBURG, a small town of Prussian Silesia, in the government of Liegnitz, on the Neisse, with 900 inhabitants; 12 miles north of Gorlitz, and 55 east-north-east of Dresden.

ROTHENBURG, a village of Prussian Saxony, on the Saale. It has a large copper-mine. Population 800; 13 miles north-north-west of Halle.

ROTHENBURG, a small town of the west of Germany, in the electorate of Hesse, on the River Fulda. It is fortified and divided into the old and new towns, but has only about 3000 inhabitants; 23 miles south-south-east of Cassel, and 9 north of Hersfeld.

ROTHENECK, a small town of the Austrian States, in Tyrol, not far from Brixen. It is the chief place of a district in the Pusterthall.

ROTHENFELD, a small town of the west of Germany, in Baden, on the Murg. Population 900; 6 miles east-south-east of Rastadt.

ROTHENFELDE, a village of Germany, in the west of Hanover, principality of Osnabruck, near Dissen, with a large salt-work, which produces annually about 2700 tons.

ROTHENFELS, a small town of Bavarian Franconia, on the Maine. Population 1400; 15 miles west-north-west of Wurzburg.

ROTHEN-THURM, or VOROS TORONY, *the Red Tower*, a narrow pass in the Carpathian mountains, between Transylvania and Walachia, about 10 miles from Hermannstadt. Adjoining to it on a hill overlooking the Aluta, is a fortified castle, with a lazaretto.

ROTHER, a river of England, which, rising in Sussex, forms the boundary for a short way between that county and Kent, and falls into the English channel at Rye.—Also a river in Derbyshire and Yorkshire, which runs into the Don at Rotherham.

ROTHER-BEASTS, *s.* [hryðer, Sax. hryðeru, boves, vaccæ; *hrutr*, or *rutr*, Icel. aries, from *ru*, vellus, cæsaries. Serenius.] Hornedcattle; black cattle. Phillips says it is used in old statutes, and in his time in the north of England.

The beare to chase, the hind to runne, the cruel boare to fall
Upon the heards of *rother-beasts* had now no lust at all.
Golding.

ROTHER-NAILS, *s.* [a corruption of *rudder.*] Among shipwrights, nails with very full heads used for fastening the rudder irons of ships. *Bailey.*

ROTHER-SOIL, *s.* The dung of rother-beasts. *Bailey.*

ROTHERFIELD, a parish of England, in Sussex; 5 miles west-south-west of Wadhurst. Population 2122.

ROTHERFIELD GREYS, a parish of England in Oxfordshire; 2½ miles west-by-south of Henley-upon-Thames. Population 668.

ROTHERFIELD PEPARD, a parish of England, in Oxford; 4 miles west-by-south of Henley-upon-Thames.

ROTHERHAM,

ROTHERHAM, a market-town and parish of England, in the West Riding of Yorkshire. It is situated in a valley near the confluence of the rivers Rother and Don. The Rother runs on its western, and the Don on its north-western side. Over the latter a handsome bridge of stone has been erected. The town is not handsome; the streets are narrow and irregular, and the houses, which are mostly of stone, have a dull and dingy appearance. The parish church is a handsome Gothic building, erected in the reign of Edward IV. Here is also a meeting-house for dissenters, built in 1705, and another for the Methodists. To the former is attached a school for the education of 30 poor children of the parish. The master is appointed by the trustees of the founder, Thomas Hollis, of London; children are admitted by the minister of the parish; and the institution is kept under excellent regulations. In this town is likewse an academy or college, called the Rotherham Independent academy, for the education of Protestant dissenters, more particularly Independents, and young men proposing to become Independent clergymen. It was opened in 1795, and is supported by voluntary contributions. The building was erected by the late Mr. Samuel Walker, and is adapted for the accommodation of 16 students. The library contains 1200 volumes. A college called Jesus College, was founded here by Thomas Scott, archbishop of York, a native of Rotherham. It was dissolved by king Henry VIII. In point of trade and business, Rotherham is in a thriving state. Even in Lleland's time it was famous for its manufacture of edge tools, and here are still very extensive iron and steel works. These are carried on in the village of Masborough, which is only separated from Rotherham by the bridge. The works here of Messrs. Walker have obtained great celebrity. In them are manufactured cannon of the largest calibre, and almost every kind of cast iron articles, with many of wrought iron, as bar, sheet, slit, or rod iron. Tinned plates and steel of every sort are also manufactured in great quantities. The iron bridges of Sunderland, Yarm, and Stains, were cast at the foundries here. These iron-works were begun in 1746, by Mr. Samuel Walker and his brothers, and have ever since been progressively increasing. The coal and iron ore are chiefly supplied from mines in the neighbourhood. The coals are also exported by means of the river Don, which is navigable to Tinsley, and a considerable trade in various other articles is carried on by this navigation, to Doncaster, Thorne, Hull, and other places. A large brewery for porter and ale has been lately begun in the town. Rotherham has an excellent weekly market for corn, cattle and butchers' meat; two annual fairs, and fortnight fairs, for fat cattle, sheep, and pigs, which are well attended by graziers and butchers, from very distant parts of the county; Rotherham and Wakefield being in fact the two greatest marts in Yorkshire for fat cattle and sheep. The environs of Rotherham are agreeable and picturesque. On an eminence on the east of the town stands and elegant mansion, belonging to the Walker family; and in the neighbourhood is situated Wentworth house, the magnificent residence of earl Fitzwilliam. Population of the town in 1811, 2950, and of the rest of the parish, including seven townships, 5419. Market on Monday. Fairs Whit Monday and December 1; 6 miles north-east of Sheffield, and 160 north-north-west of London; lat. 53. 25. N., long. 1. 22. W.

ROTHERHITHE, a village and parish of England, in the county of Surrey, situated on the south bank of the Thames, about a mile and a half east of London bridge. It is bounded on the north and east by the Thames, on the south by the parishes of Bermondsey and Camberwell, on the west by Horsely Down, and on the south-east by the parish of Deptford, in Kent. This parish is noted for its dock-yards, of which it contains no fewer than eleven, at some of which ships are built for the East India Company. The water-side is occupied by wharfs and other buildings connected with the shipping. In 1696, an act of parliament passed for making a wet dock here: it was finished in 1700, and called the Great Dock. Under the name of the Commercial Docks, it has been much enlarged. In 1812, a new dock was added; so that these docks alone comprise an area of 40 acres, with wharfage and bonding yards, sufficient to receive 200 ships. The church of Rotherhite, dedicated to St. Mary, was built chiefly by the subscriptions of the inhabitants, in 1714 and 1715; but the tower was not finished till 1739. It is of brick, with stone coins, and consists of a nave, chancel, and two aisles, supported by pillars of the Ionic order. The tower is surmounted by a stone spire, raised on Corinthian columns. This church contains an interesting monument to Lee Boo, prince of the Pelew islands, who came to England with captain Wilson, in the ship Antelope, and died of the small pox, in 1784. In this parish are various free and charity schools, at which a number of boys and girls are educated, and many of them also clothed. Population of the parish, 12,114 inhabitants, and 2719 houses.

ROTHERSTHORPE, a parish of England in Northamptonshire; 4 miles south-west of Northampton.

ROTHERWICH, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire; 5 miles west-by-south of Hartford-bridge.

ROTHES, a parish of Scotland, in Morayshire, lying on the north bank of the Spey, which separates it from Boharm on the east, Edinkellie on the south, Dollas on the north-west, and Birnie, Urquhart, and Speymouth, on the north. The soil is in general dry and sandy, degenerating into moor in the northern parts of the parish. The crops are chiefly barley and oats, the culture of green crops being little practised. The village of Rothes was lately built on the Spey, and contains about 300 inhabitants. Population 1605.

ROTHESAY, a parish of Scotland, in the island and county of Bute, about 10 miles long, and from 3 to 4 broad, occupying the north end of the island of Bute, and bounded on the south and south-east by the parish of Kingarth, and indented with four bays, viz. Rothesay, Kaimes, Keils, and St. Ninian's, all of which afford safe anchorage. The surface is hilly, but there are some small valleys which are exceedingly fertile. Population 4970.

ROTHESAY, or ROTHSAY, a small and well built royal burgh of Scotland, situated on the north-east coast of the island of Bute, at the bottom of an extensive bay, in which there is safe anchorage. This town was formerly in a state of indigence, and possessed only one decked vessel, of inconsiderable burden. Under the auspices, however, of the late earl of Bute, the industry and emulation of the inhabitants of Rothesay were excited, and their vigorous perseverance has wrought a most remarkable change. The inhabitants are now actively engaged in the herring fishery, and they have prosecuted this line of industry with great success. The burgh of Rothesay was enfranchised by king Robert III. in the year 1400, when its castle was the royal residence. At that time it was a considerable town, but in succeeding years it greatly declined, and in 1762, many of the houses lay in ruins. Since that period these houses have been rebuilt, and several new streets have been added. But the flourishing state of the town is not solely owing to the herring fishery: the establishment of a large cotton mill in 1778, has given the inhabitants a knowledge in that species of manufacture, and caused others to prosecute the same branch. Rothesay is governed by a provost, 2 bailies, a dean of guild, treasurer, and 12 counsellors, and unites with Ayr, Irvine, Inverary, and Campbelltown, in sending a member to parliament. It has a chapel of ease, and an Antiburgher meeting-house. The pier is commodious, and has a good depth of water, and the port is much frequented by the vessels engaged in the herring fishery.

ROTHESAY, POINT, a cape on the west coast of North America, so called by Vancouver. Lat. 56. 37. N., long. 227. 47. E.

ROTHESHOLM, or RODNUM HEAD, a promontory on the south-west coast of Stronsay island.

ROTHESTOCK, a great mountain in the interior of Switzerland, on the borders of the cantons of Unterwalden and Uri; elevation 8522 feet.

ROTHE SUND *(Red Sound)*, a strait of the Baltic, between the Danish islands of Falster and Laland.

ROTHEWISCH,

ROTHEWISCH, a large village of Germany, in Saxony, a few miles from Plauen. It contains about 2000 inhabitants, and has large brass and wire works.

ROTHIA, [so named in honour of Dr. Albert William Roth, a physician of the duchy of Bremen,] in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia æqualis, natural order compositæ semiflosculosæ, cichoraceæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Common calyx rounded, finely villous; of about seven equal, linear, acute scales. Corolla compound, imbricated, uniform, of numerous equal florets, all perfect, whose partial corolla is of one petal, ligulate, linear, abrupt, with five teeth. Stamina: filaments in each floret, five, capillary, very short; anthers united into a cylindrical tube. Pistils: germen in each floret ovate; style thread-shaped, the length of the stamens; stigmas two, reflexed. Pericarp: none; the calyx closing over the seeds, which are solitary in each floret: those of the disk cylindrical, somewhat turbinate, striated, with sessile capillary down, feathery in its lower part; those of the radius cylindrical, striated, enveloped in scales of the receptacle, but destitute of down. Receptacle flat, hairy in the disk, chaffy at the radius, the chaffy scales in several rows, linear, channelled, erect, rather acute, tubular at the base, the outermost equal in length to the calyx, the inner ones gradually shorter.—*Essential Character.* Receptacle hairy, chaffy in the circumference. Calyx of many equal scales. Seed-down hairy, sessile in the disk; none in the radius.—This genus, as every body observes, is very near Andryala, and ought not to be separated from it.

1. Rothia andrialoides, or andryaline Rothia.—Native of Spain. Root annual, branched, somewhat woody. Stem twelve or eighteen inches high, erect, brown, downy; its branches alternate, widely spreading. Leaves alternate, distant, recurved, rather wavy, downy, and hoary. Flower-stalks axillary and terminal, solitary, nearly twice as long as the leaves, naked, erect, single-flowered, extremely downy. Bractea solitary under each flower, lanceolate, very downy, scarcely longer than the calyx, which is also downy and whitish; contracted and globose before the flower opens, but afterwards lax, consisting of from five to seven scales. Corolla yellow; the florets of the circumference purplish at the back. The outer row of scales of the receptacle is exactly like the calyx; the rest gradually smaller, downy on the outside. The flowers are open before noon only. The whole herb has straight, prominent, capitate hairs, intermixed with its downy pubescence.

2. Rothia cheiranthifolia, or stock-leaved Rothia.—Native of Spain and the south of France, flowering there in May. It is marked in Hort. Kew. as a hardy annual, flowering in July and August. Herb milky, clothed with dense, white, woolly down, intermixed in the upper part with copious, prominent, capitate, tawny hairs, giving it a reddish hue, especially when old. Stem twelve or eighteen inches high; branched above, at first corymbose, then racemose. Leaves sessile, alternate, rather distant, obtuse; the lower ones about a finger's length, with short, triangular, distant teeth, and intermediate sinuses; the uppermost gradually smaller and entire. Flower-stalks naked, or with here and there a linear bractea. Calyx of from three to five scales. Outer scales of the receptacle like the calyx in structure, but rather longer, very downy at the back; inner ones shorter, smooth, and more membranous. Corolla of a golden yellow in every part.

3. Rothia runcinata, or hoary Rothia.—Native of the south of Europe. Biennial, twice as large as the foregoing, and varying much in luxuriance. The lower leaves are stalked. Whole herb clothed with fine, dense, velvet-like pubescence, very thick and woolly about the calyx, which is moreover beset with long golden hairs.

ROTHIEMAY, a parish of Scotland, in Banffshire, about 8 miles long, and from 5 to 6 broad, watered by the Deveron which runs through it. Towards the eastern extremity the surface is agreeably diversified with woods and corn-fields; but towards the north, the appearance is more barren and hilly. The celebrated astronomer, James Ferguson, was a native of this parish. Population 1067.

ROTHIEMURCUS, a parish of Scotland in Inverness-shire, united to the parish of Duthil, in Morayshire.

ROTHLEY, a parish of England, county of Leicester, $1\frac{1}{2}$ mile south-by-east from Mount Sorrell. Population 857.

ROTHLEY, a hamlet of England, in Northumberland; 11 miles west-north-west of Morpeth.

ROTHMELL, a village of England, West Riding of Yorkshire, near Settle.

ROTHSCHEN-SALM, a sea-port of Finland, on the gulf of Finland, at the mouth of the Kymmene; 11 miles west-south-west of Fredericksham. It has a spacious harbour formed by several islands, capable of containing the whole fleet of Russian galleys in those seas, and 40 ships of the line. It is defended by two forts erected in 1791. On the island of Rotka is the small town of Rothschen-salm, with an hospital, a court of admiralty, and dock-yards. Lat. 60. 27. 57 N. long. 27. 1. 55. E.

ROTHTHAL-MUNSTER, a small town of Germany, in lower Bavaria, near Griesbach, with 800 inhabitants.

ROTHWASSER, or CZERWENAWODA, a small town of the Austrian states, in Moravia, circle of Prerau, with 2200 inhabitants.

ROTHWELL, UPPER, a large village of the west of Germany, in Baden; 13 miles north-west of Freiburg. Population 1100.

ROTHWELL, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 3 miles south-east of Caistor.

ROTHWELL, called also ROWELL, a town and parish in the hundred of Rothwell, and county of Northampton, England, is situated 4 miles north-west-by-west from the town of Kettering, and 78 miles north-west-by-north from London. This place is said to derive its name from two remarkable springs in the vicinity, the water of one of which is of a petrifying quality, and in the other are frequently found numerous small bones, conjectured to be those of frogs. Here was a small priory of Augustine nuns, dedicated to St. John Baptist, and which was probably founded by the Clare family, whose successors in the manor appear, upon record, as its patrons. Rothwell was formerly a considerable market-town, but the market has been long discontinued. The market house is worthy of attention, from the style of the building. It was begun by Sir Thomas Tresham, but never completed, owing to his death, which happened in the third year of James I. His son and successor, Francis Tresham, was the instrument of the discovery of the gunpowder-plot, by sending a letter to Lord Monteagle, who had married Mr. Tresham's sister, and thus led to the detection of the conspiracy.

In the church are several monumental memorials of the Tresham family, and others for different persons. Rothwell has an annual fair, held on Trinity-Monday. According to the returns to parliament in 1811, the parish contained 330 houses, and 1451 inhabitants. In the hundred of Rothwell, at Great Oxendon, is a remarkable echo in the belfry of the church-tower: to a person standing at the distance of 673 feet, on the western part of the elevated ground on which the church is built, this echo returns distinctly thirteen syllables.

An echo, but not to an equal extent, is obtainable from the top of an adjacent hill to the south; but scarcely any exist on the eastern or northern sides of the tower. But it is said, that the effect has lately been considerably diminished, by alterations which have been made in the belfry windows.

Braybrooke church, between Oxendon and Rothwell, exhibits a very curious and highly decorated monument, erected for Sir Nicholas Griffin, Knight, who died in 1509. It displays an assemblage of pedestals, shields, crests, and other ornaments, very characteristic of the age of queen Elizabeth.

Kelmarsh-hall, on the one side of Rothwell, and Rush-ton-hall, on the other, are noble family mansions; and the latter in particular is very beautifully situated.

Robert Talbot, one of our early English antiquaries, who flourished

flourished about 1546, was a native of Thorpe Malsor, a village between Rothwell and Kettering. He was the friend and associate of Leland, and both Camden and Burton seem to have made considerable use of his annotations on the Itinerary of Antoninus.—History, &c. of Northamptonshire, by Bridges and Whalley, 2 vols. folio.

ROTHWELL, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 6 miles north-by-east of Wakefield. Population 5004.

ROTOLO, an Egyptian weight of twelve ounces, each ounce consisting of twelve drachms, and each drachm of sixteen carats.

ROTONDO, MONTE, a very high moutain of the island of Corsica.

ROTROU (John de), a French dramatic poet, was born, in 1609, of an ancient family at Dreux. He distinguished himself by a great facility in composing dramatic pieces, both in tragedy and comedy, in which he improved so much upon his predecessors, that he is termed by Voltaire "the founder of the theatre." Cardinal Richelieu esteemed and patronized him, and the great Corneille used to call him his father. He was expensive in his habits of life, and wrote most of his works under the pressure of immediate necessity, whence he could allot but a short time for their correction. At length he purchased the office of lieutenant-particular of his native place, where he took up his residence. The occasion of his death was truly honourable to him. Dreux was visited by a very fatal pestilential disease, and during the height of it, Rotrou was strongly urged by his brother to quit the place and come to Paris. In his answer he expressed his full resolution to remain on the spot where his duty placed him. "At the moment of my writing (said he), the bells are tolling for the 22d death this day; my turn will come when it pleases God." This event took place soon after, in 1650, when he was in his 41st year. Of his numerous plays, "Chosroes," "Antigone," and "Wenceslaus," are reckoned the best. The latter was revived by Marmontel, and several times represented with success. Voltaire speaks of some parts of it as excellent. *Moreri. Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

ROTSELAR, a large village of the Netherlands, in the province of South Brabant. Population 1600; 9 miles north-by-west of Louvain.

ROTT, a river of Lower Bavaria, which rises near Muhldorf, and flows into the Inn, near Griesbach.

ROTTA, a small river in the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont, which falls into the gulf of Genoa, near Vintimiglia.

ROTTBOELLIA, in Botany, a genus of the class triandria, order digynia, natural order of gramina, gramineæ or grasses.—Generic Character. Receptacle common, elongated into the jointed rachis of a cylindrical spike: the joints alternately hollowed out to receive flowers of a two-fold structure; some (in the calyx) one-glumed, placed on a thicker tooth, hermaphrodite; others two-glumed, each inserted (alternately) on either side of the former, a little lower down, and a little smaller than the former, female hermaphrodites? in some species only one of each sort.

I. Hermaphrodites one-glumed.

Calyx: glume one-flowered, one-valved; valve cartilaginous, ovate-oblong, truncate at the base, often emarginate, striated, closing the sinus of the joint (which is in place of a second valve) like a lid. Corolla: glume two-valved, parallel to and shorter than the calycine glume; valves lanceolate, acute, concave, membranaceous, hyaline; outer longer, inner with the edges bent in: nectary one-leaved, lanceolate, blunt, membranaceous, hyaline, longer than the germ. Stamina: filaments three, capillary; anthers oblong, bifid at each end. Pistils: germ oblong; styles two, filiform; stigmas oblong, feathered, spreading, standing out. Pericarp none: the sinuses of the joints of the spike closed by the glume of the calyx contain the seed, until the rachis separates in joints. Seed single, oblong.

II. Hermaphrodites two-glumed.

Calyx: glume one-flowered, two-valved, transverse; valves cartilaginous, oblong, mucronate, striated; outer a little shorter, with a shorter dagger-point. Corolla: glume two-valved, transverse; valves lanceolate, membranaceous, shorter than the calyx; outer concave, longer, inner with the edges folded together: nectary as in the other; or two-leaved, with the leaflets lanceolate, acuminate. Stamina: filaments three, capillary; anthers oblong, bifid at each end. Pistils: germ oblong or ovate; styles two, capillary; stigmas oblong, feathered, spreading, standing out. Pericarp none; calyx and corolla cherish the seed, fastened to the rachis which separates in joints. Seed single, ovate or oblong.—Flowers of both structures are found in Rottboellia exaltata, corymbosa, and others: one-glumed only in Rottboellia cylindrica and compressa; two-glumed only in Rottboellia incurvata. Where both are present, both seem to be hermaphrodite; unless perhaps in these, the two-glumed flowers may have the anthers barren, for there does not seem to be any defect in the styles and stigmas. If flowers of either sort only be present, they are hermaphrodites. This genus therefore, in other respects very nearly allied to Ægilops, might have been put with the other grasses in the second order of the third class, triandria digynia. Schreber observed a two-leaved nectary in Rottboellia incurvata alone.—*Essential Character.* Rachis jointed, roundish in most species filiform. Calyx ovate-lanceolate, flat, one or two-valved. Florets alternate on a flexuose rachis.

1. Rottboellia incurvata.—Spike round, awl-shaped, curved inwards, calycine glume two-valved, awl-shaped, pressed close.—Native of many parts of Europe, on the sea coast, and in salt-marshes. In England, near Yarmouth and Sheringham in Norfolk. Wisbech in Cambridgeshire. Near Seaton in Durham. Below King's Weston, near Bristol. At Exmouth, in Devonshire.—It flowers in July and August.

2. Rottboellia filiformis.—Spike round-awl-shaped, subcompressed, erect, calycine glume two-valved, ensiform, spreading.—Native of the south of Europe. Perennial.

3. Rottboellia cylindrica. — Spike round, awl-shaped, erect, calycine glume one-valved.—Native of the south of Europe, and of Barbary. Perennial.

4. Rottboellia Thomæa.—Spike solitary, erect, awl-shaped, imbricate two ways, rachis waved, excavated but not jointed. —Found by Koenig in Tranquebar, at St. Thomas's Mount; on old walls.

5. Rottboellia repens.—Spike round, awl-shaped, calycine glume one-valved, undivided.—Native of the islands in the south seas within the tropic.

6. Rottboellia lævis.—Peduncles very long, spike with flowers in pairs, lateral, calyxes ovate, undotted, even.—Sent by Koenig from Tranquebar.

7. Rottboellia compressa.—Spike compressed, awl-shaped, calycine glume lanceolate, flat, undivided.—Tranchel found it in China.—Native both of the East and West Indies.

8. Rottboellia hirsuta.—Spike awl-shaped, hirsute, hermaphrodite florets spreading, barren florets pedicelled, pressed close.—Native of Egypt. Perennial. A beautiful grass.

9. Rottboellia Cymbachne.—Spikes twin halved, sheathes of the leaves ciliate.—Native of Bengal, where it was observed by Koenig.

10. Rottboellia Coelorachis. — Spike round, one-sided, florets twin, one of them pedicelled, calyx two-valved.—Native of the island of Tanna.

11. Rottboellia dimidiata.—Spike half compressed, linear, outer side aggregate-floscular, inner even, naked.—Native of the East Indies, in sandy soils, and of the Cape of Good Hope.

12. Rottboellia exaltata.—Spike round-filiform, floscular every way, glumes ovate, blunt, sheaths dotted and hirsute. —This is a tall grass, with a solid culm. Sheaths of the leaves grooved, dotted with raised dots, ending in a bristle, hispid all over. Spikes solitary, lateral, a hand long or more.

13. Rottboellia

13. Rottboellia corymbosa.—Spikes aggregate, lateral, filiform, florets bifarious, spreading, leaves ciliate at the base.—Native of Malabar, in ditches.

14. Rottboellia muricata.—Spikes several, round, on long peduncles, calyxes ciliate-aculiate, the neutres bifid.—Native of the East Indies.

15. Rottboellia sanguinea.—Spikes of the panicle awned, alternate, simple, peduncled, the lateral bracte of the flowers ciliate.—Native of China.

16. Rottboellia setacea.—Spike solitary, awl-shaped, one-ranked, a little curved inwards, rachis excavated but not jointed.—Native of the East Indies, on old walls.

17. Rottboellia monandra.—Culm erect, flowers distich, in spikes.—It is annual grass, very common about Madrid, and flowers in May. At the top of the stem there is always a solitary flower, which, beyond the calycine glume bears another almost opposite to that and much shorter.

ROTTE, a small river of the Netherlands, in South Holland, which falls into the Maese, at Rotterdam.

ROTTEL, a small river of Austria, in the quarter of the Upper Muhl, which falls into the Danube, near the castle of Ottersheim.

ROTTEN, *adj.* Putrid; carious; putrescent.

O bliss-breeding sun, draw from the earth
Rotten humidity; below thy sister's orb
Infect the air. *Shakspeare.*

Not firm; not trusty.

Hence, *rotten* thing, or I shall shake thy bones
Out of thy garments. *Shakspeare.*

Not sound; not hard.—They were left moiled with dirt and mire, by reason of the deepness of the *rotten* way.—*Knolles.*—Fetid; stinking.

You common cry of curs, whose breath I hate,
As reek o' the *rotten* fens. *Shakspeare.*

ROTTENBACH, a large village of Germany, in Bavaria, to the south-west of Augsburg, near Goggingen, with 1200 inhabitants.

ROTTENBACH, another village of Bavaria; 9 miles south-south-west of Mindelheim, with 900 inhabitants.

ROTTENBURG, a small town of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, containing 4700 inhabitants. This place is separated by the Neckar from Ehingen, and the two form properly but one town.

ROTTENDEN, a parish of England, in Essex; 7 miles from Bellericay, and 30 from London. Population 501.

ROTTENMANN, a small town of the Austrian states, in Styria; 20 miles north-west of Judenburg.

ROTTENNESS, *s.* State of being rotten; cariousness; putrefaction.

Diseas'd ventures,
That play with all infirmities for gold,
Which *rottenness* lends nature. *Shakspeare.*

ROTTEN STONE. See TRIPOLI.

ROTTERDAM, a large commercial city in South Holland, situated on the north bank of the Maese, which here resembles an arm of the sea, although nearly 20 miles from its mouth. The form of Rotterdam is triangular, its longest side (above a mile and a half in extent), stretching along the bank of the Maese. The town, though not fortified, is surrounded by a moat, and entered by six gates towards the land, and four towards the water. It is traversed from north to west by the Rotte, a river, or rather (like most Dutch rivers), a broad canal, which here joins the Maese. Rotterdam is intersected, even more than other towns in Holland, by canals, which divide the half of the town near the river into several insulated spots connected by draw-bridges. Thus the long and stately row of houses facing the Maese, and called, from its rows of trees, the Boomtjes, has behind it a broad and deep canal, parallel to the river. This first section of the city is succeeded first by a triangular, and next by an oblong division, each containing several streets and quays. The largest vessels unload in two great inlets from the Maese, one stretching to the west, and the other to the north, until they meet each other. The water of the Maese enters by the former, and flows out by the latter. In the south-east of the town are also two canals, with a basin and dock, for the repair of shipping. It is only in the north or inland half of the town, that the streets succeed each other without much recurrence of water communication.

The canals of Rotterdam are almost all bordered with trees. The row called the Boomtjes is the finest in the city, as well in regard to buildings, as for its pleasant prospect across the Maese. Next to the Boomtjes comes the Haringvliet. The other streets are in general long, but narrow. Several of them are so similar, that a stranger has much difficulty in recognising the distinction. The houses of Rotterdam are rather convenient than elegant, the peculiar style of Dutch architecture being here more than usually prevalent. Their height is of four, five, or six stories; the bricks used are in general very small, and in some quarters the walls project as they ascend, so as to place the higher part of the building several feet out of the perpendicular. The windows are in general far larger than is usual in France or England. In many houses the ground floor is not inhabited, but serves, with its gate and arched passage, merely as an entrance to the warehouses behind. In regard to their interior, the houses here, as in any other part of Holland, though not so aukwardly distributed as in the provincial towns of France, are, both in lightness and convenience, inferior to the houses of Britain.

Of the public buildings of Rotterdam, the principal are the exchange, finished in 1736. The great church of St. Lawrence, from the top of which may be seen the Hague to the north-west, Leyden to the north, and Dort to the south-east. After these come several other churches, the town-house, an old edifice, the admiralty, the academy, the theatre, the extensive buildings of the East India Company, a number of large warehouses, and a few manufactories. Here are several commodious market-places. Rotterdam contains both an English Episcopal, and a Scotch Presbyterian church. Here are also several monuments, viz. the tombs of Admirals De Witt and Van Braekel, with a bronze stone statue of Erasmus, who was born here in 1467. Of scientific collections, Rotterdam contains a cabinet of antiquities, a cabinet of natural history, and a public library. It has also an academy of sciences instituted in 1771.

As a commercial city, Rotterdam has various advantages. Its broad and deep canals bring vessels of large burden close to the doors of the merchants' warehouses. It has in several respects greater accommodation than Amsterdam, the Maese being open, and the passage free from ice, earlier than in the Zuyder Zee, and a single tide sufficing to carry vessels to the German ocean; whereas the navigation from Amsterdam to the Texel is tedious and intricate. Rotterdam is of considerable antiquity; it became a privileged town, and was surrounded with walls, so early as the 13th century, owing, like other towns in Holland and Flanders, its increase to the facility of communicating by water not only with the sea, but with the interior, in almost every direction. The time of its greatest prosperity was the 17th and 18th centuries; but after 1795, the invasion of the French, and the war with England, suspended to a distressing degree, the commerce of Holland. It had begun to recover in 1802, when it was again rapidly depressed by the renewal of war.

Years.	Vessels.	Years.	Vessels.
1802	1786	1806	381
1803	850	1807	294
1804	693	1808	65
1805	679		

The years 1809, 1810, and still more 1811, 1812, and 1813, were marked by an almost total suspension of Dutch trade; but the overthrow of Buonaparte proved the harbinger of reviving prosperity to Rotterdam.

Years.	Vessels.
1814	1284
1815	1503
1817	1731

To

To show the direction of the trade, we subjoin the ports from which most of the vessels arrived in 1817.

Riga	272	Dantzic	31
London	253	Hull	28
Harwich	110	Kiel	22
Petersburgh	90	Archangel	20
Libau	73	Lisbon	16
Newcastle	62	Bourdeaux	15
Bergen	45	Hamburgh	10

The vessels from Harwich, and part of those from London, are packets which bring very little merchandize; so that here, as at Amsterdam, the far greater proportion of tonnage is employed in transporting the bulky commodities of the Baltic; viz. corn, timber, flax, and hemp. In value, however, the merchandize from England, consisting of hardware, cottons, woollens, and other manufactures, exceeds the imports from any other country. From France, the chief imports are wine and brandy; and the trade with Brazil, as well as with Spanish America, is becoming more and more direct, instead of being conducted, as formerly, through the medium of the mother countries.

The population of Rotterdam is about 56,000. The expense of living is not much below that of the provincial towns of England; 14 miles south-east of the Hague, and 36 south-by-west of Amsterdam. Lat. 51. 55. 22. N. long. 4. 29. 11. E.

ROTTERDAM, a fortress on the island of Celebes, belonging to the Dutch, near Macassar

ROTTERDAM, a township of the United States, in Oneida county, New York.

ROTTINGDEAN, a parish of England, in the county of Sussex, pleasantly situated on the southern coast, and much resorted to of late, from its increasing accommodations for sea-bathing. Population 559.

ROTTINGEN, a small town in the north-west of the Bavarian states, in the circle of the Lower Maine, on the Tauber, containing 1200 inhabitants; 9 miles north-east of Mergentheim.

ROTTLEBORODA, a large village of Prussian Saxony, in the government of Merseburg; 4 miles south of Stolberg.

ROTTLERA [so called in honour of one Dr. Rottler, a Danish missionary], in Botany, a genus of the class dioecia, order icosandria, natural order tricoccæ, euphorbiæ *(Juss.)* t—Generic Character. *Male.*—Calyx: perianth of one leaf; tube short; limb in four deep, ovate, reflexed segments; the two opposite ones rather the smallest. Corolla: none. Stamina: filaments between thirty and forty, capillary, erect, inserted into the tube of the calyx, and about the length of its limb; anthers linear, cloven at each end. *Female*, on a separate tree. Calyx: perianth inferior, bell-shaped, with four erect teeth. Corolla: none. Pistil: germen superior, ovate, powdery; styles three, reflexed; stigmas feathery. Pericarp: capsule roundish, powdery, three-lobed, three-celled, three-valved, the partitions from the centre of each valve. Seeds: solitary, globose.—*Essential Character. Male.*—Calyx deeply four-cleft, reflexed. Corolla none. Stamens thirty to forty. *Female.*—Calyx four-toothed, erect. Corolla none. Styles three. Capsule superior, three-lobed, three-celled. Seeds solitary.

Rottlera tinctoria, or dyer's rottlera.—Native of the inland mountainous parts of the circars of Hindoostan, flowering in the cold season. This is a middle-sized, erect, branching tree. Leaves alternate, stalked, elliptic-oblong, acute, entire, from four to eight inches in length, three-ribbed and veiny; nearly smooth above; downy beneath; furnished at their base with two brown glands. Footstalks round, downy, from one to three inches long. Flowers small, in clusters, about the tops of the branches, axillary and terminal; the latter branched. Capsules the size of a small cherry, clothed with abundance of deep red granular powder, easily rubbed off. This powder is a valuable article of commerce, being much esteemed, especially among the Moors, for dyeing silk of a deep, bright, very beautiful and durable, full-orange or flame-colour. When the capsules are ripe, in February or March, they are gathered, and the powder carefully brushed off. It is preserved without any further process, and is sold to the merchants trading to Hydrabad, and other inland parts. This substance is but little acted upon by water, except with the admixture of alkaline salts, when it gives out a very deep blood-red colour. To spirits it communicates a rich, deep, reddish flame-colour; but in neither instance does it dissolve, the grains remaining entire, like sand. The inhabitants know this powder by the name of *Wassunta-gunda;* and use it in the following manner. To four parts of *Wassunta-gunda* are added one of alum, and two of salt of soda, native barilla. These are rubbed well together, with a portion of expressed oil of *sesamum*, so small as hardly to be perceived. When well mixed, the whole is put into boiling water, in quantity proportioned to the silk which is to be dyed, and kept boiling smartly, more or less time, according to the shade required. The silk is turned frequently, to render the colour uniform.

ROTTOCOMB, a town of Bornou, in Central Africa, about 120 miles south of Bornou.

ROTTOLO, a weight used in Italy and the Levant.

ROTTUM, a small island of the Netherlands, on the coast of the province Groningen. It is separated from Borkum by the West Ems, and is inhabited by fishermen.

ROTTWEIL, a small town of the west of Germany, in Wirtemburg, situated on a height near the Neckar. It is surrounded with a wall, and contains 2900 inhabitants; 46 miles south-south-west of Stutgard, and 42 north-west of Constance.

ROTULA, the name of a genus of the echini marini, of the general class of the placentæ. The characters of the rotulæ are, that they are flat shells in form of a cake, composed of various flat pieces, and formed into a round, something like that of a wheel, but wanting one or more parts of its outer ring, and radiated or dentated; their mouth is situated in the middle of the base, and the aperture of the anus in the third region of the axis, and marked with a cinquefoil flower at the summit. The great obvious character is, however, the dentated edge. Of this genus there are two known species.

ROTULA, is also a name of the patella or knee-pan.

ROTULUS CONTRARIENTIUM. The Earl of Lancaster taking part with the barons against king Edward II., it was not thought fit, in respect of their power, to call them rebels or traitors, but only *contrarients;* accordingly, we have a record of those times called *rotulus contrarientium.*

ROTULUS WINTONIÆ, an exact survey of all England, by counties, hundreds, and tithings, made under king Alfred, not unlike that of Domesday.

It was thus called, because anciently kept at Winchester among other records of the kingdom.

ROTU'ND, *adj.* [*rotundus*, Lat.] Round; circular; spherical.—The cross figure of the Christian temples is more proper for spacious buildings than the *rotund* of the heathens; the eye is much better filled at first entering the *rotund*, but such as are built in the form of a cross give us a greater variety. *Addison.*

ROTUNDA, a small island in the Atlantic ocean, three leagues to the east of Granada. It is desert and uncultivated. Lat. 11. 56. N.

ROTUNDIFO'LIOUS, *adj.* [*rotundus* and *folium*, Lat.] Having round leaves.

ROTU'NDITY, *s.* [*rotunditas*, Lat.] Roundness; sphericity; circularity.

> Thou all-shaking thunder,
> Strike flat the thick *rotundity* o' the world. *Shakspeare.*

ROTU'NDO, *s.* [*rotondo*, Ital.] A building formed round both in the inside and outside; such as the Pantheon at Rome. *Trevoux.*—On the brink of the precipice stands the Sibyl's temple, the remains of a little *rotundo* surrounded with its portico. *Gray.*

ROTUNDUS, a name given to several muscles from the roundness of their body. Such are the *rotundus major*, called also *teres major;* and the *rotundus minor*, called also *teres minor*, and *transversalis.*

ROTZ,

ROTZ, a small but neat town of Lower Austria, on the frontiers of Moravia; 45 miles north-north-west of Vienna, and 6 south-west of Znaym.

ROU, or PULO ROU, a small island in the Chinese sea, near the coast of Malacca. Lat. 6. 43. N. long. 102. 10. E.

ROUAD, or RUAD, the ancient Aradus, an island on the coast of Syria, nearly opposite to the town of Tortosa. It is small and rocky, and does not contain a single wall of that large and populous city which Strabo describes to have been built upon it. Lat. 34. 51. N. long. 35. 57. E.

ROVADO, a town in the north of Austrian Italy, in the government of Milan, with a population of 5000; 10 miles west-north-west of Brescia.

ROUANNE. See ROANNE.

ROUANS, a small town in the west of France, department of the Loire Inferieure. Population 2100; 20 miles west of Nantes.

ROVASIO, a small town in the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont. Population 2500; 13 miles north of Vercelli.

ROUBAIX, a considerable town in the north-east of France, department of the North. It has considerable manufactures of woollens, Turkish satins, camelots, serge, and small articles in thread and cotton. A number of the inhabitants are likewise employed in spinning and dyeing. Population 8000; 6 miles north of Lisle, 12 north-west of Tournay, and 24 north of Douay.

ROUBBIE, *s.* A gold Turkish coin; value one-third of a sequin, or Mahbub.

ROUBINE, a small canal in the south of France, department of the Gard, beginning at the junction of the Cubelle and Vistre. It runs from north-east to south-east along the side of the great canal of Languedoc, with which it communicates in several parts. Its length is about 6 miles.

ROUBION, a small river in the south-east of France, department of the Drome. It falls into the Rhone at Montelimart.

ROUCAN, a small village of Scotland, in Dumfries-shire, containing 140 inhabitants.

ROUCOU, a species of arnotto. See RIXA.

ROUCY, a small town in the north-east of France, on the river Aisne. Population 900; 11 miles south-east of Laon.

To ROVE, *n.* [*roffver*, Danish, to range for plunder; *rooven*, Teut. the same; *hraufa*, Icel. to move from a place. *Serenius.*]—To ramble; to range; to wander.

Thou'st years upon thee, and thou art too full
Of the war's surfeits, to go *rove* with one
That's yet unbruis'd. *Shakspeare.*

To shoot an arrow called a rover. To *rove wide of the mark*, is a phrase yet used in some places.—Even at the marke-white of his heart she *roved*. *Spenser.*

To ROVE, *v. a.* To wander over.

Roving the field I chanc'd
A goodly tree far distant to behold,
Loaden with fruit of fairest colours. *Milton.*

ROUELLE, a small place in the north-east of France, department of the Upper Marne, noted for its manufacture of mirrors.

ROUEN, a large and populous city in the north of France, the capital at present of the department of the Lower Seine, and of Normandy, so long as the latter constituted a province. It is situated on the right bank of the Seine, in a fertile, pleasant, and varied country; but the interior of the town is far from corresponding to the impression conveyed by its environs. Its form is an irregular oval, two miles in length and one in breadth. The streets, though in general straight, are miserably narrow, which, joined to the height of the houses, prevents in many parts the rays of the sun from penetrating. Here is no room for foot pavement; and as the French have not yet adopted the plan of underground sewers, the eye is offended at Rouen, as at Paris, with a stream of filth running along the middle of the street. Fortunately the situation of Rouen is not unhealthy, and the frequency of rain (almost as great as in Britain), corrects in some measure the deficient cleanliness of the inhabitants. The neighbourhood of Rouen does not, like that of Paris or Caen, contain stone quarries, and a number of houses are of wood, built in an antiquated style, the walls often projecting as they ascend. The most agreeable part of the town is that which adjoins the Seine, the quays being spacious, and bordered with good houses, while the river and its islands, with the beautiful walk called the Cours, extending along the opposite bank, the esplanade, and the neighbouring hill of St. Catherine, form an assemblage of very pleasant objects. The squares of Rouen are small and insignificant: the one called the Marche aux Veaux, contains the statue of the warlike maid of Orleans, who was burned here by the English, as a sorceress, in 1430. The ramparts being levelled and lined with trees, contain pleasant walks; and the public roads leading to Paris, Havre, and other places, are likewise bordered with rows of trees. St. Catherine hill, situated to the east, and nearly 400 feet in height, is the best point for a view of the town.

Rouen contains several public buildings of interest. The principal was the cathedral, built by William the Conqueror, and said to be one of the finest specimens of Gothic architecture in France; its greater part was destroyed by fire in the year 1823. The church of St. Ouen, likewise, a fine Gothic building, situated nearly in the centre of the town; and that of St. Maclou, considered a *chef d'œuvre* of its kind. The other churches and convents of the city, so numerous before the Revolution, are of little note in point of architecture. The town house, or municipality, is a handsome edifice; and the barracks situated near the esplanade, are large and commodious. The old castle, the prisons, the exchange, and some of the buildings appropriated to the different manufactories, are worth the attention of the traveller. The great hospital is a handsome modern building; and in public markets, Rouen is not inferior to any city in France. Of the curiosities of the place, the most interesting is the bridge of boats over the Seine. Instead of piers, it rests on nineteen large barges, which fall and rise with the ebb and flow of the tide. These barges are of great burden, and being arched over, are paved on the top. They are moored together side by side with massy iron chains, to keep them in their places; and in point of strength, are capable of supporting almost any burden. The paved surface, however, is uneven, and the successive ascent and descent on the sides of the different barges, makes it a laborious task to drag a heavy laden waggon over the bridge. A farther inconvenience arises from the delay in removing a barge to let vessels pass up and down the river; so that this structure, so often noticed with praise in old geographical works, bears many marks of a rude age. It is accordingly replaced by an elegant stone bridge, which is now finished, 1826.

In manufactures and trade, Rouen ranks as one of the chief towns in France, its extent of cotton manufacture being such as to make no inconsiderable approach to that of Glasgow or Manchester, as far at least as regards the inferior qualities. In fine cottons, the progress made as yet is small, compared with other parts of France. Rouen and its department take the lead in cottons of every other part, except French Flanders, and the department that contains Paris. Here, as in other parts of France, the goods made are less remarkable for taste in the pattern, than durability in the fabric. Rouen has likewise manufactures of woollens, linens, and in a smaller degree, of iron ware, paper, hats, pottery, wax cloth; also sugar refineries. Dyeing, both of woollen and cotton, has for a number of years been conducted with care and success in this town. The whole of its manufacturing industry is computed to give employment to 50,000 persons, young and old, and to form an average annual value of £2,000,000 sterling. During the reign of Buonaparte, the manufactures of Rouen were favoured by the strict exclusion of English merchandize from the Continent; but after the peace of 1814, though still in some measure protected from the rivalship of Britain, the general stagnation of trade, and the superabundance of hands, altered greatly for the worse the condition of the workmen. The great disadvantages

advantages of Rouen are the want of cheap fuel, and, from the vicinity of Paris, a dearness of provisions equal to that of Lancashire, or the provincial part of England generally; whereas, at the distance of a hundred miles to the westward, the family of a workman can be supported at a reduction of 30 per cent.

In navigation and commercial intercourse, Rouen holds only a secondary rank, being at a distance (including the windings of the river) of 70 miles from the sea, and the maritime trade of Paris being carried on at Havre. The Seine at Rouen is from 500 to 800 feet in width, and with the aid of the tide, which flows above the town, brings up vessels of 150 or 200 tons; when of greater burden, they are lightened in the lower part of the river. The chief difficulty in navigating the Seine, arises from its shifting sand-banks. Its upward navigation (from Rouen to Paris), is likely to be much facilitated by the use of steam boats, which perform in three days, what with common vessels requires ten or twelve.

Rouen, though a place of trade, and without a university, is not destitute of literary institutions. Its academy of belles lettres dates from 1744; its society of agriculture and the arts, from 1791. Here is a central school, classes for medicine and surgery; also a navigation and a drawing school, together with a public library, a collection of paintings and natural history, and a botanical garden.

Rouen is a place of antiquity, though its Latin name, Rothomagus, is of uncertain derivation. Like Caen, it was a town of consequence in the reign of William the Conqueror, and like that city, participated severely in the disasters attendant on the subsequent contests for Normandy between England and France. It stood in 1418 a siege of five months against Henry V. of Britain; but was at last obliged to capitulate. It fell definitively into the power of the French, in 1449. Previous to the French revolution, Rouen was the seat of one of the twelve provincial parliaments of that kingdom; at present it is the capital of the department of the Lower Seine, and the see of an archbishop. Its population, which in 1806 did not exceed 81,000, amounts at present to 87,000. It has given birth to some of the most eminent men of France. Among others, Basnage, Bochart, the two Corneilles, and Fontenelle; 45 miles east of Havre, and 80 west-north-west of Paris. Lat. 49. 26. 27. N. long. 1. 5. 59. E.

ROUEN, *s.* A provincial term made use of to signify after-grass, or the hay made from this sort of grass. It is sometimes written *rowet.*

RO'VER, *s.* A wanderer; a ranger.

Thought, busy thought, too busy for my peace,
Strays, wretched *rover,* o'er the pleasing past. *Young.*

A fickle inconstant man.

Soon, too soon, the happy lover
Does our tenderest hopes deceive;
Man was form'd to be a *rover,*
Foolish woman to believe. *Mendez.*

A robber; a pirate. [ꝓeaꝼeꝼe, Sax.; *roover,* Teut.]—This is the case of *rovers* by land, as some cantons in Arabia. *Bacon.*—A kind of arrow.—Here be of all sorts; flights, *rovers,* and butt-shafts. *B. Jonson.*

At ROVERS. Without any particular aim. *Dr. Johnson.*—Barret explains "running *at rovers*" by *overmuch liberty.*—You pretend to shoote at the butte, you shoote quite *at the rovers,* and cleane from the marke. *Abp. Cranmer.*

ROVERBELLO, a small town of Austrian Italy; 12 miles north-north-west of Mantua.

ROVEREDO, or ROVEREITH, a town of the county of Tyrol, with a strong citadel, built by the lords of Castelbarco; but in the year 1414, it was taken from them by the Venetians, from whom Maximilian I. wrested it again by the sword, and incorporated it with the county of Tyrol. This town has a manufacture of fine silk, and carries on a great trade. The wine produced in this tract is called "Goccia d'oro," or golden drops. On Sept. 4th, 1796, Roveredo was taken by the French, after a battle in which the Austrians lost 7000 prisoners, 25 pieces of cannon, 50 waggons, and 7 standards; 8 miles south-east of Trent. Lat. 45. 53. N. long. 11. 3. E.

ROUERGUE, the name, before the Revolution, of a small province in the south of France, adjacent to the great provinces of Auvergne and Languedoc. It is about 25 miles in length and 18 in breadth; its surface is mountainous, and its climate cold. The corn produced is not equal to the consumption of the inhabitants; but it has extensive pasturages in the warmer situations; and in the mountains there are mines of copper, iron, alum, sulphur, vitriol, and pit coal. The principal objects of trade are cattle, wool, and coarse woollen stuffs. This track of country now forms the department of the Aveyron. The chief town is Rhodez.

ROVERSANO, a small town in the east of Italy, in the States of the Church; 20 miles west of Rimini.

ROVERSCIO, AL, or *Per Roverscio,* [Ital.] in Music, reversed, inverted.

ROVES, in Ship Building, small square pieces of iron with a hole punched in the middle, through which the nail goes, where it is clenched, and binds together the boards of pinnaces, yawls, &c.

ROUFFACH, or RUFFACH, a small town in the north-east of France, department of the Upper Rhine, on the Ombach. It has some leather manufactures, and is noted in history for a conflict which took place here between the imperialists and the inhabitants of Lorraine. Population 3300; 9 miles south-west of Colmar, and 25 north of Altkirch.

ROUGE, *s.* [Fr.] Red paint.

ROUGE, *adj.* [Fr.] Red.

Of olive and of *ruge* floures
Weren ystrewed halle and bouris. *Davies's Visions.*

To ROUGE, *v. n.* To lay rouge upon the face: as, she *rouges.*

To ROUGE, *v. a* To have the face coloured with rouge: as, she was *rouged.*

ROUGE, a small town in the west of France, department of the Loire Inferieure. Population 2200; 4 miles north-west of Nantes.

ROUGE, a small river of Lower Canada, which falls into North river, just before the confluence of the latter with Ottawa or Grand river.

ROUGE, CAP, RIVIERE DU, a small river of Lower Canada, which falls into the St. Lawrence from the north, about 7 miles above Quebec.

ROUGEMONT, a small town in the east of France, department of the Doubs. Population 1200. It has some iron works, and is 22 miles north-by-east of Besançon.

ROUGEMONT, a large village of the west of Switzerland, in the canton of Vaud; 18 miles east of Vevay.

ROUGET, a name given by the French to the fish called the *lyra,* and *capo* by authors. It is a species of the trigla, and is distinguished by Artedi by the name of the trigla with a long bifid snout and tubulous nostrils. See TRIGLA.

ROUGH, *adj.* [hꝼeoꝼ, ꝼeoh, Sax.; *rauh,* Germ. The Sax. has also the substantive hꝼeoꝼ, scabies.] Not smooth; rugged; having inequalities on the surface.

The fiend
O'er bog or steep, through strait, *rough,* dense, or rare,
Pursues his way. *Milton.*

Austere to the taste: as *rough* wine.—Harsh to the ear.

Most by the numbers judge a poet's song,
And smooth or *rough* with them is right or wrong. *Pope.*

Rugged of temper; inelegant of manners; not soft; coarse; not civil; severe; not mild; rude.

A fiend, a fury, pitiless and *rough,*
A wolf; nay worse, a fellow all in buff. *Shakspeare.*

Not gentle; not proceeding by easy operation.—Hippocrates seldom mentions the doses of his medicines, which is somewhat

J. Pass sc.

A view of Rouen with the old bridge of boats.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1826.

somewhat surprizing, because his purgatives are generally *rough* and strong. *Arbuthnot.* — Harsh to the mind; severe.—Kind words prevent a good deal of that perverseness which *rough* and imperious usage often produces in generous minds. *Locke.*—Hard-featured; not delicate.

A ropy chain of rheums, a visage *rough*,
Deform'd, unfeatur'd, and a skin of buff. *Dryden.*

Not polished; not finished by art: as a *rough* diamond. —Terrible; dreadful.

Before the cloudy van,
On the *rough* edge of battle, ere it join'd,
Satan advanc'd. *Milton.*

Rugged; disordered in appearance; coarse.

Rough from the tossing surge Ulysses moves,
Urg'd on by want, and recent from the storms,
The brackish ooze his manly grace deforms. *Pope.*

Tempestuous; stormy; boisterous.

Come what come may,
Time and the hour run through the *roughest* day.
Shakspeare.

Hairy; covered with hair or feathers.

ROUGH, *s.* Boisterous weather. *Obsolete.*

Thrice happy swains!—
In calms, you fish; in *roughs*, use songs and dances.
P. Fletcher.

ROUGH CREEK, a river of Kentucky, which runs into Green river. Lat. 37. 12. N. long. 87. 35. W.

ROUGH SKELLY, a cape on the east coast of Scotland. Lat. 56. 36. N. long. 2. 28. W.

ROUGHAM, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 4 miles east-south-east from Bury St. Edmond's. Population 626.

ROUGHAM, a village of England, in Norfolk; 7 miles north by-east of Swaffham.

To ROU'GHCAST, *v. a.* To mould without nicety or elegance; to form with asperities and inequalities.

Nor bodily, nor ghostly negro could
Roughcast thy figure in a sadder mould. *Cleaveland.*

To form any thing in its first rudiments.—In merriment they were first practised, and this *roughcast* unhewn poetry was instead of stage-plays for one hundred and twenty years. *Dryden.*

ROU'GHCAST, *s.* A rude model; a form in its rudiments.—The whole piece seems rather a loose model and *roughcast* of what I design to do, than a complete work. *Digby.*—A kind of plaister mixed with pebbles, or by some other cause very uneven on the surface.—Some man must present a wall; and let him have some plaster, lome, or *roughcast* about him to signify a wall. *Shakspeare.*

ROU'GHDRAFT, *s.* A draught in its rudiments; a sketch.

My elder brothers came
Roughdraughts of nature, ill design'd and lame,
Blown off, like blossoms, never made to bear;
'Till I came finish'd, her last labour'd care. *Dryden.*

To ROU'GHDRAW, *v. a.* To trace coarsely.

His victories we scarce could keep in view,
Or polish 'em so fast, as he *roughdrew*. *Dryden.*

To ROU'GHEN, *v. a.* To make rough.—Such difference there is in tongues, that the same figure which *roughens* one, gives majesty to another; and that was it which Virgil studied in his verses. *Dryden.*

To ROU'GHEN, *v. n.* To grow rough.

The broken landscape
Ascending *roughens* into rigid hills. *Thomson.*

To ROU'GHHEW, *v. a.* Those who lop the branches and knots from trees that have been felled, commonly call their work *roughhewing*. To give any thing the first appearance of form.

There 's a divinity that shapes our ends,
Roughhew them how we will. *Shakspeare.*

ROU'GHHEWN, *particip. adj.* Rugged; unpolished; uncivil; unrefined.—A *roughhewn* seaman being brought before a justice for some misdemeanour, was by him ordered away to prison; and would not stir; saying, it was better to stand where he was, than go to a worse place. *Bacon.*—Not yet nicely finished.—I hope to obtain a candid construction of this *roughhewn* ill-timber'd discourse. *Howell.*

ROUGHLEEBOOTH, a parish of England, in Lancashire; 3 miles west-by-north of Colne. Population 795.

ROU'GHLY, *adv.* With uneven surface; with asperities on the surface. Harshly; uncivilly; rudely.

Rebuk'd, and *roughly* sent to prison,
Th' immediate heir of England! was this easy? *Shakspeare.*

Severely; without tenderness.

Some friends of vice pretend,
That I the tricks of youth too *roughly* blame. *Dryden.*

Austerely to the taste. — Boisterously; tempestuously.— Harshly to the ear.

ROU'GHNESS, *s.* Superficial asperity; unevenness of surface.—Such a persuasion as this well-fixed, will smooth all the *roughness* of the way that leads to happiness, and render all the conflicts with our lusts pleasing. *Atterbury.* —Austereness to the taste.—Divers plants contain a grateful sharpness, as lemons; or an austere and inconcocted *roughness*, as sloes. *Brown.*—Taste of astringency.—A tobacco-pipe broke in my mouth, and the spitting out the pieces left such a delicious *roughness* on my tongue, that I champed up the remaining part. *Spectator.* — Harshness to the ear. —The Swedes, Danes, Germans and Dutch attain to the pronunciation of our words with ease, because our syllables resemble theirs in *roughness* and frequency of consonants. *Swift.* — Ruggedness of temper; coarseness of manners; tendency to rudeness; coarseness of behaviour and address.— *Roughness* is a needless cause of discontent; severity breedeth fear; but *roughness* breedeth hate: even reproofs from authority ought to be grave and not taunting. *Bacon.*—Absence of delicacy. — Should feasting and balls once get amongst the cantons, their military *roughness* would be quickly lost, their tempers would grow too soft for their climate. *Addison.*—Severity; violence of discipline.—Violence of operation in medicines.—Unpolished or unfinished state.—Inelegance of dress or appearance. — Tempestuousness; storminess.—Coarseness of features.

ROU'GH-FOOTED, *adj.* Feather-footed: as "a *rough-footed* dove." *Sherwood.*

ROUGH-RIDER, *s.* A person attached to every cavalry regiment. He is a sort of non-commissioned officer, whose employment consists in breaking horses, so as to adapt them to military purposes.

ROU'GH-SHOD, *adj.* Having the foot fitted, when the roads in frosty weather are slippery, with a roughened shoe: used of horses.

ROU'GHINGS, *s. pl.* Grass after mowing or reaping.

ROUGHT, old pret. of *reach*, [commonly written by Spenser *raught*.] Reached.

The moon was a month old, when Adam was no more,
And *rought* not to five weeks, when he came to five score.
Shakspeare.

ROUGHTON, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 4 miles south-south-east of Horncastle.

ROUGHTON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4 miles south of Cromer.

To ROU'GHWORK, *v. a.* To work coarsely over without the least nicety.—Thus you must continue, till you have *roughwrought* all your work from end to end. *Moxon.*

ROUGHY, a river of Ireland, which runs into the Kenmare; 2 miles north-west of Kenmare.

ROVIGNO, a considerable town of Austrian Illyria, on the coast of Istria. It is built on a rock, which projects into the sea, and forms two good harbours. The one at the town itself is not considered as secure, and is resorted to chiefly by boats and barges, while large vessels discharge at Figarola,

Figarola, at the distance of a mile. The town of Rovigno is only a mile in circumference, but very populous, containing 10,000 inhabitants, who are farther advanced than most of their countrymen, in the arts of industry. Their chief employments are the pilchard fishery, ship-building, and the sale of wood. The environs produce olive oil and wine, and contain quarries of beautiful marble; 40 miles south of Trieste, and 37 south-west of Fiume.

ROVIGO, a delegation or district of Austrian Italy, bounded by the delegations of Venice, Padua, Verona, and Mantua, and separated by the Po from the States of the Church. Its superficial extent is about 550 square miles; its population 63,000. It is traversed by a number of rivers; and from the lowness of its surface, is in many places marshy and unhealthy. It is, however, fertile throughout, the marshes producing luxuriant crops of rice. The other objects of culture are maize, flax, hemp, and silk. The pastures are rich, and the number of black cattle and horses reared is very large. This district was formerly called *Polesino di Rovigno*, from the number of canals by which it is intersected. In 1806, the title of duke of Rovigo was given by Buonaparte to Savary, his well known Minister of Police.

ROVIGO, a considerable town of Austrian Italy, the capital of the delegation of the same name, situated on the Adigetto, a branch of the Adige. It is surrounded with a wall and moat, and has to the east a fortified castle. The *Palazzo del Podesta*, the former residence of the chief magistrate, is situated in a large square, the principal ornament of which is a pillar of stone. There are here several churches, but none worthy of notice. It is the residence of the bishop of Adria; and it was to the decline of that town that Rovigo owed its increase. Population 9000; 18 miles north-north-east of Ferrara, and 35 south-south-west of Venice. Lat. 45. 4. N. long. 11. 48. E.

ROUILLAC, a small town in the west of France, department of the Charente. Population 1200; 14 miles north-west of Angouleme.

ROUILLE (Peter-Julian), a learned Jesuit, born at Tours, in 1681, was educated in the Jesuits' college of that city, and made his profession in the society in 1715. He successively taught the languages, philosophy, and mathematics in its seminaries, and in 1724, was called to Paris by his superiors to assist Father Catrou (see his article), in the composition of his excellent Roman History. To that work he contributed only the dissertations and notes, being prevented by a long illness from writing the continuation of the history after Catrou's death. He also revised and corrected the work of Father d'Orleans, on the Revolutions of Spain; and had a share in the "Memoires de Trevoux," from December 1733 to February 1737. He delivered a "Discourse on the Excellence and Utility of Mathematics," printed at Caen in 1716; and was the author of the "Second Letter in the Examination of Racine's Poem on Grace," 1723. This Jesuit, who was beloved and esteemed in society, died at Paris in 1740. *Moreri. Nouv. Diet. Hist.*

RO'VING, *s.* Act of rambling or wandering.—The numberless *rovings* of fancy, and windings of language. *Barrow.*

ROUJAN, a small town in the south of France, department of the Herault. Population 1000; 4 miles north-east of Beziers.

ROULADE, [Fr.] in Music, a division or passage in a song of many notes to one syllable. A *roulade* is only an imitation of instrumental melody, either to grace a treble part, render an image more obvious, enforce the expression, or, when it is necessary, to suspend the discourse and prolong the melody. But it is likewise necessary that it should be on a long syllable, that the voice should be spirited, active, and capable of allowing the throat full liberty to warble and express with facility and neatness the notes of the division, without fatiguing the organs of the finger, and consequently the ears of the audience. *Rousseau.*

ROU'LEAU, *s.* [Fr.] A little roll; a roll of guineas made up in a paper.

In bright confusion open *rouleaus* lie,
They strike the soul and glitter in the eye! *Pope.*

ROULERS, a populous town in the Netherlands, in the province of West Flanders, situated on the Mandel, a small river which falls into the Lys. It contains 8500 inhabitants, employed partly in the linen manufacture, partly in the cultivation of the surrounding district, the principal product of which is flax. The adjacent pastures are rich, and the breed of cattle good; butter forms consequently an article of export. There is here a central school, with eight teachers; 12 miles north-north-east of Ypres, and 18 south of Bruges.

ROULSTON, a parish of England, in Herefordshire; 13 miles south-west of Hereford.

ROUM, i. e. the kingdom of the Romans, a name given to Natolia, by Solyman, sultan of the Turks, when he invaded and became master of it, in the 11th century. It is now chiefly applied to a part of Asiatic Turkey, extending from the Mediterranean to the Black Sea, eastward of Caramania and Natolia, and westward of Armenia and the government of Diarbekir, including the governments of Sivas, Adana, and Marasch.

ROUM KALA, a small town and fort of Persia, in the pachalic of Orfa, situated on the western bank of the Euphrates, and inhabited by Turks and Arabs. It was formerly called Zeugma, from a Grecian term signifying a bride, and was the great passage for the Roman armies into Macedonia. There were two small towns, one on each side of the river; the former was called Zeugma, and the latter Apamea. A few miles farther down the river, the caravans travelling from Aleppo to Orfa, pass the Euphrates on a bridge of boats, at a place called "Bir," which, according to M. D'Anville, represents the ancient Bèrtha; 144 miles from Aleppo, and 67 from Orfa, in lat. 36. 58. N. It is situated on an eminence on the bank of the Euphrates, protected by a citadel and a wall in a dilapidated condition. At this town, the houses of which are in a ruinous state, a tax is levied on all travellers and merchants who cross the Euphrates, which is here deep, rapid, and about 130 yards broad.

To ROUN, *v. n.* To whisper, [runian, Sax. sussurare, Germ. *runen*; M. Goth. *runa*, mysterium, The Lancashire dialect preserves this form in *reawn*, to whisper.]—And oft he *rowneth* in her ear. *Gower.*—He *rouned* in his ere. *Chaucer.*

To ROUN, *v. a.* To address in a whisper.

A little wholesome talk,
That none could hear, close *rowned* in the ear. *Breton.*

ROUNCESTON, East and West, two villages of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 7 miles south-by-west of Yarn.

ROU'NCEVAL, *s.* [from *Rouncesval*, a town at the foot of the Pyrenees.] A species of pea.

Dig garden,
And set as a daintie thy *runcival* pease. *Tusser.*

ROUND, *adj.* [*rund*, Dutch; *rotundus*, Lat.] Cylindrical.—Hollow engines long, and *round*, thick ramm'd. *Milton.*—Circular.

The queen of night,
In her increasing hornes, doth *rounder* grow,
Till full and perfect she appeare in show. *Brown.*

Spherical; orbicular.—The outside bare of this *round* world. *Milton.*—Smooth; without defect in sound.—In his satyrs Horace is quick, *round*, and pleasant, and as in nothing so bitter, so not so good as Juvenal. *Peacham.*—Whole; not broken.—Pliny put a *round* number near the truth, rather than a fraction. *Arbuthnot.*—Large; not inconsiderable: this is hardly used but with *sum* or *price.*—Three thousand ducats! 'tis a good *round sum. Shakspeare.*—They set a *round price* upon your head. *Addison.*—Plain; clear; fair; candid; open.—*Round* dealing is the honour of man's nature; and a mixture of falsehood is like allay in gold and silver, which may make the metal work the better, but it embaseth it. *Bacon.*—Quick; brisk.—Painting is a long pilgrimage; if we do not actually begin the journey, and travel it a *round* rate, we shall never arrive at

at the end of it. *Dryden.*—Plain; free without delicacy or reserve; almost rough.

Let his queen mother all alone intreat him,
To shew his griefs; let her be *round* with him. *Shakspeare.*

ROUND, *s.* A circle; a sphere; an orb.

I'll charm the air to give a sound,
While you perform your antick *round.* *Shakspeare.*

Rundle; step of a ladder.

When he once attains the upmost *round,*
He then unto the ladder turns his back,
Looks in the clouds, scorning the base degrees
By which he did ascend. *Shakspeare.*

The time in which any thing has passed through all hands, and comes back to the first: hence applied to a carousal.

A gentle *round* fill'd to the brink,
To this and t'other friend I drink. *Suckling.*

A revolution; a course ending at the point where it began.

Till by one countless sum of woes oppprest,
Hoary with cares, and ignorant of rest,
We find the vital springs relax'd and worn;
Compell'd our common impotence to mourn,
Thus through the *round* of age, to childhood we return.
Prior.

Rotation; succession in vicissitude.—Such new Utopians would have a *round* of government, as some the like in the church, in which every spoak becomes uppermost in his turn. *Holyday.*

[*Ronde,* Fr.] A walk performed by a guard or officer, to survey a certain district.—He accompanied the major of the regiment in going what are styled the *rounds.* *Langton.*—A dance; a roundelay; a song.

Come, knit hands, and beat the ground
In a light fantastick *round.* *Milton.*

A general discharge of cannon or fire-arms.

ROUND, *adv.* Every way; on all sides.—All sounds whatsoever move *round;* that is, on all sides, upwards, downwards, forwards, backwards. *Bacon.*—In a revolution.—At the best 'tis but cunning; and if he can in his own fancy raise that to the opinion of true wisdom, he comes *round* to practise his deceits upon himself. *Gov. of the Tongue.*—Circularly.

One foot he center'd, and the other turn'd
Round through the vast profundity obscure. *Milton.*

Not in a direct line.

If merely to come in, Sir, they go out;
The way they take is strangely *round* about. *Pope.*

ROUND, *prep.* On every side of.—To officiate light *round* this opacous earth. *Milton.*—About; circularly about.

He led the hero *round*
The confines of the blest Elysian ground. *Dryden.*

All over; here and there in.

Round the world we roam,
Forc'd from our pleasing fields, and native home. *Dryden.*

To ROUND, *v. a.* [*rotundo,* Lat.] To surround; to encircle.

Would that the inclusive verge
Of golden metal, that must *round* my brow,
Were redhot steel to sear me to the brain. *Shakspeare.*

To make spherical, circular, or cylindrical.—With the cleaving-knife and mawl split the stuff into a square piece near the size, and with the draw knife *round* off the edges to make it fit for the lathe. *Moxon.*—To raise to a relief.—The figures on our modern medals are raised and *rounded* to a very great perfection. *Addison.*—To move about any thing.

To those beyond the polar circle, day
Had unbenighted shone, while the low sun,
To recompense his distance, in your sight
Had *rounded* still the horizon, and not known
Or East or West. *Milton.*

To mould into smoothness.—These accomplishments, applied in the pulpit, appear by a quaint, terse, florid style, *rounded* into periods and cadences, without propriety or meaning. *Swift.*

To ROUND, *v. n.* To grow round in form.

The queen, your mother, *rounds* apace; we shall
Present our services to a fine new prince. *Shakspeare.*

To whisper.—Being come to the supping place, one of Kalander's servants *rounded* in his ear; at which he retired. *Sidney.*—To go rounds, as a guard.

They ——
Keep watch, or nightly *rounding* walk. *Milton.*

To ROUND, *v. a.* To address in a whisper. A corruption of *roun.*—Cicero was at dinner, when an ancient lady said she was but forty: one that sat by *rounded* him in the ear, she is far more out of question: Cicero answered, I must believe her, for I heard her say so any time these ten years. *Bacon.*

ROUND BAY, a bay with good anchorage, on the west coast of St. Lucia.

ROUND HILL, an island in the North Pacific ocean, near the east coast of Labrador. Lat. 53. 25. N. long. 55. 16. W.

ROUND HILL BLUFF, a cape on the north coast of Jamaica, west of Montego bay. Lat. 18. 29. N. long. 77. 58. W.

ROUND ISLAND, an island in Bristol bay, on the west coast of North America, so called by Captain Cook, from its figure. It lies in lat. 58. 37. N. long. 200. 6. E. and is seven miles from the continent.

ROUND ISLAND, a small island near the east coast of Borneo, in the bay of Gunong Tellu. Lat. 0. 28. S. long. 123. 30. E.

ROUND KEY, a small island near the coast of West Florida, or the Mississippi state, according to the new division of the country by the government of the United States.

ROUND LICK, a post village of the United States, in Smith county, Tennessee.

ROUND ROCK, one of the smaller Virgin islands, in the Atlantic ocean. Lat. 18. 10. N. long. 62. 52. W.

ROUND TABLE, the circular table at which the knights of old, who assembled together from the different countries to perform the martial exercises of the tournament, were accustomed to eat, on such occasions, to prevent disputes about precedency. Such a table is seen fixed to the eastern wall of the county-hall at Winchester, being vulgularly called "Arthur's Round Table," though it does not appear to be more ancient than the reign of king Stephen. From the use to which these tables were appropriated, the diversion itself of the tournament, or tilting, was called the Round Table. "Illustris miles, Rogerus de Mortuo-mari apud Kenilworth ludum militarem quem vocant rotundam tabulam centum militum ac tot dominarum constituit." *Th. Walsingham, Hist.*

ROUND TOP, a peak of the Catskill mountains, in New York. Height 3804 feet.

ROUNDA, a town of Hindostan, province of Khandeish, situated on the east side of the Ghirah river, belonging to the Mahrattas. Lat. 20. 54. N. long. 75. 47. E.

ROU'NDABOUT, *adj.* Ample; extensive.—Those sincerely follow reason, but for want of having large, sound, *roundabout* sense, have not a full view of all that relates to the question. *Locke.*—Indirect; loose.—Paraphrase is a *roundabout* way of translating, invented to help the barrenness, which translators, overlooking in themselves, have apprehended in our tongue. *Felton.*

ROU'NDEL, or ROU'NDELAY, *s.* [*rondelet*, Fr.] A song or tune in which preceding lines or strains are repeated.

The common roundelay consists of thirteen verses, eight of which are of one rhyme, and five in another. It is divided into couplets; at the end of the second and third of which, the beginning of the roundelay is repeated; and that, if possible, in an equivocal or punning sense.

The roundelay is a popular poem among the French, but little known among us. Marot and Voiture have succeeded the best in it.

A kind of dance.—Come now a *roundel* and a fairy song. *Shakspeare.*

Some of the ancient writers speak of the roundelay, or *roundel*, as a kind of air appropriated to dancing; and in this sense the term seems to indicate little more than dancing in a circle, with the hands joined. *Rees.*

A round form or figure.—The Spaniards, casting themselves into *roundels*, and their strongest ships walling in the rest, made a flying march to Calais. *Bacon.*

ROUNDER, *s.* Circumference; enclosure.

If you fondly pass our proffer'd offer,
'Tis not the *roundure* of your old fac'd walls
Can hide you from our messengers of war. *Shakspeare.*

ROUNDING, in Sea Language, denotes certain old ropes wound firmly and closely about that part of a cable which lies in the hawse, or under the ship's bow, or athwart the stem. It is used to prevent the surface of the cable from being chafed or fretted in those places.

ROUNDING-*in*, generally implies the act of pulling upon any rope which passes through one or more blocks, in a direction merely horizontal; as round-in the weather-braces, &c. It seems to be derived from the circular motion of the rope about the sheave or pulley through which it passes.

ROUNDING-*up*, is expressed of a tackle which hangs in a perpendicular position, without sustaining or hoisting any weighty body; in which case it is the operation of pulling the blocks closer to each other, by means of the rope which passes through them, to compose the tackle; and is opposed to over hauling, by which the blocks are drawn farther asunder.

ROU'NDHEAD, *s.* A puritan, so named from the practice once prevalent among them of cropping their hair round, or from the close round helmets they wore in the army.—Your petitioner always kept hospitality, and drank confusion to the *roundheads*. *Spectator.*

ROUNDHEA'DED, *adj.* Having a round top.—*Roundheaded* arches and windows. *Lowth.*

ROU'NDHOUSE, *s.* The constable's prison, in which disorderly persons, found in the street, are confined.—They marched to some fam'd *roundhouse*. *Pope.*

ROU'NDISH, *adj.* Somewhat round; approaching to roundness.—It is not every small crack that can make such a receiver, as is of a *roundish* figure, unless to our experiment. *Boyle.*

ROU'NDLET, *s.* A little circle.—Little circles, or *roundlets*, dispersed here and there about the hemispheres. *Gregory.*

ROU'NDLY, *adj.* Somewhat round; like a circle.

About the edges of whose *roundly* form
In order grew such trees as doe adorne
The sable hearse. *W. Browne.*

ROU'NDLY, *adv.* In a round form; in a round manner. Openly; plainly; without reserve.—He affirms every thing *roundly*, without any art, rhetoric, or circumlocution. *Addison.*—Briskly; with speed.—When the mind has brought itself to attention, it will be able to cope with difficulties, and master them, and then it may go on *roundly*. *Locke.*—Completely; to the purpose; vigorously; in earnest.—This lord justice caused the earl of Kildare to be arrested, and cancelled such charters as were lately resumed, and proceeded every way so *roundly* and severely, as the nobility did much distaste him. *Davies.*

ROU'NDNESS, *s.* Circularity; sphericity; cylindrical form.—The same reason is of the *roundness* of the bubble; for the air within avoideth discontinuance, and therefore casteth itself into a round figure. *Bacon.*—Smoothness.—The whole period and compass of this speech was delightsome for the *roundness*, and grave for the strangeness. *Spenser.*—Honesty; openness; vigorous measures.—Albeit *roundness* and plain dealing be most worthy praise. *Ralegh.*

ROUND-ROBIN, *s.* [A corruption of the Fr. *ruban rond*, a round riband.] A written petition or remonstrance, signed by several persons round a ring or circle.—It was usual among French officers, when they signed a remonstrance, to write their names in a circular form, so that it was impossible to ascertain who signed first.—The question was who should have the courage to propose them to him? at last it was hinted, that there could be no way so good as that of a *round-robin*, as the sailors call it, which they make use of when they enter into a conspiracy, so as not to let it be known who puts his name first or last to the paper. *Sir W. Forbes.*

ROUNDSTONE BAY, a harbour on the west coast of Ireland. Lat. 53. 22. N. long. 9. 56. W.

ROUNDWAY, a village of England in Wiltshire, east of Devizes, adjoining to which are Roundway Downs, remarkable for a battle fought between the parliamentary forces and Charles I.

ROVNO, a small town of European Russia, in the government of Volhynia, with 3300 inhabitants; 115 miles north-east of Lemberg.

ROUP, in Commerce, a silver coin of Turkey, containing 10 paras, the para being equal to 3 aspers, and 40 paras being equal to the dollar or piastre.

ROUP, in Poultry, is a filthy boil or swelling upon their rumps, known by the staring, or turning back of the feathers.

The roup, if not soon remedied, will corrupt the whole body; to prevent which, the feathers are to be pulled away, the swelling laid open, and the matter pressed out; after which, the part is to be washed with salt and water.

ROUSAY, one of the Orkney islands, about 9 miles long and 4 broad, lying to the north-west of the Mainland. It is altogether a range of hills, with somes stripes of arable land on the coast. The soil is good; and, if well cultivated, would yield abundant crops. The hilly ground is covered with heath, and abounds with game. There are several small lakes, from which a number of rivulets take their rise. It is, upon the whole, one of the most pleasant of the Orkney isles. Around it there are safe harbours for shipping; and the inhabitants prosecute the fisheries with great diligence. It contained, in 1811, 795 inhabitants.

ROUSAY and EGLISHAY, an united parish of the Orkneys, comprehending Rousay, Eglishay, Weir, and Inhallow, with two small holms or uninhabited islets. These are situated about three leagues north-west of Kirkwall, and lie contiguous to each other. Rousay is one continued range of hills; Eglishay is a pleasant low lying island; Weir is smaller than Eglishay; and Inhallow is still less than either. The inhabitants are principally engaged in fishing; about 44 boats belonging to the parish. Population in 1801, 1061; in 1811, 965.

To ROUSE, *v. a.* To wake from rest.

Rev'rent I touch thee! but with honest zeal,
To *rouse* the watchmen of the publick weal,
To virtue's work provoke the tardy hall;
And goad the prelate slumbering in his stall. *Pope.*

To excite to thought or action.

Then *rouse* that heart of thine,
And whatsoever heretofore thou hast assum'd to be,
This day be greater. *Chapman.*

To put into action.

As an eagle, seeing prey appear,
His airy plumes doth *rouse* full rudely dight;
So shaked he, that horror was to hear. *Spenser.*

Blust'ring

Blust'ring winds had *rous'd* the sea. *Milton.*—To drive a beast from his lair.

The blood more stirs,
To *rouse* a lion, than to start a hare. *Shakspeare.*

To ROUSE, *v. n.* To awake from slumber.

Or as men, sleeping found by whom they dread,
Rouse and bestir themselves ere well awake. *Milton.*

Melancholy lifts her head;
Morpheus *rouses* from his bed. *Pope.*

To be excited to thought or action.

Good things of day begin to droop and drowse,
While night's black agents to their prey do *rouse.*
Shakspeare.

ROUSE, *s.* [*rusch*, Germ. half drunk.] This word is used in the various significations of a riotous noise, a drunken debauch, and a large portion of liquor.

They have given me a *rouse* already.
—Not past a pint as I am a soldier. *Shakspeare.*

No jocund health that Denmark drinks to-day,
But the great cannon to the clouds shall tell;
And the king's *rouse* shall bruit it back again,
Respeaking earthly thunder. *Shakspeare.*

A large glass filled to the utmost, in honour of a health proposed.

Take the *rowse* freely,
'Twill warm your blood, and make you fit for jollity.
Beaum.

ROUSER, *s.* One who rouses.—All this which I have depainted to thee, are inciters and *rousers* of my mind. *Shelton.*

ROUSELENCH, a parish of England, in Worcestershire, between Pershore and Alcester.

ROUSHAM, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 5 miles north-east of Woodstock.

ROUSHOLM HEAD, a cape on the south-west coast of the island of Stronsa. Lat. 58. 56. N. long. 2. 34. W.

ROUSSEA [so named by Sir J. E. Smith, in memory of the celebrated Jean Jacques Rousseau, who wrote some very elegant letters on the subject of botany], in Botany, a genus of the class tetrandria, order monogynia.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth, four-cleft, smooth; segments tongue-shaped, acute, reflex. Corolla: bell-shaped, wrinkled on the outside, sub-pubescent, half-four-cleft; segments acute, revolute. Stamina: twice as long as the revolute corolla, and alternate with its segments; filaments straight, very wide, a little narrower at the top, smooth; anthers small, sagittate, acute. Pistil: germ superior, quadrangularly pyramidal, smooth; style the length of the stamens, permanent; stigma simple, blunt, umbilicate-depressed, smooth. Pericarp: berry quadrangularly pyramidal, one-celled, with a smooth, hard bark. Seeds very numerous, small, lens-shaped, nestling.—*Essential Character.* Calyx four-leaved. Corolla one-petalled, bell-shaped, four-cleft, inferior. Berry quadrangular, many-seeded.

Roussea simplex.—This is a small shrub, climbing over trees or rocks, seemingly among moss. Stem and branches thick, fleshy, knobbed. Leaves opposite, petioled, obovate, acute and subacuminate, toothed, very smooth on both sides, somewhat fleshy. Stipules intrafoliaceous, membranaceous, acute. Flowers solitary, axillary, on short peduncles, nodding, large, of a very fleshy substance. Bractes clustered, membranaceous, acute, like the stipules. Peduncles round, naked.—Found by Commerson in the island of St. Mauritius; and communicated by Mons. Thouin.

ROUSSEAU (Jean Baptiste), a very eminent French poet, was born at Paris in 1671. His father, though only a shoemaker, gave him a liberal education in the colleges of the metropolis. At an early age he distinguished himself by his poetical talents, and obtained admission among persons of rank and taste. In 1688, he attended the French ambassador to Denmark in quality of page; and he afterwards went with Marshal Tallard to England, where he contracted an intimacy with St. Evremond. In 1703, he was domiciliated with M. Rouillé, director of the finances, whom he accompanied to court and elsewhere, living in tranquillity in the midst of splendour, and cultivating the Muses, to the neglect of the opportunities presented him of making his fortune. The minister Chamillard offered him the post of provincial director of the fermes generales, which he declined. He was at the height of his reputation, and enjoying all the pleasures of society, when an unfortunate affair shed bitterness on all the remainder of his life. A number of men of letters and leisure were accustomed to meet at a coffee-house in Paris, and Rousseau and La Motte were the leading personages of this assembly, when in 1708, the opera of Hesione made its appearance. Rousseau, who had already displayed an envious and caustic disposition, wrote five couplets to the measure of an air in this opera, highly satirical upon the authors of the words, the music, and the ballet of the piece. That these anonymous couplets were his, is an acknowledged fact; but they were followed by a number of others of a similar kind, in which the most indecent licence of personal satire was employed against many known characters. All Paris exclaimed against the baseness and malignity of these concealed attacks, and the general voice attributed them to Rousseau, from their similarity to the couplets which were known to be his. This poet, however, not only asserted his own innocence, but attempted to fix the charge upon one Saurin, a man of science and letters, who, from a Calvinist minister, had become a convert to popery, and resided in Paris. It is unnecessary here to dwell upon the particulars of this disgusting controversy; the reader who wishes for further information may consult the list of writers in Voltaire's "Siècle de Louis XIV.," articles Rousseau, Saurin, and La Motte. The conclusion was, that by an arrêt of parliament in 1712, Rousseau was condemned to perpetual banishment from the kingdom, not only as a suborner in the accusation of Saurin, but as the author and distributor of "the impure and satirical verses which are the subject of the action;" nor could any solicitation afterwards procure the revocation of this decree. Rousseau had already retired to Switzerland, where he was protected by the Count de Luc, the French ambassador to the Cantons. He published at Soleure the first edition of his collected works, in the preface to which he ridiculously gives himself the air of one who wrote verses for mere amusement, although it was his poetry alone which raised him from the obscurity of a mean rank, to public notice and the favour of the great. Something like this was observable in Pope. When the Count de Luc went to Baden in 1714, as plenipotentiary for concluding peace with the emperor, Rousseau accompanied him. He there became known to prince Eugene, who was a great admirer of his poetry, and he was taken by that celebrated general with him to Vienna. He resided in his palace for three years, when, not being able, it is said, to refrain from exercising his satirical talent upon his patron, he was obliged to quit that capital for Brussels. That city thenceforth became his principal residence; but he was not formed to live in tranquillity any where. At Brussels he first became acquainted with Voltaire, then a young candidate for fame. They began with reciprocal compliments, and soon formed a confidential intimacy. It was not likely, however, that a cordial friendship should continue between the jealous possessor of mature reputation, and a rising competitor in the same walk, both of tempers abounding in causticity and selfishness, and they became bitter enemies.

Rousseau, though treated with distinction at Brussels, could not be at his ease under a sentence of banishment from Paris. He made intercession with the Regent Duke of Orleans, who granted him letters of recal; but the poet insisted upon a previous revision of his trial, and a solemn cassation of the sentence against him, which he could not obtain. He endeavoured to dissipate chagrin by travelling, and, in 1721, visited England, where he prepared a new edition of his works. This was published in 1723, in 2 vols. 4to., and produced him 10,000 crowns, which he placed in the fund of the Ostend company. The failure of this company sunk

sunk all his fortune, and he was reduced, in the decline of life, to subsist on the benevolence of his friends. Boutet, a notary of Paris, generously supplied his most urgent wants; and he met with a more considerable resource in the Duke of Aremberg, who, on being obliged to quit Brussels for Germany in 1733, settled upon him a pension of 1500 livres, besides an apartment and table in his palace. This patron, too, he had the misfortune to displease, on account of something he published calumniating Voltaire; but the duke, whilst he discharged him from his palace, proposed to continue his pension. This favour, the poet spiritedly declined. Brussels now became odious to him, and he complied with an invitation from his friends to return secretly to Paris, in the hope of finally obtaining the repeal of his banishment. He had prepared the way by two epistles, one to the Jesuit Brumoy, the other to the Jansenist Rollin, and by an ode to the praise of Cardinal Fleury on the peace. All these efforts, however, were defeated by some new imprudences of his satirical muse, and the ill offices of his enemies. He could not obtain even a safe-conduct for passing a year at Paris, and returned to Brussels, where he died in March, 1741, at the age of 70. He expressed much religious fervour on his death-bed; and on receiving the viaticum solemnly protested that he was not the author of the couplets for which he had been condemned.

He was very generally acknowledged to stand at the head of ode-writers in the French language. To those compositions he brought great fire and force of expression, copiousness, and grandeur of imagery, and all the harmony of which his language is capable; but the sentiment is generally common, and nothing indicates a soul of the superior order. Of his Odes there are four books, of which the first consists of sacred topics, taken from the Psalms. He wrote besides two books of Epistles in verse, more querulous and misanthrophical than philosophical; cantatas, in which species he is regarded as original and unrivalled; allegories; epigrams, some of the earlier of which are licentious, but the pointed severity of this kind of composition was well suited to his genius; "Miscellaneous Poems," mostly defective in ease and grace; four Comedies in verse and three in prose; generally of little merit; a collection of Letters in prose, which are said to give a very unfavourable idea of his temper and feelings; but something should be pardoned to a man who was so long an object of the persecution of his enemies, and of whom Piron has said, in an epitaph, that "thirty years he was an object of envy, and thirty of compassion." *Moreri. Nouv. Dict. Hist. Voltaire Siècle de Louis XIV.*

ROUSSEAU (Jean Jacques), the most eloquent French writer and singular character of his age, was born at Geneva in 1712. His father was a watch-maker, an ingenious man, and tinctured with that taste for literature which is almost universal among the citizens of Geneva. The aliment he administered to the young mind of his son was doubtless, one of the most powerful external causes which conduced to the formation of his character: he read romances with the boy till he was eight years old, and then led him through a course of Plutarch's Lives, with which he intermixed such conversations as might be expected from an ardent republican. A taste for romantic adventure, and a high admiration of free and patriotic principles, were therefore impressed on his mind in indelible colours. In his "Confessions," Rousseau has recorded several other circumstances which, in his opinion, exerted a lasting influence upon his character; but it is more probable that his ruling propensities were determined by his bodily constitution. This, he represents as of the warmest kind, "burning with sensuality from his very birth;" in fact, he was all susceptibility, mental and corporeal, and made to be a creature of feeling rather than of reason. His school education was very imperfect, and never enabled him to read Latin with facility. He grew up in habits of idleness, and the vices of a weak unsteady temper. He was first apprenticed to an attorney, who soon discharged him for negligence; and was then put to an engraver, who disgusted him by what he thought tyranny. The fear of chastisement rendered him, in his 16th year, a fugitive from this master, at which time, by his own account, he was a restless discontented being, consumed with desires of which he knew not the object, and caressing his fancies for want of realities. He strolled away to the territory of Savoy, where he was hospitably entertained by a parish priest, who pleased himself with the idea of making a proselyte of a Genevan heretic. For this purpose he sent the youth to Annecy, to a Mad. de Warrens, a new convert to the Catholic church, who had left her husband at Lausanne, and employed all the charitable zeal of her character in the pious work of proselyting. A captivating woman of 28 was well calculated to operate conviction upon the mind of an enthusiast of 16; but for further instruction she forwarded him to a seminary of catechumens at Turin, where his conversion was completed, and he got twenty florins in exchange with his new religion. When this money was spent, he found no better resource than to enter as a footman into the service of a countess of Vercellis. Here he committed a crime which is scarcely conceivable how any man could be brought to confess. He became attached to an amiable girl of the household, and he stole a ribbon or some trinket to present her with. It was discovered, however, in his possession, and he accused her of having given it to him. The touching appeal she made to him was such as none but the depravest heart could have resisted. He persisted, nevertheless, in his cowardly accusation; she was disgraced, and he heard no more of her. After the death of the countess, he entered the family of a nobleman, whose son, a man of letters, took pains to instruct him in literture, and treated him rather as a companion than a servant. But the flattering prospects opened to him by this connexion he destroyed by his misconduct; and being turned out of doors, after passing some time as a vagabond, he returned to Mad. de Warrens. This lady had found means to ally her devotional turn with the indulgence of amorous propensities, of which her young protegé was an object, though not the only one; and it is a remarkable proof of Rousseau's utter ignorance of human nature (which was the main object of his study), that he actually believed this woman to have *reasoned herself* into licentiousness; that she had naturally an aversion to immodesty, but that she abandoned herself to the embraces of those she esteemed, as the only method of fixing their affection. This almost incredible absurdity was not the offspring of Rousseau's youth and inexperience, but was promulgated by him in the latter years of his life, when he might surely have learnt to see that placidity is not utterly incompatible with libidinousness. Through Mad. Warrens' interest, he obtained a place as secretary to a commission appointed by the King of Sardinia, for surveying lands; and in this employ he continued two years, during which he applied to the study of arithmetic and geometry. Music, however, which he had already taught, became his passion; and growing disgusted with his other occupation, he renounced it, and took up the profession of music-master at Chambery. In this place he passed eight more years, intimately connected with Mad. de Warrens, though not without following her example of occasional deviations to other favourites. At length a coldness between them took place, and our philosopher (such he was now become in his studies), was recommended by her to the office of tutor to the children of M. de Mably, at Lyons. This place he did not long keep. He went to Paris, where he seems to have lived in indigence and obscurity till 1743, when he was appointed secretary to the French ambassador to the republic of Venice. It was not long before he quarrelled with his superior; and returning to Paris with an improved knowledge in music, he supported himself by copying music, at the same time employing his leisure in the study of natural philosophy and botany. He was also for some time clerk to a farmer general; and with part of his profits in this place he repaid some of the pecuniary assistance he had received from Mad. de Warrens, who now stood in need of it. In 1748 he began to feel the attacks of a disorder in the bladder, which tormented him during his whole life, and by incapacitating him for active employments, was probably a remote

a remote cause of his literary fame. He had already acquired some reputation by his pen, and the undertakers of the Encyclopædia engaged him, in 1749, to compose the musical articles in their dictionary. The following year was the epoch of his first appearance, under his own name, on the theatre of letters. The academy of Dijon had proposed for its prize question, "Whether the re-establishment of the arts and sciences has contributed to purify morals?" Rousseau, it is said, had intended to take the affirmative side; but by the persuasion of Diderot, was induced to support the negative, as more likely to attract notice: whether or not this assertion be correct, he displayed so much ingenuity and eloquence in his discourse on this occasion, that it was crowned by the academy, and was generally read with the interest usually inspired by a splendid paradox. Several answers appeared to it, one of which was written by the king of Poland, Stanislaus: but it was enough for Rousseau to have made his name known with so much distinction in the literary world. The part which Rousseau chose to take, seems durably to have impressed him with that preference of savage to civilized life which was so frequent a subject of his declamation. Among other attacks which this discourse drew upon him, was that of being ridiculed on the stage of Nancy, by Palissot, in his "Comedie des Philosophes." The king of Poland (then duke of Lorraine) was so much displeased with this insult, that he caused a letter of apology to be written to Rousseau, at the same time acquainting him that he had deprived Palissot of his place in the academy of Nancy; and it is to the philosopher's credit that he immediately interceded for him and obtained his restoration.

In 1752, Rousseau wrote a comedy, entitled "Narcisse, ou l'Amant de lui-même," represented by the Comediens François. He also composed his musical entertainment of "Le Devin du Village," both the words and the music; a piece of charming simplicity, which was represented with the greatest success at Paris. In the midst of the applause it excited, this strange paradoxical being took occasion in his "Lettre sur la Musique Françoise," to prove that the French had no such thing as vocal music, and, from the defects of their language, could not have. The letter was written with great taste and knowledge of the subject; but this ungracious return for the favour shewn to his own performance, and the severity with which he treated the national idol, *le grand opera*, brought down a storm of resentment on his head. Besides the abuse he underwent in various publications, he was burnt in effigy at the theatre of the opera, whilst he pleasantly returned thanks to those "who at length had withdrawn him from the torture." Returning to Geneva in 1754, he abjured the Roman Catholic religion, and was restored to his rights of citizenship. For this favour he made a return by the truly eloquent and patriotic dedication to the republic of his "Discours sur les Causes de l'Inégalité parmi les Hommes, et sur l'Origine des Sociétés." It is impossible for any one to appear, at least, a better man and citizen, or to give more salutary advice to his fellow-citizens, than he has done in this dedication. The discourse itself, written upon a prize-question proposed by the academy of Dijon, and crowned by it with many just and enlightened sentiments on the subject on which it treats, is upon the whole rather rhetorical than argumentative, and is over-run with idle declamation in praise of a savage, and depreciation of a civilized state, which the author has repeated in his works till it becomes quite disgusting.

In 1758, Rousseau, who was now living at Montmorency, near Paris, as a studious solitary, published his letter to M. D'Alembert, on the design of establishing a theatre at Geneva. This piece is written with great force of reasoning, and much solid observation on life and manners; and though he may have carried too far his objections to theatrical exhibitions in general, it cannot be denied that he has produced many good arguments against their introduction into a place under the circumstances of Geneva. Nor was there so much real as seeming inconsistency in his opposing at his native city, spectacles for which he had been a writer at Paris. This work is said to have laid the foundation of that hatred which Voltaire never ceased to entertain for the Genevan philosopher. It was replied to by d'Alembert and Marmontel.

In 1760, Rousseau published his famous novel, entitled "Lettres de Deux Amants, &c." but commonly known by the title of "Julie, ou la Nouvelle Heloise." In the preface he justifies his consistency on this head also, in the following words: "Public spectacles are necessary for great cities, and romances for a corrupted people. I have viewed the manners of my age, and I have published these letters. Why did not I live at a time when I ought to have thrown them into the fire?" He further affects to say that his work is not made for extensive circulation, and that it will suit few readers. With regard to its effects on the female sex, he satisfies his conscience with saying, "Never, chaste girl, read romances; and I have given this book a decisive title, that on opening it a reader may know what to expect. She who, notwithstanding, shall dare to read a single page, is undone: but let her not impute her ruin to me—the mischief was done before." In all this there is as much bad faith, as insolence and vanity. He made the work as seductive as he could, and would have been much mortified if it had not been very generally read; nor could he doubt that many young girls, even among his innocent Genevans, would be readers. If he thought it of so inflammatory a tendency that its perusal would corrupt female chastity, he ought to have thrown it into the fire, whatever were the character of the age in which he lived. But in reality he assumes in it the tone of a moral teacher of the highest order; nor can it be denied, amidst much improper matter, to contain many lessons of domestic prudence and exalted virtue. This is not the place to enter into an estimate of a work universally known, and both praised and censured without moderation. In warmth of painting and eloquence of sentiment, it must be allowed to have no superior in its class; in moral inconsistency and improbability, scarcely an equal. With deep knowledge of the author's heart, it joins great ignorance of that of others; with much sober and useful truth, all the extravagance of exaggerated feeling. It is a dangerous work, but has been the parent of others more dangerous, because affording easier objects of imitation. Not long after the Nouvelle Heloise, appeared the author's tract "Du Contrat Social, ou Principes du Droit Politique," alleged to be an extract from a more extensive work which he had commenced, but had long abandoned as beyond his powers. This is a closely-reasoned dissertation on the fundamental principles of civil polity, firmly supporting those doctrines upon which alone public liberty can be established. He excludes from the rank of free governments all except real democracies, in which every citizen gives his personal consent to the laws which he is to obey. Accordingly, Rousseau has been accounted one of the principal incendiaries of the conflagration in which so large a portion of Europe has been involved; but to this imputation he is liable only in common with all the other writers in favour of freedom, though the eloquence and popularity of his works may have rendered them peculiarly operative on the European continent. The work in question was prohibited in France, and also in republican Switzerland; and from its publication may be dated that warfare between the author and the supporters of authority, civil and religious, which exposed all the rest of his life to storms and persecutions.

Rousseau's "Emile, ou de l'Education," was published in 1762. It may be regarded as the author's principal work, as it was also that in which he the most boldly opposed received opinions, and, of course, excited against himself the greatest mass of hostility. His fundamental idea in education is to suffer the young mind to develope by itself, rather preventing it from imbibing any thing mischievous, than hastening to impress it with lessons of preceptive instruction; presenting to it objects of nature rather than of art; and regulating conduct more by the restraints of necessity than of principle, till a foundation is laid for the operation of reason unbiassed by habit and prejudice. That many of his observations display excellent sense and sound philosophy, and may be applied to great advantage in the business of education

education, will be admitted by every candid and enlightened reader; and he deserves great applause for the manly independent spirit, the contempt of luxurious indulgences and idle parade, that he everywhere inculcates. But the experiment of leaving education to the wishes of children, however plausible and agreeable, and however well supported by a few brilliant instances of success, will be found impracticable on a general scale. Rousseau is himself an instance of its disadvantages. The great corruption of his mind in early life, the pettyness of his conduct in youth and age, his bad taste, and his unskilful method of attacking falsehood, are not compensated either by the force of his reasonings or the extent of his information.

In the work under consideration, Rousseau indisposed against him almost all the religious world, by the manner in which he spoke of the attempts to furnish the youthful mind with theological ideas; and he made enemies of the different sects of Christians by a profession of faith put into the mouth of a Savoyard vicar, which was little more than a system of theism. No one, indeed, could more eloquently extol the morality of the Gospel than he has done; but by this praise, and his sentiments of piety, he displeased the French philosophers; so that there was scarcely a party of men to whom he did not stand in opposition. Of these, however, by much the most formidable were his antagonists possessed of authority. The "Emile" was anathematised by the Archbishop of Paris in an express *mandemant*, and ordered to be burnt by the parliament of Paris, which proceeded criminally against the author; and about the same time it was burnt at Geneva. Rousseau fled from France, and was protected at Yverdun, till the sovereigns of Berne ordered him to quit their territory. He then took refuge at Motiers-Travers, in the principality of Neufchatel, where he received the hospitable protection of the governor, marshal Kieth. He there published a very eloquent and forcible "Letter to the Archbishop of Paris, Christopher de Beaumont," in answer to his "Mandement." His "Lettres de la Montaigne," published in 1764, were a remonstrance against the proceedings of the republic of Geneva in his condemnation, the citizenship of which state he formally renounced. A passage of these Letters contains a remarkable proof of the high idea he entertained of his own merit in the work for which he underwent so much obloquy and persecution. "How (says he) can I resolve to enter into a justification of this work? I, who think that I have effaced by it the faults of my whole life; I, who place the evils it has drawn upon me as a balance to those which I have committed; I, who filled with confidence, hope one day to say to the Supreme Arbiter, Deign in thy clemency to judge a weak mortal; I have done ill upon the earth, but I have published this writing." In these letters he again expressed his sentiments concerning revealed religion, in a manner which excited great indignation among the clergy of Neufchatel. A consistory was assembled to take his opinions into consideration, but its proceedings were stopt by the government. The ferment, however, which they had raised in the minds of the people, occasioned some popular insults to be offered to Rousseau, who, under the apprehension of more serious outrages, requested the magistrates of Berne to permit him to retire to an island in the lake of Bienne, promising not to leave it, nor to publish any more; but his request was refused. Driven to seek another asylum, he arrived at Strasburg, where the marshal de Contades gave him a very kind reception. After hesitating for a time upon an intention to go to Berlin, he suddenly changed his plan, and went to Paris, where he appeared in an Armenian habit. The celebrated Hume was at this period in that capital, in the quality of chargé d'affaires from the English court; and, having been applied to in favour of Rousseau, who was desirous of making England his asylum, he willingly undertook the charge of conducting him hither in the beginning of 1766.

At this period, the real persecutions he had undergone, the hostility with which he had been hunted from country to country, the acrimony of his numerous opponents, and the ferment his presence had excited in the different places of his residence, had so agitated his susceptible mind, and inflamed his vanity, that he imagined himself to be the most important object in Europe, and fancied that a general confederacy was formed against him of all sects and parties. This notion filled him with absurd suspicions, and rendered him prone to view every thing in a wrong light, and to magnify trifles into matters of great moment. In short, he was under the influence of a perversion of temper and intellect, nearly amounting to *mental derangement*— a malady which, indeed, in a certain degree seems to have attended him through life, and which alone can account for his singularities and inconsistencies. Without this clue, his conduct to Hume must appear the extreme of baseness and ingratitude. That gentleman had employed himself with the most friendly assiduity in finding an agreeable retreat for the unhappy wanderer, and had at length obtained from Mr. Davenport, a gentleman of fortune and family, the gratuitous use for him of his house at Wooton in Derbyshire, where he and the *gouvernante* who had long lived with him, were boarded at a very moderate expense. He farther made use of his interest with the ministers to procure for Rousseau a royal pension; and the consent of the king to this measure was obtained on the condition of its being kept a secret. It happened that in the preceding winter, Mr. Horace Walpole, then at Paris, had amused himself with writing a letter in the name of the King of Prussia, for the purpose of throwing ridicule upon Rousseau. This piece of pleasantry had been widely circulated, and at length appeared in an English newspaper. The poor man immediately took it into his head that Hume had sent it to the press; and his diseased mind connected this supposed fact (which was wholly groundless) with a plot formed by a pretended friend, in conjunction with his enemies, to ruin his reputation and bring him to dishonour. It was impossible to convince him of the falsehood and absurdity of this suspicion. He solemnly renounced friendship with Hume, and declined accepting the offered pension, which he seems to have considered as the instrument by which his character for independence was to be destroyed. There were those who in this transaction charged him with acting a part, and purposely taking occasion to throw off the burden of an obligation to his friend, and make a parade of refusing a favour from a crowned head; but the extravagance of this conduct, and the weakness of the suppositions on which he grounded his charges, seem to prove that he really laboured under a mental delusion, favoured, indeed, by habitual pride and self-consequence.

He did not remain much longer in England, where he probably had been mortified by the small degree in which he excited the public attention; for neither freedom in writing, nor eccentricity of manners or thinking, were novelties here. He left the country in 1767, and went to France, where he met with various protectors, with whom he passed his time in different provinces. In this year he published his "Dictionnaire de Musique," a performance displaying much taste and science; but as he repeated in it his attacks upon French music, it brought upon him some severe criticism. It tended more to harmonize his mind that he resumed his botanical pursuits, and in the summer of 1768 collected plants on the mountains of Dauphiné. In the following year he married his gouvernante, or mistress, for he had had five children by her, all of whom he sent to the orphan hospital—a dereliction of duty that is perhaps the greatest stain upon his character. This woman was a vulgar and mean person, who employed her ascendancy over him in fomenting his quarrels with his friends. She was, however, a faithful and valuable nurse to him under his infirmities. During the summer of 1770 he appeared at a coffee-house in Paris in his ordinary dress, and received with pleasure the plaudits of the surrounding crowd. It was one of the inconsistencies of this extraordinary man, to effect a love of solitude and a misanthropical dislike of society, and yet never to be easy without occupying the public attention. He could neither accommodate himself to the world, nor live out of it. On this point Madame de Genlis in her polix memoirs, records an interesting circumstance.

On

On one occasion Rousseau, when in extreme old age, allowed himself with much difficulty to be prevailed upon to accompany the above lady and her friends to the theatre. As his fear of being recognized by the public was his excuse for not going, and as his reluctance was only overcome by the promise of a back seat, Madame de Genlis was highly surprized to observe during the whole performance he was getting up or setting down, thrusting his head forwards, and by every other means endeavouring to excite notice. A few persons recognised him, and he was pointed out in their boxes as an object of curiosity. Piqued at the little emotion he excited, the old gentleman broke off all acquaintance with de Genlis, alleging that she had persuaded him to go to the theatre for the purpose of shewing him and gratifying her foolish vanity. To return to his history. In 1775 his "Pygmalion" was acted with great success at the Comedie Françoise. He seems to have passed some of his latter years more tranquilly than any former period of his life, having consented to renounce all farther discussion of those controverted topics which had involved him in so many hostilities, and to keep his philosophy for his own use. Still, however, suspicious of the machinations of a supposed confederacy against him, he accepted in May, 1778, an invitation from the Marquis de Girardin to retire with his wife to a small house near his beautiful seat of Ermenonville, where he died of an apoplectic attack in the following July, at the age of 66. The marquis erected a monument for him in the Isle of Poplars in his pleasure grounds, with the inscription.—*Ici repose l'Homme de la Nature et de la Vérité.*

After Rousseau's death, were published his "Confessions," in six books, in which he has given a minute account of his life to his 30th year. This very singular piece of autobiography is itself a striking exemplification of character; for scarcely any work of the kind can be found (that of Cardan perhaps excepted) in which circumstances so degrading and humiliating are related with so little reserve; whilst the air of importance given to the most trivial incidents in which he was concerned, and the cynical contempt of shame implied by exhibiting himself thus naked to the world, prove it to have been dictated more by self-consequence than by contrition. He might, indeed, have passed for a better man if this work had not been written, but he could not have had a pretext for talking so much about himself. Another posthumous work, entitled "Les Reveries du Promeneur Solitaire," gives a view of his thoughts and sentiments at a later period, when his mind was occupied with all the contests and vexations he had undergone on account of his writings, and when he fancied himself the object of a grand confederacy of foes. This too is highly characteristic; and, together with several small pieces in vindication of himself, might be advantageously studied by one who was curious to anatomize the whole mind of this moral and literary phenomenon. To the list of his writings already noticed, might be added many more of smaller importance, but all marked with his peculiar warmth and energy of style, and vigour of thinking. He was one of the writers who exercised the greatest influence upon the opinions of his age; and at the period of the French revolution his works were referred to as of the highest authority in political matters, and his memory was almost deified. His reputation has since been in the wane; but as long as the language lasts in which he wrote, he cannot cease to be regarded as one of its greatest authors. His works have been published collectively in 17 vols. 4to. *Confess. de Rousseau. Senebier Hist. Lit. de Geneve. Mem. of Baron Grimm. Mem. of Mad. Genlis.*

ROUSSEL (William), a learned French Benedictine of the congregation of St. Maur, who flourished at the beginning of the 18th century, was born at Conches, a small town within the diocese of Evreux in Normandy, in the year 1658. He became a member of the congregation in the year 1680, and at first chiefly directed his attention to those studies which should qualify him for the office of a preacher. As he possessed a fine genius, and very excellent oratorical talents, his pulpit-exhibitions soon became the theme of general commendation at Paris, and were attended by numerous audiences. Preferring retirement and quiet, however, to the love of fame, he withdrew from the capital to Rheims, and afterwards to Argenteuil, where he spent the remainder of his life in devotion and study. He died at the last mentioned place in 1717, when he was about 59 years of age. He published an excellent translatiou of "The Letters of St. Jerome," in 3 vols. 8vo.; the two first of which appeared in 1704, and the third, containing the critical letters on that father on the sacred scriptures, in 1707. They are accompanied with a good preface, learned and useful notes and remarks, and moral maxims collected from the works of St. Jerome. He was also the author of an "Eloge" on father Mabillon, which is said to be a masterly composition, and is inserted in the different "Bibliothèques" of the authors who were members of the congregation of St. Maur. Father Roussel had employed many years in making preparations for writing a "Literary History of France," and his materials had become so considerable that he was on the point of commencing that work, when his superiors directed him to employ his pen in drawing up a history of his congregation. Scarcely had he laid the plan of this undertaking, before death terminated his labours in the year 1717, when he was about the age of 59. The collections which he made for his "Literary History of France," were delivered over to father Rivet, a member of the same congregation, who availed himself of them. See RIVET.

ROUSSELAR, an inland town of the Netherlands, in East Flanders. Population 3100.

ROUSSILLON, the name, before the revolution, of a small province in the south of France, bounded by Languedoc, Spain, and the Mediterranean. In the south it is mountainous; but the rest of the province is level, and traversed by a number of small rivers descending from the Pyrenees, the principal of which are the Tet and the Tech. The climate is warm, or rather hot, and not only wine, but olives, and in certain spots oranges, and even pomegranates, grow here in the open air. Sheep are numerous in the mountains, and their wool is in general of good quality. The chief town is Perpignan. Roussillon now forms the department of the Eastern Pyrenees.

ROUSILLON, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Isere, with a castle, and 1500 inhabitants; 12 miles south-south-west of Vienne.

ROUSSINES, a large village in the south-west of France, department of the Charente, with 1100 inhabitants, and considerable iron-works.

ROUT, *s.* [*route*, old Fr. *rot*, Teut. *rotte*, Germ. *ruta*, *routa*, low Lat. "*rhawd*, *rhawter*, Welsh, caterva turma, *rhodio*, vagari."] A clamorous multitude; a rabble; a tumultuous crowd.

Besides the endless *routs* of wretched thralls,
Which thither were assembled day by day
From all the world. *Spenser.*

Nor do I name of men the common *rout*,
That, wandering loose about,
Grow up and perish, as the summer fly. *Milton.*

[*Route*, Fr.] Confusion of an army defeated or dispersed.

Thy army,
As if they could not stand when thou wer't down,
Dispersed in *rout*, betook them all to fly. *Daniel.*

Their mightiest quell'd, the battle swerv'd,
With many an inrode gor'd; deformed *rout*
Enter'd, and foul disorder. *Milton.*

To ROUT, *v. a.* To dissipate and put into confusion by defeat.—That part of the king's horse, that charged the Scots, so totally *routed* and defeated their whole army, that they fled. *Clarendon.*

To ROUT, *v. n.* To assemble in clamorous and tumultuous crouds.—The meaner sort *routed* together, and suddenly assailing the earl in his house, slew him. *Bacon.*

To ROUT, or ROWT, *v. n.* [*hriota*, Icel. hnuran, Sax.] To snore in sleep. *Obsolete.*

The

The beting of the sea—
And that a man stande out of doubte
A myle off thens, and heare it *route*. *Chaucer.*

They had gode leysir for to *route*,
To vye who mighten slepe best. *Chaucer.*

To ROUT, *v. n.* To search in the ground: as, a swine. A corruption of *root*. See *To* ROOT.—It is a low expression also for making any search.

Do thou the monumental hillock guard
From trampling cattle, and the *routing* swine. *Edwards.*

ROUTE, *s.* [*route*, Fr.] Road; way.

Wide through the furzy field their *route* they take,
Their bleeding bosoms force the thorny brake. *Gay.*

ROUTINE, *s.* [French; anciently *rottine*, "an usual course, beaten path, ordinary way." *Cotgrave.*] Custom; practice.—He has certain set forms and *routines* of speech. *Butler.*

ROUTOT, a small town in the north of France, department of the Eure. Population 1100; 9 miles east-by-north of Pont Audemer.

ROUVRAY, a pretty town in the east of France, department of the Cote d'Or, with 800 inhabitants; 47 miles west-by-north of Dijon.

ROW, *s.* [*reih*, Germ. pæþa, Sax.] A rank or file; a number of things ranged in a line.

Lips never part, but that they show
Of precious pearl the double *row*. *Sidney.*

After them all dancing on a *row*,
The comely virgins came with garlands dight,
As fresh as flowres. *Spenser.*

ROW, *s.* A riotous noise; a drunken debauch. *A low expression.*

To ROW, *v. n.* [þopan, Sax.] To impel a vessel in the water by oars.—He saw them toiling in *rowing*; for the wind was contrary. *St. Mark.*—Some of these troughs or canoes were so great, that above twenty men have been found *rowing* in one. *Abbot.*

To ROW, *v. a*, To drive or help forward by oars. —The swan *rows* her state with oary feet.. *Milton.*

ROW, a parish of Scotland, in Dumbartonshire, lying upon Loch Gair and the frith of Clyde, having Cardross on the east, Arroquhar on the north, and Roseneath on the west side of the Gairloch, for its boundaries. It is about 14 miles long, and 3 broad; and the surface is in general hilly, the ground rising gradually from the east. The soil is mostly light, and, when properly cultivated, abundantly fertile. The hills are green, and afford good pasture. The thriving village of Helenburg is in this parish. Population 1243.

ROW'ABLE, *adj.* Capable of being rowed upon.

That long barren fen,
Once *rowable*; but now doth nourish men
In neighbour towns, and feels the weighty plough
B. Jonson.

ROWAN, a county of the United States, in the west part of North Carolina. Population 21,543: Slaves 3757. Chief town, Salisbury.

ROWBARROW, a parish of England, in Somersetshire; 3 miles north-east of Axbridge.

ROWCESTER, a village of England, in Staffordshire, north-east of Uttoxeter, near the confluence of the Dove and Churnel.

ROWDE, a parish of England, in Wiltshire; 2 miles west-by-north from Devizes. Population 997.

ROWE (Elizabeth), a lady distinguished for her piety and her poetical talents, was the daughter of the Rev. Walter Singer, a dissenting minister, possessed of a moderate estate near Frome in Somersetshire. He was imprisoned for non-conformity in the intolerant reign of Charles II. at Ilchester, where he married, and where his daughter Elizabeth was born in 1674. She displayed from childhood a passion for reading, together with a devotional turn, which, however, did not impair her natural vivacity, or prevent her from cultivating a taste for the agreeable arts. She began to write verses at twelve years of age, and she practised both music and drawing. Her poetry excited notice in the neighbourhood, and gave her an introduction to the family of Lord Viscount Weymouth at Long-Leat, near Frome. The deprived Bishop Kenn was a resident in that house, and paid much attention to the young poetess; and the Hon. Mr. Thynne, son to Lord Weymouth, undertook to be her teacher in French and Italian. In her 22d year, at the request of her friends, she published a volume of miscellaneous poems, which made her advantageously known. Possessing an agreeable person, and a large share of the accomplishments of her sex, she attracted several admirers, among whom is said to have been the celebrated Prior; but as matrimony does not seem to have ever been his object, it is probable that his addresses were only complimentary. In her 36th year, she gave her hand to Mr. Thomas Rowe, with whom she lived in the enjoyment of the highest felicity, till the year 1715, when he died.

From this time she passed her days for the most part in retirement at Frome, but making occasional visits to some intimate friends, among whom one of the most distinguished was the excellent Countess of Hertford.

Of her poetical compositions, besides the early volume already mentioned, she published "The History of Joseph," and some other miscellaneous poems. Of these, the general character is correct and melodious versification, and a flow of ornate language, and tender and elevated sentiment. Among her prose writings, the most popular was that entitled "Friendship in Death, in Twenty Letters from the Dead to the Living." These are the work of a lively and florid imagination, and a feeling heart, exercised in pious meditations, and never fail to be highly impressive upon the minds of young and susceptible readers. They have passed through many editions, and are usually accompanied by other pieces of the author's of a moral and religious kind. She also published "Letters, moral and entertaining, in Prose and Verse," in three parts. She wrote without labour, and with no great attention to correctness. She died in 1737.

ROWE (Nicholas), an English poet, descended from an ancient family in Devonshire, was the son of John Rowe, Esq. serjeant-at-law, a barrister of reputation and extensive practice. He was born in 1674, at the house of his maternal grandfather at Little Berkford (now called Barford,) Bedfordshire. After a preliminary education in a private school at Highgate, he was placed under Dr. Busby at Westminister, as a king's scholar, and pursued the classical studies of that seminary with credit. His poetical exercises in the learned languages and in English were particularly admired. He was removed from school at the age of 16, and entered a student of the Middle Temple, it being his father's intention to bring him up to his own profession. He proceeded so far in the study of the law as to be called to the bar; but the death of his father, when he was 19, had freed him from the authority which was probably his principal motive for applying to a pursuit foreign to his disposition, and he gradually turned his chief attention to poetry and polite literature. At the age of 25 he produced his first tragedy, "The ambitious Step-mother;" the story of which appears founded on that of Solomon elevated to the throne by the machinations of his mother Bathsheba, but the scene and circumstances are totally different. The play was acted at Lincoln's Inn Fields, and though marked with all the faults of a juvenile composition, its success is said to have rendered the author a decided deserter from the law. His next dramatic performance was "Tamerlane," acted in 1702. This was intended to have a political signification; the tyrant and despot Bajazet being a type of Lewis XIV., then considered as the great foe of liberty, civil and religious; and the Tartar Tamerlane, metamorphosed into a perfect prince, representing King William. In both portraits there was much exaggeration, but the purpose of the piece, and its pompous sentiments, caused it to be received with great applause. It was frequently

frequently acted during that and the following reign. Proceeding in his dramatic career, he gave to the public his "Fair Penitent" in 1703. This is, perhaps, his most striking performance; for the plot is borrowed from Massinger's "Fatal Dowry," to which it is miserably inferior in point of language and character, and by no means superior in arrangement or delicacy. He made an attempt in comedy in 1706, but did not succeed; and he was prudent enough not again to engage in a kind of composition unsuited to his genius. From that time to 1715, he brought out in succession the tragedies of "Ulysses," "The Royal Convert," "Jane Shore," and "Lady Jane Grey." Of these, the two last only have survived on the stage, though all have their merits. "Jane Shore" to this day employs the talents of the principal performers, and never fails to be viewed with deep interest. During this interval he appeared as an editor of Shakspeare's plays, prefixing an account of the life of that transcendant genius.

Rowe was not so exclusively engaged in his poetical studies as to neglect those opportunities of entering into public life which his reputation and connexions afforded. He had decidedly joined the whig party, and when the Duke of Queensberry was made secretary of state, he was appointed by that nobleman his under-secretary. This post he held nearly three years, when the Duke died, and his services were no more called for during the remainder of Queen Anne's reign. Upon the authority of Pope, with whom he was well acquainted, it is affirmed that he applied to the treasurer, Lord Oxford, for employment, and that upon being asked by the minister whether he understood Spanish, taking it for a hint that some post at the court of Spain was designed for him, he immediately applied to the study of that language; that waiting upon the treasurer again to inform him that he had mastered the task, "Then, Sir, (replied Lord Oxford) I envy you the pleasure of reading Don Quixote in the original"—and dismissed him. As it does not appear why this insult should be offered, and it is also improbable that a stanch whig should ask a place from a tory minister, some doubt attends the story. On the accession of George I. the place of laureat was conferred upon him, and certainly did not lose any dignity by the exchange of Nahum Tate for Rowe. To this poetical promotion were added the more valuable posts of one of the land-surveyors of the port of London, clerk of the closet to the Prince of Wales, and secretary of presentations to Lord-chancellor Parker. The emoluments of these offices, with his paternal fortune, rendered him one of the best provided of the poetical fraternity, and enabled him to support a respectable station in society. He was twice married to women of good connexions, and had a son by his first wife, and a daughter by the second. He died in December, 1718, in the 45th year of his age, and was interred among the poets in Westminster Abbey. His widow raised a sumptuous monument to his memory, for which Pope wrote an epitaph, but not that which now appears. It was indeed, rather a memorial of Dryden than of Rowe, whom it very faintly praised.

The personal character of this poet is highly extolled by his biographer Dr. Welwood, as possessing every amiable and estimable quality. A testimony of his agreeable talents for society is given by Pope in one of his letters, who speaks of him as endowed with a vivacity and gaiety of disposition almost peculiar to himself, and which rendered it painful to part with him. On the other hand, the same poet described Rowe to Warburton, as having a decent character, but no heart; and he quoted Addison's authority to the same purpose.

It is in the quality of a tragic poet that Rowe has the principal claims upon posterity. Of that school which was founded rather upon the model of French tragedy, than upon that of our ancient dramatists, Rowe may be placed in the very first rank; for of no other in this class so many pieces still keep possession of the stage, or are read with so much pleasure in the closet. It cannot be said, indeed, that he possesses in a high degree the principal parts of dramatic invention, such as the nice discriminations of character, and the skilful developement and varied play of passion; but his versification is singularly sweet, and his plays abound with what the French call *tirades* of sentiment, given with some force and elegance, and calculated to dwell on the mind. The fables, too, are generally interesting, and the situations often striking. In one of his tragedies, that of Jane Shore, he has professed himself an imitator of the style of Shakspeare; but, as Dr. Johnson observes, it is difficult to conceive in what point he imagined this imitation to consist, for nothing can be more dissimilar than the mode and colour of writing in the two poets, as nothing could be less resembling than their genius. He gave versions of the "Golden Verses of Pythagoras," and of the first book of "Quillet's Callipædia;" but his great labour of this kind was a translation of "Lucan's Pharsalia," not published till after his death. This work Dr. Johnson does not scruple to call "one of the greatest productions of English poetry," for he has generally done more justice to industry than to invention. It is, indeed, a very respectable performance of the kind, though, when compared with the original, it will often appear diffuse, and though it sometimes exaggerates even the extravagance of the Latin poet. The "Poetical Works" of Rowe, consisting of his plays and miscellaneous poems, were published collectively in 3 vols. 12mo., 1719, with an account of his life prefixed. His translation of the "Pharsalia" was published soon after his death by Dr. Welwood, with a dedication to the king, by his widow. *Biogr. Britan. Johnson's Engl. Poets.*

ROWE, a township of the United States, in Franklin county, Massachusetts; 103 miles west-north-west of Boston. Population 839.

ROWEL, *s.* [*rouelle*, Fr.] A little flat ring, or wheel of plate or iron, in horses' bits. *Cotgrave.*

A goodly person! and could menage faire
His stubborn steed with curbed canon bitt,
Who under him did trample as the aire,
And chauft that any on his backe should sitt:
The yron *rowels* into frothy fome he bitt. *Spenser.*

The points of a spur turning on an axis.

He gave his able horse the head,
And, bending forward, struck his agile heels
Against the panting sides of his poor jade
Up to the *rowel* head. *Shakspeare.*

A rider like myself, who ne'er wore *rowel*
Nor iron on his heel. *Shakspeare.*

A mullet is the *rowel* of a spur, and hath never but five points; a star hath six. *Peacham.*

He spurr'd his fiery steed
With goring *rowels*, to provoke his speed. *Dryden.*

A seton; a roll of hair or silk put in a wound to hinder it from healing, and provoke a discharge.

To ROW'EL, *v. a.* To pierce through the skin, and keep the wound open by a rowel.—*Rowel* the horse in the chest. *Mortimer.*

ROWEN. See ROUGHINGS.

Rowen is a field kept up till after Michaelmas, that the corn left on the ground may sprout into green.

Then spare it for *rowen*, til Michel be past,
To lengthen thy dairie, no better thou hast. *Tusser.*

RO'WER, *s.* One that manages an oar.

Four gallies first, which equal *rowers* bear,
Advancing in the watery lists appear. *Dryden.*

ROWINGTON, a parish of England in Warwickshire; 6 miles north-west-by-west from Warwick. Population 839.

ROWLEY (William), who stands in the third class of dramatic writers, lived in the reign of James I., and was one of the company of players belonging to the Prince of Wales. Little is known of him, except that he was in close connection with all the principal wits and poetical geniuses of that age, with some of whom he joined in their writings. By Wood he is styled "the ornament for wit and ingenuity of Pembroke-hall, Cambridge." He was a considerable benefactor

benefactor to the English stage, having left five plays of his own composing, and lent his assistance to several authors in the composition of many others. The titles of all these are given in the Biographia Dramatica.

ROWLEY. See CHATTERTON.

ROWLEY, a stone. See MINERALOGY, p. 457.

ROWLEY, a village of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles east-north-east of Suth Cave.

ROWLEY, a township of the United States, in Essex county, Massachusetts; 28 miles north-east of Boston. The principal employment is agriculture; but leather and shoes are manufactured to some extent. Population 1682.

ROWLEY, KING'S, a township of England, in Staffordshire; 2 miles south-east of Dudley. Population 4974.

ROWLOCKS, *s.* The spaces of the sides of a boat for admitting and affording fulcra to the oars.

ROWNER, a parish of England, in Southamptonshire, between Titchfield and Gosport.

ROWNING (John), a divine of the church of England, and an able mathematician and philosopher in the 18th century, was born about the year 1699. He received his academical education at Magdalen-college, in the University of Cambridge, where he took his degrees in arts, and was elected into a fellowship. He died in his lodgings, when on a visit to London, in 1771, about the age of 22. He was the author of "A Compendious System of Natural Philosophy," 1738, in 2 vols. 8vo. which is a very ingenious work, and has gone through several editions; "A preliminary Discourse on the Fluxionary Method," 1756, 8vo.; "A Description of a Barometer wherein the Scale of Variation may be increased at Pleasure," inserted in the "Phil. Transactions" for 1733; and "Directions for making a Machine for find- the Roots of Equations universally, with the Manner of using it," inserted in the same work for the year 1770. *Hutton's Math. Dict.*

ROWSLEY, a hamlet of England, in Derbyshire, near Fareham.

ROWTORE, a village of England, in Cornwall, south-west of Camelford.

ROXAS, a fort of the province and government of Buenos Ayres, situate near the river Arecife, about 120 miles west of Buenos Ayres.

ROXBOROUGH, a township of the United States, in Philadelphia county, Pennsylvania, on the Schuykill. Population 1252.

ROXBOROUGH, a township of the United States, and capital of Person county, North Carolina.

ROXBURGH, sometimes called TEVIOTDALE, a county of Scotland, of a very irregular form, is bounded on the east and south-east by Northumberland, on the south by Northumberland and Cumberland, on the south-west and west by the counties of Dumfries and Selkirk, and on the north and north-west by Berwickshire, and a small portion of Mid-Lothian; lying between 55. 6. and 55. 43. N. lat., and between 2. 12. and 3. 7. W. long. from Greenwich; being from 18 to 35 miles from north to south, and from 15 to 25 and 35 from west to east; containing about 700 square miles, and 448,000 English acres, divided into 31 parishes. It comprehends the ancient districts of Teviotdale and Liddisdale, so named from the rivers Teviot and Liddal, which run through them. The surface of this county is finely diversified, and exhibits many scenes that are beautiful and romantic. The south and west divisions of the county are mountainous; but the east and north are upon the whole flat and fertile. The ridge of hills by which the county is traversed is of considerable elevation. The following are the most remarkable hills in the arable district:—Minto, with two flat tops, on the north of Teviot, 858 feet; and Eildon, immediately south of Tweed, near Melrose, whose three conical tops, though only 1330 feet, are seen at a great distance. In the pasture district there are many hills of considerable height. The Dunian, 1021 feet, and Ruberslaw, 1419 feet, are, like Eildon, conspicuous from their situation and shape, though much lower than Wisp and Tidhope, each of which is 1830 feet; Millenwood-fell and Windhead, each of which is computed, from an observation taken by the Theodolite, to be 2000 feet; and Hownamlaw, Windburgh, Maidenpaps, and Greatmoor, whose measurements are not known. On the confines of Northumberland, Carter-fell is 1602 feet, and Chillhill must be rather upwards of 2000 feet, as it stands near the highest top of Cheviot, which is 2682 feet. The only agricultural division of which this county admits, is into arable and pasture lands. A line, drawn from the point where the boundary with England crosses Bowmont-water, west-south-west by Jedburgh and the north of Dunian and Ruberslaw to Hawick, and turning north from thence along the turnpike road to Selkirk, will nearly separate the former of these on the north, from the latter on the south, with the exception of the small track north of Tweed, between Leader and Gala waters, the largest half of which is allotted to sheep. The hills in this county have mostly sloping sides, and are covered with a green sward to the very top. The prospects from their summits are extensive, variegated, and delightful. The numerous vales, whether of narrow or wide extent, are all watered by limpid streams; many of them are naked, and many fringed with wood. Some afford excellent pasture; others are in high cultivation. They are in general inclosed by gentle declivities, though several are hemmed in by steep banks, overrun with brushwood, or adorned with lofty trees, which form a scenery rather agreeable than magnificent. In a county so large, and on the whole so elevated, the proportion of heath and moss is very inconsiderable, but cannot be calculated with any degree of exactness, as they are scattered everywhere, in portions of unequal size. In Liddisdale, where improvement has hitherto made slow progress, patches of moss are seen by the edges, and even in the middle of fertile vales. There are indications of this having been once the case in other parts of the county, on which industry has now wrought a happy change. In the pasture district the soil is dry, wet, or heathy. To the eastward of Jed water, the hills are mostly composed of red granite, and covered with a thick sward of rich and sweet grass; there is very little heath; the marshes are not numerous or extensive, and many of them are intersected by a multitude of drains. The dry soil west of Jed water, including Liddisdale, is either on limestone or gravel; there are many mosses, a great deal of fenny land, and a deficiency of drains. A large track of stubborn clay, lying on a cold impenetrable underground, stretches from the south-west skirt of Ruberslaw to the confines of Liddisdale. That detached corner, whose value only begins to be known, is almost wholly pastoral, and though unquestionably the wettest part of the county, has no small proportion of dry land, and many spungy fields, producing coarse grass, which are susceptible of great improvement by draining; yet much of its best soil is thickly interspersed with spots or stripes of moss, which cannot easily be removed, or turned to any solid advantage. There is not much heath and moor, in proportion to the extent of pasture lands; but in these, and indeed through the district at large, the dry and sound soil greatly predominates. In the arable district the soil is partly light, and partly heavy. The light consists of rich loam, or mixtures of loam and sand, of loam and gravel, of sand or gravel and clay, in every various proportion. The loam, gravel, sand, and clay, also are of very different qualities or degrees of excellence. The heavy soil is chiefly clay, of different depths and degrees of stiffness or mixture, where clay prevails, placed on clay or other matter retentive of water. In a very few spots, this surface lies on a dry bottom; and not unfrequently different and opposite soils are strangely blended in the same field. The light soil, however, is in general found on low and level lands, near the beds of rivers and their branches; and also on several eminences of considerable extent. The heavy soil merely appears on the valleys, and chiefly occupies the higher grounds. It comprehends about 10,000 acres, of which at least one half is shallow, cold, and unkindly, difficult to labour, and uncertain in its produce; on which account, upwards of 1000 acres have properly been planted with trees. In the other half, there is much rich and fertile land, which bears luxuriant crops, both of corn and grass, and not a little of a middle

middle nature between these extremes. Of the arable district, at least two-thirds may be safely called light and dry. The extent of the whole shire has been computed as follows.

	English Acres.
Arable and cultivated lands	174,500
Gardens and pleasure grounds	2,700
Natural woods	800
Planted woods	5,000
Pastures, mosses, roads, sites of houses, channels of lakes and rivers	265,000
	448,000

No county in the kingdom can boast of more numerous or beautiful rivers and brooks. One of them flows through and enlivens every little vale. Tweed and Teviot are alone called rivers. The first holds a majestic course along banks which in several places are steep and bold, jutting out at Old Melrose, into a promontory, and forming around Dryburgh a peninsula. It partly bounds and partly intersects the county, receiving on the north the Gala, which is the boundary with Selkirkshire and Mid-Lothian for five miles; the Leader, which, for nearly the same space, is the boundary with Berwickshire; the Allan (corrupted into Elwand), a pastoral rivulet; and the Eden, which rises in Berwickshire, but runs a considerable way along the skirts, and through the lower part of this county. Ettrick, also a boundary of Selkirkshire for a mile and a half, falls into Tweed on the south. Teviot rolls its pure streams over a pebbled bed, in many delightful windings, through a succession of rich, extensive, and well cultivated valleys, for 34 miles, till it loses its name in the Tweed, between Roxburgh castle and Kelso, one of the most enchanting spots which can well be conceived. The Ale and Borthwich are the northern branches of Teviot. Both rise in Selkirkshire, and are in some places boundaries of the two countries. The Ale flows upwards of 12 miles in this county, through fields of very unequal fertility, many of which have wooded banks, till, emerging from scenery that is truly romantic, it is emptied into Teviot below Ancrum. The Borthwick joins Teviot above Hawick, after passing through a country that is chiefly pastoral, but much improved of late by tillage and manure, and young plantations. On the south, Teviot is augmented by the Kale, the Oxnam, and the Jed. The first and last issue from the border hills. The Kale, after leaving the mountains, waters, and sometimes overflows, a great part of a spacious and valuable plain of 1200 acres, adorned on different sides by clumps of full grown trees; while the Jed, rushing along a rocky channel, through narrow and thick wooded vales, washes the bottom of several high precipices, winds around the county town, and terminates another and still more extensive plain, known by the name of Crailing-haughs, through the middle of which the Oxnam finds its way to Teviot. Nearer to its source, Teviot receives the Rule, the Slittrige, and the Allen, all of which rise on the confines of Liddisdale. In the number and value of its trees, Rule may vie with sylvan Jed, but not in wild and picturesque scenery. Slittrige is not without the beauties of green hills, natural wood, and hollow vales. Allen, like the stream of the same name north of Tweed, flows wholly through sheep walks. Bowmont is another pastoral rivulet, which has its source in the south-east of this county, and, after a rapid course of nine or ten miles, enters England. But of all the waters in Roxburgshire, few are more indebted to nature, or might be more improved by art, than Hermitage, which rises in the southern declivity of the ridge, from whence Allen and Slittrige go in an opposite direction, and tumbling over a bottom of rough shapeless stones, amidst green hills, whose base is generally skirted with copse-wood, loses itself in the Liddal, and imparts its natural ornament to that larger but more naked stream. The course of the Liddal is more placid; it issues from a flat, not improperly called Dead Water, and comes through a district more marshy and level. After their junction, they are increased by some considerable brooks, and with a velocity which has excavated pools of an uncommon depth, descend through valleys, capable of being rendered, by the hands of skilful cultivators, as productive as they are beautiful, for the space of eight or nine miles, when they separate Cumberland from Dumfries-shire, and, mingling with Esk, are carried into the Solway frith.

It appears from Dr. Douglas' agricultural survey, that between 1760 and 1770, coal was discovered on the hill called Carter Fell, in this county, near the border of Northumberland; but though wrought for some time, it was abandoned as of little value. Another seam of better quality was subsequently found near the southern point of Liddisdale, from which little benefit has been derived beyond that detached district. Various attempts have been made to discover coal in different places of the county; but not one of them was conducted upon a scale adequate to the importance of the object. Lately a new seam of coal was discovered on the Carter; in consequence of which a cart-load, the first-fruits of the mine, was burned in triumph in the market-place of Jedburgh, whose inhabitants, from their vicinity, are chiefly concerned in its success; and some indeed of whom have an interest as proprietors. Many hands were employed during this summer, (1825,) in making roads from the site of the coal to the neighbouring turnpikes; and as there is good limestone in the vicinity, it would be an object of great agricultural importance to the district, that the experiment should prosper. Meanwhile the inhabitants of the western parts of the county in general, bring their coal from the Lothians and Dumfries-shire; and those in the eastern parts of the county, principally from Northumberland and North Durham, at distances varying from perhaps sixteen to thirty miles and upward. Under such circumstances of disadvantage, the high cultivation of the county may well be considered astonishing. Through the whole of Liddisdale limestone abounds; but, from the state of the roads, the difficulty of access, and the elevation of the ground, little is calcined for general sale. Great quantities of shell marle are found in the parishes adjoining Selkirkshire. Marl pits have also been found many years ago at Eckford, Ednam, and other places; and a few years ago marl, in large quantities, was found near the Berry Moss in Kelso parish, during the operations connected with draining that morass. More recently still, a large stratum of marl in Linton Loch, near Morebattle, has been made available for the use of the public, and is now on sale. This is of great importance to farmers in the neighbourhood; as marl is found to be a manure admirably adapted for meliorating land, especially light soils; but the quantity required renders the carriage too expensive for distant use.

It has been said that strata of free-stone run in a north-east direction, from the southern extremity of Liddisdale to the neighbourhood of Sprouston, where it is regularly quarried. This quarry has indeed been long highly valued, both for the beauty of the materials which its furnishes for building, and for the facility with which it is wrought. For the ornaments of public buildings, however, Eccles and Swinton quarries in Berwickshire are found to be more durable, as also for pavements and similar works. Arbroath stone is preferred, though its distance and expense make it a luxury. There are also free-stone quarries at Denholm and Pinnacle. Different sorts of whinstone are found every where on the surface, in the beds of rivers, and in inexhaustible quarries. To the eastward of the Jed, the hills are covered with a thick sward of rich grass, and some are bare and rugged. Some of them, as the Eildonhills and Ruberslaw, rise beautifully from the plain, and most of them are verdant to their summits.

Before the union of the two kingdoms under James VI., this shire was said to be much more populous; and on account of the predatory war carried on between the Scots and English, the inhabitants were inured to military discipline; and it is said that they were so alert, that this and the neighbouring shire of Berwick could, in 24 hours, produce 10,000 men on horseback, well armed and accoutred. But this union produced an effect very different from what might have been expected from it. Instead of promoting the increase, it is said to have contributed to the diminution of the people on the

the borders. The legislative union with England in the reign of queen Ann, tended also to deprive this county of several advantages, and, for a time at least, to diminish its population. Before the union, the taxes and commercial regulations of the two kingdoms were different, and the inhabitants of the borders enjoyed the opportunity of carrying on a very advantageous contraband trade, without danger to their persons or fortunes. Into England they imported salt, skins and malt, which, till the union, paid no duties in Scotland; and from England they carried back wool, which was exported from the frith of Forth to France, with great profit. The vestiges of 40 malt barns and kilns were formerly to be seen in the town of Jedburgh alone, while at present there are only two employed. The proprietors of estates upon the borders were well aware of the detriment which their property would suffer from the union, and strenuously opposed it; and the commissioners for carrying on that treaty were so sensible of the loss they would sustain, that they agreed to appropriate part of the equivalent money, as it was called, to their indemnification. Of late the border country of Scotland is becoming richer and better cultivated; and, by the attention of the inhabitants to their natural riches, viz. their sheep and woollen manufacture, the population is greatly on the increase. Roxburghshire, like other pastoral countries, is ornamented with many seats of the nobility and gentry. The chief manufacture in this county is that of wool; and the prineipal seat of it Hawick. There are also manufactures of woollen at Jedburgh. At Kelso there are manufactures of thread, leather, candles, and other articles. From Berwick the rude produce of this shire is exported; and the products of foreign countries imported are apparel, groceries, wine, iron, wood, &c.

In many parts there are sepulchral tumuli, or cairns, in which stone coffins and urns, containing human bones and ashes, have been found. There are also Druidical circles, or places of worship. In Liddisdale, on high ground, near Tennis hill, is an oblong square, 86 yards in length, consisting of large freestone brought from a distance; and at the north end of it is a cromlech, composed of several large stones on edge, covered by a stone in a sloping position; and at the south end of this cairn is an upright stone, 5 feet above the surface of the moss, and 13 feet in circuit. In this shire are remains of many British hill forts, some of which the Romans converted into commanding posts, near the military road. But the most stupendous British work in this county is the *Catrail* or Picts-work ditch, constructed perhaps as a line of defence against the invading Saxons on the east, during the 5th century. After traversing Selkirkshire, it enters the shire of Roxburgh, where it crosses Borthwick water near Broadlee; thence it proceeds to Slatchill moss, to Dogcleugh hill, to Dod, to Carriage hill, to Longside burn, to Leapsteel, and thence to Liddisdale. From its remains it appears to have been a vast fosse, at least 26 feet broad, with a rampart on either side, 8 or 10 feet high, formed of the materials thrown from the ditch. Its whole course from the vicinity of Galasheils in Selkirkshire, to Peelfell on the borders of Northumberland, is upwards of 45 miles, of which 18 are within Roxburghshire. In many parts it is visible. The Roman highway, also commonly called the rugged causeway, can be traced all the way from Hounam to the Tweed. There are ruins of several castles and forts, few of which are of ancient erection. The castle of Jedburgh, and that of Roxburgh, are most distinguished in history. Hermitage castle was built during the reign of Alexander II. There are many towers and strongholds of later erection. In this shire, religious and charitable foundations abounded; but of the latter few traces remain. The principal towns are Jedburgh, the county town, Kelso, the most populous, Melrose, and Hawick. The population of the county, according to the government census of 1821, is as follows: Males 19,408, females 21,484, total 40,892. Increase since the census of 1811 is 3662.

ROXBURGH, a parish of Scotland, in Roxburghshire, about 8 miles long, and 4 broad, comprehending an area of 7000 acres. Population 946.

ROXBURGH, an old city of Scotland, and once the fourth in rank among the boroughs of Scotland. It is now altogether decayed, and the few vestiges of streets and houses which were apparent in the last century, the plough has now obliterated. It stood on a peninsula formed by the junction of the Teviot and the Tweed, about a mile south-west of Kelso. On the south angle of the land, formed by a curvature of the Teviot, stood the magnificent friary of the Cistertian monks, founded by King David I. Near it stood the town, and at the isthmus of the peninsula stood the Castle of Roxburgh, which was fortified by David I. It was taken by Edward in 1296; and recovered by the Scots, A.D. 1313, who demolished its outworks. In 1334 it was ceded to Edward by Baliol; taken by Alexander Ramsay in 1342, and retaken by the English after the battle of Hexham. Here Baliol surrendered his crown to Edward in 1355 and 1356. It was in the hands of the English, A. D. 1547, when it was repaired and garrisoned by Somerset the protector, in the reign of Edward VI. By the treaty of 1550, the king of England bound himself to raze to the ground the town and castle. About two miles west from the castle stands the present village of Roxburgh, pleasantly situated on the banks of the Teviot, on a declivity, with a fine south exposure. It is divided by a small rivulet into the Upper and Nether towns, which had formerly been of considerable extent, though they now contain only about 200 inhabitants.

ROXBURGHIA [named in honour of William Roxburgh, author of a splendid work on the plants of the coast of Coromandel], in Botany, a genus of the class octandria, order monogynia.—Generic Character. Calyx: inferior, four-leaved; leaflets lanceolate, membranaceous, striated, coloured, revolute, immediately below the petals. Corolla: petals four, nearly erect, lanceolate, the lower half rather broader than the upper, along the inside runs a deep, sharp, slightly waved keel, forming on each side a deep groove or hollow; the four keels converge, and in some measure adhere together, thus bringing the side of the petals close, and forming a tube; the upper part of the petals is narrow, bending out a little, and then their points bend in: nectary composed of four lanceolate, yellow bodies, each sessile on the apex of the keel of the petals, converging into one conical body. Stamina: filaments none; anthers eight, linear, lodged in the grooves formed by the keel of the petals, adhering their whole length, but their chief insertion near the base. Pistil: germ superior, heart-shaped; style none; stigma pointed. Pericarp: capsule ovate, compressed, one-celled, two-valved, opening from the apex, about an inch and half long, and an inch broad. Seeds from five to eight, inserted by pedicels into the bottom of the capsule, cylindrical, striated; the pedicels surrounded with numerous small pellucid vesicles.—*Essential Character.* Calyx four-leaved. Corolla four-petalled, inwardly keeled; nectary four awl-shaped leaflets, on the apex of the keel of the petals, converging; anthers linear, sessile, in the grooves of the keel. Capsule one-celled, two-valved. Seeds many, inserted in a spongy receptacle.

Roxburghia gloriosoides.—Root perennial, composed of many smooth, cylindric, fleshy tubes, from six to twelve inches long, and from three to five in circumference about the middle; they taper equally towards each end. Stem biennial or more, twining, smooth, from six to twenty feet long, running over small trees, &c. Branches like the stem, but few and more slender. Leaves alternate or opposite, nearly depending, heart-shaped, fine-pointed, the point recurvate; entire, smooth, shining, in substance soft and delicate, generally eleven-nerved, with beautiful very fine transverse veins, running between the nerves, from four to six inches long, and three or four broad. Petiole slightly channelled, smooth, an inch and half or two inches broad. Peduncle axillary, single, erect, the same length with the petiole, generally two-flowered. Pedicels club-shaped, short. Bracte one, lanceolate, at the base of the pedicels.—Native of Coromandel, in moist valleys, among the mountains; flowering in the cold season. It is the Campoo-Tiga of the Telingas.

Willdenow remarks, that this is a singular plant between the

the Liliaceæ and the Asclepiadeæ, that the root is fusiform, the stem grooved, the branches alternate; that there are two bractes at the division of the peduncle; that the calyx is yellow and larger than the corolla, which is purple.

ROXBURY, a township of the United States, in Orange county, Vermont. Population 686.

ROXBURY, a township of the United States in Cheshire county, New Hampshire.

ROXBURY, a township of the United States, in Norfolk county, Massachusetts; 2 miles south-south-west of Boston. Population 3669. It is a pleasant township, containing many handsome houses, and elegant country seats. The soil in Roxbury is in a high state of cultivation, and the inhabitants supply Boston market with great quantities of various kinds of vegetables and fruit.

ROXBURY, a township of the United States, in Litchfield county, Connecticut. Population 1217.

ROXBURY, a township of the United States in Delaware county, New York; 56 miles south-west of Albany Population 1892.

ROXBURY, a township of the United States, in Morris county, New Jersey. Population 1363.

ROXBURY, a township of the United States, in Washington county, Ohio. Population 403.

ROXBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 9 miles west-south-west of Barton-upon Humber.

ROXBY, a parish of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 10 miles north-west of Whitby.

ROXO, a cape in the east of Spain, on the coast of Valencia. Lat. 37. 53. N. long. 0. 50. W.

ROXTON, a parish of England in Bedfordshire; 8 miles north-east-by-east of Bedford. Population 455.

ROXWELL, a township of England, in Essex; 4½ mies west-north-west of Chelmsford. Population 751.

ROY (Louis le), (Latin Regius), a learned professor, born at Coutance in Normandy towards the beginning of the 16th century, after passing several years in Italy and other countries, settled at Paris, where, in 1570, he succeeded the celebrated Lambin as professor-royal of Greek. He studied law four years at Toulouse, and afterwards taught it; he frequented the bar at the parliament of Paris, in which he exercised some kind of magistracy; he was domesticated with two or three chancellors; he sometimes followed armies; and had visited the courts of the Emperor and the King of England. Le Roy was of a vain and boastful character, hot and quarrelsome. His inattention to his domestic affairs reduced him in his latter days to depend upon others for support, which was a very humiliating circumstance to him. He died at an advanced age in 1577. This professor wrote a number of works both in Latin and French. In the former language he gained great reputation by an elegantly written life in 4to. of the learned Budæus. To French literature he was a benefactor by many translations from Greek authors, particularly Plato, Aristotle, Demosthenes, and Xenophon, which he enriched with learned commentaries. Several of his writings were political, and he was much attached to monarchical principles in government, and to uniformity of religion. *Thuani Hist. Moreri.—Aikin.*

ROY (Julien-David Le), an architect and antiquary, born at Paris in 1728, was the son of Julien le Roy, a celebrated mechanist. He was brought up to the profession of architecture, in which he became eminent. Joining erudition with knowledge of the arts, he travelled with advantage, and published his observations in several esteemed works. Of these the principal are "Ruines des plus beaux Monumens de la Grèce," fol., 1758, 1769: this work gave the author admission into the Academy of Inscriptions; though it is less accurate than the works of Stuart and others on the same subject, it has considerable merit; "Histoire de la Disposition et des Formes differentes des Temples de Chretiens," 8vo., 1764; "Observations sur les Edifices des anciens Peuples," 8vo., 1767: "De la Marine des anciens Peuples," 8vo., 1777; he published two other works on the construction of the ships of the ancients; and a Memoir on cutting masts in the Pyrenees. This ingenious man, equally estimable for his modesty, public spirit, and industry, died at Paris in 1803, aged 75. *Nouv. Dict. Hist.—Aikin.*

ROY (William le), a pious French abbot, and esteemed writer among the Jansenists in the 17th century, was the son of David le Roy, secretary to the king, and born at Caen in Normandy, in the year 1610. He was sent to pursue his studies at Paris, where he embraced the ecclesiastical profession, was ordained priest, and made a canon of the church of Notre-Dame. He died in 1684, soon after he had entered on the 74th year of his age. His works, which were all published without his name, consist of "Instructions collected from the Sermons of St. Augustine on the Book of Psalms," 1662, &c. in 7 vols. 12mo.; "Christian Solitude," in 3 vols. 12mo.; "Practical Instructions for the Employment of every Day in the Duties of Christianity, with Observations on false Devotion," 1660, 12mo.; "On the Renewal of the Vows of Baptism, and the Vows of Religion," 1676, 12mo.; and a multitude of practical, devotional, and controversial tracts, translations from Athanasius, St. Augustine, St. Basil, &c. "Discourses," and "Letters," of which a long list may be seen in *Dupin* or *Moreri. Nouv. Dict Hist.*

ROY BAREILY, a town of Hindostan, province of Oude, situated on the banks of the Sye river. It was celebrated for the manufacture of bows and arrows, and painted furniture. Lat. 26. 10. N. long. 81. 12. E.

ROYAL, *adj.* [*royal*, Fr.] Kingly; belonging to a king; becoming a king; regal.

The *royal* bowers
Of great Seleucia built by Grecian kings. *Milton.*

Noble; illustrious.

What news from Venice?
How doth that *royal* merchant, good Antonio? *Shakspeare.*

ROYAL, *s.* One of the shoots of a stag's head. *Bailey.*—The highest sail of a ship. *Chambers.*—In artillery, a kind of small mortar. *Chambers.*—One of the soldiers of the first regiment of foot, which was called *The Royals;* and is supposed to be the oldest regular corps in Europe. *James.*

ROYAL BAY, a bay on the north-east coast of the island of Georgia, between Cape Charlotte on the east, and Cape George on the west.

ROYAL BAY, a bay on the north coast of Antigua, a little to the east of Peyersan's point.

ROYAL ISLAND, a small island in the river St. Lawrence. Lat 44. 46. N. long. 75. 24. W.

ROYAL ISLE, a large island in the north-west part of Lake Superior, about 40 miles long, and 13 wide. Lat. 47. 52. N. long. 89. W.

ROYAL REACH, a channel in the straits of Magellan, extending from Fortescue bay to Passage point.

ROYAL SOUND, a large bay on the coast of Kerguelen's Land, between Cape George and the Prince of Wales's Foreland.

ROYALISM, *s.* [*royalisme*, Fr.] Attachment to the cause of royalty.

ROYALIST, *s.* [*royaliste*, Fr.] Adherent to a king.

Where Candish fought, the *royalists* prevail'd.
Neither his courage nor his judgment fail'd. *Waller.*

To ROYALIZE, *v. a.* To make royal.

Ere you were queen, ay, or your husband king,
To *royalize* his blood, I spilt mine own. *Shakspeare.*

ROYALLY, *adv.* In a kingly manner; regally; as becomes a king.

It shall be my care,
To have you *royally* appointed. *Shakspeare.*

His body shall be *royally* interr'd,
And the last funeral pomps adorn his hearse. *Dryden.*

ROYALTY, *s.* [*royalte*, Fr.] Kingship; character or office of a king.—Draw, you rascal; you come with letters against the king, and take vanity the puppet's part against the *royalty* of her father. *Shakspeare.*

State of a king.

I will, alas! be wretched to be great,
And sigh in *royalty*, and grieve in state. *Prior.*

Emblems of royalty.

Wherefore do I assume
These *royalties*, and not refuse to reign? *Milton.*

ROYALTON, a township of the United States, in Windsor county, Vermont, on White river. Here is a pleasant village containing an academy. Population 1758.

ROYALTON, a township of the United States, in Worcester county, Massachusetts; 70 miles west-north-west of Boston. Population 1415.

ROYALTON, a township of the United States, in Niagara county, New York.

ROYALTON, a village of the United States in Fairfield county, Ohio.

ROYAN, a small town in the west of France, department of the Lower Charante, at the mouth of the Gironde, with 2700 inhabitants. It has a small harbour, and a considerable pilchard fishery; 14 miles south-by-east of Marennes.

ROYDON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 3 miles south-east-by-east of Castle Rising.

ROYDON, a parish of England, in Suffolk, south-east of Hadleigh.

ROYDON, a village and parish of England, formerly a market town in Essex; 4½ miles west-by-south of Harlow. Population 484.

ROYDON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 1½ mile west of Diss. Population 497.

ROYE, a small but fortified town in the north of France, department of the Somme, on the river Avre, with 3100 inhabitants; 28 miles east-by-south of Amiens.

ROYEN (Adrian Van), a physician and botanist, born (probably in Holland) in 1705, succeeded Boerhaave in the botanical chair at the University of Leyden, and in the direction of the academical garden, which was greatly enriched under his care. He was also an elegant scholar, and had talents for poetry. When he took the degree of doctor in 1728, he printed an inaugural dissertation "De Anatome et Oeconomia Plantarum; and in the following year, on taking the chair, he published "Oratio qua jucunda, untilis et necessaria Medicinæ Cultoribus commendatur Doctrina Botanica." He further contributed to recommend botanical science by his "Carmen de Amoribus et Conubiis Plantarum," 1732. When Linnæus, after his residence with Mr. Clifford, was upon the point of quitting Holland in 1737, Van Royen prevailed upon that great naturalist to pass some months with him for the purpose of arranging anew the botanical garden of the University, and assisting him in the compilation of his "Floræ Leidensis Prodromus," or catalogue of the Plants in that garden. This work appeared in 1740, 8vo., and was one of the first that adopted the Linnæan nomenclature, though it followed a different method of classification from his, and more approaching to the natural. The attempt was well received, and the catalogue is among the richest of the kind. Adrian Van Royen resigned his professorship of botany in 1754, and was succeeded by his relation David Van Royen. He died in 1779. *Halleri Bibl. Botan.*

ROYENA [named by Linnæus, in honour of Adrian van Royen, a professor of botany at Leyden], in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order digynia, natural order of bicornes, guaiacanæ, *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth, one-leaved, pitcher-shaped, five-cleft, permanent. Corolla: one-petalled; tube the length of the calyx; border spreading, revolute, five-parted; segments ovate. Stamina: filaments ten, very short, fastened to the corolla; anthers oblong, acute, twin, erect, the length of the tube. Pistils: germ ovate, ending in two styles, a little longer than the stamens; stigmas simple. Pericarp: capsule, ovate, four-grooved, one-celled, four-valved. — (Berry globular, fleshy, four-celled, covered by the permanent corolla, *Gærtn.)* Seeds: nuts four, oblong, triangular, wrapped in an aril:—(Seeds solitary, in all four or two, oblong or elliptic, subtriquetrous or plano-convex, *Gærtn.)*—*Essential Character.* Calyx pitcher-shaped. Corolla one-petalled, with the border revolute. Capsule one-celled, four-valved. (Berry four-celled, *G.*)

1. Royena lucida, shining leaved Royena, or African bladder-nut.—Leaves ovate, somewhat rugged. Height eight or ten feet, putting out branches on every side. Leaves alternate, shining, continuing all the year. Flowers from the wings of the leaves along the branches, having little beauty.—This and all the other species are natives of the Cape of Good Hope. This flowers in May and June.

2. Royena villosa, heart-leaved Royena, or African bladder-nut.—Leaves cordate, oblong, tomentose underneath. This resembles the preceding, but the branches are villose. Leaves elliptic or oblong, cordate at the base, tomentose underneath, bluntish, on short villose petioles. Flowers axillary, nodding, solitary, on villose peduncles the length of the flowers. Bractes two, opposite, ovate, acute, pubescent, larger than the calyx and immediately under it, deciduous.

3. Royena pallens, pale Royena, or African bladder-nut.—Leaves oblong-obovate, blunt, smooth.—Found at the Cape by Thunberg.

4. Royena glabra, myrtle-leaved Royena, or African bladder-nut.—Leaves lanceolate, smooth. This rises with a shrubby stalk, five or six feet high, sending out many slender branches, covered with a purplish bark. Leaves less than those of the box-tree, entire, of a lucid green, and continuing all the year. The flowers come out from the wings of the leaves round the branches, and are white. Fruit roundish, purple, ripening in the winter. It flowers in September.

5. Royena hirsuta, hairy-leaved Royena, or African bladder-nut.—Leaves oblong-lanceolate, somewhat villose. This rises with a strong woody stalk seven or eight feet high, covered with a grey bark, sending out many small branches alternately. Leaves about an inch long, and a quarter of an inch broad in the middle, covered with soft hairs. The flowers come out on short peduncles from the side of the branches; they are of a worn-out purple colour, and small. They appear in July, but are not followed by seeds in England.

6. Royena polyandra, or oval-leaved Royena.—Leaves elliptic, flowers polygamus, many-stamened.—This was found at the Cape by Thunberg, and differs in the disposition of the flowers from the other species.

7. Royena angustifolia, or narrow-leaved Royena.—Leaves lanceolate-acute, somewhat hairy underneath. This also is very different from all the species hitherto known, in having narrow lanceolate leaves, sharp at both ends, and somewhat hairy underneath.—It is a native of the same country with all the rest.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants are too tender to live through the winter in the open air in England, they must be removed therefore into the green-house in autumn, and treated in the same way as orange-trees.

ROQERE, a large village in the interior of France, department of Creuse. Population 1000; 25 miles south of Gueret.

ROYMUNGUL, a river of Bengal which falls into the Sunderbunds, and is strongly affected by the tides. On its banks, the East India Company have a very extensive salt manufactory, the produce of which is sold by auction at Calcutta.

To ROYNE. *v. a.* [*rogner*, Fr.] To gnaw; to bite.

Yet did he murmure with rebellious sound,
And softly *royne* when savage choler gan redound.
Spenser.

ROYNISH, *adj.* [*rogneux*, Fr. mangy, paltry.] Paltry sorry, mean, rude.

The *roynish* clown, at whom so oft
Your grace was wont to laugh, is also missing. *Shakspeare.*

ROYPOOR, a town of Bengal, district Midnapore. Lat. 24.

24. 48. N. long. 87. E.—*Roy* being synonymous with *rajah*, there are many other places of this name.

ROYSE, a mountain of the United States, in New Hampshire; 10 miles east of the White Mountains.

ROYSTON, a market town of England, in the county of Hertford, and partly also in that of Cambridge. It is situated at the bottom of a hill among chalk downs, and has of late increased in population, from the fixing through it the great post road, which formerly ran through Barkway to Biggleswade. The name of the town is derived from a cross erected in the beginning of the twelfth century, by a lady Roise and thence called Roise's cross. A monastery or priory was afterwards built near it, for Austin canons, and endowed with considerable revenues; dwelling houses were gradually erected near the monastery: and the name of the place was changed to Royse's Town, or Royston. The canons of the priory received many grants and privileges from successive monarchs: and the town increased in trade and population. The greater part of the houses were destroyed by fire, in the reign of Henry IV.; but the convenient situation of the place for a corn market, contributed to its speedy restoration, and in the time of Henry VI., according to Hollingshed, wheat was so plentiful here, as to be sold at twelve pence the quarter. Camden mentions Royston as being famous for the resort of Malsters, and other dealers in grain, and for the vast quantity of corn to be seen every market day, in the town and adjacent roads. It is noted for its corn trade. The priory was dissolved in the reign of Henry VIII.; the town was erected into a distinct parish, and the church was made parochial. The church is the principal remains of the priory buildings: it consists of a nave, chancel and aisles, with a low tower. Besides the priory, there were two other religious foundations in the town. King James I. built a mansion here for hunting quarters. It is still called the king's house, but is fallen to decay. In a cave under the market-place, is an ancient subterraneous chapel, discovered a few years ago; and supposed to be of Saxon origin. It had been dug out of the chalky rock, and the entrance was from the top, by a circular opening, descending from the street, with holes in the chalk for the feet. This opening had been closed by a mill stone, which was accidentally discovered in 1742. The Roman Ichnield Way passed by this town. Royston has given its name to a species of crow, called the hooded or grey crow, a bird of passage bred in Sweden, and which visits Royston, and the whole eastern coast, in the winter, and returns in the spring. The head, neck, and wings, are black, and the breast, belly, and back, pale ash colour. Market on Wednesday, and five annual fairs. Population of the parish, 1309 inhabitants, and 284 houses; 22 miles south-by-east of Huntingdon, and 37 north of London. Lat. 52. 4. N. long. 0. 1. W.

ROYSTONE, a parish of England, West Riding of Yorkshire. It has a large well-built church, with a roof of curiously carved work, said to have been brought from the priory of Monk Breton; also an excellent free grammar-school, well endowed with houses and lands. Population 2559; 4 miles north-north-east of Barnesley.

ROYTELET, *s.* [French.] A little or petty king.—Causing the American *roytelets* ro turn all homages to that king and the crown of England. *Heylin.*

ROYTISH, *adj.* Wild; irregular. This word is retained in the northern *rowty*, over-rank, spoken of corn or grass. *Johnson.*

No weed presum'd to show its *roytish* face
In this inclosure; nettles, thistles, brakes,
Thorns, briars, cockle, hemlock, rampant grasse,
With all those herbs the meager wizard rakes
Into his deadly boxes, either yet
Were not at all, or far from Eden set. *Beaumont.*

ROYTON, a township of England, in Lancashire; 4½ miles south-by-east of Rochdale. Population 3910.

ROYVELOS, a small town in the central part of Portugal, in the province of Beira, on the Tagus.

ROZDIALOWITZ, a small town on the north-east of Bohemia; 47 miles east-north-east of Prague. Population 800.

ROZDOL, a small town of Austrian Galicia; 8 miles west-by-north of Zaleszczyke.

ROZNOW, a market-town of the Austrian states, in Moravia; 35 miles east of Olmutz. Population 2300.

ROZWADOU, a small town of Austrian Poland, on the San; 13 miles south-east of Sendomir.

RSHEV-VOLODIMIROV, a considerable town of the central part of European Russia, in the government of Tver, situated on both sides of the Wolga, which is navigable here, though not many miles from its source. Its situation is pleasant, the town occupying several eminences, and being surrounded by plains. It has 7400 inhabitants, without reckoning the workmen or labourers who settle here annually in spring, and are employed during summer. It contains twelve churches, most of them small, two schools, and an hospital. It carries on a trade in corn and hemp, with St. Petersburgh and Riga; 144 miles west-north-west of Moscow, and 278 south-south-east of St. Petersburgh.

RUABON, a village of North Wales, in the county of Denbigh, situated on a hill, where the roads from Oswestry and Llangollen, to Wrexham, coalesce. It is a neat and pleasant village, and contains a good inn for travellers. The church is a handsome building, and is well deserving the attention of travellers, from the elegant monuments, chiefly of the Wynne family, which it contains. It is to this family that the village owes its origin; and in the immediate neighbourhood is Wynnstay park and house, the elegant seat of the present Sir Watkin Williams Wynne, who holds annually in September, an agricultural meeting, auxiliary to the agricultural society at Wrexham, and which is frequented by a great number of practical farmers. At Ruabon the petty sessions for the division are held. Population 1137; 5 miles from Wrexham.

RUAD. See RONAD.

RUAIL, a river of Scotland, in Argyleshire, which discharges its waters into Loch Long.

RUAN, GREAT and LITTLE, two adjoining parishes of England, in Cornwall, near the Lizard point.

RUAN, LANGHORNE, a parish of England, in Cornwall, near Tregony.

RUANELLI, a celebrated valley in the island of Ceylon, situated between the 7th and 8th degrees of northern latitude. In this valley there are found a number of small precious stones, of various colours. In general they are very small, and only fit for setting in clusters, or in hoop rings; but a few have been obtained of considerable value. They are mostly found in or near the beds of rivers, and consist of sapphires, topazes, garnets, amethysts, moon-stone, tourmalines, and catseyes; also jet crystal, and a peculiar species of stone called the cinnamon stone. The land where these articles are found, is let out on short leases to the highest bidder; and although they are exempted from duties, produces, after all, but a trifling revenue. It is a circumstance perhaps worthy of remark, that although Ceylon produces precious stones, pearls, and spices, with a variety of handsome woods, it cannot support the expenses of its government, and that is consequently a burden to Great Britain.

RUARDEAN, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 6½ miles north-west of Newnham. Population 735.

RUARDNAMURCHAN, a promontory of Scotland, in Argyleshire, the most western point of the Mainland of Scotland. Lat. 56. 58. N. long. 3. 26. W. from the meridian of Edinburgh.

RUATAN, an island in the bay of Honduras, 30 miles long, and 9 wide; naturally fortified by rocks and shoals, which defended the fort that was erected on it, and also by the narrowness of the port, into which only one vessel could enter at a time. Notwithstanding this, it was capable of containing 500 vessels in perfect safety. From the sea, this island appears singularly rich and beautiful. It is entirely covered with trees, of which the cocoa nut is the most common. Oaks, pines, and many others of various descriptions, are also abundant on it. Ruatan is considerably

ably larger than many of the West India islands which are cultivated. Its soil, and the natural advantages connected with it, might perhaps be found in no degree inferior to any, of them. It abounds with deer, wild hogs, Indian rabbits and birds of many species; parrots are innumerable, and their incessant noisy chattering may be heard a considerable distance from the shore. The Spaniards have a kind of military station or look-out post on this island. This, however, may rather be considered as intended to establish their right to it by occupancy, than as a means of defence, as the force does not consist of more than five or six men. The small adjoining islands of Helene, Moratte, and Borburette, are separated from this island by a narrow channel, and seem to be almost detached parts of it. In the south part of the island are some ports, and besides these, some little channels fit for small vessels. In the west part of the island are some meadows, in which mules are bred, and of these meadows the greatest part of its territory consists. Lat. 16. 23. N. long. 86. 45. W.

To RUB, *v. a.* [*rhubio*, Welsh: *reiben*, German, to wipe. *Dr. Johnson.*]—To clean or smooth any thing by passing something over it; to scour; to wipe; to perfricate. —To touch so as to leave something that touches behind.---Their straw built citadel new *rubb'd* with balm. *Milton.*—To move one body upon another.—Look, how she *rubs* her hands. It is an accustomed action with her, to seem thus washing her hands. *Shakspeare.*—To obstruct by collision.

'Tis the duke's pleasure.
Whose disposition all the world well know.
Will not be *rubb'd* nor stopp'd. *Shakspeare.*

To polish; to retouch.—The whole business of our redemption is, to *rub* over the defaced copy of the creation to reprint God's image upon the soul. *South.*—To remove by friction: with *off* or *out.*—A forcible object will rub *out* the freshest colours at a stroke, and paint others. *Collier.* —If their minds are well principled with inward civility, a great part of the roughness, which sticks to the outside for want of betterteaching, time and observation, will *rub off;* but if ill, all the rules in the world will not polish them. *Locke.*—To touch hard.—He, who before he was espied, was afraid, after being perceived, was ashamed, now being hardly *rubbed* upon, left both fear and shame, and was moved to anger. *Sidney.*

To RUB *down.* To clean or curry a horse.

When his fellow beasts are weary grown,
He'll play the groom, give oats, and *rub*'em *down.*
Dryden.

To RUB *up.* To excite; to awaken.—You will find me not to have *rubbed up* of what some heretofore in the city did. *South.*

To RUB *up.* To polish; to refresh.

To RUB, *v. n.* To fret; to make a friction.

This last allusion gall'd the panther more,
Bec au e indeed it *rubb'd* upon the sore;
Yet seem'd she not to winch, though shrewdly pain'd.
Dryden.

To get through difficulties.

No hunters, that the tops of mountaines scale,
And *rub* through woods with toile seeke them all.
Chapman.

Many lawyers, when once hampered, *rub* off as well as they can. *L'Estrange.*—'Tis as much as one can do to *rub* through the world, though perpetually a doing. *L'Estrange.*

RUB, *s.* Frication; act of rubbing.—Inequality of ground, that hinders the motion of a bowl.

We'll play at bowls.
'Twill make me think the world is full of *rubs,*
And that my fortune runs against the bias. *Shakspeare.*

A *rub* to an overthrown bowl proves an help by hindering it. *Fuller.*—Any uneveness of surface.—Faces look uniformly unto our eyes: how they appear unto some animals of a more piercing or differing sight, who are able to discover the inequalities, *rubbs,* and hairiness of the skin, is not without good doubt. *Brown.*—Collision; hinderance; obstruction.

The breath of what I mean to speak
Shall blow each dust, each straw, each little *rub*
Out of the path, which shall directly lead
Thy foot to England's throne. *Shakspeare.*

Difficulty; cause of uneasiness.—To sleep; perchance to dream; ay, there's the *rub.* *Shakspeare.*

RUB-STONE, *s.* A stone to scour or sharpen.---A cradle for barlie, with *rub-stone* and sand. *Tusser.*

RU'BBER, *s.* One that rubs.---Yonder's mistress Younglove, brother, the grave *rubber* of your mistress's toes. *Beaum.*---The instrument with which one rubs.

Servants
Then blow the fire with puffing cheeks, and lay
The *rubbers* and the bathing sheets display. *Dryden.*

A coarse file.---The rough or coarse file, if large is called a *rubber,* and takes off the unevenness which the hammer made in the forging

RUBBAGE, or RUBBISH, *s.* [Of uncertain etymology]. Ruins of buildings; fragments of matter used in buildings.

What trash is Rome!
What *rubbish,* and what offal! when it serves
For the base matter to illuminate
So vile a thing as Cæsar. *Shakspeare.*

Confusion; mingled mass.—That noble art of political lying ought not to lie any longer in *rubbish* and confusion. *Arbuthnot.*—Any thing vile or worthless.

RU'BBIDGE, *s.* Improperly, though anciently used, for rubbish.

RUBBIO, a measure of corn in Italy, equal to 7½ bushels.

RU'BBLE, *s.* Rubbish. This is perhaps the oldest form of the word *rubbish.*—Carry out *rubble,* as mortar, and broken stones of old buildings. *Barret.*—*Rubble,* or rubbish, of old houses. *Barret.*—Pieces of timber, bars of iron, massy stones, together with all the *rubble* and stones in the walls of that great and glorious pile. *Dean King.*

RUBBLE-STONE, *s.* *Rubble-stones* owe their name to their being rubbed and worn by the water, at the latter end of the deluge, departing in hurry and with great precipitation. *Woodward.*—See MINERALOGY, p. 473, where RUBBLE-STONE is described under its proper term, ARENARIUS GRISEUS.

RUBEFACIENTS, *s.* Substances which produce redness of the skin: as, embrocations, blister-plaster, &c.

RUBELLIO, a name given by some authors to a small sea-fish of a red colour, caught in the Mediterranean, and more usually called by writers on these subjects the *erythrinus.*

RUBELLITE, in Mineralogy, a species of tourmaline, of a reddish-violet colour. It differs from tourmaline, being infusible under the blow-pipe, but it loses its colour and transparency. Its specific gravity is 3.1. It contains, according to Klaproth,—silex 43.5; alumine 42.25; soda 9; oxyd of iron and manganese 1.5.

A specimen analysed by Vauquelin, gave 7 parts in the 100 of oxyd of iron and manganese. This stone is sometimes used in jewellery. In the Greville collection of minerals in the British Museum, there is a magnificent specimen of the red rubellite, originally presented to Col. Symes by the king of Ava. It has been valued at 1000*l.*

RUBELLUS, a name given by some authors to the common roach, and by others to the rudd or finscale.

RUBENS (Sir Peter Paul), a most accomplished man, and extraordinary painter, was the son of John Rubens and Mary Pipelings, both descendants of distinguished families of the city of Antwerp. His father was one of the principal magistrates of that place, when civil war desolated Flanders; and its calamities approaching the precincts of his abode, he left it for Cologne, in which city our artist was born, in 1577.

The

J. Pass sc.

RUBENS.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1820

The day of his nativity was the feast of St. Peter and St. Paul, and from thence he received, at the baptismal font, the name of these apostles. From his infancy he discovered prompt and lively talents, which were cultivated by his parents with great care, in every branch of polite and classical literature; and he amply repaid their care by the high degree of success he attained.

The views of his parents were otherwise directed than to the arts, and Rubens was placed, when his education was completed, as a page to the countess of Lalain; a situation too humble, and attended with occupation too trivial, to engage or detain long, in its obsequious frivolities, such a mind as he possessed: and on the death of his father, which happened soon after, he obtained permission of his mother to pursue the bent of his inclination, and became a painter. To forward this view, he placed himself as a disciple of Tobias Verhaecht, a landscape painter of some note, but soon left him, to study history painting under Adam Van Oort. As the vulgar and brutal deportment of that artist were little congenial to the elevated and gentle mind and disposition of Rubens, be soon quitted him also, and then entered the school of Otho Venius, who possessed qualities, both as a man and an artist, far more suited to his taste, and he became attached to this his last preceptor, in the warmest and most respectful degree.

When Rubens had attained his twenty-third year, Otho had the candour to tell him that he could no farther promote his progress; and advised him to travel to Italy, and gather the rich fruit of higher cultivation in art, at that rich storehouse and fertile nursery of taste and talent. This wise and parental advice of his master corresponded so entirely with his own inclination, that he immediately prepared for the journey; and having received strong recommendatory letters from the archduke Albert, governor of the Netherlands, to Vincenzio Gonzaga, duke of Mantua, he set forth for Italy.

Devoting a short time to the examination of the fine works at Venice, he proceeded to Mantua, where he received most marked attention from the duke, who was no less pleased with his polite accomplishments, than with his skill as an artist, and soon after appointed him one of the gentlemen of his chamber. His residence with this prince afforded him every desirable means of seeing and studying the great works of Giulio Romano, in the palace del Te, with which he is said to have been peculiarly delighted; and he had continued with him two years, when he requested permission to go to Venice, the empire of colouring, for the purpose of studying still farther the works of Titian and others, which had so much engaged his attention as he passed through that city. On his return to Mantua he evinced how much he had benefitted by studying the rich and brilliant productions of the Venetian school, in the three magnificent pictures he painted for the church of the Jesuits; which, in bravura of execution, and force of effect, rank nearly among his best productions. His patron afterwards gave him a commission, which afforded him the means of pursuing his studies at Rome, where he had not yet been, which was to make copies for him of some of the most celebrated pictures there, and he received it with gratitude and delight. During his residence there, he executed several of these transcripts with uncommon success, and they were esteemed by the duke almost equal in value with the originals.

In 1605, Rubens was honoured by his friend with another commission, which still further assisted to advance his knowledge of the art, whilst it served the views of the prince. He was sent on an embassy from Mantua to the court of Spain, and went to Madrid, carrying with him magnificent presents for the duke of Lerma, the favourite of Philip III. He executed his mission with the success which attends ability and integrity; and while intent upon the political part of his employment, did not neglect to employ his pictorial talents with full power, gaining the esteem and admiration of the king of Spain, whose portrait he painted, and from whom he received the most flattering marks of approbation.

Soon after his return to Mantua, he revisited Rome, where he was engaged to adorn the tribune of Sta. Maria, in Valticella; there he painted three admirable pictures, in which he appears to have imitated the style of P. Veronese. From Rome he went to Genoa, where the reputation he had acquired greatly excited public curiosity, and he was engaged to paint many pictures. Among them he executed two for the church of the Jesuits, the subjects of which were the Crucifixion, and St. Ignatius performing a miracle, which gave universal satisfaction and delight.

Having been absent from his native country eight years, he was summoned home by the reported illness of his mother; but though he hastened with all speed, he did not reach Antwerp in time to afford his beloved parent the consolations of his presence and affections. The loss of her affected him deeply, and he intended, when he had arranged his private affairs, to go and reside in Italy; but the archduke Albert, and the Infanta Isabella, exerted their interest to retain him in Flanders, and in their service. He consequently established himself at Antwerp, where he married his first wife, Elizabeth Brants, and built a magnificent house, with a saloon in form of a rotunda, which he enriched with antique statues, busts, vases, and pictures by the most celebrated painters: and here, surrounded by works of art; he carried into execution the numberless productions of his prolific and rich invention.

The amazing success of Rubens in his art, and the honours and wealth which were accumulated upon him, excited the envy and malignity of many among his rivals, who ascribed the most meritorious parts of his works to the ability of his pupils, among whom were Jordaens, Van Uden, Snyders, Wilden, &c., and forgetting that such men would not consent to work for another whom they did not regard as pre-eminent to themselves. Cornelius Schut abused him for lack of invention. Abraham Jansens had the audacity to defy him to a trial of strength. Rubens answered, that he would contend with him when he had shewn himself to be a worthy competitor. A more friendly offer was rejected by him with equal wit. A chemist offered him a share of his laboratory, and of his hopes of obtaining the philosopher's stone. He carried the visionary into his painting room, and told him his offer came twenty years too late, for so long, said he, is it since I found the art of making gold with my palette and pencils. The abuse of Schut and of Rombouts, who joined in it, he answered by relieving their necessities, and procuring them employment; and by engaging in those varieties of art, landscapes, lion and crocodile-hunting, and other miscellaneous subjects, he decidedly established his claim to the title of an universal painter, and covered his calumniators with shame and confusion.

In 1620, when his talents had procured him universal renown, he received a commission from Mary de Medici to adorn the gallery of the palace of the Luxembourg. There, in consequence, he executed the works so well known; in which he represented, with the most rich and varied imagination, by very ingenious allegorical and emblematical designs, the principal events in the life of that princess. The whole were executed at Antwerp, except two pictures, which he painted at Paris in 1623, when he went there to arrange the whole in the gallery: and thus, in the short space of three years, amidst innumerable other engagements, was this large series of compositions, extensive in their design, and rich in number of figures and in variety of colouring, completed: exhibiting an astonishing proof of the vivacity of his imagination, and the skill and dexterity with which he controlled the materials of his art. It was at this period that he became known to the duke of Buckingham, as that nobleman passed with his master, prince Charles, through France on his way to Madrid. He afterwards became the purchaser of Rubens's rich museum of works of art, for which he is said to have given 10,000*l.* sterling.

On the return of Rubens to Antwerp, he was honoured with several conferences with the Infanta Isabella, and was by her

her dispatched on a political mission to the court of Madrid, where he arrived in 1628, and was most graciously received by Philip IV. He acquitted himself in his novel capacity to the satisfaction of that monarch, and his minister, the duke de Olivares, by both of whom he was highly esteemed; and while his talents as a diplomatist met with the success they merited, those of the painter were not neglected.

The duke de Olivares had just completed the foundation of a convent of Carmelites at the small town of Loeches, near Madrid, and the king, as a mark of his favour to the minister, commissioned Rubens to paint four pictures for their church, which he executed in his grandest style, and the richest glow of his colouring. The first is an allegorical design of the triumph of the new Law, which he has personified by a figure of Religion, seated on a superb triumphal car, drawn by four angels, with others bearing the cross, with characteristic symbols; four figures, expressive of Infidelity or Ignorance, over which Religion is supposed to triumph, follow the car like slaves or captives bound in chains. The group is crowned with beautiful cherubims, that hover in the air with chaplets in their hands, disposed with singular art and the most charming effect. The companion picture represents the interview of Abraham and Melchisedech, who offers him bread and the tenth of his spoils. The other two pictures, of equal excellence with the above, represent the four doctors of the church, and the four evangelists, with their distinctive emblems: they are all of very large dimensions, and in composition and expression are not excelled by any of his works. He also painted eight grand pictures for the great saloon of the palace at Madrid, which are regarded among the most brilliant of his productions. Their subjects were the Rape of the Sabines; the Battle between the Romans and Sabines; the Bath of Diana, Perseus, and Andromeda; the Rape of Helen; the Judgment of Paris, Juno, Minerva, and Venus; and the Triumph of Bacchus. He also painted a large portrait of the king on horseback, with other figures; and a picture of the Martyrdom of the Apostle St. Andrew, which was in the church dedicated to that saint. For these extraordinary productions he was richly rewarded, received the honour of knighthood, and was presented with the golden key as gentleman of the chamber to the king. In 1629 he returned to Flanders, and thus, in the short space of little more than nine months, he designed and executed so extensive a series of pictures; a labour which, to any other artist not possessed of his extraordinary powers, must have required the exertion of many years. When he had rendered the account of his mission to the Infanta, she dispatched him to England, to sound the disposition of the government on the subject of a peace. There for a time he concealed the powers granted to him to negociate upon the subject. Charles, in the interim, honoured this great painter with his notice, and commissioned him to paint the ceiling of the banqueting-house at Whitehall, where he has represented the apotheosis of king James I.

During one of the frequent visits with which Charles honoured Rubens, whilst he was engaged in this great work, the latter, with infinite address, took a favourable opportunity of touching on the subject of peace with Spain; and finding that the monarch was no ways averse to it, at length produced the credentials with which he was furnished. The king appointed some members of the council to negociate with him; and the business was speedily brought to a conclusion. Charles, delighted both with the man and the artist, munificently rewarded Rubens, and on the 21st of February, 1630, conferred upon him the honour of knighthood. Soon afterwards, the important object of his mission being happily effected, he returned to the Netherlands, where he was received with all the honours and distinctions due to exalted merit.

Rubens continued to enjoy his well-earned fame and honours, with uninterrupted success, till he arrived at his 58th year, when he was attacked with strong fits of gout, which debilitated his frame, and unfitted him for great exertions: he abandoned, therefore, all larger works, and confined himself to easel painting. Yet he continued to exercise his art until the year 1640, when he died, at the age of 63. He was buried, with extraordinary pomp, in the church of St. James at Antwerp, under the altar of his private chapel, which he had previously decorated with a very fine picture. A monument was erected to him by his wife and children, with an epitaph in Latin, eulogizing his talents and virtues, and displaying their success. It is difficult to say which branch of the art most successfully employed the talents of Rubens. In history, portraiture, animals, landscape, or still life, his brilliancy of imagination, and wonderful skill in execution, are equally apparent; but his works abound with defects as well as beauties, and are liable, by their daring eccentricities, to provoke much criticism. But they have, nevertheless, that peculiar property, always the companion of true genius, that which seizes on the spectator, commands attention, and enforces admiration, in spite of all their faults. His productions seem to have flowed from his pencil with more than freedom—with prodigality: his mind appears to have been inexhaustible; his hand never wearied: the exuberant fertility of his imagination was, therefore, always accompanied by a correspondent spirit in the execution of his work.

> "Led by some rule, which guides but not constrains,
> He finished more through happiness than pains."

No man ever more completely laid the reins on the neck of his inclinations; no man ever more fearlessly abandoned himself to his own sensations, and depending on them, dared to attempt extraordinary things, than Rubens. To this, in a great measure, must be attributed that perfect originality of manner, by which the limits of the art may be said to have been extended. Endowed with a full comprehension of his own character, he waited not a moment for the acquisition of what he perhaps deemed incompatible excellence: his theory once formed, he seldom looked abroad for assistance; there is consequently in his works very little that appears to be taken from other masters, and if he has occasionally stolen any thing, he has so well digested and adapted it to the rest of his composition, that the theft is not discoverable. But though it must be allowed that he possessed, in many respects, the true art of imitation, though he looked at nature with a painter's eye, and saw at once the characteristic feature by which every object is distinguished, and rendered it on canvass with a vivacity of touch truly astonishing; though his powers of grouping and combining his objects into a whole, and forming his masses of light and shadow and colour have never been equalled; and though the general animation and energy of his attitudes, and the flowing liberty of his outline, all contribute to arrest the attention, and inspire a portion of that enthusiasm by which the painter was absorbed and carried away; yet the spectator will at last awake from his trance, his eyes will cease to be dazzled, and then he will not fail to lament, that such extraordinary powers were so often misapplied, if not entirely cast away: he will enquire, why Rubens was content to *waste* so many requisites to the perfection of the art? why he paid no greater attention to elegance and correctness of form, to grace, to beauty, dignity and propriety of character?

The redemption of what he wanted, is found in the universality of his power as an executive painter. In the smallest sketch, the lightness and transparency of his touch and colour, are no less remarkable than the sweeping rapidity and force of his brush in his largest works: and in all kinds of subjects, he equally keeps up his wonted superiority. His animals, particularly his lions and horses, are so admirable, that it may be said they were never properly, at least poetically, painted, but by him; his portraits rank with the best works of those painters who have made that branch of art their sole study; and his landscapes remind us of the lustre of Claude Lorraine and the grandeur of Titian. In the latter class of his works, the picturesque forms of his rocks and trees, the deep tones in his shady glades and glooms, the watery sunshine, the dewy verdure, the airiness and facility

facility of his touch, exhibit a charm, and shew a variety of invention, which fascinate the observer, and leave him no inclination to dwell on the defects, though they are often neither few nor small.

As a colourist, Rubens, in comparison with Titian, the great master of the Venetian school, will rise or fall, according to the taste of the amateur. If he is less chaste than the Venetian, he is more brilliant; and if not by the truth of his colours, yet he claims our applause by the lustre and splendour of his tints. The latter, in his execution, mingled his hues as they are found in nature, in such a manner as to make it impossible to say where they begin or terminate; Rubens, on the other hand, laid his colours in their places, one by the side of the other, and then very slightly mixed them by a touch of a soft pencil; not unfrequently leaving his prepared ground visible through parts of the colours, to produce an harmonizing tone. Of these different styles, the only correct mode of judging is by reference to the specific object of art, *the imitation of nature*, and then Titian's will be regarded as the most correct, though Rubens' may be more alluring.

RUBENS (Albert), son of Peter Paul, was born at Antwerp in 1614, and succeeded his father in his post as secretary to the council, devoting his leisure to literary pursuits. He died in 1657, leaving behind him many works, as monuments of his great learning and sound judgment, of which the following may be mentioned. "Regum et Imperatorum Romanorum Numismata," which is a commentary on the medals of the duke of Arschot: "De Re Vestiaria Veterum:" "Dissertatio de Gemma Tiberiana et Augustea—de Urbibus Neocoris—de natali Die Cæsaris Augusti," which were published by Grævius in the Thesaurus Antiq. Roman.

RUBERSLAW, a hill of Scotland, in Roxburghshire, in the parish of Bedrule, elevated 1419 feet above the level of the sea.

RUBETRA, in Ornithology, a species of MOTACILLA; which see.

RUBIA [from the red colour of the root], in Botany, a genus of the class tetrandria, order monogynia, natural order of stellatæ, rubiaceæ, *(Juss.)*—Generic character. Calyx: perianth, very small, four-toothed, superior. Corolla: one-petalled, bell-shaped, four-parted, without a tube. Stamina: filaments four, awl-shaped, shorter than the corolla; anthers simple. Pistil: germ twin, inferior; style filiform, bifid at top; stigmas capitate. Pericarp: berries two, united smooth. Seeds solitary, roundish, umbilicate.—The corolla is frequently five-cleft.—*Essential Character.* Corolla one-petalled, bell-shaped. Berries two, one-seeded.

1. Rubia tinctorum, or dyer's madder.—Leaves annual, about five ovate-lanceolate, ciliate, rugged on the upper surface, with little recurved prickles on the edge and keel, stem with prickles at the angles, clefts of the corolla commonly four.—Dyer's madder has a perennial root, and an annual stalk. From the joints of the stalk come out the branches, which sustain the flowers; they are placed by pairs, opposite, each pair crossing the other; these have a few small leaves toward the bottom, which are by threes, and upward by pairs opposite; the branches are terminated by loose branching spikes of yellow flowers, which are cut into four segments resembling stars. These appear in June, and are sometimes succeeded by seeds which seldom ripen in England.—Native of the South of Europe, the Levant and Africa.

It is well known that madder is so essential to dyers and calico-printers, that neither business can be carried on without it. The consumption of it is so great in England, that upon a moderate computation, more than one hundred and eighty thousand pounds sterling is annually paid for what is imported from Holland. This might be saved to the public, if a sufficient quantity of madder were planted in England, where it might be cultivated to greater advantage than in Holland, our lands being better adapted to the growth of this plant.

2. Rubia Chilensis, or Chili madder.—Leaves annual, in fours, peduncles axillary, solitary, one-flowered, stem even. Berries roundish, red.—Native of Chili.

3. Rubia peregrina, or wild madder.—Leaves in fours or fives, elliptic, above shining, even, flowers yellow, five-cleft. Root perennial, branched, penetrating deeply into the fissures of rocks; its outer bark red.—Native of England, among bushes and on rocks.

4. Rubia lucida, or shining-leaved madder.—Leaves perennial, in sixes, elliptic, shining, stem even. This is an evergeen plant, resembling the preceding, but the leaves are rugged with recurved prickles on the edge only, not on the keel. Flowers panicled, pale, mucronate, five-cleft.—Native of Majorca.

5. Rubia fruticosa, or prickly-leaved madder.—Leaves perennial, elliptic, prickly at the edge and keel, stem frutescent, rough. Flowers yellowish, axillary, on three-flowered peduncles.—Native of the Canary Islands.

6. Rubia angustifolia, or narrow-leaved madder.—Stems diffused, very rugged, four-cornered. Leaves perennial, four or six in a whorl, linear-acute, the keel and margin ciliate, with little prickles, and rugged along the rib of the upper surface. Flowers yellow, flat, five-cleft.—Native of Minorca.

7. Rubia cordifolia, or heart-leaved madder.—Leaves perennial, in fours, cordate.—This is a diffused, scandent plant, quite smooth. Stem four-cornered, rugged, with recurved prickles at the corners, and branched. Flowers axillary, panicled, white. Panicle, very spreading, in whorls and sub-trichotomous. Peduncles and pedicels capillary, four-cornered. Bractes subulate-setaceous.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope, Siberia, China, Japan, where it is used in dying.

Propagation and Culture.—Madder requires a loamy soil, not too stiff, nor over light.

The time for planting madder begins towards the end of April, and continues all May, and sometimes, in very backward springs, there is some madder planted the beginning of June. The young shoots from the sides of the root are taken off from the mother plant, with as much root as possible; these are planted with an iron dibble in rows at one foot asunder, on beds three feet wide.

The first year the madder is planted, it is customary to plant cabbages or dwarf kidney-beans in the furrows between the beds, but there is always great care taken to keep the ground clear from weeds.

In September or October, lay the stalks down on the beds, and cover them with earth.

The second summer there must be the same care taken to keep the madder clean as in the first, and that nothing is planted in the furrows, or suffered to grow there. Again in October, the green stalks are spread down upon the beds; and the madder is again covered with earth, in the same manner as the first year.

The roots are seldom dug up the second year, but generally after it has grown three summers, therefore the culture of the third year is the same as in the second, during the spring and summer.

When the madder is dug out of the ground, it is carried to the stove, on which it is spread to dry; it is then threshed on the threshing-floor, which is made clean from dirt or filth, and then it is brought to the kiln, and there spread on a hair-cloth for about twenty hours.

From the kiln the madder is moved to the pounding-house, and is there pounded and sifted, after which it is packed up in casks.

RUBIACEÆ, in Botany, one of Jussieu's largest and most important natural orders of plants, which has grown out of the Linnæan Stellatæ, and is named from Rubia, a genus belonging to the latter. Linnæus, in subordinate sections of his Stellatæ, has indicated some genera, as akin to what more strictly appeared to him to constitute that order. But his ideas wandered between this tribe and the contortæ, to which last he referred some genuine rubiaceæ; as cinchon-

chona and gardenia. Jussieu, taking a more accurate and comprehensive view of the subject, has greatly extended the order, while he has, at the same time, better defined it than any preceding botanist. This order is the 57th of his series, the 2d of his 11th class. The order of rubiaceæ is thus defined: —Calyx of one leaf, superior, simple; its limb divided, or occasionally undivided. Corolla regular, mostly tubular, with a divided limb. Stamens definite, four or five, seldom more, inserted into the tube of the corolla, alternate with its segments, and equal to them in number. Germen inferior; style one, very rarely double; stigma generally double. Fruit in some cases of two lobes, or grains, each lobe single-seeded, not bursting, but having the appearance of a naked seed; in others a simple capsular or pulpy fruit, often of two cells, in each of which the seeds are either solitary or numerous; in a few instances there is but one cell, in some others many; the fruit, of whatever description, is either crowned with the permanent limb of the calyx, or marked with a rim, or scar, where the latter had been. The corculum is oblong, slender, inclosed in a large, horny, lateral albumen. Stem herbaceous, shrubby, or arboreous. Leaves in a few instances whorled, in most opposite, their footstalks generally connected at the base, through the medium of a simple pair of stipulas, or sometimes a fringed kind of sheath, embracing the stem or branch. Plants of this order are readily known, even without flowers, by their leaves or stipulas. The shrubby and arborescent kinds are principally natives of tropical climates, where they greatly abound.

RUBIANA, an inland town in the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont, province of Susa. Population 2800.

RU'BICAN, *adj.* [*rubican*, Fr.] *Rubican* colour of a horse is one that is bay, sorrel, or black, with a light, grey, or white upon the flanks, but so that this grey or white is not predominant there. *Farrier's Dict.*

RUBICON, the ancient name of a small river in the north-east of Italy, which flowed into the Adriatic to the northward of Rimini. In modern times antiquaries have differed much as to its identity, some supposing it to be the Pisciatello, others the Marecchia, and by far the greatest number the Luso. It formed the boundary between Italy proper and Cisalpine Gaul; but it is chiefly remarkable in ancient history as the limit prescribed by the Roman senate to the advancing army of Cæsar, when the ambitious designs of that commander became strongly suspected. He disregarded the prohibition, and advanced to Rome.

RU'BICUND, *adj.* [*rubicond*, Fr. *rubicundus*, Lat.] Inclining to redness.—Falstaff alludes to Pistol's *rubicund* nose. *Douce.*

RUBICU'NDITY, *s.* Disposition to redness. *Scott.*

RU'BIED, *adj.* Red as a ruby.

Thrice upon thy finger's tip,
Thrice upon thy *rubied* lip. *Milton.*

RUBIERA, a small town of Italy, in the duchy of Modena, situated on a river called also Rubiera; 5 miles west of Modena.

RUBIESZOW, a small town of Poland, on the borders of Russia; 29 miles east-by-north of Zamoski, and 30 south-south-east of Chelm.

RUBIFICA'TION, *s.* [from *ruber* and *facio*, Lat.] Act of making red: (an old term of chemistry.)—Dealbation, *rubification*, and fixation. *Howell.*

RUBI'FIC, *adj.* [*ruber* and *facio*, Lat.] Making red.—While the several species of rays, as the *rubifick*, are by refraction separated one from another, they retain those motions proper to each. *Grew.*

RU'BIFORM, *adj.* Having the form of red.—Of those rays, which pass close by the snow, the *rubiform* will be the least refracted; and so come to the eye in the directest lines. *Newton.*

To RU'BIFY, *v. a.* To make red: (originally a chemical term).—Wateres *rubifying*. *Chaucer.*

RUBIGALIA, or Robigalia, a feast celebrated by the Romans, in honour of the god Rubigus, or the goddess Rubigo; to engage those deities to preserve the corn from blasting and mildews.

The Rubigalia were instituted by Numa in the eleventh year of his reign; and were held on the seventh of the calends of May, which is our twenty-fifth of April; being about the time when the blight or mildew, called by the Latins *rubigo*, uses to attack the corn.

Varro fixes it to the time when the sun enters the 16th degree of Taurus. Indeed the true time seems rather to have been on the 18th day before the equinox, and the true reason, because then Canicula, or the Little Dog, sets; which is esteemed a malific constellation.

Hence they sacrificed a dog to Rubigo: Ovid says, the entrails of a dog, and those of a sheep; Columella, only a sucking puppy. Festus insinuates, that the victim must also be red.

RUBIN, or Roboan, a small island of the Red sea, at the entrance of the straits of Babelmandel, not above a stone's throw from a projecting cape of the continent. At low water this channel may be forded. Pilots are taken in here to guide vessels through the straits, and to the different ports in the Red sea.

RUBIO, a cape of the Mediterranean, on the north-west coast of the island of Iviça. Lat. 39. 5. N. long. 1. 21. E.

RUBIO, a river of New Granada, in the province of Venezuela, which runs east, and enters the sea in the gulf of Venezuela, by the west part.

RUBIO, a small river of the province of Tucuman, in the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres, which runs east, and enters the Paraguay.

RU'BIOUS, *adj.* [*rubeus*, Lat.] Ruddy; red. *Not used.*

Diana's lip
Is not more smooth and *rubious*. *Shakspeare.*

RU'BRIC, *s.* [*rubrique*, Fr. *rubrica*, Lat.] Directions printed in books of law and in prayer books; so termed, because they were originally distinguished by being in red ink.

No date prefix'd,
Directs me in the starry *rubrick* set. *Milton.*

They had their particular prayers according to the several days and months; and their tables or *rubricks* to instruct them. *Stillingfleet.*

RU'BRIC, *adj.* Red.—The light and rays, which appear red, or rather make objects appear so, I call *rubrick* or red-making. *Newton.*—What though my name stood *rubrick* on the walls. *Pope.*

To RU'BRIC, *v. a.* To adorn with red.

RU'BRICAL, *adj.* [from *rubrica*, Lat.] Red.—A man would think you had eaten over-liberally of Esau's red porridge, and from thence dream continually of blushing;—that you thus persecute ingenuous men all over your book with this one overtired *rubrical* conceit still of blushing. *Milton.* —Placed in rubrics.—As the singing-psalms were never a part of our liturgy, no *rubrical* directions are any where given for the manner of performing them. *Warton.*

To RU'BRICATE, *v. a.* [*rubricatus*, Lat.] To distinguish or mark with red. *Todd.*—Curroon *rubricates* this in the kalendar of his greatest deliverances. *Sir T. Herbert.*

RU'BRICATE, *part. adj.* [*rubricatus*, Lat.] Marked with red.—Other festivals I enquire not after, that stand *rubricate* in old kalendars. *Spelman.*

RUBUS, in Ichthyology, a name given by Joannes Cuba, Albertus, and some other writers, to the *ray*. See Raia.

RUBUS [from the redness of the twigs, or the juice of the fruit], in Botany, a genus of the class icosandria, order polygynia, natural order of senticosæ, rosaceæ, *(Juss.)*—Generic character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, five-cleft: segments oblong, spreading, permanent. Corolla: petals five, roundish, the length of the calyx, from upright spreading. Stamina: filaments numerous, shorter than the corolla, inserted into the calyx; anthers roundish, compressed.

pressed. Pistil: germs numerous; styles small, capillary, springing from the side of the germ; stigmas simple, permanent. Pericarp: berry compounded of roundish acini, collected into a convex head, concave below: each one-celled. Seeds solitary oblong. Receptacle of the pericarps conical. The acini are united into a compound berry, and are not separable without tearing them asunder, except in rubus saxatilis, which has the acini distinct; rubus chamæmorus is dioecous.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-cleft. Petals five; berry composed of one-seeded acini.

I.—Frutescent.

1. Rubus rosæfolius, or rose leaved bramble.—Leaves quinate-pinnate and ternate, green on both sides, stem and petioles prickly, flowers solitary. — Stem round, pubescent; prickles yellowish, recurved at the end. Leaflets commonly five, ovate, acute, somewhat hairy; the end one very large, elongated, petioled. Common petiole channelled, hairy, with small hooked prickles. Stipules in pairs, linear, acute, very narrow. Peduncles solitary, opposite to the leaf, an inch long, spreading, hairy, one-flowered, without any bractes.—Found in the island of Mauritius.

2. Rubus pinnatus, or pinnate leaved bramble.—Leaves quinate-pinnate and ternate, wrinkled, smooth on both sides, stem petioles and peduncles prickly, raceme terminating.—Its native place is unknown.

3. Rubus Australis, or South-sea bramble.—Shrubby, dioecous, leaves ternate and quinate-pinnate, stem and petioles prickly, racemes axillary simple.—Native of New Zealand.

4. Rubus idæus, or raspberry.—Stems suffruticose, biennial, upright, round, aculeate-hispid, or thick set with small prickles, two feet high: they produce fruit the second year, after which they lie down. Leaflets rhomb-ovate, acute, marked with lines, unequally serrate, white underneath. Petioles pubescent, prickly. Peduncles hispid. Flowers in panicles. Calyx tomentose, acuminate. Petals small, white, blunt, flat. Fruit red, grateful to the smell and taste, deciduous, bristly with the permanent styles, placed upon a conical receptacle.

The raspberry, was anciently called raspis or raspis-berry, and in some countries hind-berry; also *framboise* from the French.

Native of many parts of Europe in rocky mountains, moist situations, woods and hedges. With us it is plentiful.

The raspberry flowers in May and June.

The fruit is grateful to most palates, as nature presents it, but sugar improves the flavour; accordingly it is much esteemed when made into a sweetmeat. The ripe fruit is fragrant, subacid and cooling, allays heat and thirst, and promotes the natural excretions, in common with other summer fruits.

5. Rubus occidentalis, or Virginian raspberry.— Leaves tern, tomentose underneath, petioles round.—The Virginian raspberry rises with purplish stalks, a little higher than the common sort. The leaves are of a lucid green on their upper side, but hoary on their under; their foot-stalks are taper; the fruit is of a deep black when ripe, has little flavour, and ripens late in autumn.—Native of North America.

6. Rubus triphyllus, or three-leaved bramble.—Leaves ternate, tomentose underneath, leaflets ovate, gashed, toothed, branches, petioles and peduncles villose and prickly.—Stem suffruticose, smooth, prickly. Branches weak, from flexuose-upright. Flowers at the ends of the branchlets, in a sort of panicle. Calyxes tomentose, hispid.—Native of Japan.

7. Rubus tomentosus, or downy bramble.—Leaves ternate obovate, acute, unequally toothed, tomentose, on both sides, the lateral ones somewhat gashed.—Native of Germany and Switzerland.

8. Rubus hispidus, or bristly bramble.—Leaves ternate, naked, stems and petioles very hispid with stiffish prickles.—The stems have long procumbent woody shoots like those of the vine; these, together with the petioles, have stiff bristles scattered over them. The peduncles also are hispid.—Native of Canada.

9. Rubus parvifolius, or small leaved bramble.—Leaves ternate, tomentose underneath, stem rough-haired, with recurved prickles, on that and the petioles.—Native of the East Indies.

10. Rubus sanctus, or Palestine bramble.—Leaves ternate, and simple, tomentose underneath, recurved prickles on the stem and petioles.—Native of Palestine, Candia, &c.

11. Rubus Jamaicensis, or Jamaica bramble.—Leaves quinate or ternate, tomentose underneath, stem, petioles, and leaves pubescent, with recurved prickles, panicles diffused.—Native of Jamaica and the neighbouring islands.

12. Rubus cæsius, or dewberry bramble.—Leaves ternate, hairy underneath, the lateral ones two-lobed, stem prickly, prostrate glaucous.—The dewberry has weaker trailing stalks than the common bramble.—The leaflets are larger. The fruit is smaller, with few larger acini, and is of a deeper black colour. Fruit black with a bright blue tinge or bloom, composed of few large grains. Its flavour is agreeably acid, without the faint taste of the common blackberry.—Native of Europe.

13. Rubus corylifolius, or hazel-leaved bramble.—Leaves subquinate, hairy underneath, the lateral ones sessile, prickles straightish, calyxes of the fruit bent back.

14. Rubus fruticosus, or common bramble.—Leaves subquinate, tomentose underneath, leaflets petioled, prickles hooked, stem angular, calyx bent back.—Common bramble has very long, trailing or rather arching, woody stems, of a purplish hue, as in the preceding, but much more tough, with the angles more strongly marked, and the prickles hooked. Panicles many-flowered, subracemed, tomentose. Calyx short, always reflexed both in flower and fruit, concave, tomentose. Petals pale purple, blush coloured or pink; sometimes white. Fruit of a dark violet colour, with a mawkish sweet taste, composed of very numerous acini or grains.

The bramble is found in almost every hedge and thicket, flowering in July and August. The fruit ripens early in September; there are several varieties.

15. Rubus villosus, or hairy bramble.—Leaves quinate, elliptic, acuminate, sharply serrate, villose on both sides, stems and petioles prickly.—Native of North America. It flowers here in July.

16. Rubus Canadensis, or Canadian raspberry.—Leaves digitate in tens, five and threes, stem unarmed. Stem purplish. Leaflets lanceolate, naked on both sides, very thin sharply serrate. Bractes lanceolate. Stipules linear, prickly.—Native of Canada.

17. Rubus odoratus, or flowering raspberry.—Root perennial, creeping. Stems many, from four to seven feet high, about the size of a man's little finger, covered with a smooth bark of a light brown colour, and branching out a little towards the top. Leaves six inches long, and seven inches broad, cut into three, four or five angular lobes, ending in acute points, serrate, having several veins arising from the midrib, running upwards diverging towards the borders, deep green above, but light green and smooth beneath; on foot-stalks four inches long, coming out alternately. Flowers in loose terminating bunches, each on a long peduncle. Petals large, roundish, of a light purple colour.

The fruit is rarely produced with us; but in North America, its native country, it is like the common raspberry, only not so pleasant. It flowers from June to September.

18. Rubus moluccanus.—Leaves simple, cordate, sublobed, stem prickly, decumbent.—Branches upright, hirsute, with minute recurved prickles. Leaves alternate, blunt, lobed or sublobed, serrate, smooth and wrinkled above, veined and downy-ash-coloured beneath. Petioles tomentose, prickly, the length of the leaf. Flowers scattered in the axils and terminating, solitary and racemed. Berry small, roundish, red.—Native of Amboina, Java, Ceylon, Japan, and Cochinchina.

19. Rubus microphyllus.—Shrubby, prickly, smooth, leaves simple, cordate, ovate, blunt, sublobate, peduncles solitary, one-flowered.—Stem frutescent, upright, from two to

to three feet in height. Branches round, purple flexuose, with frequent spreading prickles. Calyx villose with lanceolate segments. Corolla twice as long as the calyx, white. Fruit yellow, esculent, sapid.—Native of Japan, between Miaco and Quana; flowering in April.

20. Rubus incisus.—Leaves simple, cordate, gashed, smooth, stem erect, prickly.—Native of Japan.

21. Rubus Japonicus.—This is a low shrub, with an upright, even, angular stem, not much branched. Leaves alternate, petioled, ovate or ovate-oblong, even on both sides. Peduncle filiform, the length of the corolla. Flower the size of that of the strawberry, with roundish white petals. Calyx small.—Native of Japan.

22. Rubus corchorifolius.—Shrubby, prickly, tomentose, leaves simple, oblong, cordate, serrate, peduncles solitary, one-flowered.—Stem, lower surface of the leaves, petioles, peduncles and calyxes hoary with nap. Petals scarcely longer than the calyx.

23. Rubus elongatus.—Leaves simple, cordate, acuminate, doubly crenate, tomentose underneath, stem prickly, calyxes blunt.—Pedicels clustered or solitary, short, a little thickened at the top, silky upright. Bractes oblong, concave, pubescent on the outside, toothed at top, deciduous. Petals roundish, white. Fruit red.—Found in Java.

24. Rubus pyrifolius.—Leaves simple, oval, acuminate, serrate, naked, stem prickly, panicled, petals minute.—Petals four times shorter than the calyx, oval, blunt, toothed at the end. Fruit composed of few ovate grains.—Found in Java.

II.—Herbaceous.

25. Rubus pedatus.—Leaves pedate-quinate, gashed, peduncles filiform, bracted in the middle, calyxes smoothish.—Flowers solitary, peduncled, upright, seemingly white. This tender delicate plant, is distinguished from all the herbaceous species by its leaves.—Native of North America.

26. Rubus saxatilis, or stone bramble.—Leaves ternate, smoothish, runners, creeping, herbaceous, panicle few-flowered.—Fruit of a most beautiful pink colour, when ripe, of an agreeable acid flavour, and composed of a few large acini.—Native of several parts of Europe. It flowers in June.—In Scotland they call the fruit roebuck-berries. The Russians ferment them with honey, and extract a potent spirit from them.

27. Rubus arcticus, or dwarf crimson bramble.—Dwarf crimson bramble has a creeping root, but no runners. Stems from a hand to a span in height, upright, single, angular. Leaves unequally serrate, commonly altogether smooth. Flowers solitary, peduncled, terminating, deep rose-coloured, with the petals sometimes jagged. Calyx hairy. Fruit purple, sweet and fragrant, very pleasant; according to Linneus, almost as large as a mulberry.—Native of the North of Europe, Asia and America.

28. Rubus trifidus.—Leaves simple, gash-trifid, smooth, stem unarmed.—Flowers from the same bud with the leaves, peduncled, solitary; peduncle simple, seldom bifid. Petioles and peduncles villose, a finger's length. Calyx white-tomentose. Fruit red, esculent, pleasant-tasted.—Native of Japan, flowering in April.

29. Rubus stellatus.—Leaves simple, cordate, three-lobed, wrinkle-veined, stem unarmed, one-flowered, erect, petals lanceolate.—Found in North America. The fruit is purple, as in rubus arcticus.

30. Rubus geoides.—Leaves simple, ternate, blunt, serrate, naked, the end leaf very large.—Stems herbaceous, very short, depressed. Petioles subvillose. Flowers solitary, on short, very thick, pubescent peduncles. Petals roundish. Found in South America.

31. Rubus chamæmorus, mountain bramble or cloudberry.—Leaves simple, lobed, stem unarmed, one-flowered, calycine, segments ovate.—The mountain bramble or cloudberry is a plant of an elegant appearance, with a creeping root; a simple stem, hardly a foot high, upright; mallow-like, but smooth and hardish leaves, petioled, cordate, five-lobed, plaited, wrinkled, unequally serrate. Flowers terminal, peduncled, white; male and female, the former with short abortive pistils, the latter with abortive stamens. Berries of a tawney or dull orange-colour, composed of many acini, acid, mucilaginous and not unpleasant.—Native of Sweden, Denmark, Siberia, and Britain.

32. Rubus dalibarda, or simple-leaved bramble.—Leaves simple, cordate, undivided, crenate, scape leafless, one flowered.—Root creeping, fibrous. Runners prostrate, herbaceous. Petioles hairy, longer than the leaves. Peduncles, solitary, leafless, filiform, hairy, one-flowered, the length of the petioles. Flowers, hermaphrodite, white, small. Calyx five-parted, the segments lanceolate, scarcely longer than the calyx. Filaments the length of the petals. Berry juiceless. Seeds five, ovate, sharpish, in the dried plant with a corrugated surface.—Brought from Canada.—

Propagation and Culture.—The raspberry is generally propagated by suckers. The soil in which the varieties thrive best, is a fresh, strong loam, for in warm light ground they do not produce so much fruit, as they naturally grow in cold land and in shade; therefore when they are planted in a warm situation and a light soil, they do not succeed. The season for dressing them is in October.

RU'BY, *s.* [*rubi, rubis,* old Fr.; from *ruber,* Lat.] A precious stone of a red colour, next in hardness and value to a diamond.—See MINERALOGY, p. 459.

Up, up, fair bride! and call
Thy stars from out their several boxes, take
Thy *rubies,* pearls, and diamonds forth, and make
Thyself a constellation of them all. *Donne.*

Redness.

You can behold such sights,
And keep the natural *ruby* of your cheeks,
When mine is blanch'd with fear. *Shakspeare.*

Any thing red.

Desire of wine
Thou could'st repress, nor did the dancing *ruby*
Sparkling, out-pour'd, the flavour, or the smell,
Or taste, that cheers the hearts of gods and men,
Allure thee from the cool crystalline stream. *Milton.*

A blain; a blotch; a carbuncle. (This is a very old acceptation of the word.)—To take away red *rubies* that growe in the face by reason of the heate of the liver. *Ward.*—He's said to have a rich face, and *rubies* about his nose. *Capt. Jones.*

RU'BY, *adj.* Of a red colour.—Wounds, like dumb mouths, do ope their *ruby* lips. *Shakspeare.*

To RU'BY, *v. a.* To make red. *Not in use.*—With sanguine drops the walls are *rubied* round. *Pope.*

RUCA, a small river of Venezuela, which rises east of the city of Coro, runs north, forming a curve, and enters the sea.

RUCELLAI (Bernardo), [Lat. Oricellarius], a writer and patron of letters, was born of a noble family at Florence, in 1449. At the age of 17 he married Nannina, daughter of Piero and sister of Lorenzo de Medicis, an alliance that raised him to the highest posts in the republic. In 1480 he was elected Gonfalonier of Justice, and four years afterwards went as ambassador to the state of Genoa. In 1494 he was deputed in the same quality to Ferdinand, King of Naples; and, in the same and the following year, to Charles VII. King of France. With his public employments he joined that cultivation of polite literature which was frequent among the Florentines in the age of the Medici. He was intimately connected with Marsiglio Ficino, of whose academy he was first one of the chief ornaments, and afterwards the firmest support. After the death of Lorenzo, he was a munificent patron and protector of the Platonic academy, for the use of which he erected a sumptuous edifice, with fine gardens and groves, furnished with monuments of antiquity, serving both for ornament and instruction. These *Horti Oricellarii* were famous in their time, and have been celebrated by various writers. In the Revolutions which followed the subversion of the Medici interest, Rucellai incurred the charges of ambition and inconstancy, by favouring sometimes

RUBUS AND RUMEX.

1 & 3 Rubus chamæmorus. 2. Rumex Digynus.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1826.

times one party, sometimes another; but, according to Mr. Roscoe, his crime in the eyes of the Florentine historians of the succeeding century was "an ardent love of liberty, which he preferred to the claims of kindred, and the expectations of personal aggrandizement." He was attached to the popular party, and on the accession of Leo X. declined the office which his countrymen would have conferred upon him, of going as public orator to compliment the pontiff, probably foreseeing in his elevation the subversion of liberty at Florence. He died in 1514, and was buried in the church of St. Maria Novella, the front of which, begun by his father, was finished by him with great magnificence. The learning and talents of Bernardo were displayed in his antiquarian and historical works. His treatise, "De Urbe Roma," is a commentary on the description of Rome by Publio Vittore, in which, with great erudition and critical sagacity, and in a clear and elegant style, he collected from all the ancient writers whatever could serve to convey a just idea of the grandeur of that capital. He also composed a short treatise "De Magistratibus Romanis," published by Walch at Leipzig, in 1752. His histories, "De Bello Italico," and De Bello Pisano," the former first published in London, in 1724, and both republished by Bowyer in 1733, are works of great merit, and have been compared to those of Sallust. Erasmus speaks highly of this author's Latin style; but complains, that when he saw him at Venice, he could not prevail upon him to speak a sentence in that language; a reserve undoubtedly owing to his great fear of violating purity in his expressions. He was also a poet in his own tongue; and a piece of his, entitled "Trionso della Calumnia," was printed among the "Canti Carmascialeschi," at Florence, in 1759. *Tiraboschi. Roscoe's Lorenzo de Medici.*

RUCELLAI (Giovanni), son of the preceeding, a distinguished Italian poet, was born in 1475. With a natural capacity for learning, he could not fail, under his father's roof, to become a proficient in polite literature, and it appears from contemporary testimony that he was highly accomplished in the Greek and Latin languages, as well as in his own. In 1505 the republic of Florence nominated him ambassador to the Venetian state. He took a leading part, together with his brother Palla, in the tumult raised by the younger citizens in 1512, to promote the return of the Medici to Florence. After the elevation to the pontificate of Leo X., who was his cousin-german, the prospect of promotion caused Giovanni to repair to Rome, and enter into the ecclesiastical order; and he attended Leo on his visit to Florence, in 1515, on which occasion the pontiff was entertained in the Ruccellai gardens with the representation of the tragedy of Rosmonda, written by Giovanni. It was generally expected that his advancement to the cardinalate would soon have taken place, but some reason caused it to be deferred. The Pope, however, manifested his confidence in his relation by sending him at a very critical period as nuncio to the court of Francis I. where he was at the death of Leo. On that event he returned to Florence, whence he was deputed to congratulate the new pontiff Adrian VI. on his accession: the Latin oration which he recited upon this occasion has been printed. The succeeding pontificate of Clement VII. to whom he was also related, gave him fresh hopes of promotion; and, in fact, he was appointed to the post of castellan of St. Angelo, which was then regarded as directly leading to the purple. But during the accustomed delays of Clement, his career was stopt by a fever, which terminated his life in 1526.

During his residence in St. Angelo, Giovanni employed himself in completing his poem Delle Api, and his tragedy of Orestes, both of which he requested his brother Palla to send to their friend the poet Trissino for correction. "Le Api" (The Bees), first published by Palla in 1539, is a didactic poem in unrhymed verse, which bears a high rank among Italian compositions of that class. Its diction is pure and elegant, though simple, and the work displays much scientific knowledge, particularly in natural history. His two tragedies, "Rosmonda" and "Oreste," the last of which remained in manuscript till it was published by Count Maffei in 1723, are imitations; the former, of the Hecuba of Euripides, the latter, of his Iphigenia in Tauris. The Oreste is the superior work of the two, and by the invention of several striking incidents, it has so much improved upon the Greek model, as almost to deserve the praise of an original. Maffei, who regarded it as a composition of first-rate merit, adapted it to the modern stage. *Tiraboschi. Roscoe's Leo X.*

RUCHIL, a river of Scotland in Perthshire, which rises in the forest of Glenairtney, and falls into the Erne, at the bridge of Comrie.

To RUCK, *v. n.* [from the Sax. ꝑꝓꝵan, *to lye covered.*] To cower; to sit close; to lie close.

But now they *rucken* in their nest,
And resten. *Gower.*

O false morderour, *rucking* in thy den. *Chaucer.*—The raven *rook'd* her on the chimney's top. *Shakspeare.*

RUCK, *s.* [from the Sax. ꝑꝓꝵan, *to cover.*] A part of silk or linen folded over, or covering some other part, when the whole should lie smooth or even. *Tooke.*—This is common in many parts of England, for a crease.

RUCKERSDORF, a large village of Prussian Silesia, in the circle of Sagan. Population 1100.

RUCKHUBEL, a great mountain in the Swiss canton of Unterwalden, 7340 feet in perpendicular height.

RUCKINGE, a parish of England, in Kent; 6½ miles south-by-east of Ashford.

RUCKINGEN, a small town of the west of Germany, in Hesse-Cassel, on the small river Kinzig; 5 miles east of Hanau. Here was fought an obstinate engagement between the French and Bavarians, on the retreat of the former from Leipsic, on 30th October, 1813.

RUCTATION, *s.* [*ructo*, Lat.] A bad term for eructation. Swift uses this word.

RUCUE, a small river of the island of Laxa, in Chili, which runs north-north-west, and enters the river Laxa.

RUD, *adj.* [old Cornish *rud;* Sax. ꝓuƀe; Su. Goth. *roed.*] Red; ruddy; rosy.

Sweet blushes stain'd her *rud*-red cheeke,
Her eyen were black as sloe. *Percy.*

RUD, *s.* [ꝓuƀu, Sax.] Redness; blush.—His *rudde* is like scarlet in grain. *Chaucer.*

Fast, with a redd *rudd*,
To her chamber can she flee. *Percy.*

Ruddle; red oker used to mark sheep. North. *Grose.*—A kind of bastard small roach.—Men, that know their difference, call them *ruds:* they differ from the true roach, as much as a herring from a pilchard. *Walton.*

To RUD, *v. a.* [ꝓuƀu, Sax. redness.] To make red. *Obsolete.*—Her cheeks, like apples, which the sun had *rudded. Spenser.*

RUDANAY, a small rocky island on the west coast of the island of Mull.

RUDAW, a small town of East Prussia, remarkable for a battle fought in its neighbourhood in 1370, between the Teutonic knights and the Lithuanians. It contains several monuments of the ancient idolatry of the Samlanders; 14 miles north-north-west of Konigsberg.

RUDBECK (John), a learned Swedish bishop, was born in 1581. After acquiring the elements of learning at Orebro and Stregnas, he entered himself at Upsal, and had scarcely attained to the 23d year of his age, when he was appointed professor of mathematics at the latter; but he exchanged this office for the professorship of Hebrew, in 1610. On the coronation of Gustavus Adolphus, he took his degree as doctor of theology; and in 1619 he was nominated to be bishop of Vesteras. He was the author of various sermons, preached on public occasions, and of several other works, among which were the following: "Acta, hoc est Lectiones, Declamationes, Disputationes, et Exercitia, Anni 1610, in Collegio privato habita. Dedicata Gustavo Adolpho," *Holm.*, 4to.; "Logica, ex optimis et præstantissimis Auctoribus collecta et conscripta," *Arós.*, 1629, 8vo.; "Controversiæ, Logices," *ib.*, 1629; "Privilegia quædam Doctorum, Magistrorum, Bacalaureorum Studiosorum et Scholarum omnium,"

omnium," &c., *ib.*, 1636, 4to. This work, which excited great attention, had nearly proved the author's ruin; and soon after its appearance was prohibited by a decree of the senate. On this occasion, Skytte, one of the members, said, that "no book of a more dangerous tendency had appeared in Sweden for many years;" and therefore he insisted that the publisher should be obliged to declare upon oath that he had retained no copies, after it was forbidden to be sold. It is said that it stopped Rudbeck's promotion, and prevented him from being made an archbishop. *Gezelii Biographiska Lexicon.*

RUDBECK (Olof), M.D, and professor at Upsal, was a son of the preceding, and was born in 1630. Young Rudbeck being destined for the medical profession, studied some time at Upsal, and made so much progress in the different branches of knowledge to which he applied, that, in 1652, he disputed there "De Circulatione Sanguinis." He directed his attention, in particular, to anatomy, and discovered, as is said, the lymphatic vessels, which he made known in 1653. This discovery was disputed with him by Thomas Bartholin, a Danish physician; but Redbeck's partizans assert that a young German, who studied under the Swedish professor, and who afterwards went to Denmark, communicated it to Bartholin, who then claimed it as his own. A writer, named Martin Bogdan, espoused the part of Bartholin, and Rudbeck wrote an answer, in which he was supported by several eminent anatomists.

Of the subject of this controversy, Haller gives the following account. Whilst Rudbeck was diligently employing himself in the dissection of animals, in 1649 and 1650, and especially in the search of the lacteals, he fell upon the lymphatics of the liver which he called *vasa hepatis aquosa.* He again discovered lymphatics in the thorax, loins, and elsewhere, in 1651. In 1653 he published "Nova Exercitatio Anatomica exhibens Ductus hepatis aquosos, et Vasa Glandularum serosa;" in which work he laid open his discoveries, and described the mode of demonstrating them. Upon the whole, from a comparison of dates, Haller thinks that he appears to have been the true discoverer of these vessels. *Bibl. Anatom.*

In 1653, Rudbeck travellled to Holland, but returned next year to Upsal, where he devoted his time to the instruction of pupils; and in 1658 he was appointed professor of medicine. Before this period he had established, at his own expense, a botanical garden, into which he introduced a great many rare plants, brought from distant places; a circumstance which excited no little astonishment, as it had been believed that such plants could not thrive in so northern a latitude. In 1662 he made a donation of this garden to the Academy, and continued to improve it during the remainder of his life. This taste for botanic pursuits he communicated to his son, and he laboured conjointly with him on a large botanical work, called "Campi Elysii," the greater part of which was destroyed by the fire that took place at Upsal in 1702. Having spent several years in the instruction of youth, and other useful occupations, Rudbeck resigned the professor's chair to his son, and died in 1702. He was a man of great talents; and besides medicine, possessed an extensive knowledge of history and antiquities; he was also an able linguist, and had made considerable progress in architecture, drawing and music. At the coronation of Charles XI. the arrangement of the decorations, paintings, music, and fire-works was entrusted entirely to his direction. By his superiors he was honoured and esteemed on account of his learning and ingenuity, as well as of his mild disposition and other valuable qualities. Rudbeck is best known in foreign countries by his "Atlantica," a laborious work, in four volumes folio, in which he asserts, that Sweden was the seat of Paradise, as well as the Atlantis of Plato, and endeavours to trace back to it the origin, religion, language, customs, &c., of most of the ancient nations. It displays great learning, and though it contains many singular opinions, affords a striking proof of the author's reading and industry. It was much praised on its appearance, as may be seen in a book printed at Franckfort, in 1692, in folio, with the following title: "Judicia et Testimonia illustrium atque clarissimorum Virorum de celeberrimi Sveonis Olavi Rudbeckii, Senioris, M.D. *Ups.* Atlantica." Rudbeck's other works, besides disputations, are "Epistola ad Thomam Bartholinum, qua sibi Inventionem Vasorum serosorum hepatis contra Bogdanum vindicat," *Ups.*, 1657, 4to.; "Catalogus Plantarum in Horto Academiæ Upsaliensis instructo," *ib.*, 1658, 8vo., *Gezelii Biographiska Lexicon.*

RUDBECK (Olof), son of the above, was born at Upsal in 1660; disputed there in 1686, and about 1690 took the degree of M.D. at Utrecht. On his return, having brought with him a great many plants and seeds, he established, with the assistance of his father, the botanical garden, and in 1691 was appointed professor of botany and anatomy. He possessed a considerable talent for poetry, and was well versed in languages, particularly the Oriental. In 1720, in conjunction with the librarian, Eric Benzelius, who was afterwards Archbishop, he founded the Academy of Sciences at Upsal, and died in 1740. His works are, "Campi Elysii," *Ups.*, 1701, folio; "Lapponia illustrata," *ib.*, 1701, 4to.; "Lapo Hebraizans, sive de Convenientia Linguæ Hebraeæ cum Lapponica." *ib.*, 1703, 4to. He had laboured also on an extensive work entitled "Thesaurus Linguarum Asiæ, Africæ, et Europæ harmonicus," still preserved in manuscript at Upsal. *Gezelii Biographiska Lexicon.*

RUDBECKIA [so named by Linnæus, from the Rudbecks, father and son, professors of Botany at Upsal], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia frustranea, natural order of compositæ oppositifoliæ, corymbiferæ *(Juss.)* Generic Character. Calyx: common with a double row of scales: scales flat, widish, curtailed, six in each row. Corolla: compound radiate: corollets hermaphrodite, numerous, in a conical disk; females about twelve, very long, in the ray. Proper of the hermaphrodite tubular-funnel-form, with a five-toothed border. Female ligulate, lanceolate, with two or three teeth, flat, pendulous. Stamina: in the hermaphrodites: filaments five, capillary, very short; anther cylindrical, tubular. Pistil: in the hermaphrodites, germ four-cornered style filiform, the length of the corollet: stigma two-parted, revolute. In the females: germ very small; style none: stigma none. Pericarp none: calyx unchanged. Seeds in the hermaphrodites solitary, oblong; crowned with a membranaceous four-toothed rim: in the females none. Receptacle chaffy, conical longer than the common calyx: chaffs the length of the seeds, erect, channelled-concave, deciduous.—*Essential Character.* Calyx with a double row of scales: crown of the seed a four-toothed rim; receptacle chaffy, conical.

1. Rudbeckia laciniata, or broad jagged-leaved Rudbeckia.—Leaves compound laciniate. Mr. Miller makes two species of this; laciniata, and quinata, which he thus describes. Root perennial, stalk annual. The lower leaves are composed of five broad lobes, deeply cut into acute points, and some of them jagged almost to the midrib; the outer lobe is frequently cut into three deep segments, stalks seven or eight feet high, divided at top into several branches; smooth, green. Peduncles naked, terminated by a single flower with yellow rays, like the sun-flower, but smaller.

2. Rudbeckia digitata, or narrow jagged-leaved Rudbeckia.—This has a perennial root like the former. The leaves at bottom are composed of seven or nine lobes, some entire, others jagged to the midrib; dark green and smooth, stalks six feet high, branches many, of a purple or iron colour. The flowers are smaller than those of the preceding, but of the same shape and colour.—Native of North America.

3. Rudbeckia triloba, or three-lobed Rudbeckia.—Leaves spatulate; the lower three-lobed, the upper undivided.—This is a biennial plant. The stalks branch out on their sides, and are better furnished with leaves than the others. The flowers are very like those of the first sort, but smaller.—It grows in North America.

4. Rudbeckia hirta, or hairy Rudbeckia.—Leaves undivided spatulate-ovate triple-nerved serrate rough-haired, receptacle conical, chaffs lanceolate.—The root of this will continue four or five years. The stalks rise a foot and half high, and have one or two leaves near the bottom. The peduncle is naked

naked near a foot in length, and is terminated by one pretty large yellow flower, shaped like the sun-flower. The florets of the ray are very stiff, and slightly indented at their points: the disk is very prominent, and of a dark purple colour. The flowers will continue six weeks, and there is a succession of them from the middle of July, till the frost puts a stop to them.—Native of Virginia.

5. Rudbeckia fulgida, or bright Rudbeckia.—Leaves oblong-lanceolate, toothletted, hispid, narrowed and subcordate at the base, receptacle hemispherical, chaffs lanceolate.—Native of North America. It flowers in July and August.

6. Rudbeckia purpurea, or purple Rudbeckia.—Leaves lanceolate-ovate, alternate, undivided, petals of the ray bifid. —This is a perennial plant like the fourth. The peduncles are taller, and have two or three narrow leaves on each, placed alternately. On the top is one flower, with long narrow, reflexed, peach-coloured florets in the ray: the disk is very prominent, and of a dark purple colour.

7. Rudbeckia angustifolia, or narrow simple-leaved Rudbeckia.—Leaves opposite linear quite entire. Root perennial. Stalks four or five feet high. Florets in the ray of the flower yellow, long, twelve in number: disk dark red. Scales of the calyx spreading and almost awl-shaped.—Native of Virginia.

Propagation and Culture.—All these except No. 3. which is raised from seeds, are easily propagated by parting the roots. They are hardy, and love a moist soil.

4. In warm summers this perfects its seeds in England.

The fifth and sixth sorts rarely produce seeds in England; nor do the plants put out heads, whereby they may be increased that way.

RU'DDER, *s.* [*roeder*, Teut. Our old word was both *roder* and *rother*. "The ship of love hath lost his *rother*," *Gower.*] The instrument at the stern of a vessel, by which its course is governed.—Those, that attribute unto the faculty any first or sole power, hath therein no other understanding, than such a one hath, who, looking into the stern of a ship, and finding it guided by the helm and *rudder*, doth ascribe some absolute virtue to the piece of wood, without all consideration of the hand that guides it. *Ralegh.*

Thou held'st the *rudder* with a steady hand
Till safely on the shore the bark did land. *Dryden.*

Any thing that guides or governs the course.—For rhyme the *rudder* is of verses. *Hudibras.*—See SAILING.

RUDDIMAN (Thomas), an eminent grammarian and critic, was born in 1674, in the parish of Boyndie, Banffshire. After a school education in his native place, he was sent, in 1690, to King's College, Aberdeen, in which he obtained a bursary. He took the degree of M.A. in 1694, and in the following year was elected master of the public school of Laurence-kirk. Here his merit accidentally became known to the celebrated Dr. Pitcairn, who drew him to Edinburgh, in 1700; and two years afterwards he was appointed librarian to the faculty of advocates. In 1709, he published Johnston's Latin metrical paraphrase of Solomon's Song; and to the folio edition of Gawin Douglas's translation of the Æneid, he added, in 1711, a very accurate glossary. His situation at the advocate's library was so favourable to his pursuits, that he declined an invitation from the magistrates of Dundee to the office of rector of the grammar school in that town; and in 1714, he published his very useful compendium entitled "The Rudiments of the Latin Tongue," which became a standard work in the schools of Scotland. In 1715 he edited "Buchanani Opera omnia," 2 vols. folio, with notes critical and explanatory. In that year he commenced the business of a printer in conjunction with his brother Walter. Of his "Grammaticæ Latinæ Institutiones," the first part appeared in 1720, and the second in 1721; his "Grammatical Exercises" were published in 1725, and he continued in subsequent editions to correct and improve his works on Latin grammar. Of the works issuing from his press, the most important were the "Greek Testament," and a "Livy," which last is reckoned an extremely correct edition. He also edited Anderson's "Diplomata et Numismata Scotiæ," to which he prefixed a very learned preface. He shewed his abilities in classical criticism by a "Vindication of Buchanan's Version of the Psalms" against the objections of Mr. Mann; and by "Critical Observations on Burman's Commentary on Lucan's Pharsalia." Several treatises on disputed points of Scottish history involved him in controversies, in which he met with much abuse, but kept his own temper, though he was a warm advocate for the national independence, and much attached to the house of Stuart. He was the conductor of a newspaper called "The Caledonian Mercury," the property of which remained in his family after his death. At an advanced age his eye-sight began to fail, and he resigned the office of librarian to the faculty of advocates in 1752. Though much afflicted by bodily complaints, he preserved his powers of mind to his 83d year, when he died in January, 1757.—*Chalmer's Life of Ruddiman.*

RU'DDINESS, *s.* The quality of approaching to redness.

The *ruddiness* upon her lip is wet;
You'll mar it, if you kiss it. *Shakspeare.*

RUDDINGTON, a parish of England, county of Nottingham; 4½ miles south of Nottingham. Population 1017.

RU'DDLE, *s.* [*rudul*, Icelandic.] Red earth.—*Ruddle* owes its colour to an admixture of iron; and as that is in greater or less proportion, it is of a greater or less specifick gravity, consistence, or hardness. *Woodward.*

RU'DDLEMAN, *s.* One who is employed in digging ruddle or red earth.—Besmeared like a *ruddleman*, a gypsy, or a chimney-sweeper. *Burton.*

RU'DDOCK, *s.* [ꝓuððuc, Sax. from ꝓuðe or ꝓoeð, red.] A red-breast.

The merry larke her mattins sings aloft;
The ouzle shrills; the *ruddock* warbles soft. *Spenser.*

RU'DDY, *adj.* [ꝓuðu, Sax.] Approaching to redness; pale red.

We may see the old man in a morning,
Lusty as health, come *ruddy* to the field,
And there pursue the chase, as if he meant
To o'ertake time, and bring back youth again. *Otway.*

RUDE, *adj.* [*rude*, old Fr. *rudis*, Lat. peðe, peoðe, Sax. rude, rough.] Untaught; barbarous; savage.—Nor is there any nation in the world, now accounted civil, but within the memory of books, were utterly *rude* and barbarous. *Wilkins.*—Rough; coarse of manners; uncivil; brutal.

Ruffian, let go that *rude* uncivil touch;
Thou friend of an ill fashion. *Shakspeare.*

Violent; tumultuous; boisterous; turbulent.—Clouds push'd with winds *rude* in their shock. *Milton.*—Harsh, inclement.

Spring does to flow'ry meadows bring,
What the *rude* winter from them tore. *Waller.*

Ignorant; raw; untaught.—Though I be *rude* in speech, yet not in knowledge. 2 *Cor.*—He was yet but *rude* in the profession of arms, though greedy of honour. *Wotton.*—Rugged; uneven; shapeless; unformed.

In their so *rude* abode,
Not the poore swineherd would forget the gods. *Chapman.*

It was the custom to worship *rude* and unpolished stones. *Stillingfleet.*—Artless; inelegant.—One example may serve, till you review the Æneis in the original, unembelished by my *rude* translation. *Dryden.*

To his country farm the fool confined;
Rude work well suited with a rustick mind. *Dryden.*

RUDELSTADT, a small town of Prussian Silesia, in the government of Reichenbach, on the Bober. It has 1200 inhabitants, and in its vicinity are productive copper and silver works; 20 miles west of Schweidnitz.

RUDELY, *adv.* In a rude manner; fiercely: tumultuously.

Whether to knock against the gates of Rome.
Or *rudely* visit them in parts remote.
To fright them ere destroy. *Shakspeare.*

Without exactness; without nicety; coarsely.

I that am not shaped for sportive tricks,
I that am *rudely* stampt, and want love's majesty
To strut before a wanton ambling nymph. *Shakspeare.*

Unskilfully.

My muse, though *rudely*, has design'd
Some faint resemblance of his godlike mind. *Dryden.*

Violently; boisterously.

With this truncheon he so *rudely* stroke
Cymocles twice, that twice him forced his foot revoke.
Spenser.

RUDEN, a small island in the Baltic, on the coast of Pomerania, near the mouth of the Pecne. It is almost entirely surrounded by shoals and sand-banks, and is said to have been in former ages of larger extent. It is still defended by a fort. Lat. 53. 40. N. long. 13. 48. E.

RUDEN, See RUTHEN.

RUDENESS, *s.* Coarseness of manners; incivility.

This *rudeness* is a sauce to his good wit,
Which gives men stomach to digest his words
With better appetite. *Shakspeare.*

Ignorance; unskillfulness.—What he did amiss was rather through *rudeness* and want of judgment, than any malicious meaning. *Hayward.*—Artlessness; inelegance; coarseness.

Let be thy bitter scorn,
And leave the *rudeness* of that antique age
To them that lived therein in state forlorn. *Spenser.*

Violence; boisterousness.

The ram, that batters down the wall,
For the great swing and *rudeness* of his poise,
They place before his hand that made the engine.
Shakspeare.

Storminess; rigour.—You can hardly be too sparing of water to your housed plants; the not observing of this, destroys more plants than all the *rudenesses* of the season. *Evelyn.*

RUDENHAUSEN, a small town of Bavarian Franconia. Population 800; 19 miles east of Wurzburg.

RU'DENTURE, *s.* [French.] In architecture, the figure of a rope or staff, sometimes plain and, sometimes carved, wherewith the flutings of columns are frequently filled up. *Bailey.*

There are also rudentures in relievo, laid on the exterior of pilasters not fluted; an instance of which we have in the church of St. Sapienza at Rome.

RUDERARY, *adj.* [*rudera*, Lat.] Belonging to rubbish. *Johnson.*

RUDERA'TION, *s.* In architecture, the laying of a pavement with pebbles or little stones. *Bailey.*

RUDERSBERG, a small town of Germany, in Wirtemberg, in the department of the Rems and Fils, bailiwic of Schorndorf, with 1100 inhabitants.

RU'DESBY. *s.* An uncivil turbulent fellow. A low word, now quite unused.

I must be forced
To give my hand, opposed against my heart,
Unto a mad-brain *rudesby*, full of spleen. *Shakspeare.*

Out of my sight, *rudesby* be gone. *Shakspeare.*

RUDESHEIM, a small town of the west of Germany, in the duchy of Nassau, on the Rhine, with 2000 inhabitants. The wine produced in the environs is accounted the best Rhenish, and is sold at a very high price; 15 miles west of Mentz, and 1 north of Bingen.

RUDGELEY, a market town of England, in the county of Stafford, situated near the south bank of the river Trent. The town is in general well built, and many of the houses are even elegant. The church is an ancient building, dedicated to St. Augustine, and consists of two low aisles, of equal size. At the west end rises a handsome tower. Rudgeley carries on a considerable trade, and its situation is well adapted for this purpose, being on the great road from London to Lancashire and Holyhead, and the grand Trunk canal, which opens so extensive an inland communication throughout the kingdom, passing near the town. The chief manufactures are hats and felts, but many other articles are also made here. Here is a great annual fair, principally for horses of the coach breed. The town is governed by two constables, who are chosen by the inhabitants annually. The manor of Rudgeley was anciently the property of a family who either gave name to the town, or derived their own from it. In the reign of Edward III. some of this family were sheriffs of the county. Subsequently the manor belonged to the bishops of Litchfield, and was alienated to the crown in 1547, by bishop Sampson. Market on Tuesday; fairs June 5 and 6, and October 21. Population 2213; 9½ miles east-south-east of Stafford, and 131 north-west of London.

RUDGWICK, a parish of England, in Sussex; 5 miles from Horsham. Population 837.

RUDHAM, EAST, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 6 miles west-by-south of Fakenham. Population 569.

RUDHAM, WEST, a village of England, in Norfolk, half a mile distant from the foregoing.

RUDHAM, a small town of Kerman, in Persia; 60 miles north-west of Kerman.

RUDHEATH, a hamlet of England, in Cheshire; 4 miles from Middlewich.

RUDIG, a small town of the north-west of Bohemia; 23 miles east-south-east of Carlsbad. Population 800.

RUDIGERSHAYN a village of Prussian Saxony, in the Eichsfeld, ceded by Hanover in 1815.

RU'DIMENT, *s.* [*rudiment*, Fr. *rudimentum*, Latin.] The first principles; the first elements of a science.—Could it be believed, that a child should be forced to learn the *rudiments* of a language, which he is never to use, and neglect the writing a good hand, and casting accounts? *Locke.*—The first part of education.—He was nurtured where he was born in his first *rudiments*, till the years of ten, and then taught the principle of musick. *Wotton.* The skill and *rudiments* austere of war. *Phillips.*—The first, inaccurate, unshapen beginning or original of any thing.

So looks your monarch on this early fight,
Th' essay and *rudiments* of great success,
Which all-maturing time must bring to light. *Dryden.*

The sappy boughs
Attire themselves with blooms, sweet *rudiments*
Of future harvest. *Phillips.*

To RU'DIMENT, *v. a.* To ground; to instruct in the rudiments of any science. *Not in use.*—It is the right discipline of knight-errantry, to be *rudimented* in losses at first, and to have the tyrocinium somewhat tart! *Gayton.*

RUDIME'NTAL, *adj.* Initial; relating to first principles.—Your first *rudimental* essays in spectatorship were made in my shop, where you often practised for hours. *Spectator.*

RUDIS, a knotty, rugged stick, which the prætor, among the Romans, gave the gladiators, as a mark of their freedom and dismission.

The rudis seems to have been bestowed both on slaves and freedmen; with this difference, that it procured for the former no more than a discharge from any farther performance in public, upon which they commonly turned *lanistæ*, spending their time in training up young fencers; but the latter, who had hired themselves out for these shows, were restored to a full enjoyment of their liberty. *Kennet, Rom. Ant.*

They were hence called *rudiarii*, and had a custom of hanging up their arms in the temple of Hercules, the patron of their profession, and were never called out again without their consent.

RUDKIOPING,

RUDKIOPING, the only town of the island of Langeland, in Denmark, is a small sea port on the west coast, with a brisk corn trade, but with only 1100 inhabitants. Lat. 54. 55. N. long. 10. 47. 45. E.

RUDLAN, a parish of Wales, in Flintshire; 11 miles from Holywell. Population 831.

RUDLAND, or RIDLAND, a small river of England, in Northumberland, which runs into the Coquet, below Horklugh.

RUDMAS DAY, in our old writers, the feast of the Holy Cross. There are two of those feasts, one on the third of May, being the Invention of the Cross; and the other the fourteenth of September, called *Holy-Rood day*, and is the Exaltation of the Cross.

The word is compounded of the Saxon *rode*, i. e. *crux*, and *mass-day*, i. e. *feast-day*.

RUDNIK, a small town in the north of European Turkey, in Romania, situated among the mountains; 50 miles south of Belgrade.

RUDOLPHIA [so named in honour of Charles Asmund Rudolph, a German physician, the author of some botanical observations], in Botany, a genus of the class diadelphia, order decandria, natural order papilionaceæ, leguminosæ *(Juss.)—Essential Character.* Calyx two-lipped. Standard of the corolla very long, lanceolate. Stamens all connected. Legume flat, with many seeds.

1. Rudolphia volubilis, or twining Rudolphia.—Native of very lofty mountains, in the West Indian island of Porto Rico. The stem is shrubby, without prickles, twining up the trunks of trees; its bark black and warty; the younger branches downy. Leaves simple, alternate, stalked, rigid, entire; shining on the upper side; downy when young. Footstalks with two joints, channelled between them, on the upper side. Clusters scattered, thrice the length of the leaves. Flower-stalks three together. Flowers scarlet.

2. Rudolphia peltata, or peltate Rudolphia.—Leaves oblong-lanceolate, somewhat heart-shaped, peltate.—Native of Hispaniola. Willdenow asserts this to be distinct from the foregoing. The common flower-stalk, as represented by Plumier, is a foot and a half long, racemose at the extremity.

RUDOLSTADT, a small town of the west of Germany, the residence of the count of Schwarzburg-Rudolstadt. It is a well built place, situated in a valley on the Saale, over which there is a stone bridge. It contains two mansions belonging to the count, one within, the other outside of the town, on an eminence. Here is a theological seminary, a gymnasium, and somewhat more than 4000 inhabitants, part of whom are employed in the manufacture of flannel and other woollens; 22 miles south-east of Erfurt.

RUDOLSTADT, Principality. See SCHWARZBURG-RUDOLSTADT.

RUDRAPRAYAGA, a celebrated place of Hindoo pilgrimage, in the province of Serinagur. It is situated at the confluence of the rivers Alcananda and Calyganga, and esteemed one of the sacred places of ablution, on which account it is annually visited by a concourse of people of both sexes. Lat. 30. 19. N. long. 79. 2. E.

RUDSTEDT, GREAT, a village of the west of Germany, in the grand duchy of Saxe-Weimar; 12 miles west-north-west of Weimar. Population 800.

RUDSTON, a parish of England, East Riding of Yorkshire. In the church-yard there is a remarkable pillar, supposed to have been set up by the ancient Britons. Population 375; 5 miles west of Bridlington.

RUE, a small river of Wales, in Montgomeryshire, which runs into the Severn, near Berrue, about 3 miles south of Welshpool.

RUE, or RUW, a small town of the Swiss canton of Friburg; 10 miles west of Gruyeres, and 12 north-east of Lausanne.

RUE, a small river of the interior of France, in the province of Auvergne, which falls into the Dordogne, near Bart.

RUE, a small town in the north of France, department of the Somme, on the river Maye. Population 1100; 14 miles north-west of Abbeville.

To RUE, *v. a.* [hꝑeopian, Sax. *reuen*, German. Anciently spelt *rewe* by Wickeliffe and Chaucer.] To grieve for; to regret; to lament.

Thou temptest me in vain;
To tempt the thing which daily yet I *rue*. *Spenser.*

France, thou shalt *rue* this treason with thy tears,
If Talbot but survive. *Shakspeare.*

To RUE, *v. n.* To have compassion. See RUTH.—I pray you, that he wil *rewe* on me. *Chaucer.*

Full many a one for me deepe groan'd and sigh'd,
And to the dore of death for sorrow drew,
Complayning out on me that would not on them *rew*.
Spenser.

RUE, *s.* [hꝑeope, Sax. repentance.] Sorrow; repentance.

Rue, even for ruth, here shortly shall be seen,
In the remembrance of a weeping queen. *Shakspeare.*

RUE, *s.* [*rue*, Fr. ῥοτα, Gr. ꝑuße, Sax.] An herb formerly called herb of grace, because holy water was sprinkled with it. See RUTA.

Here did she drop a tear; here, in this place,
I'll set a bank of *rue*, sour herb of grace. *Shakspeare.*

RUE (Charles de la), a learned and eloquent Jesuit, who was born at Paris, in 1643. He became the favourite preacher at court and in the capital. Voltaire says that he had two sermons, entitled, "The Sinner dying," and "The Sinner dead," which were so popular, that public notice was given by bills when they were to be delivered. This father died at Paris in 1725, at the age of 82. His Latin poems in four books, consisting of tragedies and miscellaneous pieces, have been several times printed. He also wrote two French tragedies. De la Rue was one of the learned men employed in the Delphin editions of the classics, and Virgil fell to his share, first printed in 1675, 4to. *Moreri.*

RUE (Charles de la), a learned Benedictine monk of the congregation of St. Maur, who flourished in the 18th century, was born at Corbie, in Picardy, in the year 1684. At the age of nineteen he took the vows in an abbey at Meaux, after he had given evidence that he possessed a studious disposition, by the progress which he had made in his acquaintance with the Latin classics and the belles-lettres. His subsequent application to the study of philosophy, divinity, and the Greek and Hebrew languages, was answerable to the expectations which his early diligence had raised, and followed by very distinguished success. At the recommendation of Montfaucon, he published "Origenis Opera omnia, quæ Græcè vel Latinè extant et ejus Nomine circumferentur, ex variis Editionibus et Codicibus Collecta, recensita, Latinè versa, atque Annotationibus illustra," &c., folio. Two volumes were completed during his life, and the third was published by his nephew.

RUE (Pierre de la), an ecclesiastical composer in the first stage of correct counterpoint. He was contemporary with Josquin, and one of the composers for the papal chapel during the pontificate of Sextus IV. who reigned from 1471 to 1484. De la Rue, or as he is called by writers in Latin, Petrus Platensis, was one of the most voluminous composers of this early period. What country gave him birth, is now difficult to ascertain; Walther calls him a Netherlander; Glareanus, a Frenchman; others suppose him to have been a Spaniard. It is, however, certain that he was in high favour with prince Albert, and princess Isabella, of the Low Countries; that a work under his name was published at Antwerp, with this title: "El Parnasso Espanol de Madrigales y Villancicos à quatro, cinco y seis voces;" besides masses and motets to Latin words; and that he was a very learned contrapuntist.

Many

Many of his compositions for the church are still extant in the museum collection of masses and motets, some of which were published as early as the year 1503, immediately after the invention of musical types.

RUEDOCK, a small river of Wales, in Merionethshire, which runs into the Dee, near a small village of the same name, about a mile from Bala.

RUE'FUL, *adj.* Mournful; woeful; sorrowful.

When we have our armour buckled on,
The venom'd vengeance ride upon our swords,
Spur them to *rueful* work, rein them from ruth.
Shakspeare.

He sigh'd, and cast a *rueful* eye;
Our pity kindles, and our passions die. *Dryden.*

RUE'FULLY, *adv.* Mournfully; sorrowfully.—Why should an ape run away from a snail, and very *ruefully* and frightfully look back as being afraid. *More.*

RUE'FULNESS, *s.* Sorrowfulness; mournfulness.

For he was false, and fraught with ficklenesse,
And learned had to love with secret lookes,
And well could daunce, and sing with *ruefulness.*
Spenser.

RUEING, *s.* Lamentation.—I pray God this sudden riches make not again a long repentance, this sudden joy a long *rueing.* *Sir T. Smith.*

RUEL, a small town of France, with a number of beautiful country houses, and 2500 inhabitants; 9 miles north-west of Paris.

RUELLE, *s.* [French.] A circle; an assembly at a private house. *Not used.*—The poet, who flourished in the scene, is condemned in the *ruelle.* *Dryden.*

RUELLIA [so named in memory of Joannes Ruellius, physician at Paris; author of a treatise "De Natura Stirpium"], in Botany, a genus of the class didynamia, order angiospermia, natural order of personatæ, acanthi *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth, one-leaved, five-parted, permanent; segments linear, acute, straight, permanent. Corolla: one-petalled, irregular, with a patulous, inclined neck; border five-cleft, spreading, blunt, with the two upper segments more reflexed. Stamina: filaments four, placed where the tube widens, approximating by pairs; anthers scarcely longer than the tube. Pistil: germ roundish; style filiform, the length of the stamens; stigma bifid, acute, the lower segments rolled in. Pericarp: capsule, round, acuminate both ways, two-celled, two-valved, opening elastically by the claws; partition contrary. Seeds: a few, roundish, compressed.—In some species there is the rudiment of a fifth stamen.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-parted. Corolla sub-campanulate. Stamina approximating by pairs. Capsule opening by elastic teeth.

The Ruelliæ are very nearly allied to the Justiciæ, in their natural order, flowers, and habit. The case is the same in several other genera of the class diandria: and in Verbena some species belong to this, and others to that class.

1. Ruellia blechum, or hairy-leaved, thick-spiked Ruellia.—Stem herbaceous, a foot high, upright, branched, four-cornered, striated, even. Seeds black.—It is an annual plant, common in pastures and bushy places in Jamaica.

2. Ruellia blechioides, or smooth, thick-spiked Ruellia.—Stems prostrate, dichotomous, even, slightly four-cornered. Spikes loose, four-cornered, made up of cordate floral leaves, with two short, lanceolate bractes within each, and within these two sessile flowers, one without the other.—Native of Jamaica.

3. Ruellia angustifolia, or narrow-leaved Ruellia. Native of the West Indies.

4. Ruellia strepens, or whorl-flowered Ruellia.—Root fibrous, perennial. Stems about a foot high. Flowers axillary, two or three from the same point, sitting very close to the stalk, small, of a pale purple colour.—Native of Virginia and Carolina. It flowers in July and August.

5. Ruellia macrophylla, or long-leaved Ruellia.—Stem four-cornered, pubescent, seemingly herbaceous. Pedicels in pairs half an inch long, one-flowered, having a lanceolate ciliate bracte at the base on each side longer than the pedicels.—Native of the island of Santa Maria.

6. Ruellia patula, or spreading Ruellia.—Shrubby; the whole plant very fetid, somewhat villose. Stem a foot high or more, branches spreading at an acute angle, from the very bottom.—Native of the East Indies.

7. Ruellia pallida, or pale-leaved Ruellia.—Stem obscurely four-cornered, with a groove in each side. Flowers large, violet-coloured.

8. Ruellia clandestina, or three-flowered Ruellia.—Root perennial, composed of many fleshy fibres. Peduncles naked, dividing into two smaller ones, each sustaining one small, purple, fugacious flower.—Native of Barbadoes.

9. Ruellia paniculata, or panicled Ruellia.—Root perennial. Stems four or five feet high, much diffused. Flowers at the divisions of the stem, small, purple, of short duration.—Native of Jamaica.

10. Ruellia intrusa.—Stem herbaceous. Branches bluntly four-cornered, hairy, jointed; joints two inches long, thickened at the base. Flowers solitary, alternate, or very rarely opposite.

11. Ruellia tuberosa, or tuberous-rooted Ruellia.—The roots are composed of many swelling fleshy tubers, which run deep into the ground, and are like those of the Day Lily (Hemerocallis), but smaller. Stem four or five inches high, sending out two or three short side-branches. Flowers large, blue.—This plant is very common in most parts of Jamaica.

12. Ruellia tentaculata.—Native of the East Indies.

13. Ruellia ciliaris, or ciliate-leaved Ruellia.—Stem pubescent. Flowers axillary, sessile.—Native of the East Indies and Cochinchina.

14. Ruellia biflora, or two-flowered Ruellia.—Flowers twin, subsessile.—Native of Carolina.

15. Ruellia crispa, or curled-leaved Ruellia.—Leaves subcrenate, lanceolate-ovate, heads ovate, leafy, hispid, stem creeping.—Native of Carthagena in New Spain.

16. Ruellia fasciculata, or aggregate-flowered Ruellia.—Leaves petioled, oblong, toothed; petioles winged, flowers aggregate, terminating and lateral. Stems herbaceous, filiform, decumbent.—Found in the island of Ceylon.

17. Ruellia mollissima, or soft Ruellia.—Leaves petioled, broad-lanceolate, quite entire, very soft. Flowers in bundles. The whole plant villose and soft. Branches roundish.—Native of Madagascar.

18. Ruellia undulata, or waved-leaved Ruellia.—Leaves, petioled, oblong, waved, heads axillary, sessile. Stem herbaceous, erect, smooth, four-cornered, with the corners blunt, and a wide deep groove on each side. Corolla a little longer than the calyx, and smooth.—Found in the East Indies.

19. Ruellia involucrata, or involucred Ruellia.—Leaves lanceolate, quite entire, smooth, heads terminating, involucred, hairy. Stem upright, obscurely four-cornered by four decurrent lines. Flowers imbricate, in a shortly peduncled head, the side of a hazel nut.—Found in the East Indies.

20. Ruellia repanda, or spreading-leaved Ruellia.—Leaves lanceolate, bluntly toothed, petioled, stem creeping. Flowers opposite.—Native of Java.

21. Ruellia ringens, or ringent-flowered Ruellia.—Leaves oblong, quite entire, flowers solitary, sessile, stem procumbent, a span long, jointed.—Native of the East Indies, Ceylon and China.

22. Ruellia antipoda.—Leaves mucronate-serrate, stem creeping, flower sub-spiked, terminating in fives or threes. This has the appearance of veronica officinalis, but much smaller.—Native of the East Indies, China, and Cochinchina.

23. Ruellia repens, or creeping Ruellia.—Leaves lanceolate, acuminate, quite entire, flowers sessile, bractes petioled, longer than the calyx, stem creeping. Flowers lateral, solitary.—Native of the East Indies.

24. Ruellia

24. Ruellia littoralis, or maritime Ruellia. — Shrubby, hoary, leaves wedge-form, serrate, retuse, smooth, flowers axillary, solitary, sub-sessile; the two large stamens have a tooth let at the base.—Found in the East Indies.

25. Ruellia longiflora, or long-flowered Ruellia.—Leaves ovate, quite entire, flowers axillary, solitary, very long, stem shrubby.

26. Ruellia difformis. — Diffused, hirsute, leaves linear, tooth-sinuate, entire, flowers in whorls, axillary.—Native of the East Indies.

27. Ruellia barbata.—Leaves lanceolate, quite entire, flowers in whorls; calyxes acute, bractes oblong, stem upright, herbaceous, four-cornered.—Native of the East Indies.

28. Ruellia salicifolia.—Leaves lanceolate, quite entire; flowers in whorls, calyxes awned, bractes lanceolate, stem upright: allied to the preceding, but differing in having the stem almost simple; the leaves longer and more attenuated at both ends.—Native of the East Indies.

29. Ruellia balsamica.—Erect, smooth; leaves petioled, lanceolate, serrate, whorls sessile; stems four-cornered, jointed, flesh-coloured.—Very common in rice fields in the East Indies, especially when the harvest is over. It has a strong smell of turpentine.

30. Ruellia uliginosa.—Diffused, hirsute; leaves sessile, oblong, entire; spikes terminating, four-cornered.—This is a small plant, flowering in January and February. Very common in Tranquebar, &c. in rice fields.

31. Ruellia hirta.—Rough-haired; leaves oblong, petioled, serrate; spikes terminating, imbricate; stem creeping, herbaceous.—Native of the East Indies.

32. Ruellia pilosa.—Leaves opposite, ovate, entire, ciliate; flowers terminating, solitary.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

33. Ruellia depressa.—Leaves opposite, petioled, obovate, entire; stem closely depressed.—Native also of the Cape. This is singular in having the stem pressed close to the ground.

34. Ruellia cordifolia. — Leaves cordate-ovate, sessile, tomentose-hoary beneath; flowers sub-spiked; stem shrubby; branches jointed.—Native of the East Indies.

35. Ruellia secunda. — Leaves sub-cordate-ovate, quite entire, villose; racemes axillary, directed one way; stem, branches, leaves and petioles pubescent.—Found in the East Indies.

36. Ruellia Japonica.—Leaves elliptic, flowers in spikes, bractes oblong, blunt; stem herbaceous, four-cornered, upright.—Native of Japan.

37. Ruellia guttata.—Leaves ovate-lanceolate, rugged at the edge, and waved; spikes terminating, imbricate; stem suffruticose; flowers alternate.

38. Ruellia imbricata. — Leaves petioled, ovate, wave-crenate, the opposite one less; spikes imbricate, directed one way; stem suffruticose; flowers three or four under each bracte.—Native of Arabia Felix and the East Indies.

39. Ruellia aristata.—Leaves ovate, hoary beneath; head terminating; calyxes and bractes nerved, awned; stem shrubby. This is a little shrub, with the branches round at bottom, smooth, covered with an ash-coloured, smooth bark, villose at the end.—Found in Arabia Felix.

40. Ruellia alopecuroidea.— Leaves ovate, smooth, obscurely repand; spikes terminating, hairy; stem creeping.—Found in Montserrat.

41. Ruellia reptans.—Leaves petioled, ovate, blunt, bluntly serrate, peduncles terminating, sub-spiked.—Native of the island of Tanna.

42. Ruellia fragrans.—Leaves sessile, oblong, bluntly serrate; flowers axillary, solitary, sessile.—Native of the island of Otaheite.

43. Ruellia rupestris.—Stemless; leaves petioled, oblong, crenate-waved; scapes erect, many-flowered. — Native of Hispaniola.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants are propagated by seeds, which must be sown early in the spring in pots filled with light rich earth, and plunged into a moderate hot-bed; and when the plants come up, they must be transplanted each into a separate small pot, filled with rich earth, and plunged into a hot-bed of tanner's bark, where they must be shaded from the sun until they have taken new root; after which time they must have free air admitted to them every day in warm weather, and be constantly watered three or four times a week during the summer season.

RUENGAS, a people of Africa, described in our maps as occupying the interior of the eastern coast; but nothing authentic is known concerning them.

RUFASA, a town in the east of Spain, in the province of Valencia, on the borders of New Castile, with 5000 inhabitants.

RUFF, *s.* A puckered linen ornament, formerly worn about the neck. See RUFFLE.

Sooner may a gulling weather spy,
By drawing forth heaven's scheme tell certainly,
What fashion'd hats, or *ruffs*, or suits next year,
Our giddy-headed antick youth will wear. *Donne.*

The ladies freed the neck from those yokes, those linnen *ruffs* in which the simplicity of their grandmothers had enclosed it. *Addison.*—Any thing collected into puckers or corrugations.

I rear'd this flower,
Soft on the paper *ruff* its leaves I spread. *Pope.*

A small river fish.—A *ruff* or pope is much like the pearch for shape, and taken to be better, but will not grow bigger than a gudgeon; he is an excellent fish, and of a pleasant taste. *Walton.*—A state of roughness. *Obsolete.*—As fields set all their bristles up; in such *ruff* wert thou. *Chapman's Iliad.*—A bird of the tringa species, still considered in several parts of England as a great dainty.

Of partridge, pheasant, woodcock, of which some
May yet be there; and god-wit, if we can,
Knat, rail, and *ruff* too. *B. Jonson.*

A particular kind of pigeon.—At cards, the act of winning the trick by trumping cards of another suit. [*ronfle*, Fr.]

To RUFF, *v. a.* To ruffle; to disorder.

The fether in her lofty crest,
Ruffed of Love, gan lowly to avale. *Spenser.*

The bird, *ruffing* his feathers wyde. *Spenser.*—To trump any other suit of the cards at whist.

RUFFACH, a small town in the north-east of France, department of the Upper Rhine. It was taken in 1675, by Marshal Turenne. Population 3300; 8 miles south of Colmar, and 27 north-north-west of Bale.

RUFFE, the English name of the *cernua*, or small gilded pearch, a fish common in our rivers, and much resembling the pearch in figure, though of a more slender form.—In the Linnæan system it is the PERCA CERNUA, which see.

RUFFE, in Ornithology, the name of a male species of bird, the female of which is called *reeve*.—This species is the TRINGA PUGNAX of Linnæus, which see.

RUFFEC, a small town in the west of France, department of the Charente, on the small river Leain. It has some trade in wine and brandy. Population 2100; 24 miles north of Angouleme, and 34 south of Poitiers.

RUFFI (Antony de), an historian, born at Marseilles, in 1607, was a counsellor in the seneschalcy of Marseilles. He wrote an elaborate History of Marseilles, in one vol. folio; a Life of Gaspard de Sinicane, known by the name of the Chevalier de Coste, 1655, 12mo.; a History of the Counts of Provence, 1655, folio, much esteemed; and he left in MS. a History of the Generals of the Galleys. The style of these works is dry and meagre, but the matter is exact and curious.

His son, Louis-Antony de Ruffi, pursued a similar line of study, and added to his father's history of Marseilles, a volume published with a new edition of the first, in 1696. He likewise, in 1712, published "Dissertations Historiques et Critiques sur l'Origine des Comtes de Provence, de Venaissin, de Forcalquier, et des Vicomtes de Marseille," 4to.; and in 1716, "Une Dissertation Historique, Chronologique, et Critique sur les Evêques de Marseille." He died in 1724, at the age of 66. *Bayle. Moreri.*

RUFFIAN, *s.* [from *ruffiano*, Italian; *roffver*, Danish, to pillage; or perhaps *rofwa*, Su. Goth, to rob. Our word, in its elder form, *ruffin*, or *rouffin*. Some have thought it formed from the word *ruff*, the bullies and swaggerers of old time wearing enormous *ruffs*.—A brutal, boisterous, mischievous fellow; a cut-throat; a robber; a murderer.

Have you a *ruffian* that will swear? drink? dance?
Revel the night? rob? murder? *Shakspeare.*

Every fiddler sings libels openly: and each man is ready to challenge the freedom of David's *ruffians*, "Our tongues are our own, who shall control us?" *Bp. Hall.*

The boasted ancestors of these great men,
Whose virtues you admire, were all such *ruffians*,
This dread of nations, this almighty Rome,
That comprehends in her wide empire's bound
All under heaven, was founded on a rape. *Addison.*

RU'FFIAN, *adj.* Brutal; savagely boisterous.

Should'st thou but hear I were licentious,
And that this body, consecrate to thee,
By *ruffian* lust should be contaminate,
Would'st thou not spit at me? *Shakspeare.*

To RU'FFIAN, *v. n.* To rage; to raise tumults; to play the ruffian.

A fuller blast ne'er shook our battlements;
If it hath *ruffian'd* so upon the sea,
What ribs of oak, when mountains melt upon them,
Can hold the mortise? *Shakspeare.*

RU'FFIANLIKE, or RU'FFIANLY. *adj.* Like a ruffian; dissolute; licentious; brutal.—Sir Ralph Vane's bold answers, termed rude and *ruffianlike*, falling into ears apt to take offence, furthered his condemnation. *Hayward.*—Misconstrue me not as one that affects to be a patron of *ruffianly* and dissolute fashions. *Bp. Hall.*

RUFFIBERG. See ROSSBERG.

RUFFIEUX, a small town of Savoy, with 1100 inhabitants; 20 miles north of Chamberry.

RUFFINUS, or, according to the more generally received orthography, RUFINUS, surnamed by some Toranius, a celebrated Italian ecclesiastical writer and Scripture commentator, who flourished towards the close of the 4th and at the commencement of the 5th century. About the year 371, Rufinus resolved to devote himself to the austerities of the monastic life, and to study the ascetic discipline under the monks in the deserts of Egypt. Coming to Rome on his way thither, his design recommended him to the confidence of Melania, a Roman widow of a noble family and great wealth, who resolved to accompany him to that country, and to expend her riches on the establishment of monastic and charitable institutions. In Egypt, Rufinus spent eight months in conversing with the monks whose solitary cells were scattered throughout the deserts of Nitria, and in attending the lectures of Didymus, master of the famous catechetical school in Alexandria. The Arians being at this time in the possession of power, under the reign of the Emperor Valens, Rufinus was persecuted by them, thrown into prison, in which he met with cruel usage, and sentenced to be banished to a distant desert. Melania, however, found means to purchase his redemption, and removed with him from Egypt into Palestine, where they visited the holy places, and took up their residence at Jerusalem. In this city Rufinus, supported by the wealth of his patroness, built a convent for fifty-two females, who renounced the world and devoted themselves to a religious life, over whom Melania presided. In the year 197, Rufinus and Melania took their leave of Jerusalem, and embarked for Italy.

Having arrived at Rome, Rufinus soon afterwards published a Latin version of the first book of the "Apology for Origen," which went under the name of Pamphilus; which was followed by another piece, intended to prove that the works of Origen had been corrupted and interpolated; and a defence of him drawn up from his own letters. About the same time, he published his translation of Origen's "Book of Principles," with a preface, in which he took the opportunity of praising the high opinion which, in the earlier part of his life, Jerome had entertained of that author and his writings. The publication of these pieces, and particularly of that last mentioned, was warmly resented by Jerome, who published "An Apology" for himself, in which he attacked Rufinus in the most acrimonious terms, treating him as an heretic, and the prototype of Pelagius. The controversy between these antagonists excited considerable notice at Rome, where each had his zealous advocates; but those of Jerome were so active in creating prejudices against Rufinus, that, though he appears to have enjoyed the favour of Syricius, who was then bishop of that city, he thought it advisable to retire to Aquileia. By Anastasius, the successor of Syricius, he was summoned to return to Rome, and vindicate himself against the accusations of Jerome; but he did not choose to obey the summons, contenting himself with sending a declaration of the conformity of his faith with that of the Catholic church, and stating that, with respect to his translation of Origen's work, he had neither approved, nor disapproved, but barely related the sentiments of that writer. His original works, besides the pieces in controversy with Jerome, already noticed, consist of "De Benedictionibus Judæ et reliquorum XI. Patriarcharum, Lib. II.;" "Commentariorum in Hoseam, Lib. III. cum præfatione in xii. minores Prophetas;" "Comment. in Prophetas Joel, et Amos;" "Expositio Symboli, ad Laurentium Episcopum;" "Historiæ Ecclesiasticæ, Lib. II.," added by him to his version of Eusebius, and continuing the history of the church to the death of the Emperor Theodosius; and he is by some thought to have been the author, but by others only the translator from some lost work, of the "Vitæ Patrum," which constitute the second and third books of Rosweide's collection. He translated from the Greek into Latin, a multitude of ecclesiastical works.

To RU'FFLE, *v. a.* [*ruyffelen*, Teut. to wrinkle] To disorder; to put out of form; to make less smooth.—Not one flower of their crowns was blasted; no, not one hair of their heads *ruffled*. *Proceed. against Garnet.*—In changeable taffeties, differing colours emerge and vanish upon the *ruffling* of the same piece of silk. *Boyle.*

As she first began to rise,
She smooth'd the *ruffled* seas, and clear'd the skies. *Dryden.*

To discompose; to disturb; to put out of temper.

Were I Brutus
And Brutus Antony, there were an Antony
Would *ruffle* up your spirits, and put a tongue
In every wound of Cæsar, that should move
The stones of Rome to rise and mutiny. *Shakspeare.*

To put out of order; to surprise.

The knight found out
The advantage of the ground, where best
He might the *ruffled* foe infest. *Hudibras.*

To throw disorderly together.

Within a thicket I repos'd, when round
I *ruffled* up fall'n leaves in heap, and found,
Let fall from heaven, a sleep interminate. *Chapman.*

To contract into plaits.—A small skirt of fine *ruffled* linen, running along the upper part of the stays before, is called the modesty piece. *Addison.*

To RU'FFLE, *v. n.* To grow rough or turbulent.

The night comes on, and the high winds
Do sorely *ruffle*; for many miles about
There's scarce a bush. *Shakspeare.*

The rising wind a *ruffling* gale affords. *Dryden.*—To be in loose motion; to flutter.

The fiery courser, when he hears from far
The sprightly trumpets and the shouts of war,
On his right shoulder his thick mane reclin'd,
Ruffles at speed, and dances in the wind.

To

To be rough; to jar; to be in contention. *Out of use.*

A valiant son-in-law thou shalt enjoy;
One fit to bandy with thy lawless sons,
To *ruffle* in the commonwealth of Rome. *Titus Andron.*

RU'FFLE, *s.* Plaited linen used as an ornament.—The tucker is a slip of fine linen, run in a small *ruffle* round the uppermost verge of the women's stays. *Addison.*—Disturbance; contention; tumult.

A blusterer, that the *ruffle* knew
Of court, of city. *Shakspeare.*

A kind of flourish upon a drum: a military token of respect.

RU'FFLER, *s.* A swaggerer; a bully; a boisterous fellow. *Obsolete.*

RU'FFLING, *s.* Commotion; disturbance. *Obsolete.*

RUFFORD, a parish of England, in Nottinghamshire, south-west of Ollerton.

RUFFORD, or RUFFORTH, a parish of England, in Yorkshire, between Wetherby and York, and 5½ miles west-by-south of the former.

RUFFORD, a parish of England, in Lancashire; 5½ miles north-north-east of Ormskirk. Population 998.

RUFIA, or RAFEO, the Alpheus of the ancients, a well known river of Greece, in the Morea. After a longer course than any other river in that peninsula, it falls into the gulf of Arcadia, opposite to the island of Zante.

RUFINUS. See ROME, p. 305.

RUFISCO, a sea-port of Kayor, in Western Africa, to the north of the Gambia. It contains about 300 houses, and the inhabitants carry on a considerable trade with Europeans, in slaves, skins, gums, ivory, ostrich feathers, cotton, indigo, &c.; 60 miles west-north-west of Amboule.

RUFTERHOOD, *s.* In Falconry, a hood to be worn by a hawk when she is first drawn. *Bailey.*

RUFUS, the Ephesian, an eminent physician of antiquity, is said by Suidas to have lived in the time of Trajan, but Haller remarks that this must be a mistake, since he is quoted by Andromachus the physician of Nero. He appears to have been distinguished in all the branches of medicine, and he was the author of numerous works in the Greek language, most of which have perished. His principal remain is a treatise in three books addressed to his son. It is written in a clear and simple style, and consists of short anatomical descriptions and remarks annexed to the names of parts, affording information respecting the state of anatomical knowledge at that period. There is also extant of his a "Treatise of the Diseases of the Kidneys and Bladder;" and a "Fragment concerning purgative Medicines." 1724. *Halleri Bibl. Anat. Botan. atque Med.*

RUFUS (Sextus), a person of consular dignity, who lived in the fourth century, wrote an epitome of Roman history, entitled "De consulari et imperiali Dignitate atque Accessione Romani imperii," which he dedicated to Valentinian II. about A. D. 390. This work was extant in a very corrupt state, when Cuspinian gave a corrected edition of it by the collation of various MSS., and illustrated it with notes. The best edition is that of Cellarius, *Halæ*, 1698. Volaterranus says that the name of this author was Festus Rufus. There is a work, "De Regionibus Urbis Romæ," annexed to that of Publ. Victor on the same subject, which is attributed to a Sextus Rufus who lived in the time of Diocletian, and who therefore must have been a different person from the preceding. *Vossii Hist. Lat.*

RUG, [Sax. pooc, the covering of a horse, or Goth. *rock*, a gown, from *rauh*, rough, hairy, as the skins of beasts.] A coarse, nappy, woollen cloth.—January must be expressed with a horrid and fearful aspect, clad in Irish *rug* or coarse frieze. *Peacham.*—The vuugus resembleth a goat, but greater and more profitable; of the fleece whereof they make *rugs*, coverings, and stuffs. *Heylin.*—A coarse nappy coverlet used for mean beds.

A *rug* was o'er his shoulders thrown;
A *rug*; for night gown he had none. *Swift.*

A rough woolly dog. *Not used.*

Mungrels, spaniels, curs,
Shoughes, water *rugs*, and demy wolves are cleped
All by the name of dogs. *Shakspeare.*

RUGBY, a market town of England, in the county of Warwick, situated on the south side of the river Avon. Its name was anciently written Rocheberie, and is supposed to be derived from Roche, a rock or quarry, and Berie, a court or dwelling of note. It is seated on a healthy and pleasant eminence, which commands an extensive view over the adjacent country. The streets are clean, and have a cheerful appearance, but they are irregular and badly paved. The houses in general are constructed of wood. The most important establishment in the town, and that which gives it its greatest consequence, is the grammar school, now called the college. This was founded in the 9th year of the reign of Elizabeth, by Laurence Sheriff, Esq.; and the property with which it was endowed, originally trifling, has increased so much by judicious management, as now to yield £2000 per annum, with the prospect of a considerable increase at the expiring of the leases. This fund is under the direction of twelve trustees, who are appointed from the nobility and principal gentry of the county, and hold regular meetings for the transaction of business. An annual examination of the pupils takes place in August. The number of scholars at present amounts to 330, forty of whom are in the foundation. Fourteen exhibitioners are sent from this school to the universities, each of whom is allowed £40 a-year. A new handsome and commodius school-house has been erected since the year 1808; it is built in the style which prevailed in the reign of Elizabeth. It is formed of white brick; the angles, cornices, and dressings to the windows and entrances, being of stone. The whole is admirably adapted for its intended purpose: about sixty boys are accommodated within the building; and the rest lodge with the assistant master, or at boarding houses in the town. There is also in the town a charity school, founded and endowed for the education of thirty boys, by Richard Elborough, Esq. The church of Rugby contains nothing worthy of particular notice. The church-yard contains various eccentric inscriptions. Rugby has no manufacture of any importance, but it has acquired some business in the supply of the adjacent country since the formation of the Oxford canal, which passes about a mile north of the town, and connects it with the principal inland navigation in the kingdom. Adjacent to Rugby, on the north-eastern side, is an eminence called Castle Mount, from its having been formerly the site of a castle, supposed by Dugdale to have been erected in the reign of king Stephen. Parts of the moat, and some embankments, are still visible. Market on Saturday. Population of the parish, 1805 inhabitants, of whom nearly 1000 reside in the town; and 335 houses; 19 miles east-north-east of Warwick, and 85 north-west of London. Lat. 52. 23. N. long. 1. 15. W.

RUGEN, an island in the Baltic, opposite to Stralsund, on the coast of Pomerania, from which it is separated by a narrow channel, about a mile in breadth. It is about 30 miles in length, and from 15 to 35 in breadth; its area is about 360 square miles; its population 28,000. The sea indents it in every direction, so that it has the appearance of a number of peninsulas joined together by a comparatively narrow space in the middle. Of these divisions, the largest are two tracks, one called Jasmund, joined to the continent by a small and steep ridge of rocks, and Wittow, which is joined to the north of Jasmund by low sand hills. The coast of Rugen is everywhere much more steep and elevated than on the opposite shore of Pomerania: it consists in many parts of chalk cliffs, which contain a number of petrified shells, and other marine substances. The island abounds in beautiful scenery, and contains many plantations and gardens. A considerable part is under tillage, and corn, as well as cattle, are exported. There is unfortunately no well sheltered harbour, and the sand-banks on the coast cause frequent shipwrecks. The language of the inhabitants is German, with

with a mixture of Swedish and Danish, and the manners and usages are the same as those of the north of Germany. The peasants, however, were not emancipated from a state of vassalage till 1806. This island was long subject to Sweden, but was acquired by Prussia, with the rest of Pomerania, in 1814. The chief town is Bergen. To Rugen belong several smaller islands lying around it, such as Hiddensee, Rimen, Unmang, and Vilm.

RUGENWALD, a small town of Prussian Pomerania in the government of Coslin, on the small river Wipper. It contains 2500 inhabitants, who have some trade; but the harbour is too small to admit any thing but barges, so that ships must lie in the road. The greatest part of this town was burned down in 1722, after which it was rebuilt, and is now a very neat place; 23 miles south of Stolpe, and 33 east-north-east of Colberg. Lat. 54. 99. N. long. 16. 23. 45. E.

RUGGA, a village of Tunis, in Africa, called anciently Carago; 40 miles south of Kairwan.

RUG-GOWNED, *adj.* Wearing a coarse or rough gown.

I had rather meet
An enemy in the field, than stand thus nodding
Like to a *rug-gown'd* watchman. *Beaum.*

RU'GGED, *adj.* [*ruggig*, Swedish; *rugueux*, old Fr. Originally, our word was *ruggy*. "*Ruggy* hairs."] Rough; full of unevenness and asperity.

Nature, like a weak and weary traveller,
Tir'd with a tedious and *rugged* way. *Denham.*

His hair is sticking;
His well proportion'd beard made rough and *rugged*,
Like to the summer's corn by tempest lodg'd. *Shakspeare.*

Savage of temper; brutal.—The greatest favours to such an one neither soften nor win upon him; neither melt nor endear him, but leave him as hard, *rugged*, and unconcerned as ever. *South.*—Stormy; turbulent.

Now bind my brows with iron, and approach
The *rugged'st* hour that time and spite dare bring,
To frown upon th' enraged Northumberland. *Shakspeare.*

Rough or harsh to the ear.

Wit will shine
Through the harsh cadence of a *rugged* line. *Dryden.*

Sour; surly; discomposed.

Sleek o'er your *rugged* looks,
Be bright and jovial 'mong your guests to-night. *Shakspeare.*

Rough; shaggy.

Through forests wild,
To chase the lion, boar or *rugged* bear. *Fairfax.*

RUGGED ISLE, a small island near the south coast of Ireland, and county of Cork. Lat. 51. 30. N. long. 9. 2. W.

RU'GGEDLY, *adv.* In a rugged manner.—Of all mankind, methinks, Mr. Keil uses you the most *ruggedly*. *Bp. Nicholson.*

RU'GGEDNESS, *s.* The state or quality of being rugged.—He finds, instead of soft lawns and shady thickets, nothing more than uncultivated *ruggedness*. *Johnson.*—Roughness; asperity. Rudeness; coarseness of behaviour.—They of that soft sex, with whom I have conversed, have accused me of too great severity and *ruggedness* towards them. *Mayne's Answ. to Cheynel.*—The northern Europe, until some parts of it were subdued by the progress of the Roman arms, remained almost equally covered with the *ruggedness* of primitive barbarism. *Burke.*

RU'GIN, *s.* A nappy cloth. *Obsolete.*

RUGGIOLA, a sort of Spanish slate, serving in many places in the room of tiles and brick. It is a flaky stone of the nature of some of our grey slates, and is cut out of a mountain near Cordova; a plate of this being well heated on both sides, will retain its warmth for twenty-four hours.

The people of Cornwall and some parts of Yorkshire, use a stone, which is of a talcky nature, to warm themselves when in bed, applying it at the feet of the bed. This they call the warming stone, from its use, and it will retain a sensible heat six or eight hours, after once moderately warming. *Plot's Oxfordshire.*

RU'GINE, *s.* [Fr.] A chirurgeon's rasp. *Obsolete*—If new flesh should not generate, bore little orifices into the bone, or rasp it out with the *rugine*. *Sharp.*

RUGLES, a small town in the north France, department of the Eure, on the river Rille, with 1600 inhabitants. It has very extensive manufactures of pins, which employ here and in the neighbourhood, between 2000 and 3000 workmen; 25 miles south-by-west of Evreux.

RUGMAN (Jonas Jonæ), a learned Icelander, was born in 1636, he was made prisoner in 1658, and carried to Gottenborg, where a Swedish gentleman, named Brahe, took him under his protection, and placed him at Wissenborg school, whence he was sent to the Academy of Upsal with a pension from the king. He was author of the "Klaugugrat, hoc est Threnodia de Morte Comitis Magni Gabrielis de la Gardie, carmine Drot-Kuætt, id est heroico, Lingua veteri Gothica, quæ est Islandica," *Upsal*, 1664, 4to.; "Fragmenta quædam Legum veterum collecta ex diversis Scriptoribus et Historiis, Lingua eadem," *Ib.*, 1667, 8vo.; "Versio Svetica Historiæ Veteris Islandica Lingua scriptæ de Regibus Norvagorum, quæ vulgo Konunga-Sagur nuncupantur," *Wisinburg*, 1670, fol.; Monosyllaba Islandica," *Upsal*, 1676, 8vo.; "Hliod Grein, ars Poetica veterum Scaldorum, auctore Snorrone Sturlæsonis Islando, versione Latina brevique indice illustrata;" and several other works in the laws, history and poetry of the north. *Forsog til et Lexicon over Danske, Norske og Islandske lærde mænd of Jens Worm.*

RU'GOSE, *adj.* [*rugosus*, Lat.] Full of wrinkles.—It is a relaxation of the sphincter to such a degree, that the internal *rugose* coat of the intestine turneth out, and beareth down. *Wiseman.*

RU'GOSITY, *s.* [*rugosus*, Lat.] State of being wrinkled.

RUHLA, a small town in the interior of Germany, divided by a rivulet into two parts, the one belonging to Saxe-Gotha; the other of the principalty of Eisenacht in Saxe-Weimar. The population of the two is 2500, who manufacture a great deal of iron, brass, and ivory ware; 14 miles west-by-south of Gotha, and 5 south-east of Eisenach.

RUHLAND, a small town of the Prussian states, in Upper Lusatia, on the Elster, with 1500 inhabitants; 28 miles north-by east of Dresden.

RUHNKEN (David), an eminent critic, was born in 1723, at Stolp, in Pomerania, of parents in a reputable situation in life. After a school education, followed by the more enlarged instruction of the Frederician college at Konigsberg, he went at the age of 18 to the University of Wittemberg, where he attended the lectures of Ritter on jurisprudence and history, and those of Berger on Roman eloquence and antiquities, and also paid attention to mathematics, dialectics, and philosophy. In 1749, the sixth year of his residence at Leyden, he first made himself known as a critic by a Latin epistle to the celebrated Valekenaer on Homer's Hymns, and Hesiod; which was followed in 1751 by another to Ernesti on Callimachus and Apollonius Rhodius. Both of these displayed consummate skill in the Greek language, with great compass of erudition and elegance of taste He next edited "Timæi Lexicon Vocum Platonicarum," a piece of which Brunck said, "This, in the whole circle of Greek literature, is both the shortest and most learned work." He also edited Rutilius Lupus, with Aquila Romanus, and Jul. Rufinianus, "De Figuris sententiarum." He afterwards employed himself in an edition of the "Scholiasta of Plato," and an improved edition of "Scheller's Latin Dictionary."

RUHNOE, or RUN, a small island in the Baltic, on the coast of Livonia, belonging to Russia. It is six miles in length, and three in breadth. The inhabitants are partly of Swedish, partly of Livonian descent. It has a light-house, and is 34 miles east-by-north of Domesness.

RUJA,

RUJA, a castle of Greece, in the south of the Morea, situated on a rock on the eastern side of the bay of Kolokythia. It has a harbour.

RUIB, a small island in the Pacific ocean, about six leagues from Waygoo. It consists of one high hill, and is surrounded by a number of smaller islands, with very deep waters between them. Lat. 0. 4. N. long 130. 20. E.

RU'IN, *s.* [*ruine*, Fr. *ruina*, Lat.] The fall or destruction of cities or edifices.

Loud rung the *ruin*, and with boisterous fear,
Strait revell'd in the queen's amazed ear. *Beaumont.*

The remains of building demolished.

Judah shall fall, oppress'd by grief and shame,
And men shall from her *ruins* know her fame. *Prior.*

Destruction; loss of happiness or fortune; overthrow.

He parted frowning from me, as if *ruin*
Leapt from his eyes. *Shakspeare.*

Those whom God to *ruin* has design'd,
He fits for fate, and first destroys their mind. *Dryden.*

Mischief; bane.—The errors of young men are the *ruin* of business. *Bacon.* Havock, and spoil, and *ruin* are my gain. *Milton.*

To RU'IN, *v. a.* [*ruiner*, Fr.] To subvert; to demolish.

A nation loving gold must rule this place,
Our temples *ruin*, and our rites deface. *Dryden.*

To destroy; to deprive of felicity or fortune.—A confident dependance ill-grounded creates such a negligence, as will certainly *ruin* us in the end. *Wake.*—To impoverish.—She would *ruin* me in silks, were not the quantity that goes to a large pincushion sufficient to make her a gown and petticoat. *Addison.*

To RU'IN *v. n.* To fall in ruins. *Little used.*

Hell heard the unsufferable noise, hell saw
Heaven *ruining* from heav'n, and would have fled
Affrighted, but strict fate had fix'd too deep
Her dark foundations and too fast had bound. *Milton.*

To run to ruin; to dilapidate. *Unused.*

Though he his house of polish'd marble build,
Yet shall it *ruin* like the moth's frail cell,
Or sheds of reeds, which summer's heat repel. *Sandys.*

To be brought to poverty or misery.—If we are idle, and disturb the industrious in their business, we shall *ruin* the faster. *Locke.*

RUINART (Thierry), a learned French ecclesiastical writer towards the close of the 17th and at the commence- of the 18th century. His numerous works chiefly relate to the history of the benedictine and other religious orders.

To RU'INATE, *v. a.* To ruin. *Obsolete.*

I will not *ruinate* my father's house,
Who gave his blood to lime the stones together,
And set up Lancaster. *Shakspeare.*

RUINATION, *s.* Subversion; demolition; overthrow. A vulgar colloquial word.—Roman coins were covered over in the ground, in the sudden *ruination* of towns by the Saxons. *Camden.*

RUINER, *s.* One that ruins.

This Ulysses, old Laertes' sonne,
That dwells in Ithaca; and name hath wonne
Of citie *ruiner*. *Chapman.*

RUINERWOLD, an inland village of the Netherlands, province of Drenthe. Population 1000; 17 miles north-north-east of Zwolle.

RUINOUS, *adj.* Fallen to ruin; dilapidated; demolished.—It is less dangerous, when divers parts of a tower are decayed, and the foundation firm, than when the foundation is *ruinous*. *Hayward.*—Mischievous; pernicious; baneful; destructive.

The birds,
After a night of storm so *ruinous*,
Clear'd up their choicest notes in bush and spray,
To gratulate the sweet return of morn. *Milton.*

A stop might be put to that *ruinous* practice of gaming. *Swift.*

RUINOUSLY, *adv.* In a ruinous manner.—By the serche of dyverse most *ruynouslye* spoyled, broaken up, and dyspersed libraries. *Bale.*—Mischievously; destructively.—If real uneasinesses may be admitted to be as deterring as imaginary ones, his own decree will retort the most *ruinously* on himself. *Dec. of Chr. Piety.*

RUINOUSNESS, *s.* A ruinous state. *Scott.*

RUISLIP, a parish of England, in Middlesex; 3½ miles north-east of Uxbridge. Population 1239.

RUIZIA [so named by Cavanilles, in honour of Don Hippolito Ruiz, a Spanish botanist, who, in conjunction with Pavon, another pupil of Mutis, published the splendid *Flora Peruviana*], in Botany, a genus of the class monadelphia, order polyandria, natural order columniferæ, malvaceæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth inferior, double; outer of three, ovate, concave, acute, deciduous leaves; inner of one leaf, permanent, cloven into five lanceolate segments. Corolla: petals five, obliquely sickle-shaped, rounded at the tip, undivided, flat, spreading, fastened to the bundle of stamens. Stamina: filaments numerous, generally from thirty to forty, shorter than the corolla, united at their base into the form of a pitcher inclosing the germen; anthers oblong, incumbent. Pistil: germen superior, globose, ten-furrowed; styles ten, short; stigmas simple. Pericarp: capsules ten, compressed, membranaceous, woody on the back, boat-shaped, of one cell, united into a globular, umbilical whorl. Seeds two, roundish, or slightly triangular, pointed.—*Essential Character.* Calyx double; outer of three leaves. Styles ten. Capsules ten, of one cell, with two seeds, and disposed in a circle.

1. Ruizia cordata, or heart-leaved Ruizia.—Native of the Isle of Bourbon, where it flowers in March and April. Stem shrubby, branched. Leaves alternate, stalked, numerous, ovate, pointed, notched. Stipulas awl-shaped, whitish, powdery, deciduous. Flowers in umbel-like terminal corymbs, sulphur-coloured, each on a short stalk.

2. Ruizia lobata, or lobed Ruizia.—Found also in the Isle of Bourbon, flowering in February and March. A handsome shrub, five or six feet high, much branched, with a greyish-white bark. Leaves crowded together at the extremities of the branches, alternate, stalked, smooth above, white and dusty beneath, the older divided into five, rarely into seven, lobes. Stipulas awl-shaped, erect, downy or powdery, deciduous. Flowers like those of the above species in form and colour.

3. Ruizia variabilis, or various-leaved Ruizia.—Native of the Isle of Bourbon, and introduced at Kew, in 1792, where it flowers in May. A very handsome shrub of rather humble, but diffuse, growth. Stems wavy, furrowed, brown. Leaves alternate, stalked, dark green above, whitish underneath, extremely curious for the variety of their shape, expressed in the specific character. Flowers in umbel-like corymbs, of a pale red or crimson colour, with deep red claws.

RULE, *s.* [old French *rule*, regle; Sax. ȝegol, ȝegul: Lat. *regula.*]—Government; empire; sway; supreme command.

I am asham'd that women
Should seek for *rule*, supremacy, or sway,
When they are bound to serve, love, and obey. *Shakspeare.*

There being no law of nature, nor positive law of God, that determines which is the positive heir, the right of succession, and consequently of bearing *rule*, could not have been determined. *Locke.*—An instrument by which lines are drawn.

Or, if your influence be quite damm'd up
With black usurping mists, some gentle taper,
Though a rush-candle from the wicker hole
Of some clay habitation, visit us
With thy long-levell'd *rule* of streaming light! *Milton.*

Canon; precept by which the thoughts or actions are directed.—We owe to Christianity the discovery of the most certain and perfect *rule* of life. *Tillotson.*—A *rule* that relates even to the smallest part of our life, is of great benefit to us, merely as it is a *rule*. *Law.*—Regularity. *Not in use.*

Some say he's mad; others, that lesser hate him,
Do call it valiant fury; but for certain,
He cannot buckle his distemper'd cause
Within the belt of *rule*. *Shakspeare.*

RULE OF THREE. See ARITHMETIC, p. 170.

To RULE, *v. a.* To govern; to control; to manage with power and authority.

Marg'ret shall now be queen and *rule* the king;
But I will *rule* both her, the king, and realm. *Shakspeare.*

A greater power now *rul'd* him. *Milton.*—To manage; to conduct.—He sought to take unto him the *ruling* of the affairs. 1 *Mac.*—To settle as by a rule. Had he done it with the pope's licence, his adversaries must have been silent; for that's a *ruled* case with the schoolmen. *Atterbury.*—To mark with lines: as, *ruled* paper, *ruled* parchment. *Barret.*

To RULE, *v. n.* To have power or command: with *over.*—He can have no divine right to my obedience, who cannot shew his divine right to the power of *ruling over* me. *Locke.*

RULE, a river of Scotland in Roxburghshire, which rises on the borders of the parish of Southdean, and England, and, after a course of about 20 miles, falls into the Teviot at Manslees. It abounds with excellent trout.

RULER, *s.* Governor; one that has the supreme command.—Soon *rulers* grow proud, and in their pride foolish. *Sidney.*

The pompous mansion was design'd
To please the mighty *rulers* of mankind;
Inferior temples use on either hand. *Addison.*

An instrument, by the direction of which lines are drawn.—They know how to draw a straight line between two points by the side of a *ruler*. *Moxon.*

RULES OF COURT, in Law, are certain orders made, from time to time, in the courts of law, which attorneys are bound to observe, in order to avoid confusion; and both the plaintiff and defendant are at their peril also bound to pay obedience to rules made in court relating to the cause depending between them. It is to be observed, that no court will make a rule for any thing that may be done in the ordinary course; and that if a rule be made, grounded upon an affidavit, the other side may move the court against it, in order to vacate the same, and thereupon shall bring into court a copy of the affidavit and rule. On the breach and contempt of a rule of court, an attachment lies; but it is not granted for disobedience to a rule, when the party has not been personally served; nor for disobeying a rule made by a judge in his chamber, which is not of force to ground a motion upon, unless the same be entered. A rule of court is granted every day, whilst the courts of Westminster sit, to prisoners of the King's-bench, or Fleet-prison, to go at large about their private affairs.

RULLY, a small town in the east of France, department of of the Soane and Loire. Population 1300.

RULTZHEIM, a large village of the Bavarian province of the Rhine. Population 1500; 11 miles east of Landau.

RU'LY, *adj.* Moderate; quiet; orderly. This is a proper word, as opposed to *unruly*; and is old in the language. Cotgrave and Sherwood both have it. *Todd.* But it is quite *obsolete.*

RUM, *s.* A queer or old-fashioned person; transferred also to things, as to an old book. *Todd.*

I'm grown a mere mopus; no company comes,
But a rabble of tenants and rusty dull *rums*. *Swift.*

You're a rare *rum*, [to Dr. Mills.] *Swift*—The books, which booksellers call *rums*, appear to be very numerous. *Nichols.* A kind of spirits distilled from molasses.—*Rum* is the name it bears among the native Americans. *Chambers.*

Bryan Edwards, in his "History of the West Indies," vol. ii., has given the following account of the process for extracting rum from the sugar-cane. He commences his account with observing, that the still-houses on the sugar-plantations in the British West Indies, vary greatly in point of size and expense, according to the fancy of the proprietor, or the magnitude of the property. In general, however, they are built in a substantial manner of stone, and are commonly equal to the boiling and curing-houses together. For a plantation making, *communibus annis*, 200 hogsheads of sugar of 1600 weight, our author conceives, that two copper stills, the one of 1200, and the other of 600 gallons, wine measure, with proportionate pewter worms, are sufficient. The size of the tanks (or tubs) for containing the cold water in which the worms are immersed, must depend upon circumstances; if the advantage can be obtained of a running stream, the water may be kept abundantly cool in a vessel barely large enough to contain the worm. If the plantation has no other dependance than pond-water, a stone tank is much superior to a tub, as being longer in heating, and if it can be made to contain from twenty to thirty thousand gallons, the worms of both the stills may be placed in the same body of water, and kept cool enough for condensing the spirit, by occasional supplies of fresh water.

For working these stills and worms, it is necessary to provide, first, a dunder-cistern, of at least 3000 gallons; secondly, a cistern for the scummings; and, lastly, twelve fermenting vats, or cisterns, each of them of the contents of the largest still, viz. 1200 gallons. In Jamaica, cisterns are made of plank, fixed in clay; and are universally preferred to vats or moveable vessels, for the purpose of fermenting. They are not so easily affected by the changes of the weather, nor so liable to leak as vats, and they last much longer. To complete the apparatus, it is necessary to add two or more copper pumps for conveying the liquor from the cisterns, and pumping up the dunder, and also butts or other vessels for securing the spirit when obtained; and it is usual to build a rum-store adjoining the still-house.

The ingredients or materials for the process consist of molasses, or treacle drained from the sugar; scummings of the hot cane juice, from the boiling-house, or sometimes raw cane liquor, from canes expressed for the purpose: lees, or, as it is called in Jamaica, "dunder," from the Spanish *redunder*, the same as *redundans* in Latin; and water. Dunder, in the making of rum, serves the purpose of yeast in the fermentation of flour. It is the lees or feculencies of former distillations: and some planters preserve it for use from one crop to another; but this is said to be a bad practice. Some fermented liquor, composed of sweets and water alone, ought to be distilled in the first instance, that fresh dunder may be obtained. This is a dissolvent menstruum, and occasions the sweets with which it is combined, whether molasses or scummings, to yield a far greater proportion of spirit than can be obtained without its assistance. The water which is added acts in some degree in the same manner by dilution.

In the Windward islands, the process, we are told, is conducted as follows:—the ingredients, viz. scummings, one-third; lees or dunder, one-third, and one-third of water, are well mixed in the fermenting cisterns, and when they are pretty cool, the fermentation will rise, in 24 hours, to a proper height for admitting the first charge of molasses, of which six gallons for every hundred gallons of the fermenting liquor, is the general proportion to be given at twice; viz. three per cent. at the first charge, and the other seven

seven per cent. a day or two afterwards, when the liquor is in a high state of fermentation; the heat of which, however, should not, in general, be suffered to exceed from 90° to 94° Farenheit. The infusion of hot water will raise, and of cold water abate the fermentation. The quantity of molasses above-mentioned, added to a third of scummings, gives 11½ per cent. of sweets, six gallons of scummings being reckoned equal to one gallon of molasses. When the fermentation falls by easy degrees from the fifth to the seventh or eighth day, so as then to become fine, and throw up slowly a few clear beads or air-globules, it is ripe for distillation; though when the liquor is first set at the beginning of the crop (the house being cold, and the cisterns not saturated) it will not be fit for distillation under ten or twelve days. When this is the case, at a longer or shorter period, the liquor or wash being conveyed into the largest still, (which must not be filled higher than within eight or ten inches of the brim, lest the head should fly), a regular fire must be kept up until it boils, after which a little fuel will serve. In about two hours the vapour or spirit, being condensed by the ambient fluid, will force its way through the worm in the shape of a stream, as clear and transparent as crystal, and it is suffered to run until it is no longer inflammable. The spirit thus obtained is known by the appellation of "low wines." To make it rum of the Jamaica proof, it undergoes a second distillation. Between the practice of the Jamaica distillers, and that of those of the Windward islands, there is some little variation in the first process. This consists chiefly in the more copious use of dunder. As dunder serves to dissolve the tenacity of the saccharine matter, it should be proportioned, not only in the *quantity*, but also to the *nature* of the sweets. If the sweets in the fermenting cistern consist of molasses alone, which is generally the case after the business of sugar-boiling is finished, when no scummings are to be had, a greater proportion of dunder is necessary: because molasses are a body of greater tenacity than cane-liquor, and are rendered so viscous and indurated by the action of fire, as to be unfit for fermentation without the most powerful saline and acid stimulators. For the same reason, at the beginning of the crop, when no molasses can be had, and the sweets consist of cane-juice or scummings alone, very little dunder is necessary.

The following improved method of conducting the process, or of compounding the several ingredients, is very general in Jamaica, viz.

Dunder one half, or		50 gallons	
Sweets 12 per cent.	Molasses	6 gallons	42 gallons.
	Scummings	36 gallons (equal to 6 galls. more of molasses)	
Water		8 gallons	
		100	

Of this mixture, or "wash," as it is sometimes called, 1200 gallons ought to produce 300 gallons of low-wines; and the still may be twice charged or drawn off in one day. The method of adding all the molasses at once, which is done soon after the fermentation commences, renders the process safe and expeditious; whereas by charging the molasses at different times, the fermentation is checked, and the process delayed. The addition of a minute quantity of alkaline salt has been recommended for the purpose of purifying the rum of its oil.

RUM, *adj.* Old fashioned; odd; quer. A *cant term.* —I have heard— that the expression *rum* books arose from Osborne's sending large assortments of unsaleable works to Jamaica in exchange for rum. But I believe this etymology is erroneous. See a large number of words connected with *rum* in N. Bailey's Collection of Canting Words and Terms. *Nichols.*

RUM, an island of the Hebrides; 9 miles long, and from 5 to 7 broad, and containing an area of above 22,260 acres. It is rugged, mountainous, and almost covered with heath, and much better fitted for pasture than for tillage. The hills are of very considerable elevation, but the height has never been measured: their summits are entirely barren. A considerable number of sheep are reared upon it of a peculiar kind, but they are exceedingly small; their flesh, however, is delicious, and their wool is soft and valuable. This island was once stocked with great numbers of deer; there was also a copse of wood, which afforded shelter to the young fawns from the birds of prey, particularly from the eagle. While the wood throve, the deer also throve: now that the wood is destroyed, the deer are extirpated. It would appear that, in former times, the island was a vast forest. The land slopes toward the east, but on the south-west forms precipices of great height. The number of its inhabitants is about 600. On the east coast is Loch-Skresort, a good anchoring place; but the harbour is exposed to the south-east wind; and on the south side of the entrance are some sunken rocks. At Kinloch, a small village at the head of the loch, the land is high, and continues nearly so to the broken coast opposite to Cannay. The shores are generally bold and rocky. In this island is found abundance of agates, improperly called white cornelians, with strata of freestone; but the access thereto is difficult. Lat. 57. N. long. 6. 17. W.

RUM KEY, one of the Bahama islands, situated about eight or nine leagues east from the north end of Long Island, and ten north from Great Harbour, in the latter island. It is at present under cultivation, and the acres of patented estates granted by the crown for this purpose, previously to May 1803, amounted to 11,738.

RUM RIVER, a river of North America, which has its source in Le Mille Lac; 35 miles south of Lower Red Cedar lake. It falls into the Mississippi. It is about 50 yards wide at its mouth, and the small Indian canoes ascend quite to the lake, the ground in the neighbourhood of which is considered one of the best hunting stations for some hundreds of miles, and has long been a scene of contention between the hunting parties of the Indian tribes in the neighbourhood.

RUMAL, a small town of European Russia, in Finland, province of Savolax, on a lake formed by the river Woxen. The inhabitants support themselves chiefly by fishing.

RUMBALDSWICH, a village of England, in Sussex, adjoining to Chichester.

RUMBEKE, an inland town of the Netherlands, in the populous and well cultivated province of West Flanders. Its inhabitants amount to fully 6000, and its situation is to the east of the great Road from Ypres to Bruges; 20 miles south-south-west of the latter.

To RU'MBLE, *v. n.* [*rommelen*, Teut.] To make a hoarse low continued noise.

The trembling streams, which wont in channels clear
To *rumble* gently down with murmur soft,
And were by them right tuneful taught to bear
A base's part amongst their concerts oft,
Now forc'd to overflow with brackish tears,
With troublous noise did dull their dainty ears. *Spenser.*

Rumble thy belly full, spit fire, spout rain;
Nor rain, wind thunder, fire are my daughters;
I tax not you, you elements, with unkindness. *Shakspeare.*

RUMBLE, one of the smaller Shetland islands; 2 miles south of Yell. Lat. 60. N. long. 0. 56. W.

RU'MBLER, *s.* The person or thing that rumbles.

RU'MBLING, *s.* A hoarse low continued noise.—At the rushing of his chariots, and at the *rumbling* of his wheels, the fathers shall not look back to their children for feebleness. *Jerem.*

RU'MBOUGE, Yorksh. Dial. See RAMBOOZE.

RUMBURG, a small town of the north of Bohemia, on the borders of Saxony, with 2700 inhabitants, employed chiefly in the linen manufacture; 58 miles north of Prague, and 35 east of Dresden.

RUMBURGH, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 4 miles north-west of Halesworth.

RUMELIA,

RUMELIA. See ROMAGNA.

RUMEN, *s.* The first stomach of ruminating animals.

RUMEX, [of Pliny, &c.; λαπαθον, Gr. *à rumpo, aut rupo;* or rather from *rumo, sugo. Vossius.*] In Botany, a genus of the class hexandria, order trigynia, natural order of holoraceæ, polygoneæ *(Juss.)* — Generic] Character. Calyx: perianth, three-leaved; leaflets obtuse, reflex, permanent. Corolla: petals three, ovate, bigger than the calyx, and like it, converging, permanent. Stamina: filaments six, capillary, very short; anthers erect, twin. Pistils: germ turbinate-three-sided; styles three, capillary, reflexed, standing out between the clefts of the converging petals; stigmas large, laciniate. Pericarp none; corolla converging, three-sided, inclosing the seed. Seed single, three-sided.—Rumex digynus excludes one-third part of the number in all parts of the fructification except the stamens. The acetosæ have the male and female flowers on separate plants. Rumex spinosus has flowers of both sexes on the same plant, with the female perianths hooked. Rumex alpinus is polygamous. In some species a callose grain is fastened externally to the valves of the petals.—*Essential Character.* Calyx three-leaved. Petals three, converging. Seed one, three-sided.

I. Hermaphrodites; having the valves marked with a grain.

1. Rumex patientia, patience dock or rhubarb.—Flowers hermaphrodite; valves quite entire, one of them graniferous, leaves ovate-lanceolate.—Patience dock has a large root, dividing into many thick fibres, which run downwards; the bark is brown, but the inside is yellow, with some reddish veins. Stems from four to six feet high, dividing towards the top into several erect branches, having a few narrow leaves on them, and terminated by spikes of large flowers, which appear in June.—Native of Italy, Hesse and some other parts of Germany.

2. Rumex sanguineus, bloody-veined dock, or bloodwort.—Flowers hermaphrodite; valves quite entire, oblong, one chiefly graniferous; leaves cordate-lanceolate; root fusiform; stem upright, branched, angular, leafy, smooth.—It is said by Linnæus to be a native of Virginia, whence it migrated to England, and was first observed by Merret, in woody places about Hampstead.

3. Rumex spatulatus, or spatula-leaved dock.—Leaves obovate obtuse; valves graniferous.—Found at the Cape of Good Hope.

4. Rumex verticillatus, or whorl-flowered dock.—Flowers hermaphrodite; valves quite entire, all graniferous; leaves lanceolate; sheaths cylindrical; flowers heaped in whorls at the joints.—Native of Virginia.

5. Rumex Britannica, or Virginian dock.—Flowers hermaphrodite; valves quite entire, all graniferous; leaves lanceolate, sheathes obsolete. The root is black or yellow on the outside and saffron-coloured within.—Native of Virginia.

6. Rumex crispus, or curled dock.—Flowers hermaphrodite; valves ovate, entire, all graniferous. Curled dock has a fusiform yellow root. Stem angular, grooved, smoothish. Leaves waved and curled about the edge. Racemes not very spreading, but close and thick together, somewhat leafy towards the base.—Native of Europe, Siberia, Cochinchina, &c.

7. Rumex persicarioides, or persicaria dock.—Flowers hermaphrodite; valves toothed, awl-shaped at the tip, all graniferous.—This is an annual plant, a span high, and very much branched. Leaves petioled, waved, entire. The valves of the flower have three long teeth on each side, all covered with large pale grains.—Native of Virginia.

8. Rumex Ægyptius, or Egyptian dock.—Flowers hermaphrodite; valves trifid-setaceous, one graniferous; leaves oblong. This also is an annual plant, about ten inches high. The flowers grow in whorls round the stalks, are very small, and the hair-like beards which adhere to the covering of the seed, being long, obscure the flowers, so that they are scarcely visible to the naked eye.—It grows naturally in Egypt.

9. Rumex dentatus, or dentated dock.—Flowers hermaphrodite; valves toothed, lanceolate at the tip, all graniferous; leaves lanceolate; root annual; stem almost upright, a span high, roundish, branched at the base; flowers clustered, lateral.—Native of Egypt.

10. Rumex acutus, or sharp-leaved dock.—Flowers hermaphrodite; valves oblong, somewhat toothed, all graniferous; leaves cordate-oblong, acuminate; racemes leafy; root perennial; stem angular, grooved, smooth, rather flexuose; flowers male, female, and hermaphrodite; some of the males having twelve stamens.—Native of Europe, in woods, edges, by road sides, in watery places and marshes.

11. Rumex obtusifolius, or blunt-leaved dock.—Flowers hermaphrodite; valves toothed, one chiefly graniferous; root-leaves cordate, blunt; stem somewhat rugged.—The root of the common broad-leaved or blunt-leaved dock runs deeply and straightly into the earth, tapering, the thickness of the middle finger, on the outside of a dirty brown colour; within yellowish. Stem three feet high, upright, branched. Racemes nearly upright, furnished with few leaves. Flowers in half-whorls, on capillary peduncles, sprinkled near the top with white shining globules; and the pedicels surrounded near the base by an indistinct, cartilaginous ring.—Native of Europe, in all sorts of cultivated ground.

12. Rumex pulcer, or fiddle-dock.—Flowers hermaphrodite; valves toothed, one chiefly graniferous; root-leaves viol-shaped; stem smooth, divaricate; racemes leafy.—Found in Italy.

13. Rumex maritimus, or golden dock.—Flowers hermaphrodite; valves deltoid, setaceous-toothed, graniferous; leaves linear; whorls clustered; root perennial, consisting of twisted fibres, as in many water plants.—Native of several parts of Europe, in marshes, especially on the sea-coast.

14. Rumex palustris, or yellow marsh-dock.—Flowers hermaphrodite; valves lanceolate, graniferous, toothed at the base; leaves linear-lanceolate; whorls distant; root tapering, reddish brown on the outside, bright red within; stem from two to three feet high, branched, of a reddish colour, grooved and somewhat rugged.—Common about London.

II. Hermaphrodites; having the valves destitute of a grain, or naked.

15. Rumex aquaticus, or water dock.—Flowers hermaphrodite; valves ovate, entire, naked; leaves cordate-lanceolate, acute.—The great water dock has large roots which strike deep in the mud, and send out leaves three feet long, and four inches broad in the middle. The flowers stand upon slender peduncles which are reflexed; they are of an herbaceous colour, and appear in June. The seeds ripen in Autumn.—Native of Europe, in ditches, pools, and on the banks of streams.

16. Rumex bucephalophorus, or basil-leaved dock.—Flowers hermaphrodite; valves toothed, naked; pedicels flat, reflexed, incrassated.—This is a low, annual plant, with slender stalks, branching at the bottom and about four inches high.—Native of Spain and Italy on moist swampy ground.

17. Rumex lunaria, or tree sorrel.—Flowers hermaphrodite; valves even; leaves sub-cordate; stem arboreous.—The sorrel tree rises with a woody stalk ten or twelve feet high, covered with a smooth brown bark, and sending out many branches. The flowers come out in loose panicles towards the end of the branches.—Native of the Canary Islands.

18. Rumex vesicarius, bladder dock, or sorrel.—Flowers hermaphrodite, geminate; all the valves very large, membranaceous, reflexed; leaves undivided. This is an annual plant, with pretty thick succulent stalks, a foot high, and dividing into many branches. The flowers grow in loose spikes at the end of the branches: they are herbaceous.—Native of Africa.

19. Rumex roseus, or rose dock.—Flowers hermaphrodite, distinct; the wing of one of the valves very large, membranaceous, netted, leaves gnawn. This is an annual plant, rising a foot and half high, and dividing at top into several branches.

branches. The flowers are disposed in loose spikes; some of which have only male flowers, and others hermaphrodite. —Native of Egypt and Barbary, in corn-fields.

20. Rumex tingitanus, or tangier dock.—Flowers hermaphrodite, distinct; valves cordate, blunt, quite entire; leaves hastate-ovate; root perennial; stems branched, striated, procumbent; flowers in clustered whorls, nodding.—Native of Spain and Barbary.

21. Rumex scutatus, or French sorrel.—Flowers hermaphrodite; leaves cordate-hastate; stem round.—The root of French sorrel is hard, fibrous, perennial; stem from a foot to eighteen inches in height; flowers in a sort of whorls, forming, all together, spike-shaped racemes, nodding, and coming out three or four together on capillary pedicels.—Native of Germany, Switzerland, Italy, the South of France, and Barbary.

22. Rumex nervosus, or nerve-leaved dock.—Flowers hermaphrodite, valves quite entire, naked: leaves oblong, three-nerved.—Stem suffruticose. Panicle terminating. Pedicels capillary, thickened under the flower, longer than the fruit.—Native of the mountains of Lapland, England, Wales, Scotland, Switzerland, Silesia, Dauphiné, Piedmont, and Siberia.

23. Rumex dygynus. Mountain dock or sorrel.—Flowers hermaphrodite two-styled; valves ovate entire.

24. Rumex lanceolatus, or lance-leaved dock.—Leaves lanceolate reflex margined, stem angular.—Found at the Cape of Good Hope.

III. With diclinous, or male and female flowers separate.

25. Rumex Alpinus. Alpine dock, or monk's rhubarb.—Flowers barren hermaphrodite and female; valves quite entire naked; leaves cordate, obtuse wrinkled.—Alpine dock, vulgarly called monk's rhubarb, from its having been used formerly for the same purposes as the true rhubarb, has a very large perennial or biennial root, three or four inches in thickness, branched, woody, yellow within, running horizontally. Flowers very abundant and close in panicles. —Native of France, Switzerland, Silesia, Piedmont, and Siberia.

26. Rumex spinosus, or prickly seeded dock. Flowers androgynous, female calyxes one-leaved, outer valves reflexed and hooked.—Calyx of the male flowers has the leaflets ovate, blunt, not reflexed, but spreading.—It is an annual plant.—Native of the island of Candia or Crete.

27. Rumex tuberosus, or tuberous-rooted dock.—Flowers dioecous; leaves lanceolate sagittate, hooks spreading.—This is so nearly allied to rumex acetosa, that it seems as if it were a mule plant derived from that.—Native of Italy.

28. Rumex multifidus. Multifid-leaved dock, or sorrel.—Flowers dioecous; leaves hastate, with the earlets palmate. —Native of the mountains of Calabria, Tuscany, and the Levant.

29. Rumex thyrsoides. Thyrse-like dock or sorrel.—Flowers dioecous; panicle contracted in manner of a thyrse; leaves hastate. Stem simple, upright striated.—Native of Barbary, in uncultivated fields.

30. Rumex acetosa, or common sorrel.—Flowers dioecous, valves graniferous, leaves oblong sagittate.—Root perennial, running deep into the earth. Stem mostly simple, erect, from one to two feet high. Sorrel is common in meadows and pastures, through the greater part of Europe, in almost all soils and situations; flowering early in June.

31. Rumex acetosella, or sheep's sorrel.—Flowers dioecous, valves grainless, leaves lanceolate-hastate. Sheep's sorrel is less by half than the common sorrel. Root creeping, perennial.—Native of Europe, in dry, gravelly, and sandy pastures, banks and fallows, &c.

32. Rumex aculeatus. Prickly dock, or Candia sorrel.—Flowers dioecous; fruits reflexed, valves ciliate; leaves lanceolate petioled.—This resembles the preceding, but the leaves are attenuated at the base, without hooks. The inner valves of the female flowers are ciliate, with very small prickles.—Native of the island of Crete or Candia, and of Spain.

33. Rumex luxurians. Luxuriant dock, or buckwheat-leaved sorrel.—Flowers dioecous; outer valves awl-shaped; inner orbicular; leaves cordate hastate, stems angular diffused.—This has a tuberous root. Stem from a foot to eighteen inches in height.

34. Rumex arifolius, or halbert-leaved dock.—Flowers dioecous; all the leaves petioled hastate, with simple divaricate earlets, stem upright.—Native of Africa.

35. Rumex bipinnatus, or bipinnate-leaved dock.—Flowers dioecous, leaves bipinnate. Root perennial. Stems a span high, ascending, even.—Native of Morocco.

36. Rumex hostilis. Flowers dioecous, valves naked. Stem prickly, three feet high, upright, round. Flowers in spikes; all the valves naked, quite entire, smooth, unarmed. —Native of Cochinchina.

Propagation and Culture.—All the docks rise easily from seeds, and if introduced into a garden, will become troublesome weeds, if their seeds be permitted to scatter; therefore few persons care to propagate any of them, except for their use in medicine or the kitchen. The seeds should be sown in autumn, soon after they are ripe. When the plants come up, thin them and keep them clean. They all delight in a moist rich soil.

The seeds of docks are to be destroyed by the plough, the harrow, and the roller; but the intervals between the ploughings should be short, for if they once get themselves established in the soil, it is, without a favourable season, out of the power of tillage to extirpate them.

RUMFORD COUNT. See THOMPSON.

RUMFORD. See ROMFORD.

RUMFORD, formerly the name of Concord, a town of the United States, in New Hampshire.

RUMFORD, a township of the United States, in Oxford county, Maine; 215 miles north-north-east of Boston. Population 629.

RUMFORD, a river of the United States, in Massachusetts, which runs south-south-east into Taunton river, south of Taunton.

RUMFORD ACADEMY, a post village of the United States, in King William county, Virginia.

RUMICHACA, an abundant river of Quito, in the province of Pastos, which runs east, and enters the Grande de Patia.

RUMIGNY, a small town in the north-east of France, department of the Ardennes. Population 800; 14 miles south-west of Rocroy.

RUM-ILI. See ROMAGNA.

RUMILI-HISSAR, a castle of European Turkey, situated on the right bank of the Bosphorus, for the protection of that strait.

RUMILI-KEVAK, another castle of European Turkey, also on the Bosphorus. It was built by the Genoese, and is now almost in ruins.

RUMILLY, a small town in Savoy; 19 miles north of Chamberry, and 7 west-south-west of Annecy, situated at the conflux of the rivers Serau and Nepha. It contains 3100 inhabitants, and stands in a pleasant district, for the products of which, particularly corn, it affords a market.

RU'MINANT, *adj.* [*ruminant*, Fr. *ruminans*, Latin.] Having the property of chewing the cud.—*Ruminant* creatures have a power of directing the peristaltick motion upwards and downwards. *Ray.*

RU'MINANT, *s.* An animal that chews the cud.—The description given of the muscular part of the gullet, is very exact in *ruminants*, but not in men. *Derham.*

The horned ruminants have all four stomachs appropriated to the office of digestion, viz. 1. The κοιλια μεγαλη of Aristotle, the *rumen, venter magnus*, or what we call the *paunch*, or *inward*, which receives the meat slightly chewed, retains it awhile, and then delivers it back again into the mouth, in the form of what we call the *cud*, to be re-chewed. 2. The κεκρυφαλος, or *reticulum*, which we call the *honeycomb*, from its internal coat being divided into cells like honeycombs. 3. The εχινος, which Mr. Ray thinks has been wrongly translated, *omasus*, and which he chooses to call the

the *echinus:* this being difficult to clear, our people throw it away, and call it the *manifold.* 4. The ενυστρον of Aristotle, by Gaza called the *abomasus;* and, among us, the *maw.*

To RU'MINATE, *v. n.* [*ruminer,* Fr. *rumino,* Lat.] To chew the cud.

Others—fill'd with pasture gazing sat,
Or bedward *ruminating.* *Milton.*

To muse; to think again and again.—I am at a solitude, an house between Hampstead and London, wherein Sir Charles Sedley died: this circumstance sets me a thinking and *ruminating* upon the employments in which men of wit exercise themselves. *Steele.* He practises a slow meditation, and *ruminates* on the subject; and perhaps in two nights and days rouses those several ideas which are necessary. *Watts.*

To RU'MINATE, *v. a.* [*rumino,* Lat.] To chew over again.—To muse on; to meditate over and over again.

'Tis a studied, not a present thought,
By duty *ruminated.* *Shakspeare.*

The condemned English
Sit patiently, and inly *ruminate*
The morning's danger. *Shakspeare.*

RU'MINATION, *s.* [*ruminatio,* Lat. from *ruminate.*] The property or act of chewing the cud.—*Rumination* is given to animals, to enable them at once to lay up a great-store of food, and afterwards to chew it. *Arbuthnot.*—Meditation; reflection.—It is melancholy of mine own, extracted from many objects, in which my often *rumination* wraps me in a most humorous sadness. *Shakspeare.*

Retiring, full of *rumination* sad,
He mourns the weakness of these latter times. *Thomson.*

Instances of rumination, by the human species, are on record. See PATHOLOGY, p. 125-6-8.

RU'MINATOR, *s.* [from *ruminate;* Fr. *rumineur.*] One that considers or thinks of, deliberates or pauses on, a matter. *Cotgrave.*

RUMINAVI, a lofty mountain of Quito, which is almost entirely covered with snow. This mountain, which is a volcano, is in Lat. 0. 28. S.

RUMLANG, a large village in the north of Switzerland; 4 miles north of Zurich.

To RU'MMAGE, *v. a.* [*raumen,* Germ. to empty, *Skinner.*] To search; to evacuate.

Our greedy seamen *rummage* every hold,
Smile on the booty of each wealthier chest. *Dryden.*

To RU'MMAGE, *v. n.* To search places.—I have often *rummaged* for old books in Little-Britain and Duck-lane. *Swift.*

RU'MMAGE, *s.* Search; act of tumbling things about. *A low word.*

RUMMEL, a river in the western province of Algiers, which passes by the city of Constantina, and joins the Wed el Kibeer; 18 miles north-west of Constantina.

RUMMELSBERG, a mountain of Prussian Silesia, in the principality of Brieg.

RUMMELSBURG, a town of Prussia, in Pomerania. Population 1500; 33 miles east-south-east of Coslin.

RU'MMER, *s.* [*roemer,* Dutch.] A glass; a drinking cup.—Imperial Rhine bestow'd the generous *rummer.* *Philips.*

RUMNEY, a village of England, situated on the banks of a river of the same name, in Monmouthshire; 3 miles from Cardiff.

RUMNEY, a township of the United States, in Grafton county, New Hampshire; 7 miles north-west of Plymouth. Population 794.

RU'MOROUS, *adj.* Famous; notorious. *Not in use.* —The *rumorouse* fall of antichryst and his kyngdome. *Bale.*

RU'MOUR, *s.* [*rumeur,* Fr. *rumor,* Lat.] Flying or popular report; bruit; fame.

There ran a *rumour*
Of many worthy fellows that were out. *Shakspeare.*

She heard an ancient *rumour* fly,
That times to come should see the Trojan race
Her Carthage ruin. *Dryden.*

To RU'MOUR, *v. a.* To report abroad; to bruit.

Catesby, *rumour* it abroad,
That Anne my wife is sick, and like to die. *Shakspeare.*

'Twas *rumour'd,*
My father 'scap'd from out the citadel. *Dryden.*

RU'MOURER, *s.* Reporter; spreader of news.—Go see the *rumourer* whipt: it cannot be. *Shakspeare.*

RUMP, *s.* [*rumpf,* Germ. *romp,* Dutch.]

At her *rump* she growing had behind
A fox's tail. *Spenser.*

Last trotted forth the gentle swine,
To ease her itch against the stump,
And dismally was heard to whine,
All as she scrubb'd her meazly *rump.* *Swift.*

He charg'd him first to bind
Crowdero's hands on *rump* behind. *Hudibras.*

A name applied, in the history of this country, to the parliament at certain periods, during the reign of Cromwell. It was called the *rump*-parliament, Lord Clarendon says, from the detestation men had of it as the *fag-end of a carcass* long since expired.—The *rump* abolished the House of Lords, the army abolished the *rump,* and by this army of saints Cromwell governed. *Swift.*

RU'MPER, *s.* One who favoured the rump-parliament; one who had been a member of it. *A bad word.*

RUMPH (George-Everard), a naturalist, born at Hanau, in 1637, was brought up to physic, and became a member of the Academia Naturæ Curiosorum. He engaged in commerce, and resided long at Amboyna, where his talents and integrity raised him to the post of counsellor to the Dutch East India Company. The natural history of those parts occupied much of his attention, and his "Thesaurus imaginum Piscium, Testaceorum, Cochlearum, Concharum, Conchliorum, et Mineralium," was printed at Leyden, in 1711, fol. His "Herbarium Amboinese" began to be edited at Amsterdam by J. Burmann in 1741, and was completed in 1755, in 7 vols. fol., cluding an "Actuarium," by Burmann himself, who also added notes and a Linnean index. This is a vast collection, containing many new species not in the Hortus Malabaricus. The history of the trees and plants is tolerably full, including the economical and medical uses, but without the minute distinctions of the flowers requisite in modern botany. Rumph composed a Political History of Amboyna, which has not been made public, but a copy of it is preserved in the island, and another in the records of the East India Company at Amsterdam. Some letters of his on Indian affairs are found in Valentyn's "Commercium Literarium," 1704. *Halleri Bibl. Botan.*

RUMPHIA [so named by Linnæus, in honour of George Everhard Rumphius, M. D.], in Botany, a genus of the class triandria, order monogynia, natural order of terebintaceæ *(Juss.),* Dubii, *Linn.* —Generic Character. Calyx: perianth, one-leafed, trifid, erect, flat. Corolla: petals three, oblong, obtuse, equal. Stamina: filaments three, awl-shaped, the length of the corolla; anthers small. Pistil: germ roundish; style awl-shaped, the length of the stamens; stigma three-cornered. Pericarp: drupe coriaceous, turbinate, three-grooved.—Seed: nut ovate, entire, three-celled.—*Essential Character.* Calyx three-cleft. Petals three. Drupe three-celled.

Rumphia amboinensis.—This is a lofty tree, with an ash-coloured bark. Leaves alternate, petioled, cordate, acute, toothletted rugged. Racemes axillary.—Native of the East Indies.

RU'MPLE, once spelt *rympyl,* *s.* [hpýmpelle, Saxon.] Pucker; rude plait.

Fair

Fair Virginia would her fate bestow
On Rutila, and change her faultless make
For the foul *rumple* of her camel-back. *Dryden.*

To RUMPLE, *v. a.* To crush or contract into inequalities and corrugations; to crush together out of shape.—I—will be so hardy as once more to unpin your spruce fastidious oratory, to *rumple* her laces, her frizzles, and her bobbins! *Milton.*

RUMPST, a small inland town of the Netherlands. Population 2000; 7 miles east-by-south of Antwerp.

RUMULHUE, a river of Chili, which runs south, and enters the Cauten.

RUMWOOD, a village of England, in Sherwood forest, Nottinghamshire.

RUMWORTH, a township of England, in Lancashire; 3½ miles west-by-south of Great Bolton. Population 768.

RUN, a very extensive salt Morass of Hindostan, which bounds the western frontier of the province of Gujerat, and communicates with the gulf of Cutch, several hundred miles in length. It is supposed to have been formerly covered by the sea, and still retains its salt particles. It affords excellent pasture, and some fine horses are bred in its vicinity. It belongs to several petty chiefs, who are frequently at war with each other.

To RUN, *v. n.* pret. *ran* [*rinnan*, Gothick; pennian, Saxon. And according to the Saxon form, Chaucer writes it *renne.*] To move swiftly; to ply the legs in such a manner, as that both feet are at every step off the ground at the same time; to make haste; to pass with very quick pace.—Their feet *run* to evil, and make haste to shed blood. *Prov.*—Laban *ran* out unto the man unto the well. *Genesis.*—To use the legs in motion.—Seldom there is need of this, till young children can *run* about. *Locke.*—To move in a hurry.

The priest and people *run* about,
And at the ports all thronging out,
As if their safety were to quit
Their mother. *B. Jonson.*

To pass on the surface, not through the air.—The Lord sent thunder, and the fire *ran* along upon the ground.—To rush violently.—Let not thy voice be heard, lest angry fellows *run* upon thee, and thou lose thy life. *Judges.*—To take a course at sea.—*Running* under the island Clauda, we had much work to come by the boat. *Acts.*—To contend in a race.—A horseboy, being lighter than you, may be trusted to *run* races with less damage to the horses. *Swift.*—To flee; not to stand. It is often followed by *away* in this sense. The difference between the valour of the Irish rebels and the Spaniards was, that the one *ran away* before they were charged, and the other straight after. *Bacon.*—To go away by stealth.—My conscience will serve me to *run* from this Jew, my master. *Shakspeare.*—To emit, or let flow any liquid.

My statues,
Like a fountain, with a hundred spouts,
Did *run* pure blood. *Shakspeare.*

To flow; to stream; to have a current; not to stagnate.—Innumerable islands were covered with flowers, and interwoven with shining seas that *ran* among them. *Addison.*—To be liquid; to be fluid.—In lead melted, when it beginneth to congeal, make a little hole, in which put quicksilver wrapped in a piece of linnen, and it will fix and *run* no more, and endure the hammer. *Bacon.*—To be fusible; to melt.

Her form glides through me, and my heart gives way;
This iron heart, which no impression took
From wars, melts down, and *runs*, if she but look. *Dryden.*

Sussex iron ores *run* freely in the fire. *Woodward.*—To fuse; to melt.—Your iron must not burn in the fire; that is, *run* or melt; for then it will be brittle. *Moxon.*—To pass; to proceed.—You, having *run* through so much publick business, have found out the secret so little known, that there is a time to give it over. *Temple.*—To flow as periods or metre; to have a cadence: as, the lines run smoothly.—To go away; to vanish; to pass.—As fast as our time *runs*, we should be very glad in most parts of our lives, that it *ran* much faster. *Addison.*—To have a legal course; to be practised.—Customs *run* only upon our goods imported or exported, and that but once for all; whereas interest *runs* as well upon our ships as goods, and must be yearly paid. *Child.*—To have a course in any direction.—A hound *runs* counter, and yet draws dry foot well. *Shakspeare.*—To pass in thought or speech.

Could you hear the annals of our fate;
Through such a train of woes if I should *run*,
The day wou'd sooner than the tale be done. *Dryden.*

To be mentioned cursorily, or in few words.—The whole *runs* on short, like articles in an account, whereas, if the subject were fully explained, each of them might take up half a page. *Arbuthnot.*—To have a continual tenour of any kind.—Discourses *ran* thus among the clearest observers: it was said, that the prince, without any imaginable stain of his religion, had, by the sight of foreign courts, much corroborated his judgement. *Wotton.*—To be busied upon.

His grisly heard his pensive bosom sought.
And all on Lausus *ran* his restless thought. *Dryden.*

To be popularly known.—Men gave them their own names, by which they *run* a great while in Rome. *Temple.*—To have reception, success, or continuance: as, the pamphlet *ran* much among the lower people.—To go on by a succession of parts.

She saw with joy the line immortal *run*,
Each sire imprest and glaring in his son. *Pope.*

To proceed in a train of conduct.—If you suspend your indignation against my brother, till you can derive from him better testimony of his intent, you should *run* a certain course. *Shakspeare.*—To pass into some change.—Is it really desirable, that there should be such a being in the world, as takes care of the frame of it, that it do not *run* into confusion and ruin mankind. *Tillotson.*—To pass.—We have many evils to prevent, and much danger to *run* through. *Bp. Taylor.*—To proceed in a certain order.—Day yet wants much of his race to *run*. *Milton.*—To be in force.—The owner hath incurred the forfeiture of eight years' profits of his lands, before he cometh to the knowledge of the process that *runneth* against him. *Bacon.*—To be generally received.—Neither was he ignorant what report *run* of himself, and how he had lost the hearts of his subjects. *Knolles.*—To be carried on in any manner.—Concessions, that *run* as high as any, the most charitable protestants make. *Atterbury.*—To have a track or course.—Searching the ulcer with my probe, the sinus *run* up above the orifice. *Wiseman.*—To pass irregularly.—The planets do not of themselves move in curve lines, but are kept in them by some attractive force, which, if once suspended, they would for ever *run* out in right lines. *Cheyne.*—To make a gradual progress.

The wing'd colonies
There settling, seize the sweets the blossoms yield,
And a low murmur *runs* along the field. *Pope.*

To be predominant.—This *run* in the head of a late writer of natural history, who is not wont to have the most lucky hits in the conduct of his thoughts. *Woodward.*—To tend in growth.—A man's nature *runs* either to herbs or weeds; therefore let him seasonably water the one, and destroy the other. *Bacon.*—To grow exuberantly.—Joseph is a fruitful bough, whose branches *run* over the wall. *Gen.*—To excern pus or matter.—Whether his flesh *run* with his issue, or be stopped, it is his uncleanness. *Lev.*—To become irregular; to change to something wild.—Many have *run* out of their wits for women. 1 *Esdr.*—To fall by haste, passion, or folly into fault or misfortune.

To

If thou rememb'rest not the slightest folly,
That ever love did make thee *run* into;
Thou hast not lov'd. *Shakspeare.*

To fall; to pass; to make transition.—In the middle of a rainbow, the colours are sufficiently distinguished; but near the borders they *ran* into one another, so that you hardly know how to limit the colours. *Watts.*—To have a general tendency.—Temperate climates *run* into moderate governments, and the extremes into despotick power. *Swift.* To proceed as on a ground or principle.—It is a confederating with him, to whom the sacrifice is offered: for upon that the apostle's argument *runs.* *Atterbury.*—To go on with violence.—Tarquin, *running* into all the methods of tyranny, after a cruel reign was expelled. *Swift.*—*To* Run *after.* To search for; to endeavour at, though out of the way.—The mind, upon the suggestion of any new notion, *runs after* similes, to make it the clearer to itself; which, though it may be useful in explaining our thoughts to others, is no right method to settle true notions in ourselves. *Locke.*—*To* Run *away with.* To hurry without deliberation.—Thoughts will not be directed what objects to pursue, but *run away with* a man in pursuit of those ideas they have in view. *Locke.*—*To* Run *in with.* To close; to comply.—Though Ramus *run in with* the first reformers of learning, in his opposition to Aristotle, yet he has given us a plausible system. *Baker.*—*To* Run *on.* To be continued.—If, through our too much security, the same should *run on,* soon might we feel our estate brought to those lamentable terms, whereof this hard and heavy sentence was by one of the ancients uttered. *Hooker.*—*To* Run *on.* To continue the same course.—*Running on* with vain prolixity. *Drayton.*—*To* Run *over.* To be so full as to overflow.

He fills his famish'd maw, his mouth *runs o'er*
With unchew'd morsels, while he churns the gore. *Dryden.*

To Run *over.* To be so much as to overflow.—Milk while it boils, or wine while it works, *run over* the vessels they are in, and possess more place than when they were cool. *Digby.*—*To* Run *over.* To recount cursorily.—I shall *run* them *over* slightly, remarking chiefly what is obvious to the eye. *Ray.*—I shall not *run over* all the particulars, that would shew what pains are used to corrupt children. *Locke.*—*To* Run *over.* To consider cursorily.—These four every man should *run over,* before he censure the works he shall view. *Wotton.*—If we *run over* the other nations of Europe, we shall only pass through so many different scenes of poverty. *Addison.*—*To* Run *over.* To run through.—Should a man *run over* the whole circle of earthly pleasures, he would be forced to complain that pleasure was not satisfaction. *South.*—*To* Run *out.* To be at an end. When a lease had *run out,* he stipulated with the tenant to resign up twenty acres, without lessening his rent, and no great abatement of the fine. *Swift.*—*To* Run *out.* To spread exuberantly. Insectile animals, for want of blood, *run* all *out* into legs. *Hammond.*—*To* Run *out.* To expatiate.—Nor is it sufficient to *run out* into beautiful digressions, unless they are something of a piece with the main design of the Georgick. *Addison.*—On all occasions, she *run out* extravagantly in praise of Hocus. *Arbuthnot.*—They keep to their text, and *run out* upon the power of the pope, to the diminution of councils. *Baker.*—He shews his judgement, in not letting his fancy *run out* into long descriptions. *Broome.*—*To* Run *out.* To be wasted or exhausted.

He hath *run out* himself, and led forth
His desp'rate party with him; blown together
Aids of all kinds. *B. Jonson.*

From growing riches with good cheer,
To *running out* by starving here. *Swift.*

Poor Romeo is already dead, *run* through the ear with a love song. *Shakspeare.*—To force; to drive. In nature, it is not convenient to consider every difference that is in things, and divide them into distinct classes; this will *run* u into particulars, and we shall be able to establish no general truth. *Locke.*—To force into any way or form.—Some, used to mathematical figures, give a reference to the methods of that science in divinity or politick enquiries; others, accustomed to retired speculations, *run* natural philosophy into metaphysical notions. *Locke.*—To drive with violence.—They *ran* the ship aground. *Acts.*—To melt; to fuse. The purest gold must be *run* and washed. *Felton.*—To incur; to fall into—He *runneth* two dangers, that he shall not be faithfully counseled, and that he shall have hurtful counsel given. *Bacon.*—To venture; to hazard.—He would himself be in the Highlands to receive them, and *run* his fortune with them. *Clarendon.* Heavy impositions lessen the import, and are a strong temptation of *running* goods. *Swift.*—To prosecute in thought.—To *run* the world back to its first original, and view nature in its cradle, to tract the outgoings of the Ancient of Days in the first instance of his creative power, is a research too great for mortal inquiry. *South.*—*To* Run *down.* To chase to weariness.—They *ran down* a stag, and the ass divided the prey very honestly. *L'Estrange.*—*To* Run *down.* To crush; to overbear.

Though out-number'd, overthrown.
And by the fate of war *run down,*
Their duty never was defeated. *Hudibras.*

RUN, *s.* [from the verb.] Act of running.—The ass sets up a hideous bray, and fetches a *run* at them open mouth. *L'Estrange.*—Course; motion.—Want of motion, whereby the *run* of humours is stayed, furthers putrefaction. *Bacon.*—Flow; cadence.—He no where uses any softness, or any *run* of verses to please the ear. *Broome.*—General mass.—Our common *run* of ladies. *Swift.*—Way; will; uncontrolled course.—Talk of some other subject; the thoughts of it make me mad; our family must have their *run.* *Arbuthnot.*—Long reception; continued success.—It is impossible for detached papers to have a general *run* or long continuance, if not diversified with humour. *Addison.*—Modish clamour; popular censure. You cannot but have observed, what a violent *run* there is among too many weak people against university education. *Swift.*—He bade him not be discouraged at this *run* upon him; for though they had got the laughers upon their side, yet mere wit and raillery could not hold it out long against a work of so much learning. *Warburton.*—*At the long* Run. In fine; in conclusion; at the end.—They produce ill-conditioned ulcers, for the most part mortal *in the long run* of the disease. *Wiseman.*—Wickedness may prosper for a while, but *at the long run,* he that sets all knaves at work will pay them. *L'Estrange.*—Shuffling may serve for a time, but truth will most certainly carry it *at the long run.* *L'Estrange.*—Hath falsehood proved *at the long run* more for the advancement of his estate than truth? *Tillotson.*

RUNACHUSAN, a small island near the west coast of Scotland. Lat. 58. 13. N. long. 5. 4. W.

RU'NAGATE, *s.* [corrupted from *renegat,* Fr.] A fugitive; rebel: apostate.

RUNALA, a town of Hindostan, province of Kandeish, belonging to the Mahrattas. Lat. 21. 17. N. long. 74. 20. E.

RUNAWAY, *s.* One that flies from danger; one who departs by stealth; a fugitive.

Come at once,
For the close night doth play the *runaway,*
And we are staid for. *Shakspeare.*

Thou *runaway,* thou coward art thou fled?
Speak in some bush; where dost thou hide thy head? *Shakspeare.*

RUNAWAY BAY, on the north-west coast of the island of Antigua, situated between the fort on Corbizon's point to the north, and Fort Hamilton to the south. Off it lie rocks and shoals.

RUNAWAY BAY, on the north coast of the island of Jamaica, westward of Great Laughland's river and Mumby bay;

bay; and 9 or 10 miles eastward of Rio Bueno. Lat. 18. 30. N. long. 77. 11. W.

RUNCATION, *s.* [*runcatio*, Lat.] Act of clearing away weeds. Bailey and Chambers. *Not now in use.* Evelyn has employed it.

RUNCORN, a township of England, in a parish of the same name, in Cheshire; 4 miles north-by-west of Frodsham. Population 2060.

RUNDLE, *s.* An old English term for the umbel of a flower. In heraldry the word implies the same as a ball or pellet; also a round; a step of a ladder.—The angels did not fly, but mounted the ladder by degrees; we are to consider the several steps and *rundles* we are to ascend by. *Duppa.*—A peritrochium; something put round an axis.—The third mechanical faculty, styled *axis in peritrochio*, consists of an axis or cylinder, having a *rundle* about it, wherein are fastened divers spokes, by which the whole may be turned round. *Wilkins.*

RU'NDLET, *s.* A small barrel.—Set a *rundlet* of verjuice over against the sun in summer, to see whether it will sweeten. *Bacon.*

RUNE, *s.* [Run, Cimbr. et Sax. *litera; character.*—The word *rune*, according to Mallet, is derived from a word in the ancient Gothic language, signifying *to cut:* but Wormius, with greater probability, derives *rune* from either *ryn, a furrow*, or *ren, a gutter* or *channel.* As these characters were first cut in wood or stone, the resemblance to a furrow, or channel, would easily suggest the appellation. Others, however, derive the term from *ryne*, signifying art, especially that of magic].—The Runic character, or letter. The *runes* were for long periods of time in use upon materials more lasting than any others employed in the same purpose. *Temple.*—There are many manuscripts now remaining, by which it will appear, that the Danish *runes* were much studied among our Saxon ancestors. *Warton.*

Some have been of opinion that Gulphilas, or Ulphilas, a Gothic bishop, about the year 370, was the first inventor of the Runic character: but Olaus Wormius shews at large, that Ulphilas could only be the first who taught it to foreigners; for that the Runæ, or characters themselves, were older than he.

Many learned writers have adopted the opinion, first suggested by Dr. Hickes, that the Runic character was borrowed from the Roman, and they farther maintain, that it was not known in the North before the introduction of Christianity. If it were allowed, that the Runic characters are borrowed from the Roman alphabet, it by no means follows, that the Scandinavians had waited for the secret till the introduction of Christianity among them: but it is justly observed by Wormius, that they are as easily reducible to the Greek and Hebrew Alphabets as to the Roman. An evident proof that Runic were not derived from the Roman letters, results not only from their form, which has scarcely any resemblance to these, but from their number (being but 16), and their order and names, which have nothing in common with the Roman, Greek, or Gothic characters of Ulphilas. A comparative view of the Runic and Gothic in these respects may be seen in the English translation of Mallet's Northern Antiquities, vol. i. p. 370. M. Mallet has sufficiently shewn, that all the old chronicles and poems of the North universally agree in assigning to the Runic characters a very remote antiquity, and in attributing the invention of them to Odin or Woden himself, whom their poets expressly call the inventor of the Runes. Besides, instances occur of princes and pagan heroes, who made use of this character in an age long before Christianity had penetrated into the North.

A few years before the birth of Christ, as it has been said, soon after Mithridates had been overthrown by Pompey, a nation of Asiatic Goths, who possessed that region of Asia which is now called Georgia, and is connected on the south with Persia, alarmed at the progressive encroachments of the Roman armies, retired in vast multitudes under the conduct of their leader Odin, or Woden, into the northern parts of Europe, not subject to the Roman government, and settled in Denmark, Norway, Sweden, and other districts of the Scandinavian territory. As they brought with them many useful arts, particularly the knowledge of letters, which Odin is said to have invented, they were hospitably received by the natives, and by degrees acquired a safe and peaceable establishment in the new country, which seems to have adopted their language, laws, and religion. Odin is said to have been styled a god by the Scandinavians; an appellation which the superior address and specious abilities of this Asiatic chief easily extorted from a more savage and uncivilized people.

This migration is confirmed by the concurrent testimonies of various historians; but there is no better evidence of it, than that conspicuous similarity subsisting at this day between several customs of the Georgians, as described by Chardin, and those of certain cantons of Norway and Sweden, which have preserved their ancient manners in the purest degree. Not that other striking, implicit and internal proofs, which often carry more conviction than direct historical assertions, are wanting to point out this migration. The ancient inhabitants of Denmark and Norway inscribed the exploits of their kings and heroes on rocks, in characters called Runic; and of this practice many marks are said still to remain in those countries. This art or custom of writing on rocks is Asiatic. Modern travellers report, that there are Runic inscriptions now existing in the deserts of Tartary. (See Voyage par Strahlemberg, &c. A Description of the northern and eastern parts of Europe and Asia.) Schroder says, from Olaus Rudbeckius, that Runes, or letters, were invented by Magog the Scythian, and communicated to Tuisco, the celebrated German chieftain, in the year of the world 1799. Præf. ad Lexicon Latino-Scandic.) The *written mountains* of the Jews are an instance that this fashion was oriental.

The Runic characters were distinguished into various kinds. The *noxious*, or *bitter Runes* were employed to bring various evils on their enemies; the *favourable* averted misfortunes; the *victorious* produced conquest to those who used them; the *medicinal* were inscribed on the leaves of trees for healing; others served to dispel melancholy thoughts, to prevent shipwreck, as antidotes against poison, as preservatives against the resentment of their enemies, and in order to render a mistress favourable. These various kinds differed only in the ceremonies observed in writing them, in the materials on which they were written, in the place where they were exposed, in the manner in which the lines were drawn, whether in the form of a circle, a serpent, or a triangle, &c.

The Runic characters were rarely written from the right hand to the left; but it is not uncommon to meet with the line running from the top to the bottom, after the manner of the Chinese and other Indian nations; or from the top to the bottom, and then turning round to the left, and so up again to the place it begins at; or else from the left to the right, and so back to the left again, which was the manner of the early Greeks.

The Saxons, who were fond of tracing the descent of their princes from Odin, and who became possessors of England in the sixth century, imported into this country the old Runic language and letters. This appears from inscriptions on coins, stones, and other monuments, and from some of their MSS.

There are some Runic medals in the closets of the curious; and some modern Danish and English medals, the inscriptions of which are Latin, and the character Runic.

There is extant a coin of king Offa with a Runic inscription, which shews, that this character had been used by the Saxons as well as their Scandinavian brethren.

There are also Runic inscriptions in this island; one in Cumberland, and another in Scotland. See Hickes' Thes. Ling. Sept.

In several parts of Sweden, stones may be met with, which were formerly set up as obelisks in memory of the dead; and these monuments are marked with the ancient northern letters called *Runor*, or the Runic characters. In some places the characters

characters vary from the Runic, particularly in free-stones found in Helsingland, of which Mr. Celsius has given us a description, with an explanation. See *Philos. Trans.* No. 445, sect. 5.

From these Helsingland inscriptions an alphabet of sixteen letters may be derived, which is very singular. In other alphabets different sounds are generally denoted by different figures: but here the same character, according to the diversity of its place and altitude between two parallels, denotes different sounds.

But these characters, however different they may appear at the first sight from the Runic, may easily be derived from them; or, *vice versâ*, the Runic may be derived from the Helsingic, if these be supposed the most ancient. The subtraction of a perpendicular line in the first case, or its addition to the latter, brings the two characters to a near resemblance.

RUNEKA, in Hindoo Mythology, is fabled as the mortal mother of Parasu Rama, an incarnation of Vishnu. Her husband was Jamadagni, one of the seven Rishis, or patriarchal sages. On the death of Jamadagni, Runeka declared her intention of becoming Sati, that is, *pure*, by the act of self-immolation on her husband's funeral pile. The avaricious Raja, who had caused her husband's death, became thus charged with a double murder. It is related of Runeka, that, to strengthen the potency of her maledictions on the head of the murderous Raja, she, in addition to her own self-sacrifice, performed also the ceremony of Naramedha, or the sacrifice of a man, thereby rendering her solicitations to the avenging deities absolutely irresistible. And so lasting is said to be the effect of the wrath felt and transmitted by the vindictive Sati, that a man is sacrificed to appease the wrath of Runeka Devi, in every generation, by the tribe called Karhara, a military sect, many of whom are settled in the Kokan, Guzerat, and other western provinces of India.

Mr. Wilford, discussing some of these topics in the third volume of the Asiatic Researches, observes, that although human victims, Naramedha, allowed by ancient authorities, are now prohibited under pain of the severest torments in the next world, the prohibition is said to be disregarded by the Pamaras, or Pariar races, in different parts of India.

RUNG, pret. and part. pass. of *ring*.—The heavens and all the constellations *rung*. *Milton*.

RUNG, *s*. [*hrugg*, Goth. pronounced *hrung*, a rod, a staff.] A spar; a round or step of a ladder: so used in the north of England.—*Rungs* are what the carpenters call those timbers in a ship, which constitute her floor, and are bolted to the keel. Skinner. [Icel. *raung*, pl. *rungor*; Su.—Goth *rong*. Fr. *varangues*, the ribs of a ship. *Dr. Jamieson*.]

RUNG-HEADS, are made a little bending to direct the sweep or mold of the futtocks, and naval timbers; for here the lines, which make the compass and bearing of a ship, do begin.

RUNGPOOR, called also Takhut Koondy, an extensive district of Bengal, situated about the 26th degree of northern latitude, bounded on the north by the Bootan mountains, and on the east by the river Brahmapootra. It produces a quantity of silk, rice, sugar, indigo, hemp, and tobacco. Some parts of it are very fine, but taking the whole, it is not so populous or well cultivated as other districts of this province. Couch Behar is now included in this collectorship. Glandular swellings of the throat are here very prevalent, although parts of the district are more than 100 miles distant from the alpine region, or snowy mountains. Besides the Brahmapootra, it is watered by the rivers Teestah and Durlah. Its chief towns are Rungpore, Guzgotta, and Mungulhaut. This district being situated at a short distance from Gour, was taken possession of, and colonised by the Mahometans, early in the 13th century, and was always governed by a foujedar or military collector. Between the year 1730 and 1740, it was ruled by Sayed Ahmed, nephew of Aly verdy Khan, who is accused of having been very oppressive, and having kept up a numerous army, for the purpose of reducing the rajahs of Dinagepore and Couch Behar, both of whom he compelled to pay tribute. It is now governed by a civil establishment of judge, collector, &c. and is subservient to the court of circuit and appeal of Dacca.

RUNGPORE, the capital of the above-mentioned district. It is situated on the eastern bank of the Goggot river, is a very regular well-built town, and carries on a considerable trade with Bootan, Assam, and Calcutta. The judge and collector reside at a village called Nuwalgunge, about a mile from the town. Lat. 25. 47. N. long. 89. 5. E.

RUNGPORE, an extensive fortress which defends Gergong, the ancient capital of Assam. It is situated on an island, and can only be approached by a bridge, which was built some centuries ago, and remains as a monument of the abilities of the Bengal artificers, who were employed to construct it. Lat. 26. 55. N. long. 94. 40. E.

RUNHALL, a village of England, in Norfolk; 5½ miles north-west of Wymondham.

RUNHAM, a village of England in Norfolk; 4 miles west of Caistor.

RU'NIC, *adj*. [See Rune.] Denoting the letters and language of the ancient northern nations.—Odin was the first inventor, at least the first engraver, of the *Runick* letters or characters. *Temple*.

The huge Colossus rose with trophies crown'd,
And *Runic* characters were grav'd around. *Pope*.

RUNIC STAFFS, a kind of calendars or compendious almanacks used in the North, marked out by lines upon short peices of board or smooth sticks; some of which bear the appearance of great antiquity. They were called in the North, *rim-stocks* and *prim-staffs*; and exhibited, by different lines or marks, the fasts and festivals, the golden number, Dominical letter, epact, &c. Dr. Plot, in his History of Staffordshire, p. 418, &c. describes one of these instruments under the name of a *clog*, and illustrates the construction of it by a figure. He observes that this kind of almanack is a remain of the Danish government, and that it was still in use amongst the meaner sort of people. Those which he met with in Staffordshire had only the prime and immoveable feasts upon them; whereas others of a more perfect kind, preserved in the cabinets of the curious, have likewise the Dominical letters. And of those imperfect ones there are two kinds; some public, of a larger size, which were commonly hung at one end of the mantle-piece of the chimney, for the use of the whole family, as Wormius informs us they disposed of them in Denmark; and others private, of a smaller size, which they carried in their pockets. This chronological instrument is sometimes, by an evident corruption, called *runstock*.

RUNIUS (John), one of the most celebrated of the Swedish poets, was born in West Gothland, in 1679. He received the rudiments of his education at Skara, where he gave early proofs of his genius, and made so much progress in Greek literature, as to be able to compose verses in that language with care and correctness. He wrote with so much care, and his versification is so smooth and pleasing to the ear, that he is accounted by the Swedes one of the most successful of their poets. His poems were published after his death under the title of "Dudaim," *Stockholm*, 1714, in two parts, 4to. In 1733, it was reprinted with the addition of a third part containing pieces on different subjects, not before published, among which were several ingenious poems written in Latin, Greek, French, and German. *Gezelii Biographiska Lexicon*.

RUNKEL, a small town of the west of Germany, in the duchy of Nassau, on the Lahn. It gives name to the small principality of Wied-Runkel, but the chief town of that principality is Dietsdorf; 5 miles east of Limburg.

RUNKHORN, a village of England, in Cheshire, near the mouth of the Mersey.

RU'NNEL, *s*. A rivulet; a small brook.

With murmur loud, down from the mountain's side,
A little *runnel* tumbled neere the place. *Fairfax*.

RU'NNER,

RU'NNER, *s.* One that runs; that which runs.—The ships, built in this fashion, were found better *runners* than any made before. *Biblioth.*—A racer.

Fore-spent with toil, as *runners* with a race
I lay me down a little while to breathe. *Shakspeare.*

A messenger.—To Tonson or Lintot his lodgings are better known than to *runners* of the post-office. *Swift.*—A shooting sprig.—In every root there will be one *runner*, which hath little buds on it, which may be cut into. *Mortimer.*—One of the stones of a mill.—The mill goes much heavier by the stone they call the *runner* being so large. *Mortimer.* [*Erythropus.*] A bird. *Ainsworth.*

RU'NNET, *s.* [ȝerunnen, Sax. coagulated.] A liquor made by steeping the stomach of a calf in hot water, and used to coagulate milk for curds and cheese. It is sometimes written *rennet*, which see.—The milk of the fig hath the quality of *runnet* to gather cheese. *Bacon.*

RU'NNING, *adj.* Kept for the race.—He will no more complain of the frowns of the world, or a small cure, or the want of a patron, than he will complain of the want of a laced coat, or a *running* horse. *Law.*

RU'NNING, *s.* Act of moving on with celerity.—A *running* that could not be seen of skipping beasts. *Wisd.* xvii. 19.—Discharge of a wound or sore.

RU'NNION, *s.* See RONION. A paltry scurvy wretch.

RUNNODE, a town of Hindostan, province of Malwah, belonging to the Mahrattas. Lat. 25. 7. N. long. 78. 15. E.

RUNNYMEDE, in England; 5 miles east of Windsor, in Surrey. This spot is celebrated for the conference held there on the 15th June, 1215, between king John and the barons of England, when the former was compelled to sign *magna charta*, and *charta de foresta*. It is now divided into several inclosures.

RUNRIG, an ancient inconvenient distribution of common field land, by which small portions or ridges of land were let to different individuals in a mixed manner.

The circumstances of land being distributed in alternate ridges as the property or possession of different tenants or holders, was unquestionably a consequence of early farming townships. It is a sort of arrangement which must have first taken place on account of some imperfect and confused notion or intention of doing justice in an equal manner to all the tenants or holders of land in such farming villages, by allotting to, or bestowing upon, every one of them the same number of ridges near their houses, and an equal number in remote situations. And in order to render the absurdity of such a mode of holding and occupying land still more preposterously complete, if possible, such ridges were, in many cases, not unfrequently exchanged; so that one tenant possessed, in the succeeding year, the land which was held or occupied by his neighbour the preceding one.

It is remarked, that in many parts of the highlands of Scotland, the land under this distribution has been first ploughed, without leaving any boundaries, except the furrows between the ridges; then the field was divided, by putting small branches of trees into the ground, in order to mark off every tenant's portion before the field was sown. No man knew his own land until the seed was to be put into the ground; and it became almost impossible for him to have the same portion of land any two successive years. This is a mode of division, it is supposed, which is analagous to that which Cæsar has asserted to have prevailed among the ancient Gauls; which must absolutely debar the very least improvement.

This inconvenient and improper method of proceeding was greatly fostered by the feudal notions of the times; in which he that could muster the greatest number of retainers, generally constituted to himself the greatest estate. But in the present times nothing can be more absurd than to see two or three, or perhaps four men, yoking their horses together in one plough, and having their ridges alternately in the same field, with or without a bank of unploughed land between them, by way of boundary. These diminutive possessions, it is said, were carried to such a length, that in some parts of Scotland, towards the northern extremity, the term a *horse's foot*, the sixteenth part of a plough-gate of land, is not yet wholly laid aside. The land is stated to be like a piece of striped cloth, with banks full of weeds and ridges of corn in constant succession, from one end of a field to the other. Under such management, all such occupiers or possessors must have concurred in one opinion with regard to the time and manner of ploughing every field, the kind of grain to be sown, the season and weather fit for sowing, and whether they and their horses were to be employed or idle. So late as even thirty or forty years ago, this practice is stated to have prevailed, not only over the greater part of the county of Perth, but, with very few exceptions, over all other parts of Scotland. Since that period, however, it has been, it is said, gradually going into disuse; and that the benefit of laying it aside entirely is so apparent that any remains of the runrig system, which may still be met with, must soon give way and disappear.

RUNSWICK, a small fishing town of England, in Yorkshire; 8½ miles north-west of Whitby.

RUNT, *s.* [*runte*, in the Teutonic dialects, signifies a bull or cow, and is used in contempt by us for small cattle; as *kefyl*, the Welsh term for a horse, is used for a worthless horse.] Any animal small below the natural growth of the kind.

Reforming Tweed
Hath sent us *runts* even of her church's breed. *Cleaveland.*

A pigeon. The Spanish runt is the longest body of all the pigeons; it is short-legged and loose-feathered, and does not walk so upright as the Leghorn runt. These are of a very great variety of colours, but are apt to have accidents in sitting, from their sitting too heavy, and often breaking their eggs.

The Friesland runt is a large pigeon, and has all its feathers reverted, and looking as if placed the wrong way.

The Roman runt is a pigeon of the same general make with the common kind, but so large and heavy, that it can hardly fly.

The Smyrna runt is middle-sized, and is feather-footed, and that to such a degree sometimes, as to look as if there were wings upon the feet; the feathers of these are sometimes four of five inches long, and often pull the eggs and young out of the nests.

The common runt is the common blue pigeon, kept for the table, and known to every body. Moore's Columb. p. 42.

RUNTHWATE, a village of England, in Westmoreland, north-west of Howgill.

RUNTON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 3 miles west-by-north of Cromer.

RUNWELL, a village of England, in Essex; 5 miles north-west of Rayleigh.

RUNWELL, a village of England, in Somersetshire, between Taunton and Wellington.

RUNWICH, a village of England, in Gloucestershire, north-west of Stroud.

RUOLO, a small town in the north of Italy, duchy of Modena, situated on a navigable canal; 8 miles north-north-east of Novellara.

RUPEE, *s.* An East Indian silver coin, worth about two shillings and four-pence.—In silver fourteen *roopees* make a masse. *Sir T. Herbert.*

RUPELMONDE, an inland town of the Netherlands, in the province of east Flanders, on the Scheldt, where that river receives the Rupel. Population 2000; 8 miles south-by-west of Antwerp, and 26 east-by-north of Ghent.

RUPERSDORF, or HOHEN RUPERSDORF, a petty town of Lower Austria, on the Sulzbach; 17 miles north-north-east of Vienna, containing, with its surrounding parish, 2300 inhabitants.

RUPERT, a learned and pious Benedictine abbot in the twelfth century, was a native of Flanders, and born in the territory of Ypres, in the year 1091. He embraced the monastic life at a very early age, in the abbey of St. Lawrence, near Liege, where his application to his studies was incessant, till he had made an extraordinary progress in all the

the literature of the times, and had acquired a knowledge of the Scriptures superior to that of most of his contemporaries. Of the innumerable list of his writings, (all on scriptural subjects,) it is enough to mention his Commentariorum de sanctissima Trinitate et operibus ejus, Lib. XLII." including his illustration of the Pentateuch, the books of Joshua, Judges, parts of the books of Kings and the Psalms, the prophesies of Isaiah, Jeremiah, Ezekiel, Daniel, Zechariah, and Malachy, the books of the Macchabees, some parts of the four Gospels, and other selected passages of Scripture. In this work his opinion relating to the eucharist differs widely from the Catholic doctrine of more modern times, since he held that though the real body and blood of Christ are present in that sacrament, yet the real substance of the bread and wine also remain.

RUPERT, Prince, son of Frederick, Elector Palatine of the Rhine, and Elizabeth, daughter of James I. King of England, was born in 1619. Being bred to arms, he accompanied in his 13th year the Prince of Orange to the siege of Rhinberg; and he so much distinguished himself for courage and conduct, that at the age of 18 he was entrusted with the command of a regiment of cavalry. He was taken prisoner in the following year by the Imperialists, who detained him two years. Having obtained his liberty, upon the ruin of the Palatine House in Germany, he came to England with his brother Maurice in 1642, and offered his services to his cousin King Charles, between whom and the parliament war had just commenced. Of his exploits here as a general, an account is contained in pp. 673, 675 of the article ENGLAND. In the same article p. 685 his naval achievements have received due notice. In the domestic politics of Charles the Second's reign, he joined the party of those who were most attached to the Protestant religion and a free constitution, and his name appears first in the list of the privy-council nominated at the suggestion of Sir W. Temple, in 1678. He does not seem, however, to have engaged deeply in public affairs, and chemistry and the arts occupied his chief attention. When in retirement at Brussels before the Restoration, he is said, by observing a centinel clearing the rust from his musket, to have conceived the invention of mezzotinto, which he communicated to a painter in his service; and their united experiments produced an instrument by means of which they were enabled to execute the prints denominated by that appellation, and in which the ground is all black, and the figures are made by scraping. He also made some etchings, and drew designs with a pen. As a chemist his name is preserved in those curious glass drops called Prince Rupert's, which have the property of flying into minute particles the instant a piece is broken off from the shank. He was likewise an able mathematician; and was probably skilled in architecture, since he is said to have contributed to the beautifying of Windsor Castle. Prince Rupert died, unmarried, in 1682, and was interred in Henry II.'s chapel. He is described by Count Hamilton as of large size, with hard features and an ungraceful manner, harsh and rough when displeased, yet polite to excess on ordinary occasions. By long residence in this country he was become entirely English in his tastes and sentiments. *Histor. Dict.*

RUPERT, a township of the United States, in Bennington county, Vermont. Population 1630.

RUPERT'S BAY, a bay on the west coast of the island of Dominica, of great size and depth, and well adapted for the shelter of vessels. Lat. 15. 40. N. long. 61. 18. W.

RUPERT'S DROPS, *lacrymæ Bataviceæ*, a sort of glass drops with long and slender tails, which burst to pieces on the breaking of those tails in any part. They were first brought into England by Prince Rupert out of Germany, and shewn to king Charles II. who communicated them to the Royal Society at Gresham College: and a committee, appointed on this occasion by the society, gave the following account of them. They must be made of green glass well refined, for till the metal, as the glass-men call it, is perfectly refined, they never succeed if made of it; but always crack and break soon after they are dropped into the water.

The best way of making them is to take up some of the metal out of the pot upon the end of an iron rod, and immediately let it drop into cold water, and there lie till it is cold. If the metal be too hot when it is dropped into the water, the business does not succeed, but the drop frosts and cracks all over, and falls to pieces in the water, but every one that does not crack in the water, but lies in it whole till it is quite cool, is sure to be good. There is great nicety in the hitting a due degree of heat in the metal, and the workmen who best know their business cannot promise before hand which shall succeed, but often two fail for one that hits right. Some of them frost over the surface without falling to pieces, and others break into pieces before the red heat is quite over, and that with a small noise; others break soon after the red heat is over and make a great noise, and some neither break nor crack till they seem to be quite cold; and others hold together while they are in the water, but fly to pieces with a smart noise when they are taken out of it; some do this on the instant, others an hour or two after, and others will keep several days, nay weeks, and at last fall to pieces without being touched.

These drops, thus formed, are so hard, that they will bear smart blows of a hammer, on the rounded end, without breaking; and yet if you grind the surface, or break off the tip of the tail, they will shatter, with a loud report, into powder; and in an exhausted receiver, with greater impetuosity than in the open air, and into a finer powder, exhibiting light, when the experiment is made in the dark. But if the drops are ground with powder of emery and oil, or annealed by the fire, they will escape breaking.

This surprising phenomenon is supposed to arise from hence; that while the glass is in fusion, or in a melted state, the particles of it are in a state of repulsion; but being dropped into cold water, it so condenses the particles in the external parts of their superfices, that they are thereby reduced within the power of each other's attraction, and by that means they form a sort of hard case, which keeps confined the before-mentioned particles in their repulsive state; but when this outer case is broke by the breaking off the tail of the drop, the said confined particles have then liberty to exert their force, which they do by bursting the body of the drop, and reducing it to a very peculiar form of powder. See a paper on the phenomena and explication of these glass-drops, by Le Cat, in the *Phils. Trans.* vol. xlvi. p. 175, &c.

RUPERT'S FORT, a fort on the west coast of the island of Barbadoes; 1 mile north of Speight's Town.

RUPERT'S HEAD, a cape on the west coast of the island of Dominica. Lat. 15. 41. N. long. 61. 19. W.

RUPERT's ISLAND, a small island in the straits of Magellan; 3 miles south of Passage point.

RUPERT'S RIVER, a river of North America, which runs from Lake Mistasin into James's bay, Hudson's bay. Lat. 51. 28. N. long. 78. 55. W.

RUPNAGUR, a town of Hindostan, in the province of Ajmeer, belonging to the Mahratta chief Dowlut Row Sindia. Lat. 26. 43. N. long. 74. 5. E.

RUPPERSDORF, a large village of Saxony, in Upper Lusatia; 8 miles north-north-west of Zittau, with 1300 inhabitants.

RUPPERSDORF, a village of the north-east of Bohemia, near the town of Semile. Population 800.

RUPPIA [so named by Linnæus, in memory of Henry Bernhard Ruppius, a German physician], in Botany, a genus of the class tetrandria, order tetragynia, natural order of inundatæ, naiades *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: spathe, besides the sheaths of the leaves scarcely any; spadix subulate, quite simple, straight, when the fruit ripens, curved inwards, fenced in a double row by the fructifications; perianth, none. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments none; anthers four sessile, equal, roundish, subdidymous. Pistil: germs four or five, subovate converging; style none; stigmas blunt. Pericarp none; the seeds are placed each on its peculiar filiform pedicel, the length of the fruit. Seeds four or five, ovate oblique, terminated by a flat orbicular stigma.

stigma.—According to Micheli and Dillenius, the male parts are far removed from the females, and these are placed in distinct filiform spadixes.—*Essential Character.* Calyx none. Corolla none. Seeds four, pedicelled.

Ruppia maritima, sea Ruppia or tassel pondweed.—This plant, when not in fruit, very much resembles potamogeton pectinatum or marinum, but the leaves differ, are rather alternate, very long and slender, pointed. The stipules also are not produced at the end acute and bifid, but are retuse. The stems are filiform, and very much branched. About four flowers on a spike, or from one to four, though commonly two, one terminating and one sessile. The spike emerges from the water, and therefore the peduncle or flower-stalk is of very different lengths, according to the depth of the water, for it relaxes or contracts as the depth of the water increases or diminishes. Anthers sessile, bursting at top into two hemispheres. Germs ovate, after impregnation each elevated on its proper pedicel. Stamens, germs and seeds four in each flower.—Nuts four or more, aggregate, peduncled, ovate-acuminate, corticate: rind coriaceous-membranaceous, very thin: shell crustaceous, black, one-celled valveless. Seed ovate-globular, often slightly acuminate, pale. Linnæus marks this plant as annual; Hudson as perennial.—Native of several parts of Europe in salt-water ditches. Not uncommon in Britain.

RUPPIN, New, a town of the Prussian province of Brandenburg, government of Potsdam, on a lake of the same name, joined to the river Havel by a canal. It is regularly built, the streets intersecting each other at right angles. It has several public buildings, such as the high church, the high school, the council-house, the barracks, the hospital, a work-house, and a very large building for exercising the troops. Ruppin contains 4600 inhabitants, besides a garrison. The principal employments are weaving woollen, tanning leather, and making gloves. In regard to education, it is a central spot for a considerable track of country.—Old Ruppin is a small town a little farther to the north, with 1000 inhabitants; 35 miles north-north-west of Berlin. Lat. 52. 55. 59. N. long. 12. 54. 52. E.

RU'PTION, *s.* [from *ruptus*, Lat.] Breach; solution of continuity.—The plentitude of vessels or plethora causes an extravasation of blood, by *ruption* or apertion. *Wiseman.*

RU'PTURE, *s.* [from *ruptus*, Lat.] The act of breaking; state of being broken; solution of continuity.

The egg,
Bursting with kindly *rupture*, forth disclos'd.
Their callow young. *Milton.*

A breach of peace; open hostility.—When the parties, that divide the commonwealth, come to a *rupture*, it seems every man's duty to chuse a side. *Swift.*—Hernia; preternatural eruption of the gut.—The *rupture* of the groin or scrotum is the most common species of hernia. *Sharp.* See Surgery.

To RU'PTURE, *v. a.* To break; to burst; to suffer disruption.—The vessels of the brain and membranes, if *ruptured*, absorb the extravasated blood. *Sharp.*

RU'PTUREWORT, *s.* [*herniaria*, Lat.] A plant.

RU'RAL, *adj.* [from *rura*, Lat.] Country; existing in the country, not in cities; suiting the country; resembling the country.

Here is a *rural* fellow,
That will not be denied your highness's presence;
He brings you figs. *Shakspeare.*

RURALIST, *s.* One who leads a rural life.—You have recalled to my thoughts an image, which must have pleaded so strongly with our Egyptian *ruralists*, for a direct and unqualified adoration of the solar orb. *Coventry.*

RURALITY, or Ruralness, *s.* The quality of being rural. *Johnson.*

RU'RALLY, *adv.* As in the country.—The college itself [Jesus] is *rurally* situated at some distance from the body of the town, on the Newmarket road. *Wakefield.*

RUREMONDE, an inland town of the Netherlands, the capital of a district in the province of Limburg. It stands at the influx of the Roer into the Maese, and is still surrounded with a mound and ditch. It is tolerably well built, and has a spacious public square, with 4300 inhabitants, employed partly in the manufacture of woollen and other stuffs. It has, from its situation, been repeatedly exposed to the calamities of war. It was the birth-place of the geographer Gerhard Mercator, so well known by the chart which bears his name; 27 miles north-by-east of Maestricht. Lat. 51. 12. N. long. 5. 59. E.

RURI'COLIST, *s.* [*ruricola*, Lat.] An inhabitant of the country. *Johnson.*

RURI'GENOUS, *adj.* [*rura* and *gigno*, Lat.] Born in the country. *Johnson.*

RUS, a mountain of Yemen, in Arabia; 8 miles south of Sana.

RUSA, a small town of the central part of European Russia; 68 miles west of Moscow. It contains 2400 inhabitants, who carry on some trade in corn, hemp, and leather.

RUSAZUS, in Ancient Geography, a town of Africa, on the coast of Mauritania Cæsariensis, between Rusubirsis and Vabar, according to Ptolemy. Pliny gives to this town the appellation of Colonia Augusta; and in the Itinerary of Antoninus it is named Rusazis Municipium, and placed between Iomnium Municipium and Saldis Colonia.

RUSCEK, or Ruschuk. See Rustschuk.

RUSCIUD, a small river of Persia, which falls into the Persian gulf; 48 miles west of Ormus.

RUSCINO, in Ancient Geography, a town of Gallia Narbonnensis, the capital of the people called Consuaraini. It was in this town that the people of the country assembled, to deliberate on the passage demanded by Hannibal, according to Livy, lib. xxi. cap. 24. It was a Roman colony, according to Mela; and Pliny says, that it enjoyed the jus Latinum. It was ruined by the Normans, and its name is preserved in Roussillon. In the Itinerary of Antonine, this town was marked on the route from Narbonne to Castulo, between Combusta and Ad Centuriones.—Also, a river of Gallia Narbonnensis, according to Strabo, who says that it had its source in the Pyrenées, and watered a town of the same name. Ptolemy calls it Ruscio, and places its mouth between the Illiberis and Atages.

RUSCINONA, a port of Africa, whither, according to Dr. Shaw, the Carthaginian fleet retired, the night before it engaged with Scipio near Utica. This name is said to be of Phœnician origin; the first part of it, *Rus* or *Ras*, denoting cape; and the latter, *annona* expressing the great quantity of corn and provisions that were shipped off from this place. These circumstances lead Shaw to conclude, that Ruscinona is the present "Porto Farina," on the coast of Tunis, called by the inhabitants, from an ancient saltwork near it, "Gar-el-Mailah," i. e. the cave of salt. This port, especially the Cothon, or inward part of it, is safe in all accidents of weather, and opens into a large navigable pond, formed by the Majerda or ancient *Bagrada*, which at present discharges itself through it, in its way to the sea. The town belonging to this port was formerly very considerable.

RUSCOMBE, a village of England, in Berkshire; 5½ miles east-north-east of Reading.

RUSCUNIÆ COLONIA, *Temendfuse*, a promontory and colony of the eastern part of Mauritania Cæsariensis, according to Ptolemy, Pliny, Mela, and the Itinerary of Antonine. Antonine places it 15 miles east of Icosium. The ruins are still visible.

RUSCURIUM, Rusuccoræ of Ptolemy, and the *Rusuccuro* of the Peutingerian Tables, now *Dellys*, formerly an ancient city, but at present a small town, of Africa, on the coast of Algiers, situated partly at the foot and partly upon the declivity of a high mountain. In a wall, just over the harbour, is a small niche, with an image, in the attitude of a Madonna; but the features and drapery, says Dr. Shaw, are defaced.

RUSCUS [derivation unknown], in Botany, a genus of the class dioecia, order syngenesia, natural order of sarmentaceæ, asparagi *(Juss.)* — Generic Character:—I. Male. Calyx: perianth, six-leaved, form erect-spreading; leaflets ovate, convex, with the lateral margin reflexed. Corolla: petals none; unless the alternate calyx-leaves be called so: nectary central, ovate, the size of the calyx, inflated, erect, coloured, perforated at the top. Stamina: filaments none; anthers three, spreading, placed on the top of the nectary itself, united at the base.—II. Female. Calyx: perianth, as in the male. Corolla: petals as in the male; nectary as in the male. Pistil: germ oblong-ovate, concealed within the nectary; style cylindric, the length of the nectary; stigma obtuse, prominent beyond the mouth of the nectary. Pericarp: berry, globular, three-celled. Seeds two, globular.—There is a species with hermaphrodite flowers, in which the calyx is globular, with the mouth six-cleft only. This genus has a great affinity to asparagus and medeola *(Juss.)—Essential Character.* Calyx six-leaved. Corolla none. Nectary central, ovate, perforated at the top. Female style, one. Berry three-celled. Seeds two.

1. Ruscus aculeatus, or prickly butcher's broom.—Leaves ovate, mucronate-pungent, above floriferous, naked; branches stiff; roots thick, white, twining about each other, putting out frequent fibres like those of asparagus, oblique, striking deep in the ground; stem suffruticose, tough, stiff, green, round, striated, from eighteen inches to three feet in height, sending out from the sides many short branches, having many leaves on them, nearly of the same shape and size with those of the myrtle, but very stiff, and ending in sharp prickly points. The female flowers are succeeded by berries, which are red, bigger than those of asparagus and almost as large as some cherries, of a sweetish taste; having two large orange-coloured seeds in each, gibbous on one side, flat on the other, and extremely hard. The flowers come out in March and April, and the seeds ripen in winter—Native of Europe, but not in the northern parts.

2. Ruscus hypophyllum, or broad-leaved butcher's broom. —The roots of this have large knotty heads, with long thick fibres like those of the preceding sort; from which arise many tough limber stalks near two feet high; leaves stiff, ovate-oblong, ending in points, more than two inches long and almost one broad, placed alternately. Flowers produced on the under surface of the leaves, near the middle, sitting close to the mid-rib; they are small and herbaceous. The female flowers are succeeded by small red berries about the size of those of Juniper. Native of Italy and Africa. It flowers in May and June.

3. Ruscus hypoglossum, or double-leaved butcher's broom. —Leaves floriferous underneath, beneath the leaflet; root like the preceding; stems about ten inches high. On the middle of the upper surface comes forth a small leaf of the same shape; and at the same point, from the bosom of the small leaves come out the flowers, which are of a pale yellow colour. The berries are almost as large as those of the first sort; they are red, and ripen in winter.—Native of Italy, Idria, Hungary, and Africa about Algiers.

4. Ruscus androgynus, or climbing butcher's broom.—This sends out pliant stalks which rise seven or eight feet high, and have several short branches proceeding from their sides. Leaves stiff, about two inches long, and one inch broad towards their base, where they are rounded to the foot-stalk, but they end in acute points; many longitudinal veins run from the foot-stalk to the point. The flowers are produced in clusters on the edges of the leaves, and are white. Berries yellowish red, not so large as those of the first sort.—Native of the Canary Islands. It flowers most part of the summer.

5. Ruscus racemosus, or Alexandrian laurel. — Raceme terminating, hermaphrodite. Roots like those of the other species. Stalks slender and pliable; they rise about four feet high, and send out many side-branches. Leaves oblong, acute-pointed, about two inches long, and one-third of an inch broad, rounded at the base, smooth, of a lucid green, placed alternately, and sessile. Flowers in long bunches at the ends of the branches, of an herbaceous yellow colour. Berries like those of the first sort, but smaller; ripening in winter.—Native of Portugal.

Propagation and Culture.—1, 2, 3, 5. All these sorts being very hardy, and thriving in almost any soil or situation, are very proper for planting round the verges of close woods, or under large trees: being ever-green, they make a good appearance in winter, after the deciduous trees have cast their leaves. They are easily increased by parting their roots in autumn. They may also be propagated by the seeds, but it is seldom done.

4. This is a green-house plant; but should be placed where it may have free air in mild weather, as it only requires to be screened from frost. This is also propagated by parting the roots, as the former.

RUSE, *s.* [French.] Cunning; artifice; little stratagem; trick; wile; fraud; deceit. "A French word neither elegant nor necessary," says *Johnson*, "but we have no English word that can supply it."—I might here add much concerning the wiles and *ruses*, which these timid creatures use to save themselves. *Ray.*

RUSH, *s.* [ruſc, ruſc, Sax. *reis*, Icel, *raus* Goth. Chaucer, *rish.*] A plant.—A *rush* hath a flower composed of many leaves, which are placed orbicularly, and expand in form of a rose; from the centre of which rises the pointal, which afterwards becomes a fruit or husk, which is generally three-cornered, opening into three parts, and full of roundish seeds: they are planted with great care on the banks of the sea in Holland, and in order to prevent the water from washing away the earth; for the roots of these *rushes* fasten themselves very deep in the ground, and mat themselves near the surface, so as to hold the earth closely together. *Miller.* ---He taught me how to know a man in love; in which cage of *rushes* I am sure you are not a prisoner. *Shakspeare.*

RUSH-CANDLE, *s.* A small blinking taper, made by stripping a rush, except one small stripe of the bark, which holds the pith together, and dipping it in tallow.

Be it moon or sun or what you please;
And if you please to call it a *rush-candle*,
Henceforth it shall be so for me. *Shakspeare.*

RUSH'LIKE, *adj.* Resembling a rush; weak; impotent.

Ne yet did seeke their glorie to advance,
By only tilling with a *rush-like* lancet. *Mir.*

To RUSH, *v. n.* [hreoran, beoran, reoran, Sax. *driusan*, Goth. to fall, or rush, *drus*, a fall.] To move with violence; to go on with tumultuous rapidity.

To RUSH, *v. a.* To push forward with violence.---Consideration, in a most special manner, we owe to our souls; for without it, we shall, as rash unadvised people use to do, *rush* them into infinite perils. *Wh. Duty of Man.*

Him while fresh and fragrant time
Cherisht in his golden prime,
The *rush* of death's unruly wave
Swept him off into his grave. *Crashaw.*

RUSH (The), a sand-bank near the east coast of Ireland, and county of Wexford, about four miles long, and hardly one broad, a little to the south of Glasscarrick point.

RUSH (Benjamin), an eminent physician, and professor of the institutes and practice of medicine in the university of Pennsylvania, was born near Bristol, in the state of Pennsylvania, on the 5th January, 1745. His father cultivated a farm, and carried on the trade of a gun-smith. He died while Benjamin was yet young. His widow, a most excellent woman, upon whom the education of young Rush thus necessarily devolved, placed him, at an early age, under the direction of Dr. Finley, afterwards better known as the president of Princeton college, New Jersey, an able scholar and faithful teacher, by whom he was taught the rudiments of classical knowledge.

From the academy of Dr. Finley he was removed to the college of Princeton, where he finished his classical education, and was admitted to the degree of A. B. in 1760, when he

he had not yet completed his sixteenth year. Soon after leaving college, he placed himself under the care of the late Dr. John Redman, of Philadelphia, a gentleman who had deservedly obtained an extensive share of professional business, and who was justly considered an excellent practitioner. With Dr. Redman young Rush continued some time, zealously engaged in the acquisition of the several branches of medicine. At that day, however, no institution for the purpose of medical instruction was established in Philadelphia, and his thirst for knowledge being rather excited than gratified with what he had learned from his preceptor, he formed the resolution of going abroad in order to avail himself of those advantages which were not within his reach in his native country. The university of Edinburgh, at that time, was at the zenith of its reputation, and justly boasted of its able professors, among whom were the elder Munro, the elder Gregory, Dr. Cullen, and Dr. Black. Thither Rush repaired, and was graduated M. D. in 1768, after having performed the usual collegiate duties with much honour, and published his inaugural dissertation "De Concoctione Ciborum in Ventriculo."

About the period of Dr. Rush's return to his native country, the first attempt was made in Philadelphia for the organization of a medical school. Lectures on anatomy and surgery had indeed been delivered in that city, in 1763 and 1764, to a small class of pupils, by Dr. William Shippen, who, two years before, had returned from Europe, where he had completed his education under the direction of the celebrated Dr. William Hunter; and, in 1765, Dr. John Morgan, also, gave instruction on the institutes of medicine and the practice of physic. Three years after this, the venerable Dr. Kuhn, who had been a pupil of the illustrious Linnæus, and had preceded Dr. Rush in his medical honours at Edinburgh only one year, was made the professor of botany and the materia medica. To this list of teachers, Dr. Rush himself was added as professor of chemistry, immediately upon his arrival from England, in 1769. Such was the first organization of the medical college of Philadelphia.

That Dr. Rush had, in an eminent degree, the qualifications of a teacher, and discharged with exemplary fidelity the important duties belonging to the elevated station to which he was chosen, the popularity attending his lectures, the yearly increase in the number of his hearers, and the unexampled growth of the college with which he was connected, bear ample testimony. Shortly after this period, he was elected a fellow, and also one of the curators of the American Philosophical Society.

While Dr. Rush was thus engaged in the active pursuits of his profession, the dispute of America with Great Britain arose. Considering the claims of the British government unjust, he entered with warmth into the defence of the rights of his countrymen. His talents were already well known, and the fullest confidence was placed in his integrity and patriotism. The crisis demanded his services; and in the year 1776 he was chosen a member of congress for the state of Pennsylvania, and, on the 4th of July, with eight other delegates from that state, he signed the instrument of independence. Upon the 11th day of April, 1777, he was appointed surgeon-general of the military hospital in the middle department. His colleague in the medical school, Dr. Shippen, on the same day was appointed director-general of all the military hospitals for the armies of the United States, and Dr. J. Jones was made physician-general of the hospital in the middle department. The office of surgeon-general was not long held by Dr. Rush, for upon the 1st of July, 1777, he was created physician-general of the hospital, in the middle department, in the room of Dr. Jones.

On the 6th of February ensuing, Dr. Rush resigned the station of physician-general, and Dr. William Brown was appointed in his place.

Doctor Rush, however, still continued to take an active part in the politics of the state to which he belonged. The original government of Pennsylvania is known to have been perfectly unique in its form, and the constant source of incalculable mischief. The House of Representatives, chosen annually by the people, and on which there was no check, was the sole legislative power; and each succeeding assembly often made it their business to undo all that their predecessors had done. This kind of government was justly reprobated by Dr. Rush, and the necessity and wisdom of a reformation in it were too apparent not to be attempted. Dr. Rush, and many other distinguished abettors of the cause, had soon after the satisfaction of seeing a new form of government established in Pennsylvania, by a general convention of the people.

Soon after, he formed the resolution of retiring from political life, and of devoting the remainder of his days, with increased ardour, to his profession. He was still further induced to this resolution, from the consideration of the state of medicine in his native country at that time, which, it is scarcely necessary to remark, was in a very low condition. Happy for medical science and the interests of humanity, that he so early formed such a resolution, and that he was so steady, uniform, and indefatigable in the accomplishment of it!

During the long and brilliant career of Dr. Rush's life, from this time to its termination, he may be considered as exclusively occupied in duties pertaining to his profession, and not unlike another Howard, in "surveying the mansions of sorrow and pain," and in mitigating and removing the distresses of all within his power. His biography, therefore, like that of most other scientific men, consists chiefly in a history of his professional labours. How numerous and important his services, as an author, have been, will be readily seen from a brief detail of his writings, which we shall attempt to give, as nearly as practicable, in chronological order.

The first fruits of his professional labours, as an author, was an account of the effects of the Stramonium, or thorn apple; this appeared in the year 1770, and was published in the Transactions of the American Philosophical Society, vol. i. The same year he addressed a letter on the usefulness of Wort in ill-conditioned ulcers, to his friend Dr. Huck, of London, which was published in the Medical Observations and Inquiries of London, vol. iv. In 1774, he read, before the Philosophical Society, his interesting Inquiry into the Natural History of Medicine among the Indians of North America, which formed the subject of an anniversary oration. He this year again addressed another letter to Dr. Huck, containing some remarks on Bilious fevers, which was printed in the London Medical Observations and Inquiries, vol. v. To this succeeded his Account of the Influence of the Military and Political events of the American Revolution upon the Human Body, and Observations upon the Diseases of the Military Hospitals of the United States, which his situation in the army eminently qualified him to make. In 1785, he offered to the Philosophical Society of Philadelphia an Inquiry into the Cause of the Increase of Bilious and Intermitting Fevers in Pennsylvania, published in their Transactions, vol. ii.; and soon after, in quick succession, appeared Observations on Tetanus, an Inquiry into the Influence of Physical Causes upon the Moral Faculty, Remarks on the Effects of Ardent Spirits upon the Body and Mind, and his Inquiry into the Causes and Cure of the Pulmonary Consumption. About this time, also, appeared his paper entitled Information to Europeans disposed to migrate to the United States, in a letter to a friend in Great Britain; a subject which had already occupied the attention of Dr. Franklin, but which Dr. Rush considered still further deserving notice, on account of the important changes which the United States had lately undergone. To this paper followed his Observations on the Population of Pennsylvania, Observations on Tobacco, and his Essay on the Study of the Latin and Greek Languages, which was first published in the American Museum of Philadelphia. This last mentioned paper, which has been the fertile topic of much animadversion, was, with several other essays of Dr. Rush, and his Eulogiums on Dr. Cullen and the illustrious Rittenhouse, (the former delivered in

in 1790, the latter in 1796,) embodied in an octavo volume, entitled Essays, Literary, Moral, and Philosophical, and published in 1798.

In 1791, the medical colleges of Philadelphia, which, on account of certain legislative proceedings, had existed as two distinct establishments since the year 1788, became united under the name of the University of Pennsylvania; and Dr. Rush was appointed to the chair of the professorship of the institutes of medicine and clinical practice. He now gave to the public his Lectures upon the Cause of Animal Life. The same year he presented to the Philosophical Society his Account of the Sugar Maple Tree of the United States, which was published in their Transactions, vol. iii.; and in 1792, Observations, intended to favour a supposition that the Black Colour of the Negro is derived from Leprosy; published in their Transactions, vol. iv.

The year 1793 is memorable in the medical annals of the United States, on account of the great mortality occasioned by the yellow fever, which prevailed in the city of Philadelphia; and the history of that epidemic, which was published by Dr. Rush in 1794, cannot be too highly valued, both for his minute and accurate description of the disease, and the many important facts he has recorded in relation to it. It was comprised in one volume octavo, and has undergone several editions, and been extensively circulated in the Spanish and in the French languages. About this period, also, he offered to the medical world his Observations on the Symptoms and Cure of Dropsy in general, and on Hydrocephalus Internus; an Account of the Influenza, as it appeared in Philadelphia, in 1789, 1790, and 1791; and Observations on the State of the Body and Mind in Old Age. In 1797 came out his Observations on the Nature and Cure of Gout, and on Hydrophobia; an Inquiry into the Cause and Cure of the Cholera Infantum; Observations on Cynanche Trachealis, &c.

It is proper to state, as connected with the literary labours of Dr. Rush, that in 1788, many of his medical papers were collected together, and that he offered them to the public under the title of Medical Inquiries and Observations, vol. i. These he, from time to time, continued, embracing most of the writings above enumerated, besides observations on the climate of Pennsylvania, and some others, until a fifth volume was completed in 1798. In 1801 he added to his character as a writer, by the publication of six Introductory Lectures to a course of Lectures upon the Institutes and Practice of Medicine, delivered in the University of Pennsylvania. In 1804 a new and corrected edition of his Medical Inquiries, &c. was printed in four volumes, octavo. In 1806, he also published a second edition of his Essays. In 1809, such was the demand for the Medical Inquiries and Observations, that he again revised and enlarged the work throughout, and enriched the medical profession with a third edition. In this edition he continued his several histories of the yellow fever, as it prevailed in Philadelphia from 1793 to 1809. It also contained a Defence of Blood-letting, as a Remedy for certain Diseases; a View of the comparative state of Medicine in in Philadelphia between the years 1760 and 1766, and the year 1809; an Inquiry into the various Sources of the usual forms of Summer and Autumnal Diseases in the United States, and the Means of preventing them; and the recantation of his opinion of the Contagious nature of the Yellow Fever.

He now formed the idea of selecting some of the best practical works for republication. His editions of Sydenham and of Cleghorn were published in 1809, and in 1810 appeared those of Pringle and Hilary. In 1811 appeared a volume of Introductory Lectures, containing those he had formerly published, with ten others, delivered at different years before his class, and also two upon the Pleasures of the Senses and of the Mind. His work upon the Diseases of the Mind, which had long and ardently been looked for, was next added to his writings. It appeared towards the close of 1812, in one volume, octavo. The last effort of his pen was a Letter on Hydrophobia, containing additional reasons in support of the theory he had formerly advanced, as to the seat of the disease being chiefly in the blood-vessels. It was addressed to Dr. Hosack, and written not many days before his fatal illness.

While thus assiduously engaged in enriching medical science with the valuable fruits of his long and extensive experience, and in the active discharge of the practical duties of his profession, he was, on the evening of the 13th of April, seized with symptoms of general febrile irritation, which were soon accompanied with considerable pain in his chest. His constitution was naturally delicate, and he had acquired, from previous illness, a predisposition to an affection of his lungs. He lost a moderate quantity of blood, by which he felt himself considerably relieved. But his strength was not sufficient to overcome the severity of his complaint; the beneficial effects resulting from the most skiful treatment were but of temporary duration. His disease rapidly assumed a typhus character, attended with great stupor, and a disinclination to conversation. In other respects, however, he retained his faculties, and the perfect consciousness of his approaching dissolution. On Monday evening ensuing, after a short illness of five days, and in the 69th year of his age, he ended his truly valuable and exemplary life. His death was the subject of universal lamentation, and he was followed to the grave by thousands, who assembled to bear testimony to his excellence.

In January, 1776, he married Miss Julia Stockton, daughter of the Hon. Judge Stockton, of New Jersey, a lady of an excellent understanding, and whose amiable disposition and cultivated mind eminently qualified her as the companion of Dr. Rush. Thirteen children were the fruits of their marriage, nine of whom still survive. Two of these are chosen to offices of high respectability in the general government of the United States.

It were no easy task to do adequate justice to the great talents, the useful labours, and the exemplary character of Dr. Rush. From the preceding sketch, it is presumed, some idea may be formed of his incessant devotedness to the improvement of that profession of which he was so bright an ornament. His merits, as a practitioner, are too well known to need particular notice; he was fully aware of the great responsibility attached to the medical character, and uniformly evinced the deepest solicitude for the recovery of his patients. His kindness and liberality in imparting aid to those from whom no remuneration was ever to be expected, were unbounded, and arose from the generous impulse of his nature, the cordial concern he felt in whatever affected the interests of his fellow creatures. His mind was of a superior order: to a perception naturally ready and acute, he united a discriminating judgment, a retentive memory, which was greatly improved by habits of close attention, a brilliant imagination, and a highly cultivated taste. He possessed a comprehensive understanding; his knowledge was varied and profound, and he eminently excelled in the several departments of his profession. In his assiduity and perseverance in the acquisition of knowledge he had no superior, and few equals. Accustomed to constant and regular exercise, his intellectual powers acquired additional vigour from employment. Notwithstanding the great fatigue he had to undergo in the discharge of the practical duties of a laborious profession, and the constant interruptions to which he was exposed, when engaged in his pursuits as an author, he never for a moment abated of his ardour in the cause of science. His habits of punctuality to every kind of business in which he was employed, added to a judicious arrangement of time for his multifarious occupations, secured to him sufficient leisure for the publication of those works which have given such celebrity to his name. *Rees's Cyclopædia.*

RUSH, Flowering, or Water Gladiole. See BUTOMUS.—RUSH, Lesser Flowering. See SCHEUCHZERIA.—RUSH, Round, Black-headed, Marsh, or Bog. See SCHOENUS.—RUSH, Sweet. See ACORUS.—RUSH, Grass. See SCIRPUS.

RUSHA, a small island near the west coast of Scotland. Lat. 58. N. long. 2. 20. W.

RUSHALL,

RUSHALL, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4 miles west of Harleston.

RUSHALL, a parish of England, in Staffordshire; 1 mile from Walsall.

RUSHALL, a hamlet of England, in Wiltshire; 3 miles south-west of Pewsey.

RUSHBROOK, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 4 miles south-east of Bury St. Edmund's.

RUSHBURY, a parish of England, in Salop; 8 miles south-west of Much Wenlock.

RUSHCARACH, a village of England, in Cornwall, east of Padstow Haven.

RUSHCROW, a village of England, in Cornwall, north-west of Penryn.

RUSHDEN, a parish of England, in Hertfordshire; 4½ miles north west of Bantingford.

RUSHDEN, a parish of England, in Northamptonshire; 1½ mile south of Higham Ferrers. Population 858.

RU'SHED, *adj.* Abounding with rushes.—Near the *rush'd* marge of Cherwell's flood. *Warton.*

RU'SHER, *s.* One who rushes forward.—They will be teachers of the simple before they have been the scholars of the wise.—Remit such *rushers*, not into the church only but pulpit, to the philosophy school to be shamed. *Whitlock.*—One who strewed rushes on the floor, at the dances of our ancestors.

Fidlers, *rushers*, puppet-masters,
Jugglers, and gipsies. *B. Jonson.*

RUSHFORD, a hamlet of England, in Norfolk, south west of East Harling.

RUSHFORD, a village of England, in Yorkshire, north-west of Bradford.

RU'SHINESS, *s.* State of being full of rushes.

RU'SHING, *s.* Any commotion or violent course.—A *rushing* like the *rushing* of many waters. *Isaiah.*

RUSHLAND, a hamlet of England, in Lancashire; 5 miles from Hawkeshead.

RUSHMERE, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 3 miles north-east of Ipswich.

RUSHMERE, a parish in the above county; 5 miles south-west of Lowestoft.

RUSHOCK, a parish of England, in Worcestershire; 5 miles west-by-north of Broomsgrove.

RUSHTON ALL SAINTS AND ST. PETER'S, two united parishes of England, in Northamptonshire; 3½ miles north-north-west of Kettering. Population 338.

RUSHTON, ST. JAMES, a hamlet of England, in Staffordshire; 7 miles north-west of Leeke.

RUSHTON, SPENCER, another village in the same county, about a mile distant from the foregoing.

RUSHTON, a village of England, in Cheshire; 3 miles from Torperly.—Also a village in the same county, north-east of Congleton.

RUSHTON, a hamlet of England, in Dorsetshire, near Wareham.—Also, a village of the same county, east of Blandford.

RUSHULME, a township of England, in Lancashire, near Manchester. Population 796.

RUSHWORTH (John), an useful collector of historical matter, was born about 1607, in the county of Northumberland. He was for some time a student in the University of Oxford, which he quitted without matriculation, and entering at Lincoln's-inn, remained there till he was called to the bar. His attachments were to the Parliamentarian and Presbyterian parties, and in 1640 he was admitted clerk-assistant to Mr. Elsynge, clerk of the House of Commons. He was much confided in by the House, and during the King's residence at York was employed to convey to him its addresses and messages, on which occasions he sometimes rode from London to that city in 24 hours. For these services he received various presents, and was recommended by the House to a place in the excise. He took the covenant in 1643; and his relation, Sir Thomas Fairfax, when made general of the Parliamentary forces, appointed Rushworth to be his secretary. In this situation he neglected his opportunities of making a fortune, but was zealous in performing his duties, public and private. In 1649 he attended Fairfax to Oxford, where he was created M. A. as a member of Queen's-college. When Fairfax resigned his commission, Rushworth took up his residence in Lincoln's-inn; and he was one of the commissioners nominated by the House of Commons in 1652, to reform abuses in the common law. At this time he was closely engaged in the compilation of his Historical Collections, of which the first part appeared in 1649, dedicated to Richard Cromwell, Protector. He was then a member of parliament, having been elected representative for Berwick-upon-Tweed in 1658. He was chosen for the same place in 1660, and was appointed one of the clerks of the new council of state. After the Restoration, he endeavoured to ingratiate himself with Charles II., by presenting to him several of the books of the privy-council during the former reign, which he had preserved from destruction; for this service he received the King's thanks, but nothing more. Sir Orlando Bridgman, keeper of the great seal, made him his secretary in 1667; and he was again elected representative for Berwick in the parliaments of 1678-9 and 1679, and the subsequent one at Oxford. After the dissolution of the latter, having, from carelessness in his private affairs, become necessitous, he lived in great obscurity in Westminster, still assiduously occupied with his Collections, of which he published the second part in 1680. He was at length arrested for debt, and committed to the King's-Bench prison, in which he was suffered to languish for the last six years of his life. His misfortunes threw him into a habit of drinking, which impaired his memory and understanding previously to his decease, which happened in 1690, at the age of 83.

Rushworth's "Historical Collections of private Passages of State, weighty Matters in Law, remarkable Proceedings in Parliament, &c." commence in the reign of King James, A. D. 1618, and were brought down in his first and second parts, published in his lifetime, to 1640. The third and fourth parts, printed from his MSS., extend to the death of Charles I. in 1648-9. The whole was reprinted uniformly in 7 vols. fol., in 1721. This is a very laborious compilation, and highly useful in historical enquiries relative to that period. That there should be many errors and omissions in pieces taken down from speech in short-hand, or copied from inaccurate papers, is not extraordinary; but the author has undergone the more serious charge of purposely making alterations and omissions with the view of serving his party. It is certain that his first part was submitted to the revision of Cromwell, who, not having time himself to examine it, put it into the hands of Whitelock, where it underwent various alterations. Rushworth himself professes great fidelity and impartiality in his work, and gives himself as an example that a man may be of a *party*, yet not *partial;* and his authority has always stood high.

RU'SHY, *adj.* Abounding with rushes.

By the *rushy*-fringed bank,
Where grows the willow, and the ozier dank. *Milton.*

Made of rushes.—What knight like him could toss the *rushy* lance. *Tickell.*

RUSHY FORD, a hamlet of England, in the county of Durham, where the petty sessions are held; 9 miles south-by-west of Durham, and 253 north-by-west of London.

RUSIBIS PORTUS, a port of Africa, in Mauritania Tingitana, between the mouth of the river Cosa and that of Asama, according to Ptolemy. It is called *Rutubis Portus* by Pliny.

RUSICADA, SGIGATA, a town of Africa, according to Mela and Ptolemy. It was situated towards the middle of the gulf of Numidia, about 30 miles east of Collops Magnus. In the Itinerary of Antonine, this town is placed in Mauritania Cæsariensis, upon the route from Carthage to Leninx, between Chuli Municipium and Paratianæ. Here are some remains of antiquity. Its cisterns serve as a corn magazine.

RUSK, *s.* Hard bread for stores.—The lady sent me divers presents of fruits, sugar, and *rusk*. *Ralegh.*

RUSK, Al, a village of Koordistan; 18 miles south-east of Amidieh.

RUSKINGTON, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 2½ miles north of Sleaford. Population 556.

RU'SMA, *s.* A brown and light substance, with half as much quicklime steeped in water, of which the Turkish women make their psilothron, to take off their hair.

This substance is called by the ancient Greeks, *sory*, and the Arabians *nouret*, and is similar to the drug for taking off the hair, prepared in the Egyptian baths. The proportion is seven parts of lime to three of orpiment. It is necessary for the person who desires to use it, to keep in a very warm place, such as the hot baths of the East, in which a profuse sweat exudes from all parts of the body. The mixture is diluted with water, and lightly rubbed on the parts from which the hair is to be taken off. After a few moments, it will be seen if the hair be loosened; it can then be plucked out without pain, and the skin is afterwards washed with hot water. Care must be taken, however, that this liniment does not remain on too long, because it would burn the skin. It does not prevent the hair from growing again, and at the end of some time, the operation must be repeated.

Mr. Boyle tells us, he made a fine powder of equal parts of rusma and quick-lime, and letting them soak a little time in water, they became a soft paste, which he spread on the part he would free from hair; and after letting this paste lie on about three minutes, he wiped it off with a wet cloth, and found the hair taken away by the roots without any inconvenience to the part.

RUSPÆ, She-ah, a town of Africa, on the gulf of Numidia, according to Ptolemy, situated between Achola and Brachodes Exterma; 6 miles south of Achola. Some ruins still remain.

RUSPER, a parish of England, in Sussex; 5 miles north-north-east of Horsham. Population 450.

RUSPINA, Sahaleel, a town of Africa, on the gulf of Numidia, between Leptis Minor and Adrumettium, according to Ptolemy. It was situated on the declivity of an eminence about a mile from the sea, south-east of Adrumettium. It is known by some ancient remains.

RUSPONO, in Commerce, a gold coin of Tuscany, which is a piece of 3 sequins, passing for 40 lire or 60 paoli. In our money, it is worth about 1*l.* 8*s.* 6*d.*

RUSS, a small town of East Prussia, on the Niemen; 28 miles south-by-east of Memel, with 800 inhabitants.

RUSS, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the west coast of Nassau. Lat. 2. 53. S. long. 99. 48. E.

RUSSBACH, Great, a petty town of Lower Austria, to the north of the Danube, containing, with the surrounding parish, 1900 inhabitants; 20 miles north of Vienna.

RUSSEL (Alexander), a physician and topographical writer, was a native of Edinburgh. After a grammatical education at the high-school, he was placed with a medical practitioner of that place; and from the year 1732 he began to attend the medical lectures of the University. He went to London in 1735, soon after which he visited Turkey; and in 1740 he settled at Aleppo, as physician to the English factory. In that capital of Syria he passed many years, making himself acquainted with the language and customs of the natives, and by his prudent and humane conduct ingratiating himself with all ranks and sects to such a degree, that no European appears to have been more generally respected and confided in. He was an intimate friend of the pashaw, who not only consulted him professionally, but took his advice about matters of police, and was often induced by him to relax the rigour of criminal justice. After his return to England in 1755, he published the result of his observations in the East, in a work entitled "The Natural History of Aleppo," 4to., 1756, which, in point of authority and valuable information, stands high among books of a similar class. It is particularly valuable for its observations on the plague, which destructive pestilence he studied with great attention, both there, and at several lazarettos which he visited on his journey home. A new and much enlarged edition of it has been published since his death, by his brother, who succeeded him as physician to the factory there. *Gen. Biog.*

RUSSELEI, a village of Diarbekir, in Asiatic Turkey; 58 miles south of Mosul.

RUSSELIA [so named by Jacquin, in honour of Alexander Russel, M. D. F. R. S. author of the "Natural History of Aleppo"], in Botany, a genus of the class didynamia, order angiospermia, natural order of personatæ, scrophulariæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth, five-leaved, permanent; leaflets ovate, concave, acuminate, small, erect. Corolla: one-petalled; tube cylindric, compressed a little, erect, very long, internally under the lower lip hairy; border two-lipped; upper-lip roundish, flat, emarginate, spreading, with the tip reflexed: lower-lip trifid; segments oblong, obtuse, flat, spreading very much, a little longer than the upper. Stamina: filaments four, filiform, erect, a little shorter than the tube; two of them longer; anthers ovate. Pistil: germ ovate; style filiform, erect, the length of the shorter stamens; stigma globular. Pericarp: capsule, roundish, pointed by part of the style which is permanent, one-celled, two-valved; the length of the calyx. Seeds numerous, very small.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-leaved, setaceous at the end. Corolla tube very long, hairy at the throat; border two-lipped; lower-lip trifid. Capsule acuminate, one-celled, two-valved, many-seeded.

Russelia sarmentosa.—Stems shrubby, four-cornered, wand-like, smooth, very long and weak, numerous, supported on neighbouring shrubs three or four feet in height, and then bending down again. Leaves ovate, serrate, acute, somewhat hirsute on the upper surface and at the edge, smooth on the under surface, on very short petioles, opposite, an inch long, and placed at two or three inches' distance from each other. Peduncles axillary, opposite, three-flowered or two-flowered, only half the length of the leaves, in the direction of the the stem; the pedicels reflexed after the flowers fall. At the base of each pedicel a lanceolate bracte. Flowers handsome, of a fine red colour, but without scent; almost an inch over.—Found about Havana, in close woods and coppices.

RUSSELL (Lord William), a distinguished patriot and martyr to the cause of liberty, was the third son of William the first Duke of Bedford, by a daughter of the Earl of Somerset. He was born about 1641. Being in the fervour of youth at the time of the Restoration, he joined in the gaities of the court; till his marriage in 1667 with Rachel, second daughter and co-heiress of the Earl of Southampton (then widow of Lord Vaughan), reclaimed him from any irregularities into which he had fallen, and he thenceforth maintained a wholly unblemished character. He represented the county of Bedford in the parliament which was dissolved in January, 1678-9, and continued to be a member in the three subsequent ones of that reign, highly regarded for his patriotism and independence, and considered as one of the heads of the Whig party. His life and death are narrated in the article England, p. 690.

RUSSELL, a county of the United States, in the south-west part of Virginia, bounded north by Kentucky, east-north-east by Tazewell county, south-south-east by Washington county, and west by Lee county. Population 6316, including 386 slaves.

RUSSELL ISLAND, one of the Bahamas, near Harbour island, at the north-west extremity of Eleuthera. It contains one or two families, who have settled there.

RUSSELLED, *adj.* A provincial term for shrivelled.

RUSSELLVILLE, a town of the United States, and capital of Logan county, Kentucky. It contains a court-house, a jail, a bank, an academy, a meeting-house, two printing offices, and had, in 1817, about 170 houses. It is nearly equi-distant from Green and Cumberland rivers, about 85 miles from each, and situated in a very fertile country. A vineyard has lately been planted about two miles from Russellville. Population 532; 200 miles south-west of Lexington, and 85 south of Louisville.

RUSSELSHEIM,

RUSSIA IN EUROPE.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1826.

RUSSELSHEIM, a petty town of the west of Germany, in Hesse-Darmstadt, on the Maine. Population 1100; 6 miles east of Mentz.

RU'SSET, *adj.* [*russus*, Lat.] Reddishly brown. Such is the colour of apples called *russetings*.

The morn, in *russet* mantle clad,
Walks o'er the dew of yon high eastward hill. *Shakspeare.*

Newton seems to use it for grey; but, if the etymology be regarded, improperly.—This white spot was immediately encompassed with a dark grey or *russet*, and that dark grey with the colours of the first iris. *Newton.*—Coarse; homespun: rustic. It is much used in descriptions of the manners and dresses of the country, I suppose, because it was formerly the colour of rustic dress; in some places, the rustics still dye cloth spun at home with bark, which must make them *russet*.

Taffeta phrases, silken terms precise,
Figures pedantical: these summer flies
Have blown me full of maggot ostentation:
Henceforth my wooing mind shall be express'd
In *russet* yeas, and honest kersey noes. *Shakspeare.*

RU'SSET, *s.* Country dress.—The Dorick dialect has a sweetness in its clownishness, like a fair shepherdess in her country *russet*. *Dryden.*

To RU'SSET, *v. a.* To give to any thing a reddishly brown colour.

The blossom blows, the summer ray,
Russets the plain. *Thomson.*

RU'SSET, or RU'SSETING, *s.* A name given to several sorts of pears or apples from their colour.—The *russet* pearmain is a very pleasant fruit, continuing long on the tree, and in the conservatory partakes both of the *russeting* and pearmain in colour and taste; the one side being generally *russet* and the other streaked like a pearmain. *Mortimer*

RU'SSETY, *adj.* Of a russet colour.

RUSSEY, a petty town in the east of France, department of the Doubs, situated on the river Doubs. Population 900 34 miles east-south-east of Besançon.

RUSSGANGENUM. The East Indian name for a brass-like fossil, resembling the marcasites, but containing little sulphur: it is conjectured to be an ore of zinc.

RUSSI, a small town of Italy, in the States of the Church, province of Romagna; 8 miles north-east of Frenza.

R U S S I A.

RUSSIA [so named from the Rossi, an ancient tribe], the largest Empire in the world, is bounded by the Frozen Ocean on the north; by Sweden, the gulf of Bothnia, the Baltic, Prussia, Austria, and the Turkish provinces on the west; by a continuation of the same provinces, the Black Sea, Asiatic Turkey, Persia, the Caspian Sea, from the mouth of the Ural to the mouth of a rivulet which falls into the Irtish, and from thence over land by Zungoria, Mongolia, &c. to the sea of Ochotsk, on the south; and by the Eastern Ocean on the east. The Kurillian and Aleutian islands in the Eastern Ocean, and part of the north-west coast of America, together with the islands to lat. 55° north belong also to the Russian Empire.

History of Russia.

Russia was scarcely known as an independent state before the latter end of the 9th century. We know, indeed, that long before that period, namely, about the 5th century, a horde of those nations that roved at large on the banks of the Dnieper and the Volkhof, established themselves in that part of the region bordering on the Dnieper, where is now situated the government of Kief or Kiow. These people were called Sclavi, or Sclavonians, and had advanced eastward from the shores of the Danube. They appear to have laid the first foundation of the Russian monarchy, and to have built Kief, where they fixed their capital. It is probable that about the same time another tribe of Slavi had settled still farther to the east, in the province of Novgorod, where they built the city still known by that name, as their metropolis. Of the government and transactions of these people we have no regular accounts till the conclusion of the 9th century. It appears, however, from a work of the emperor Constantine Porphyrogenitus, on the administration of the empire, that in his time the city of Novgorod was a place of great importance, and carried on an extensive commerce, both with Constantinople and the countries bordering on the Baltic. The government of the Novgorodians appears to have been republican, but the people were probably rather merchants than warriors. We find them involved in frequent disputes with the neighbouring nations, from whose ravages they suffered considerable losses.

If we may credit the Russian historians, the Slavi that had settled about Kief and Novgorod, must have extended the boundaries of their territory northwards, as far as the shores of the Baltic. We find that they were much harassed by a piratical nation who dwelt on the coasts of that sea, and were denominated Varages or Varagians, and who made frequent descents on the Russian coasts, and ravaged the country. It is not improbable that these Varagians formed a part of the Scandinavian nations, who, under the names of Danes and Saxons, successively made themselves masters of England. They were occasionally employed by the weaker neighbouring states as mercenary auxiliaries, and in this capacity they were once called to the assistance of the Novgorodians. As is usual, where a weak people requires the assistance of a warlike and powerful nation, the auxiliaries, after having overcome the enemies whom they were invited to combat, began to think of availing themselves of the advantages which their bravery had given them over their employers. From allies and servants they soon became the masters of the Slavi; and finding the country about Novgorod superior to that which they had left, they began to think of taking up their residence in their new quarters.

Their leader Ruric built a town near the Volkhof, and surrounded it with a rampart of earth. This town is now called Old Ladoga. Here Ruric established the seat of his government. This event appears to have taken place about the year 860; and from this period we may date the commencement of the Russian monarchy. Ruric was assisted by two other chiefs of the Varages, Sinaus and Truvor, who are supposed to have been his brothers, and with whom he divided the territory of which he had possessed himself. Of these, Sinaus took up his residence at Bielo Osero, or, the white lake, while Truvor kept his court at Isborsk, or according to some, at Twertzog, in the district of Pleskow. The three chiefs having thus divided among them the territories of the Novgorodians, continued to reign in amity with each other for several years.

The Sclavi, however, did not submit to the dominion of their new masters, without an effort to regain their independence. At first, astonishment at the unexpected proceedings of their auxiliaries overcame the spirit of liberty which had hitherto actuated their minds; but they soon awakened from their lethargy, and determined to repel by force those whom they now considered as the invaders of their country. They flew to arms, and chose for their leader, Vadim, who by his feats in war had acquired the honourable appellation of the valiant. A fierce engagement took place between the Novgorodians under Vadim, and the Varages headed by Ruric and his brothers. The contest ended in favour of the latter, and the brave Vadim, with several other chiefs of the Novgorodians, lost their lives in the attempt to free their country from its

its ambitious guests. This new success emboldened Ruric to extend his territories, and to change the seat of government from the insignificant town of Ladoga, to the spacious and opulent city of Novgorod. Soon after, by the death of his partners in the government, Ruric became sole monarch of the conquered territory, where he reigned without farther molestation for 17 years, and became the primogenitor of a long line of descendants, who held the sovereignty without interruption for several centuries. Ruric appears to have been zealous for the strict administration of justice in his dominions, and issued his command to all the boyars who held territories under him, to see it exercised in an exact and uniform manner. We are not informed of the nature of his institutions; nor is it known whether the laws then existing in his territories were merely oral, or were committed to writing.

Ruric assumed the title of grand prince.

As Ruric left only one son, Igor, who was still a minor at his father's death, Oleg, a kinsman of the deceased monarch, took on him the administration of affairs. Either from the natural restlessness of the Varages, or from the spirit of rebellion manifested by the Novgorodians, which indicated the necessity of employing his people in some active enterprise, the new monarch did not long remain idle. He appears very early to have projected the extension of his territories, by annexing to them the settlement which the Sclavi had formed about Kief, against which he soon undertook a formidable expedition. He collected a numerous army, composed of Slavi, Varages, and Tschudes, carried with him the young prince Igor, and opened the campaign with the capture of Lubitch, and of Smolensk, the capital of the Krivitsches.

Having reduced several other towns of less consequence, he advanced towards Kief, the possession of which formed the chief object of his ambition, as through the Kievian territory he would have an easy passage to the Grecian empire, by inroads into which he could gratify the predatory disposition of his followers. But having advanced near the walls of Kief, he did not think it advisable to hazard an open attack, and thus leave to the precarious decision of a battle the ultimate success of his favourite project. He therefore had recourse to artifice, and leaving behind him the greater part of his troops, he concealed the remainder in the barks that had brought them down the Dnieper from Smolensk. Oleg himself, disguising his name and quality, passed for a merchant sent by Oleg and his ward Igor on business of importance to Constantinople; and he dispatched officers to Oskhold and Dir, the two chieftains of the Kievians, requesting permission to pass through their territory into Greece, and inviting them to visit him as friends and fellow-citizens, pretending that indisposition prevented him from paying his respects to them in person. The princes, free from mistrust, and relying on these appearances of friendship, accepted Oleg's invitation, and scarcely thought it necessary to take with them their ordinary attendants. They were soon undeceived; for when they arrived at the regent's encampment, they were quickly surrounded by the Varagian soldiers, who sprung from their place of concealment in the barks. Oleg taking Igor in his arms, and casting on the sovereigns of Kief a fierce and threatening look, exclaimed, "You are neither princes, nor of the race of princes; behold the son of Ruric." These words, which formed the signal that had been agreed on between Oleg and his soldiers, were no sooner uttered, than the latter rushed on the two princes, and laid them prostrate at the feet of their commander.

The inhabitants of Kief, thrown into consternation by this bold and treacherous act, made no resistance, but opened the gates of their city to the invader; and thus the two Sclavonian states were united under one head.

Having thus made himself master of the key to the eastern empire, Oleg prepared to carry into effect his ambitious designs against Constantinople. Leaving Igor at Kief, he himself embarked on the Dnieper with 80,000 warriors, on board of no fewer than 2000 vessels. Their passage down the river met with no obstruction, till they came to that part where its course is embarrassed for nearly 15 leagues by seven rocks, and here began a series of perils, labours and fatigues, which none but barbarians could have overcome. They were obliged to unload their barks, and convey them over the rocks; and in particular at the fourth rock, they carried their baggage for above 6000 paces, exposed to the perpetual risk of attack from the neighbouring nations, with whom they were at war, while thus encumbered. Having at length passed all the rocks, and reached the mouth of the Dnieper, Oleg drew together his scattered vessels at a small island that lies between the points of Otchakof and Kinburn, where he caused them to be refitted, and waited for a favourable wind to carry him across the Black Sea, to the mouth of the Dniester. Here the vessels were again refitted, and hence the expedition coasting along the shores of the Euxine, soon arrived at the straits of Constantinople.

The inhabitants of the imperial city, on discovering the approach of the barbarians, had drawn a massy chain across the harbour, thus hoping to prevent their landing. In this hope, however, they were deceived. Historians tell us the marvellous tale that the invaders drew ashore their barks, fitted wheels to their flat bottoms, and converted them into carriages, which, by the help of sails, they forced along the roads that led to the city, and thus arrived under the walls of Constantinople. In their route they ravaged the whole country, and pillaged and demolished the houses, loaded the inhabitants with irons, and committed other enormities which generally attend the incursions of a barbarous enemy. The earth that had been fertilized by the sweat of the husbandman, was now drenched with his blood, and the sea received, as in one vast grave, both the carcases of the dead, and the bodies of the living. The weak Leo, who then swayed the sceptre of the Grecian empire, instead of making a manly resistance, is said to have attempted carrying off his enemy by poison; but this not succeeding, he was obliged to purchase from the conqueror an ignominious peace. Thus, even at that early period, the sovereign of Russia triumphed over the emperor of Constantinople, and Oleg acquired the full completion of his wishes, by the rich booty which he carried off. He made his entrance into Kief on his return, laden with the wealth acquired by his victory; and the people, dazzled with such splendid objects, imagined their prince to be endowed with supernatural powers, and looked up to him with a reverence approaching to adoration.

Soon after his return to his own dominions, the Russian monarch dispatched deputies to Constantinople, with the articles of a treaty which he required the Greek emperor to sign. This treaty, which is preserved in the Chronicles of Nestor, is extremely curious; and we learn from it many important particulars respecting the internal policy of the Russians at the beginning of the tenth century. Several articles of this treaty shew, that the Russian laws laid great stress on oaths; that they pronounced the sentence of death against the murderer, instead of inflicting on him only a pecuniary fine, and thus allowing the rich to commit assassination with impunity; that wives were allowed a part of the estates of their husbands; that the punishment of offences did not extend to the entire confiscation of goods, and hence the widow and orphan did not suffer for a crime of which they were innocent; that robbery, which attacks only property, was punished by the privation of property, so that the Russian laws maintained a just proportion between the crime and the penalty; that the citizens, secure in their possessions, were under no apprehension that the sovereign would seize on their heritage, and might even dispose of their effects in favour of friends.

Oleg maintained the sovereign power thirty-three years, nor does it appear that Igor, even after he attained the age of maturity, had any share in the government, till the death of his guardian, in 913, left him in full possession of the throne.

Igor had reached his 40th year before he entered on the government. He soon discovered marks of the same warlike spirit which had actuated his predecessor. Among the nations

nations that had been subjugated by Oleg, several, on the accession of a new sovereign, attempted to regain their independence; in particular the Drevlians, who dwelt on the banks of the Uscha, in the present district of Vrutsch, were the first to rise in revolt. They were, however, soon quelled, and punished by the imposition of an increased tribute. The Uglitches, who inhabited the southern bank of the Dnieper, maintained a longer contest for their liberty. One of their principal towns sustained a siege of three years, and at last submitted on condition of the trifling tribute of a marten's skin blackened by fire; as these furs were valued in proportion to the darkness of their colour.

Igor soon had to contend with more formidable enemies. The Petchenegans, a nation hitherto unknown, quitted their settlements on the Yaik and the Volga, and made incursions into the Russian territory. These people appear to have been at least as powerful and warlike as the Varages; and Igor finding himself unable to cope with them in arms, concluded a treaty of alliance. About five years after, disputes arose between the new allies, and both had recourse to arms. It appears that the Russians were finally victorious, and the Petchenegans were, for some time, disabled from giving Igor any farther molestation.

The Russian monarch, in imitation of his guardian, soon turned his attention towards the Grecian empire, where depredations might apparently be made with impunity. He equipped an immense armament, consisting, as we are assured by the Russian annals, of 10,000 barks, each carrying 40 men, thus forming an army of 400,000 warriors. With this immense force he set sail for Constantinople, without any previous declaration of war, and without any ostensible motive for thus infringing the treaty that had been concluded some years before between Oleg and Leo. In his route he overran and ravaged the provinces of Paphlagonia, Pontus, and Bithynia, plundering the towns, and butchering the inhabitants. For some time the barbarians met with no opposition, as the imperial troops were engaged in distant provinces; but the government of the empire was now in very different hands from those which held it during the former invasion. The Grecian forces were well appointed, and commanded by two generals of approved ability and courage. These were Theophanes and Phocas, of whom the former commanded the fleet, and the latter the army. The Russians had soon cause to repent their temerity. Theophanes attacked them on board their ships, within sight of the Pharos, and throwing among them the unquenchable Grecian fire, with the effects of which they were wholly unacquainted, threw them into such confusion, that many plunged into the sea to avoid the fires that threatened and pursued them. Their vessels were dispersed, shattered or consumed by flames, and great numbers of their crews perished. The remainder reached the shores of Bithynia but before they could recover from their consternation, they were met by Phocas, who fell upon them with his troops, and made prodigious slaughter. So great were the losses sustained by Igor in this unfortunate expedition, that he carried back with him scarcely a third of his army. This second naval expedition of the Russians against Constantinople took place in 941.

Though discouraged by the ill success which had attended his first invasion of the Grecian empire, Igor was too much stimulated by the desire of plunder, not to risk a second attempt. Three years after he collected new forces, took into pay many of the Petchenegans, and again set out for Greece; but before he had advanced beyond the Taurican Chersonesus, the emperor Romanus, informed of his approach, and not choosing to hazard the result of an engagement, sent deputies to the Russian leader, offering to pay him the same tribute which had been given to his predecessor. With this offer Igor complied, and once more retired with his army.

Igor was now far advanced in years; but he insatiable rapacity of his officers, ever craving fresh spoils from vanquished nations, impelled him to turn his arms against the Drevlians, for the purpose of obtaining from them an increase of their yearly tribute. In this unjust attack he was at first successful, and returned loaded with the contributions which he had levied from that people; but having dismissed great part of his troops with the spoils of the vanquished, and marching with the remainder too far into the country, he fell into an ambuscade, which the Drevlians, now grown desperate, had formed on his approach in the neighbourhood of Korosten. The Russians were soon overpowered, and Igor, being made prisoner, was put to death.

Before the death of Oleg, Igor had married a princess of a bold and daring spirit, named Olga, by whom he had one son, Sviatoslaf; but as he was very young at the death of his father, the queen-mother Olga assumed the reins of government. Her first care was to take signal vengeance on the unhappy Drevlians, for having bravely defended themselves against the encroachments of tyranny and oppression. These people, satisfied with the death of their oppressor, appeared desirous of renewing their amicable intercourse with the Russians; and their chief, Male, is even said to have made an offer of his hand to Igor's widow. Olga, with that deep cunning and concealed malice that so often mark the character of the despotic leader of a barbarous people, pretended to listen to their overtures, received the deputies of Male, but immediately ordered them to be privately put to death. In the mean time she invited a larger deputation from the Drevlian chief, which she treated in the same inhuman manner, taking care that no tidings of either murder should be carried to the Drevlians. She then set out as if on an amicable visit, to conclude the new alliance, and having proclaimed a solemn entertainment, to which she invited some hundreds of the principal inhabitants of the Drevlian towns, she caused them to be treacherously assassinated. This was but the first step to the more dreadful vengeance which she had resolved to inflict on this deluded people. She laid waste the whole country of the Drevlians, and in particular the town of Korosten, near which Igor had lost his life. For a long time she could not master the place, as the inhabitants, dreading the horrible fate that awaited them, from the revengeful spirit of Olga, defended themselves with the utmost valour and success. Historians are not ashamed to assert that the town was eventually subjugated by the following expedient. Being assured of clemency, on condition of sending to Olga all the pigeons of the town, they submitted; but Olga causing lighted matches to be fastened to the tails of the pigeons, set them at liberty. The birds flew to their usual places of residence in the town, which were speedily in a conflagration. The wretched inhabitants endeavouring to escape the flames, fell into the hands of the Russian soldiers, planted round the town for that purpose, by whom they were put to the sword.

This was the only warlike transaction, if it deserves that name, which took place during the regency of Olga. Though not uncommon in the annals of a barbarous people, it would have been sufficient to hand down her name with detestation to posterity, had she not, in the opinion of her panegyrists, atoned for the enormity, by attempting to introduce into her dominions the Christian religion.

Hitherto the Slavi, and the Scandinavian nations who had taken possession of their territories, were Pagans, and their religious ceremonies, like those of all the surrounding nations, were marked by an absurd and cruel superstition, which, under pretence of worshiping the Supreme Being, insulted his attributes, and increased instead of lessened the miseries of human nature. Their deities seem to have been borrowed, partly from the Greeks and Romans, and partly from the Scythians; but were characterized by peculiar names, and represented by idols of complex workmanship and grotesque appearance. Thus the god Perune, or Perkune, who was the chief among the Slavonian deities, analogous to the Zeus of the Grecian, and the Jupiter of the Roman mythology, was personated by an idol whose head was of silver, his ears and mustachios of massy gold, his legs of iron, and his trunk of hard incorruptible wood. It was decorated with rubies and carbuncles, and held in its hand a stone carved, to represent the symbol of lightning. The sacred

sacred fire burnt continually before it; and if the priests suffered this to be extinguished, they were doomed to perish in the flames, as enemies of the god. Sacrifices of their flocks to this supreme deity were regarded as trifling; his altar smoaked with the blood of captives, and even the children of his worshippers were sometimes immolated to appease his wrath, or propitiate his favour. Superstition has, in all ages, tinged the hands of its pontiffs with blood, and has every where represented the Deity as a cruel and malignant being, delighting in the spectacle of human suffering.

It is uncertain at what time the light of Christianity began to beam on the nations that occupied the banks of the Dnieper, nor are we acquainted with the circumstances that led to the conversion of the queen regent. We find, however, that about the middle of the 10th century, she undertook a journey to Constantinople for the express purpose of being initiated into the religion of Jesus. Constantine Porphyrogenitus, who then sat on the imperial throne, received the royal convert with the greatest honour and respect; himself conducted her to the baptismal font, and in the character of her sponsor, gave her the name of Helen. He dismissed her loaded with rich presents, consisting chiefly of those fine stuffs which were then fabricated only in the east, and several costly vases. In return for the honour she had received at Constantinople, Olga promised to send the emperor a quantity of furs and wax, and to furnish him with troops; but as she delayed the performance of her promise, Constantine dispatched an embassy to remind her of her engagements. We are told that she treated the ambassadors with disrespectful levity, and dismissed them with frigid compliments; so little change had baptism effected on the insidious disposition of the Russian princess! It is no wonder, therefore, if her example had little influence on her son, or the nation at large. The Russians do not seem to have been very ardent in their religious observations, or peculiarly attached to the opinions of their forefathers; but the nature of Christianity and the character of its disciples, were not in their eyes sufficiently striking or alluring to produce any change in their religious system. Olga endeavoured to persuade her son Sviatoslaf to embrace her new religion; but either from his contempt for the unwarlike character of the Greek Christians, or through fear of the ridicule to which his conversion might subject him from his young companions, he disregarded her solicitations. He did not, however, prevent the people over whom he seems by this time to have assumed the chief dominion, from receiving baptism, and a few proselytes were made. Though the character of Olga, even after her conversion to Christianity, was by no means such as to intitle her to the rank which she afterwards attained among the Russian saints, it appears that she had given her son many wise and prudent instructions respecting the government of his future empire. She travelled with him round the country; superintended the erection of bridges and the making of roads, for the benefit of trade and commerce; built several towns and villages, and founded such laudable institutions, as sufficiently evince her talents for governing a nation. She died about the year 969, at a very advanced age.

It is probable that Olga retired from the administration of affairs soon after her converson to Christianity; for we find Sviatoslaf in full possession of the government long before his mother's death. This prince has been considered one of the Russian heroes; and if a thirst for blood, a contempt of danger, and disregard of the luxuries and conveniences of life, be admitted as the characteristics of a hero, he deserves the appellation. His private life was such as to render him the favourite of his army. Regarding the narrow enclosure of a palace as little better than a splendid prison, he took up his habitation in a camp. Here, wrapt in a bear-skin, Sviatoslaf usually slept on the ground, his head reclining on a saddle; his diet was coarse and frugal, and, like the heroes of Homer, his meat (it was often horse-flesh) was broiled or roasted on the coals. The exercise of war gave stability and discipline to his army; and it may be presumed, that no soldier was permitted to transcend the luxury of his chief. By an embassy from Nicephorus, the Greek emperor, he was moved to undertake the conquest of Bulgaria, and a gift of fifteen hundred pounds of gold was laid at his feet to defray the expense, or reward the toils of the expedition. An army of sixty thousand men was assembled and embarked; they sailed from the Borysthenes to the Danube; their landing was effected on the Mæsian shore; and, after a sharp encounter, the swords of the Russians prevailed against the arrows of the Bulgarian horse. The vanquished king sunk into the grave: his children were made captive; and his dominions, as far as mount Hæmus, were subdued or ravaged by the northern invaders. But instead of relinquishing his prey, and performing his engagements, the Verangian prince was more disposed to advance than to retire; and had his ambition been crowned with success, the seat of empire in that early period might have been transferred to a more temperate and fruitful climate. Sviatoslaf enjoyed and acknowledged the advantages of his new position, in which he could unite, by exchange or rapine, the various productions of the earth. By an easy navigation he might draw from Russia the native commodities of furs, wax, and hydromel: Hungary supplied him with a breed of horses and the spoils of the West; and Greece abounded with gold, silver, and the foreign luxuries, which his poverty had affected to disdain. The bands of Patzinacites, Chozars, and Turks, repaired to the standard of victory; and the ambassador of Nicephorus betrayed his trust, assumed the purple, and promised to share with his new allies the treasures of the Eastern world. From the banks of the Danube the Russian prince pursued his march as far as Adrianople; a formal summons to evacuate the Roman province was dismissed with contempt; and Sviatoslaf fiercely replied, that Constantinople might soon expect the presence of an enemy and a master.

Nicephorus could no longer expel the mischief which he had introduced; but his throne and wife were inherited by John Zimisces, who, in a diminutive body, possessed the spirit and abilities of an hero. The first victory of his lieutenants deprived the Russians of their foreign allies, twenty thousand of whom were either destroyed by the sword, provoked to revolt, or tempted to desert. Thrace was delivered, but seventy thousand barbarians were still in arms; and the legions that had been recalled from the new conquests of Syria, prepared, with the return of the spring, to march under the banners of a warlike prince, who declared himself the friend and avenger of the injured Bulgaria. The passes of mount Hæmus had been left unguarded; they were instantly occupied; the Roman vanguard was formed of the *immortals* (a proud imitation of the Persian style); the emperor led the main body of ten thousand five hundred foot; and the rest of his forces followed in slow and cautious array with the baggage and military engines. The first exploit of Zimisces was the reduction of Marcianopolis, or Peristhlaba, in two days: the trumpets sounded; the walls were scaled; eight thousand five hundred Russians were put to the sword; and the sons of the Bulgarian king were rescued from an ignominious prison, and invested with a nominal diadem. After these repeated losses, Sviatoslaf retired to the strong post of Dristra, on the banks of the Danube, and was pursued by an enemy who alternately employed the arms of celerity and delay. The Byzantine galleys ascended the river; the legions completed a line of circumvallation; and the Russian prince was encompassed, assaulted, and famished, in the fortifications of the camp and city. Many deeds of valour were performed; several desperate sallies were attempted; nor was it till after a siege of sixty-five days that Sviatoslaf yielded to his adverse fortune. The liberal terms which he obtained announce the prudence of the victor, who respected the valour, and apprehended the despair, of an unconquered mind. The great duke of Russia bound himself by solemn imprecations to relinquish all hostile designs; a safe passage was opened for his return; the liberty of trade and navigation was restored: a measure of corn was distributed to each of his soldiers; and the allowance of twenty-

two

two thousand measures attest the loss and the remnant of the barbarians. After a painful voyage, they again reached the mouth of the Borysthenes; but their provisions were exhausted, the season was unfavourable; they passed the winter on the ice; and, before they could prosecute their march, Sviatoslaf was surprised and oppressed by the neighbouring tribes, with whom the Greeks entertained a perpetual and useful correspondence. After remaining on the defensive during winter, exposed to all the horrors of famine and disease, he on the return of spring attempted to force his way through the ranks of the enemy; but his troops were defeated, and himself killed in the battle.

Yaropolk, the sovereign of Kief, may be considered as the successor of Sviatoslaf on the Russian throne; but his reign was short and turbulent. A war took place between him and his brother Oleg, on account of a base assassination committed by the latter on the son of his father's friend and privy counsellor Suenald. Oleg was defeated and slain, and the other brother, Vladimir, dreading the increased power and ambitious disposition of Yaropolk, abandoned his dominions, which were quickly seized on by the Kievian prince. Vladimir had retired among the Varagians, from whom he soon procured such succours as enabled him to make effectual head against the usurper. While his natural courage was thus increased, his enmity against Yaropolk received an additional spur from an affront put on him by a lady whom he had sought in marriage, but who, despising the meanness of his birth, as being the son of a slave, had rejected his proposals, and offered her hand to Yaropolk. The vindictive Vladimir, on being informed of this insult, attacked the possessions of the lady's father, put both him and his two sons to the sword, and obliged the princess to accept his hand, yet reeking with the blood of her father. He now advanced towards Kief, where Yaropolk was by no means prepared to oppose him. The Kievian prince had indeed been lulled into security by the treacherous reports of one of his wayvodes, who was in the interest of Vladimir, and who not only prevented Yaropolk from taking effectual measures for his safety, but found means to raise suspicions in his breast against the inhabitants of his capital, which he thus induced him to abandon. The Kievians, left without a leader, opened their gates to Vladimir; and the wretched Yaropolk, still misled by the treachery of his adviser, determined to throw himself on the mercy of his brother. It is probable that this would have availed him little, as Vladimir seems to have determined on his death; but before he could reach the arms of his revengeful brother, Yaropolk was assassinated by some of his Varagian followers.

By this murder, which had probably been planned by Vladimir, the conqueror acquired the undivided possession of all his father's territories, and maintained the sovereignty during a long reign, respected at home and feared abroad. Indeed, had not the commencement of his reign been stained with the blood of his father-in-law and his brother, we might place him among the most distinguished monarchs of the age in which he lived, as he not only extended and enriched his empire, but was the means of establishing in his dominions, on a firm and lasting basis, the Christian religion, which, though introduced by Olga, appears hitherto to have made but a very trifling progress.

The commencement of Vladimir's reign formed but a continuation of those enormities which had conducted him to the throne. He began with removing Blude, the treacherous wayvode, by whom his brother had been betrayed into his power, and to whom he had promised the highest honours and dignities. Accordingly, for three days he suffered Blude to live in all the splendour of a prince. At the end of that period he thus addressed him: "I have fulfilled my promise; I have treated thee as my friend; the honours thou hast received exceed thy most sanguine wishes. To-day, as the judge of crimes, and the executor of justice, I condemn the traitor, and punish the assassin of his prince." Having uttered there words, he caused Blude to be put to death.

He displayed still more the perfidiousness of his character in his behaviour towards the Varagians, who had assisted in reinstating him on the throne of his ancestors; for on their requesting permission to go and seek their fortune in Greece, he granted their request, but privately advertised the emperor of their approach, and caused them to be arrested and secured.

Vladimir engaged in numerous wars, and subjected several of the neighbouring states to his dominion. He seized on part of the Polish territories, and compelled the Bulgarians who dwelt in the districts that now form the government of Kazan, to do him homage. He subdued the Petchenegans and Khazares, who lay in the immediate neighbourhood of the Kievian state; he reduced to his authority Halitsch and Vladimir, countries which are now called Gallicia and Lubomiria; he conquered Lithuania as far as Memel, and took possession of a great part of the modern Livonia.

His conduct after these successes by no means prognosticated his future zeal for the Christian religion. None of the Russian monarchs appear to have been more devout in the adoration of their heathen deities than Vladimir. It was usual for him to return thanks to the gods for the success which they had granted to his arms; and to shew his gratitude by offering on their altars a part of the prisoners he had taken in war. On one occasion his piety extended so far, that he resolved on selecting one of his own subjects as the object of his sacrifice, thinking that he should thus more worthily testify his gratitude for the signal favours he had received from heaven. His choice fell on a young Varagian, the son of a Christian, and who had been brought up in the new faith. The unhappy father refused the demanded victim; the people, enraged at deeming their prince and their religion insulted by the refusal, assailed the house of the Christian, and having burst open the doors, butchered both the father and the son, folded in mutual embraces.

Yet this furious Pagan, and bloody warrior, afterwards became a most zealous Christian, and a shining example to his subjects of charity and benevolence. The circumstances that led to these important changes are, as well as the martial achievements of this favourite prince, related with great minuteness by the Russian annalists, and give this part of their chronicles the air rather of a historical romance, than a narrative of facts. We are told that the fame of Vladimir's military exploits had rendered him so formidable to the neighbouring nations, that each courted his alliance, and strove to render this more lasting by engaging him in the ties of the same religion with themselves. In particular the Grecian emperors sent to him a philosopher, whose exhortations, though they did not at first induce Vladimir to embrace the Greek ritual, at least succeeded in giving him a favourable opinion of it; so that the philosopher was entertained with respect, and returned home loaded with presents. We are also told, that, determined to act in the most impartial manner with respect to the several religions which he had been invited to embrace, he dispatched persons remarkable for their wisdom and sagacity, to visit the surrounding nations, observe the religious tenets and ceremonies that distinguished them, and report to him the result of their observations. On the return of these deputies, the report of those who had visited the churches of Constantinople, and witnessed the imposing splendour of religious adoration, and the gorgeous decorations of the Greek priests, in the superb basilicum of St. Sophia, proved so satisfactory to Vladimir, that he determined on embracing the Christian religion according to the observances of the Greek church. Though he resolved on baptism, he was too proud to seek from the Greek emperor a priest, by whom the solemn ordinance might be performed. With a savage ferocity worthy of the times in which he lived, he determined to gain by conquest what his haughty soul disdained to acquire by request. He assembled an army selected from all the nations of which his empire was composed, and marching to Taurida, laid siege to Theodosia, a town even then of great repute, and which commanded the whole Chersonesus. On sitting down before the walls of this place, he is said to have offered up the following characteristic prayer: "O God grant me thy help to take this town, that I may carry from it Christians and priests, to instruct me and

and my people, and convey the true religion into my dominions." His prayer was at length granted; and, rather by stratagem than force, he made himself master of the town, and through it, of the whole Crimea. He might now have received baptism; but his desire of being initiated into the Christian faith seems to have been excited more by ambition, than by true devotion. His ruling passion promised to be amply gratified by an alliance with the Grecian emperors, as he would thus acquire some legal claim on the territories which they possessed. He therefore demanded in marriage, Anna, the sister of Basilius and Constantine, who jointly held the imperial dignity, threatening, that if they refused his proffered alliance, he would lay siege to Constantinople. After some deliberation, the emperors complied, on condition, that Vladimir and his people should become Christians; and these conditions being accepted, the Russian monarch was baptized, took the name of Basilius, received the Grecian princess, and, as the reward of his victories, carried off several popes and archimandrites, together with sacred vessels and church books, images of saints, and consecrated relics.

Whatever might have been the considerations that swayed with Vladimir in his conversion to the Christian faith, it is certain that his new religion had the happiest influence on his future life and conduct. He not only abjured idolatry himself, and destroyed the idols which he had caused to be raised in his dominions, but used every exertion to persuade and compel his subjects to follow his example. Before his conversion, he is said to have possessed five wives, and 800 concubines, but after he became a Christian, he maintained an unshaken fidelity towards the imperial princess. As a Pagan he had been lavish of human blood; but after he had changed his religion, he could scarcely be persuaded to sentence to death a single highway robber. His former delight had been in storming towns and gaining battles; but he now found his greatest pleasure in building churches, and endowing seminaries of education. He encouraged the raising of new cities and towns; peopled the waste districts of his country with the prisoners whom he had taken in war; and not only conducted himself as a sovereign who consulted the welfare of his dominions, but displayed many amiable qualities that highly endeared him to his subjects. On great festivals, he was accustomed to give entertainments to the inhabitants of the capital, and to send refreshments to those who were prevented, by sickness or infirmity, from attending the public feast. By these marks of regard to the general and individual interests of his people, he contributed to win them from the old religion, and to give them a taste for the new doctrines which he professed. By showing that Christianity had made him both a milder and a wiser prince, he insured from his people a respect for the new religion, while the striking example of the sovereign, and his nobles could not fail to influence the minds of the inferior orders. Having one day issued a proclamation, ordering all the inhabitants of Kief to repair next morning to the banks of the river to be baptized, the people cheerfully obeyed the order, observing that if it were not good to be baptized, the prince and the boyars would never submit to the ceremony.

The establishment of Christianity in the Russian dominions, forms one of the most prominent features in the reign of Vladimir, and gives him a much juster claim to the title of Great, which has been bestowed on him by historians, than all his numerous victories. We have therefore dwelt on it with the greater minuteness. Indeed the latter transactions of his reign afford but little interest. His last days were embittered by domestic vexations; his wife and one of his favourite sons died long before him, and another of his sons, Yaroslaf, on whom he had bestowed the government of Novgorod, refused to acknowledge him as his liege, and applied to the Varagians for assistance against his father. The aged Vladimir, compelled to march against a rebellious son, died with grief upon the road, after a glorious reign of 35 years.

The character of this monarch may be easily collected from the account we have given of the transactions that marked his reign. He had certainly great, if not amiable qualities; and if he failed in communicating to his subjects the zeal for civilization and improvement which he himself possessed, it was the fault rather of the time, than of the instructor. His country remained barbarous, because barbarism was the characteristic of the age, and the monarch himself rose but little above the character of a barbarian, because the times in which he lived did not admit of superior refinement. It has been well observed by an ingenious writer on the history of Russia, that it is scarcely possible for a man to rise far above his cotemporaries, and that had Vladimir lived in the 17th century, the civilization and refinement of Russia might have been imputed to him, as it is now imputed to Peter the Great.

Notwithstanding the circumstances we have noticed, the improvement which Russia owed to this prince was great and permanent. With the Christian religion he imported from Greece the arts which then flourished in that empire, and almost entirely new modelled the language of his country, by engrafting on it the more refined dialect of the Greeks, and adopting, in a great meausure, the letters of their alphabet.

The dominions of Russia, which at first consisted of two principalities, that of Novgorod, bordering on the Baltic, and that of Kief, occupying no very large space on the eastern bank of the Dnieper, were, by the victories of Vladimir, extended westward along the shores of the Baltic, into Lithuania and Poland; southward along the shores of the Euxine, so as to include the Crimea and great part of the Bulgarian territories; while to the east it extended to the Oka, the Don and the Volga. He still maintained the seat of government at Kief, of which he was styled grand prince, while the other districts were either tributary to that principality, or held of it as their superior.

Before his death, Vladimir had divided his extensive territories among his twelve sons, reserving to himself and his immediate heir, the grand principality of Kief. The consequences of this ill-judged distribution were disunion, contention, and almost perpetual warfare among the brothers. The most respectable, and in the end the most powerful of these, was Yaroslaf, or as he is commonly called Jarislaus, prince of Novgorod. This prince finding that Sviatopolk, who had raised himself to the sovereignty of Kief after his father's death, attempted by assassination, or force of arms, to take possession of the neighbouring principalities, determined to resist him in his encroachments. Collecting an army of Novgorodians, he, in 1016, drove Sviatopolk from Kief, and forced him to seek an asylum, with his father-in-law, Boleslaus, duke of Poland. Boleslaus was easily persuaded to engage in the cause of his son-in-law, as he hoped to reap advantage from the quarrels among the descendants of Vladimir, and not only regain that part of his dominions which had been conquered by that prince, but enlarge his territory by encroachments on the Russian borders. He therefore accompanied Sviatopolk into Russia with an army, retook Kief, and obliged the Novgorodian prince to retire with precipitation. While he was endeavouring to collect fresh forces to renew the war with Boleslaus and Sviatapolk, the latter, by the treachery and perfidy with which he treated his Polish allies, contributed to his own downfall. He caused great numbers of the Poles to be secretly massacred, a transaction by which Boleslaus was so incensed, that he plundered Kief, made himself master of several places on the Russian frontiers, and then left his perfidious son-in-law to shift for himself. Sviatopolk now sought assistance from the Petchenegans, and with an army of these auxiliaries, offered battle to Yaroslaf, not far from the place, where he had, four years before, caused one of his brothers to be murdered. The contest was long and bloody but terminated in favour of Yaroslaf. Sviatopolk was put to flight, and died soon after.

By this victory Yaroslaf acquired possession of the greater part of his father's dominions, and testified his gratitude for the assistance given him by the Novgorodians, by the attention which he paid to the particular improvement of that state.

state. He drew up for it a code of laws, which are still known by the appellation of the municipal law of Novgorod. He also exerted himself for the welfare of other towns, and of the country at large.

Yaroslaf did not neglect the advancement of the Christian religion. He established a metropolitan in Kief, and thus gave to the Russian clergy a head, who might watch over the morals of the inferior pastors, and provide for the general dissemination of the Christian doctrine. He collected several books in the Greek religion, and caused many of them to be translated into the Russian language.

This monarch is supposed to have died in 1054, and to have reigned 35 years. He followed the example of his father, in dividing his territories among his sons, though he endeavoured to prevent the dissensions which he himself had witnessed from such a partition, by exhorting them, on his death-bed, to the most intimate concord, and endeavouring to convince them that they would be respected by their subjects, and feared by their enemies, only while they continued to act with unanimity.

We know little of the proceedings of Yaroslaf's successors, except that Isiaslaf, his eldest son, and grand prince of Kief, had frequent disputes with his brothers, in which he was assisted by the Poles, and supported by the influence of the Roman pontiff. During these disputes he was once expelled from his dominions, but again recovered them, and reigned till 1078.

From the death of Isiaslaf to the beginning of the 13th century, the history of Russia comprises little else than a continued series of intestine commotions and petty warfares with the neighbouring states. The same system of dismemberment was continued by the succeeding princes, and was attended with the same result. There were, during this period, not fewer than seventeen independent principalities. Of these, Kief and Novgorod long continued to be the most powerful, though they could not always maintain their superiority over the other principalities; and towards the latter end of the period which we have mentioned, the district of Vladimir erected itself into a grand principality, and became at least as powerful as the two others.

In the supremacy of these three great principalities, we may trace the division of European Russia into Great, Little, and White Russia, a distinction which long maintained its ground, and in later times gave to the sovereign of this empire, the title of monarch, or Emperor of all the Russias.

The principality of Novgorod appears, during this interval, to have been the most respectable for its commercial intercourse with the neighbouring nations, and for the independent spirit of its internal government. This, though nominally monarchical, seems to have possessed much of a republican character. The princes were evidently dependent on the people, and some remarkable instances of this dependence are related by the old historians. One of the grand princes had so much displeased his people, that they refused to pay him their usual obedience. As the prince seems to have been aware of the little influence which he possessed in the state, he employed the metropolitan of the principality to negotiate a reconciliation. This prelate accordingly wrote to the Novgorodians in the following terms: "The grand prince has acted wrong towards you, but he is sorry for it, desires you to forgive him, and will behave better for the future. I will be surety for him, and beseech you to receive him with honour and dignity."

During the intestine broils that attended the dismemberment of the Russian monarchy, the ambition of its neighbours, and partly the folly of the contending princes, who solicited their assistance against their rivals, contributed to diminish the strength and resources of the empire. In particular the Poles and the Hungarians availed themselves of these circumstances. Invited into Russia by the rival princes, they readily lent their aid to any of the parties; and, by ravaging the towns and villages, and carrying off the captives into slavery, they quickly recompensed themselves for their assistance.

It is not surprising that this state of anarchy and confusion should hold out a temptation to any powerful nation to attempt acquiring the dominion of a people who showed that they were incapable of governing themselves. Not far from the confines of Vladimir and Kief, viz. in the neighbourhood of the sea of Arat, the wandering hordes of Mongoles, or Mongul Tartars, had taken up their residence. These people appear to have descended from the ancient Scythians, and to have long dwelt on the confines of the Chinese empire. Hence they gradually marched westward, and about 1223 arrived on the shores of the sea of Arat, under the conduct of Tuschi, son of the famous Tschinghis Khan, chief of the Mogul empire. From the Aral, Tuschi conducted his horde along the shores of the Caspian, and gradually approached the Dnieper. In his course he attacked and overcame the Tscherkesses, or Circassians, who on his approach had joined with the Polovtzes, to resist the terrible enemy. The defeated Polovtzes gave notice to their neighbours the Russians, of the approaching storm, and invited them to form a common cause against the enemy. In the mean time the Tartars had sent ambassadors to the Russians, hoping to prevent their alliance with the Polovtzes, and thus the more easily subdue the disunited nations. For this time, however, the Russians were true to their own interest, and proved firm to their alliance. In concert with the Polovtzes, they assembled an army, and prepared to resist the incursions of the Tartars. Both parties met near the small river Kalka, which flows into the sea of Asof, and a furious engagement took place. The Russians fought with great intrepidity, but the Polovtzes thrown into consternation at the furious onset of the Tartars, suddenly betook themselves to flight. As they formed the van-guard, their flight put the Russian army, which was drawn up behind them, into such complete disorder, that a total route ensued The prince of Kief, who had kept himself aloof during the engagement, attempted to resist the victorious Tartars, but his army was attacked and defeated with great slaughter.

About 13 years after the defeat on the Kalka, another horde of Tartars, headed by Baaty Khan, the grandson of Tschinghis-khan, penetrated into Russia, after having attacked and defeated their neighbours the Bulgarians. The Tartars soon spread far and wide the terror of their name. Wherever they came, the whole face of nature was laid waste; towns and villages were destroyed by fire; all the men capable of bearing arms were put to the sword, and the children, women, and old men, carried into captivity. If the inhabitants of the towns to which they approached offered a compromise, the faithless barbarians affected to receive their submission; but immediately broke the agreement, and treated those who surrendered to their mercy with as much rigour as those who had endeavoured to defend themselves, and had been overcome. If the inhabitants of the open towns and villages came out to meet them, and to receive them as conquerors and friends; death, torture, or the most ignominious bondage, was the reward of their spontaneous submission.

The first state which they attacked was Riazan, the prince of which applied for assistance to Yury, commonly called by historians, George Sevoloditch, grand prince of Vladimir. He sent them a few auxiliaries, but they either came too late, or their number was too small. The principality of Riazan fell, and its fall was succeeded by that of Perciaslavl, Rostof, Susdal, and several others. The barbarians now approached the principality of Vladimir, and no army appeared to resist them on the frontiers. They advanced, unimpeded, to the capital; which, left to its fate by the grand prince, had nothing to expect but the same cruel treatment which the neighbouring cities had received. Yury, with unpardonable negligence, was celebrating a marriage feast; and the city of Vladimir, which contained the princess and two of her sons, was left to the protection of a chieftain, totally unqualified for its defence, and the inhabitants seemed to share the pusillanimity of their governor. A prey to fear and despondency, the city soon fell into the hands of the Tartars. They one morning scaled the walls, and meeting with little opposition, quickly made themselves masters of the place; when they cast aside every feeling of humanity, and, like beasts

beasts of prey, glutted their appetite for blood among the wretched inhabitants. The princess, and other ladies of distinction, dreading the brutality of the relentless conquerors, had taken refuge in the choir of a church, an asylum which all the assurances of the Tartars that they should suffer no injury, could not prevail on them to abandon. It was therefore set on fire by the barbarians, who feasted their ears with the shrieks and groans of the women, as the flames surrounded them.

Yury, incensed almost to desperation at the fate of his capital, and the horrible death of his wife and children, was determined to take signal vengeance on the assailants. He assembled all the forces which he could draw together, and though his army was greatly inferior in numbers to the Tartars, he marched against the enemy, and attacked them with the most determined valour. The struggle was short, but bloody; the Tartars were victorious, and the body of Yury was found among the slain.

This appears to have been the only vigorous stand made by the Russian princes. The Tartars pushed forward with rapidity, and successively overpowered the principalities of Novgorod and Kief.

The Tartars had now established themselves in the Russian territories, and their khan or chief, though he did not himself assume the nominal sovereignty, reigned as paramount lord, and placed on the throne any of the native princes whom he found most obsequious to his will, or who had ingratiated themselves by the magnificence of their presents. The throne was successively occupied by Yaroslaf II., Alexander Yaroslavitch, Yaroslaf Yaroslavitch, Vasilii Yaroslavitch, Dimitri Alexandrovitch, Andrei, Danül, both brothers of Dimitri, Mikaila Yaroslavitch, Yury Danilovitch, Alexander Mikailovitch, Ivan Danilovitch, Simeon Ivanovitch, and Ivan Ivanovitch.

Among the princes whom we have enumerated, we must particularly notice Alexander, the son of Yaroslaf II. This prince was installed grand prince of Russia by the Tartar khan in 1252, and continued to reign till 1264. He is remarkable chiefly for a decisive victory gained by him over the Danes on the banks of the Neva;—a victory which procured him the honourable surname of Neffsky (the conqueror). This victory is said to have taken place in 1239, while Alexander was governor of Novgorod, under his father Yaroslaf, who then reigned at Vladimir. After his accession to the throne on the death of his father, he engaged in a successful war with Sweden. This prince is held in great veneration by the Russians, and several miracles are attributed to him. His reputation for sanctity occasioned him to be ranked among the tutelary saints of the Greek church, where he still holds a distinguished place, by the title of St. Alexander Neffsky.

During these several reigns, which all historians have passed over for want of records concerning them, the miseries of a foreign yoke were aggravated by all the calamities of intestine discord and war; whilst the knights of Livonia, a kind of military religious order, on one side, and the Poles on the other, catching at the opportunity, attacked Russia, and took several of its towns, and even some considerable countries. Casimir the Great, one of their kings, carried his conquests still farther.

The newly-conquered Russians were ill disposed to endure the government of the Poles, whose laws and customs were more contrary to their own than those of the Tartars had been. They joined the latter to rid themselves of the yoke, and assembled an army numerous enough to overwhelm all Poland, but destitute of valour and discipline. Casimir, king of Poland, undaunted by this deluge of barbarians, presented himself at the head of a few troops on the borders of the Vistula, and obliged his enemies to retire.

About the year 1362, Dimitri Ivanovitch received the sovereignty from the Tartar chief, and established the seat of his government at Moscow. This prince possessed considerable ambition, and contrived to inspire the other Russian princes with so much respect for his person and government, that they consented to hold their principalities as fiefs under him. This increased the consequence of the Russian prince, but excited the jealousy of Mammai the Tartar khan, who determined to take measures for maintaining his superiority. He began by demanding an increase of tribute, and when Dimitri seemed to demur at consenting to this new encroachment, the khan not only insisted on his demand, but required the grand prince to appear before him in person. This requisition Dimitri thought proper to refuse, and prepared to support his refusal by force of arms. The terror with which the Tartars had inspired the inhabitants of Russia had now considerably subsided, while the hatred which the Russians bore these haughty masters, was kept alive by the barbarity of their manners, and the difference of their religion. The Christian ministers, justly dreading that the Tartars, in their furious progress, might extirpate Christianity, contributed all in their power to confirm the spirit of revolt among the people; and they promised the crown of martyrdom to such as should fall in battle against the infidels. Thus, the contest into which the grand prince determined to enter in support of his authority, became in some measure a holy war, undertaken in defence of the national religion. The combination of favourable circumstances operated so strongly in favour of Dimitri, and the princes that had confederated with him, that they soon collected an army of 200,000 men. With this force the grand prince left Moscow, and marched towards the Don, on the southern bank of which the Tartars were encamped. Arrived at this river, he left it to the choice of his troops, either to cross the river, and encounter the enemy on the other side, or to await the attack where they were. The general voice declared for passing over to the assault. The grand prince accordingly transported his battalions across the river, that he might cut off all hope of escaping by retreat. The fight now commenced, and though the numbers of the foe far exceeded their own, the Russians defended themselves valiantly against the furious onset of the Tartars; but as these barbarians were continually relieved by fresh reinforcements, they appeared to be gaining ground. Indeed, nothing but the impossibility of retreating across the river, and the firm persuasion that death would immediately transport them to the mansions of eternal bliss, restrained the Russians from a general flight. At this moment when the day seemed entirely lost, a detachment of the grand prince's army which he had stationed in reserve, and had remained out of the view of the enemy, came up with unabated force, fell on the rear of the Tartars, threw them into such terror and confusion, that they fled with Mammai at their head, and left the Russians masters of the field. This contest must have been extremely bloody, as we are told that eight days were employed by the remains of the Russian army, in burying the bodies of their slaughtered companions, while those of the Tartars were left uninterred upon the ground.

This glorious victory, which took place in 1380, was attended with numerous advantages to the Russian cause. The Tartars appear to have been so much humbled by this defeat, that for a time they left the Russians to enjoy in peace their recovered liberty. This forbearance, however, was not of long duration. Before the death of Dimitri they returned with increased numbers, laid siege to Moscow, which, after an obstinate defence, was at length induced to surrender, and Russia once more submitted to her old masters.

Dimitri died in 1389, and was succeeded by his son Vasilii Dimitrievitch. In the reign of this prince a new incursion of the Tartars took place, under the great Timur or Tamerlane, who after having subdued all the neighbouring Tartar hordes, extended his conquests to the Russian territories, carried Moscow by assault, and obtained immense plunder.

The grand principality of Vladimir, or as it may now be called, of Moscow, had, at the end of the 14th century, attained its greatest height, while that of Kief had porportionally declined. This latter principality was, at the time of which we are now writing, under the dominion of the Poles, having been seized on in 1320 by Gedemin, duke of Lithuania.

The latter end of the 15th century forms a splendid epoch in

in the Russian history. At this time, viz. from 1462 to 1505, reigned Ivan Vasiliivitch, or, as he is commonly called, John Basilovitz. This able prince, by his invincible spirit and refined policy, became both the conqueror and deliverer of his country, and laid the first foundation of its future grandeur. Observing with indignation the narrow limits of his power at his succession to the throne, after the death of his father Vasiliis the Blind, he began immediately to resolve within himself the means of enlarging his dominions. Marriage, though he had in reality no regard or inclination for women, seemed to him one of the best expedients he could begin with; and accordingly he demanded and obtained Maria, sister of Michael duke of Twer, whom he soon after deposed, under pretence of revenging the injuries done to his father, and added this duchy to his own territories of Moscow. Maria, by whom he had a son named Ivan, who died before him, did not live long; and upon her death he married Sophia, daughter of Thomas Paleologus, who had been driven from Constantinople, and forced to seek shelter at Rome, where the Pope portioned this princess, in hopes of thus procuring great advantage to the Romish religion; but his expectations were frustrated, Sophia being obliged to conform to the Greek church after her arrival in Russia.

What could induce Ivan to seek a consort at such a distance is nowhere accounted for, unless it be, that he hoped by this means to establish a pretension to the empire of the east, to which her father was the next heir; but however that may be, the Russians certainly owed to this alliance their deliverance from the Tartar yoke. Shocked at the servile homage exacted by these proud victors, her husband going to meet their ambassadors at some distance from the city, and standing to hear what they had to say, whilst they were at dinner, Sophia told him she was surprised to find that she had married a servant to the Tartars. Nettled at this reproach, he soon after disclaimed all subjection to the Tartars, attacked their territories, and made himself master of Kazan. Here he was solemnly crowned with a diadem which is said to be the same that is still in use in the coronation of the Russian sovereigns. This took place about the year 1470, and led to a complete emancipation of Russia from the Tartar dominion. Ivan afterwards carried his arms against the neighbouring states. The province of Permia, with Asiatic Bulgaria, and great part of Lapland, soon submitted to him, and the great Novgorod, a city then so famous, that the Russians were accustomed to intimate their idea of its importance by the proverbial expression, Who can resist God and the great Novgorod? was reduced by his generals after a seven years siege, and yielded immense treasure. This place was so wealthy, that Alexander Witold, prince of Lithuania, to whom the Novgorodians were then tributary, derived from it a yearly contribution of 100,000 rubles. The booty carried off by Ivan to Moscow, is said to have consisted of 300 cart loads of gold, silver, and precious stones, with a much greater quantity of furs, cloths, and other merchandise. After he quitted the city, which had been awed by his presence, the discontents excited at his violent measures broke out into acts of mutiny, on which he, in 1485, carried off fifty of the principal families, and distributed them through several of the Russian towns. Indeed from this period Novgorod never recovered its former splendour.

After this, Ivan invaded the territories of Livonia and Esthonia, in consequence of an affront offered to him by the inhabitants of Reval. He died in 1505, and was succeeded by his son Vasilii Ivanovitch, commonly called Basilius III.

The Tartars of Kazan were still suffered to maintain a shew of independency, by electing their own khans; but a Russian noble, under the denomination of wayvode, was associated with the khan in the government, and took care that the administration should be conducted in such a manner as to secure the interests of his master. About fourteen years after the death of Ivan, however, the Tartars resolved to overturn so humiliating an administration. They murdered the Russian wayvode, expelled their nominal khan, and united themselves with their brethren of the Crimea. With their assistance they assembled a mighty force, entered the Russian dominions, and carried their arms even to the gates of Moscow. The grand prince Vasilii found himself at the time unable to resist the barbarians, and therefore purchased an exemption from general pillage by great presents, and a promise of renewed allegiance. The Tartars retired, but carried off immense booty, and nearly 300,000 prisoners, the greater part of whom they sent to Theodosia in the Crimea, and sold them to the Turks. This humiliation of Vasilii did not, however, long continue, and he was soon enabled to make head against the Tartars, and to recover his former possessions.

It was under the son and successor of Vasilii, Ivan IV, or, as he is styled by the Russian historians, Ivan Vassliivitch II. that Russia completely emancipated herself from her subjection to the Tartars, and acquired a vast accession of territory, which extended her empire into the north-east of Asia, and rendered her, for the first time, superior in extent to any state that had appeared since the Roman empire. Vasilii died in 1533, having reigned 28 years, and lived 55. His son Ivan was only three years old when he succeeded to the throne, and the queen-mother was appointed regent during his minority. During her administration the state became a prey to anarchy and confusion. She died in 1538; and though the names and characters of those who assumed the regeney after her death are not known, it appears that they must have conducted the administration with considerable prudence and circumspection, as, when Ivan attained his 17th year, he was enable to assume the reins of government without opposition; and from the important transactions in which he immediately engaged, must have been possessed of considerable resources.

In taking into his own hands the government of the state, Ivan displayed so much prudence and manly fortitutude, as soon raised him very high in the estimation of his subjects. He saw himself surrounded on all sides with contending factions, and to suppress these was the first object of his care. He was successful in his great design, and having secured the domestic tranquillity of his dominions, he had leisure to direct his attention to the more remote, but not less predominant, objects of his ambition. He resolved to attempt liberating his country for ever from the dominions of the Tartars, and he succeeded. In 1551, he marched an army in the depth of winter into the district of Kazan, and laid siege to the capital, regardless of the murmurs of his troops, who loudly and openly expressed their dislike to this expedition, declaring that no good commander would think of conducting his forces to sieges and battles during the inclemencies of winter, or attempt at such a season to attack the enemy in their quarters. Exasperated at these murmurs, he determined to punish severely the principal officers who had contributed to foment the discontents of the soldiers, and by this well timed severity he effectually repressed all opposition to his will.

Before entering seriously on the siege of Kazan, he built several forts on the frontiers of the Tartar territories, by which he hoped to awe these barbarians, and prevent them from disturbing the peace of his dominions. He then invested Kazan, and in the year 1552, made himself master of it by the new, and, to the Tartars, unheard of method of springing a mine below the walls.

As Kazan was taken by storm, the inhabitants were treated with much rigour; and the slaughter was so dreadful, that even the flinty heart of Ivan is said to have relented at the heaps of dead bodies which struck his sight on entering the city. The inhabitants that escaped slaughter, and the remains of the Tartars, were offered mercy on condition they should embrace the Christian faith. By this important conquest the dominion of the Tartars, which had oppressed the Russians for more than three centuries, was completely and permanently overthrown.

About two years after he had abolished the power of the Tartars, he extended his conquests eastward to the shores of the Caspian, and took possession of the territory that lay on the right bank of the Volga, round the city of Astracan, which was also inhabited by the Tartar hordes.

Ivan,

Ivan, as well as his grandfather, had found it necessary to chastise the inhabitants of Novgorod; but in the year 1570, this city being suspected of forming a plot for delivering itself and the surrounding territory into the hands of the king of Poland, felt still more severely the effects of his vengeance. All who had been in any degree implicated in the conspiracy, to the number of 25,000, suffered by the hands of the executioner. It is not surprising that acts like these should have given to this prince the names of terrible and tyrant, by which historians have occasionally distinguished him; though it is not a little extraordinary, that he should have retained so much interest in the affections of his subjects, that when, to try their attachment, he, in 1575, abdicated the government, and retained only the title of Prince of Moscow, the majority of the nation loudly expressed their wish for him to resume the administration of affairs.

Ivan cultivated an intercourse with several of the European states, especially with Germany, for which country he seems to have had a very particular esteem. Early in his reign, he sent a splendid embassy to the emperor Charles V. requesting him to permit a number of German artists, mechanics, and literary men, to establish themselves in Russia. Charles readily complied with his request, and several hundred volunteers were collected and assembled at Lubeck, whence they were to proceed through Livonia to Moscow.

In a war between the Russians and Swedes, Ivan invaded Finland; but that country was bravely defended by William of Furstenburgh, grand master of the Livonian knights, with the assistance of Gustavus Vaza; and it does not appear that Ivan gained much in this expedition, though we are told that the Livonian grand master ended his life in a Russian prison.

In 1533, an event happened which first led to an intercourse between Russia and England. Some Englishmen who were at that time on a voyage of discovery, landed on the shores of the White Sea, where soon after was built the port of Archangel. They were hospitably received by the natives; an intimation of this circumstance being conveyed to Ivan, he sent for the strangers, and was so much pleased with their abilities and deportment, that he resolved to give every encouragement to the English commerce, and thus open a new channel of intercourse with a highly polished nation, by which his subjects might obtain fresh incitements to activity and industry. We are told, that his affection for the English proceeded so far, as to induce him to form the design of marrying an English lady. He expressed the highest esteem for Queen Elizabeth, and requested by his ambassador, that if the ingratitude of his subjects should ever compel him to quit Russia, (a circumstance by no means improbable), she would grant him an asylum in her dominions. It was in consequence of this accidental communication between the Russians and the English, that England first engaged in a trade to Russia, and promoted this new commerce by the establishment of a company of Russia merchants in London.

About twenty years after Astracan had been annexed to the Russian empire, a new acquisition of territory accrued to it from the conquests of a private adventurer, in the unknown regions of Siberia.

Towards the close of Ivan's reign, a prodigious army of Turks and Tartars entered Russia, with a design to subdue the whole country. But Zerebrinoff, the tzar's general, having attacked them in a defile, put them to flight with considerable slaughter. They then retired towards the mouth of the Volga, where they expected a considerable reinforcement but being closely pursued by the Russians and Tartars in alliance with them, they were again defeated and forced to fly towards Azof on the Black Sea. When, however, they came there, they found the city almost entirely ruined by the blowing up of a powder magazine. The Russians then attacked their ships there, took some, and sunk the rest; by which means almost the whole army perished with hunger or by the sword of the enemy.

From this time the empire of Russia became so formidable, that none of the neighbouring nations could hope to make a total conquest of it. The Poles and Swedes indeed continued to be very formidable enemies; and, by the instigation of the former, the Crim Tartars, in 1571, again invaded the country with an army of 70,000 men. The Russians, who might have prevented their passing the Volga, retired before them till they came within 18 miles of the city of Moscow, where they were totally defeated. The tzar no sooner heard this news, than he retired with his most valuable effects to a well-fortified cloister; upon which the Tartars entered the city, plundered it, and set fire to several churches. A violent storm which happened at the same time soon spread the flames all over the city; which was entirely reduced to ashes in six hours, though its circumference was upwards of forty miles. The fire likewise communicated itself to a powder magazine at some distance from the city; by which accident upwards of fifty rods of the city wall, with all the buildings upon it, were destroyed; and, according to the best historians, upwards of 120,000 citizens were burnt or buried in the ruins, besides women, children, and foreigners. The castle, however, which was strongly fortified, could not be taken; and the Tartars, hearing that a formidable army was coming against them under the command of Magnus, duke of Holstein, whom Ivan had made king of Livonia, thought proper to retire. The war, nevertheless, continued with the Poles and Swedes; and the tzar being defeated by the latter after some trifling success, was reduced to the necessity of suing for peace; but the negociations being broken off, the war was renewed with the greatest vigour. The Livonians, Poles, and Swedes, having united in a league against the Russians, gained great advantages over them; and in 1579, Stephen Battori, who was then raised to the throne of Poland, levied an army expressly with a design of invading Russia, and of regaining all that Poland had formerly claimed, which indeed was little less than the whole empire. As the Poles understood the art of war much better than the Russians, Ivan found his undisciplined multitudes unable to cope with the regular forces of his enemies; and their conquests were so rapid, that he was soon obliged to sue for peace, which, however, was not granted; and it is possible that the number of enemies which now attacked Russia might have overcome the empire entirely, had not the allies grown jealous of each other. The consequence of this was, that in 1582, a peace was concluded with the Poles, in which the Swedes were not comprehended. However, the Swedes finding themselves unable to effect any thing of moment after the desertion of their allies, were obliged to conclude a truce; shortly after which the tzar, having been worsted in an engagement with the Tartars, died in the year 1584.

The eldest son of the late tzar, Feodor (or, as he is commonly called, Theodore) Ivanovitch, was by no means fitted for the government of an empire so extensive, and a people so rude and turbulent as had devolved to him by the death of his father. Ivan had seen the incapacity of his son, and had endeavoured to obviate its effects, by appointing three of his principal nobles as administrators of the empire; while to a fourth he committed the charge of his younger son Dimitri. This expedient, however, failed of success; and partly from the mutual jealousy of the administrators, partly from the envy which their exaltation had excited in the other nobles, the affairs of the empire soon fell into confusion. The weak Feodor had married a sister of Boris Gudonof, a man of considerable ambition, immense riches, and tolerable abilities. This man had contrived to make himself agreeable to Feodor, by becoming subservient to his capricious desires and childish amusements; and the wealth he had acquired through his interest with the sovereign, enabled him to carry on his ambitious designs. He had long directed his wishes towards the imperial dignity, and he began to prepare the way for its attainment by removing Dimitri the brother of Feodor. This young prince suddenly disappeared; and there is every reason to believe that he was assassinated by the order of Boris. Feodor did not long survive his brother, but died in 1598, not without suspicion of his having been poisoned by his brother-in-law. We are told that the tzaritza, Irene, was so much

much convinced of this, that she never after held any communication with her brother, but retired to a convent, and assumed the name of Alexandra.

With Feodor ended the last branch of the family of Ruric, a dynasty which had enjoyed the supreme power in Russia ever since the establishment of the principality by the Varagian chief, during a period of above 700 years. On the death of Feodor, as there was no hereditary successor to the vacant throne, the nobles assembled to elect a new tzar; and the artful Boris having, through the interest of the patriarch, a man elevated by his means, and devoted to his views, procured a majority in his favour, he was declared the object of their choice. Boris pretended unwillingness to accept the crown, declaring that he had resolved to live and die in a monastery; but when the patriarch, at the head of the principal nobles, and attended by a great concourse of people, bearing before them the cross, and the effigies of several saints, repaired to the convent, where the artful usurper had taken up his residence, he was at length *prevailed* on to accompany them to the palace of the tzars, and *suffer* himself to be crowned.

Boris affords another example, in addition to the numerous instances recorded in history, of a sovereign who became beneficial to his subjects, though he had procured the sovereignty by unjustifiable means. If we give implicit credit to the historians of those times, Boris was a murderer and a usurper, though he had the voice of the people in his favour; but by whatever means he attained the imperial power, he seems to have employed it in advancing the interests of the nation, and in improving the circumstances of his people. He was extremely active in his endeavours to extend the commerce, and improve the arts and manufactures of the Russian empire; and for this purpose he invited many foreigners into his dominions. While he exerted himself in securing the tranquillity of the country, and defending its frontiers by forts and ramparts, against the incursions of his neighbours, he made himself respected abroad, received ambassadors from almost all the powers of Europe; and after several attempts to enlarge his territories at the expense of Sweden, he concluded with that kingdom an honourable and advantageous alliance.

Soon after the commencement of his reign, the city of Moscow was desolated by one of the most dreadful famines recorded in history. Thousands of people lay dead in the streets and roads; and in many houses the fattest of their inmates was killed, to serve as food for the rest. This dreadful calamity lasted three years; and notwithstanding all the exertions of Boris to provide for the necessities of the inhabitants of Moscow, we are assured that not fewer than 500,000 perished by the famine.

During these distresses of the capital, the power of Boris was threatened with annihilation by an adventurer who suddenly started up, and pretended to be the young prince Dimitri, whom all believed to have been assassinated, or, as Boris had given out, to have died of a malignant fever. This adventurer was a monk, named Otrepief, who learning that he greatly resembled the late Dimitri, conceived the project of passing for that prince, and endeavouring, in that character, to ascend the Russian throne. He retired from Russia into Poland, where he had the dexterity to ingratiate himself with some of the principal nobles, and persuade them that he was really Prince Dimitri, the lawful heir to the crown of Russia. The better to insure to himself the support of the Poles, he learned their language, and professed a great regard for the Catholic religion. By this last artifice he both gained the attachment of the Catholic Poles, and acquired the friendship of the Roman pontiff, whose blessing and patronage in his great undertaking he farther secured, by promising that, as soon as he should have established himself on the throne, he would make every exertion to bring the Russians within the pale of the Catholic church. The Kozaks of the Don, who were oppressed by Boris, hoped to gain at least a temporary advantage by the disturbance excited in favour of the adventurer, and eagerly embraced the opportunity of declaring in his favour. The news of Prince Dimitri being still alive, soon penetrated into Russia; and though Boris did all in his power to destroy the illusion, by prohibiting all intercourse between his subjects and the Poles, and by appealing to the evidence of the murdered prince's mother in proof of his death, the cause of the pretender continued to gain ground. Many circumstances concurred to interest the Russian people in favour of Otrepief. He had prepared a manifesto, which he caused to be dispersed through the empire, and in which he affirmed himself to be the son of Ivan, and asserted his right to the throne then usurped by Boris. The courtiers of the usurper, who had long been jealous of his elevation, pretended to believe these assertions; while those who were persuaded that the young prince had been murdered by order of the present tzar, regarded this event as a judgment from heaven. Indeed the greater part of the nation appear to have been persuaded, that the pretender was the real Dimitri; before he set foot in Russia, a numerous party was formed in his behalf. He soon made his appearance on the frontiers with a regiment of Polish troops, and a body of Kozaks. Boris sent an army to oppose him; but though the number of these troops greatly exceeded the small force of Dimitri, these latter were so animated by the eloquence of their leader, and the intrepidity and personal bravery which he displayed in the field of battle, that, after a bloody conflict, the army of Boris was defeated, and the pretended Dimitri remained master of the field.

This victory, over a superior army, served still further to strengthen the belief, that Dimitri was favoured by heaven, and consequently could not be an impostor. To confirm the good opinion which he had evidently acquired, the victor treated his prisoners with great kindness; caused the dead to be decently interred, and gave strict injunctions to his troops to behave with humanity in the towns through which he passed. This gentle behaviour, when contrasted with the horrible excesses committed by the soldiers of Boris, wherever the people appeared to shew any inclination towards the cause of the invader, gained Dimitri more adherents than even the persuasion that he was the lawful sovereign of the country. Boris, unable to resist the torrent of public opinion in favour of his rival, is said to have taken poison, and thus hastened that fate which he foresaw awaited him, if he should fall into the hands of his enemies.

The death of Boris took place in the year 1605; and though the principal nobility at Moscow placed his son Feodor on the throne, the party of Dimitri was now so strong, that Feodor was dethroned and sent to prison with his mother and sister, within six weeks after his accession.

The successful monk had now attained the summit of his ambitious hopes, and made his entry into Moscow with the utmost magnificence, attended by his Russian adherents, and his Polish friends. Not deeming himself secure, however, while the son of Boris remained alive, he is said to have caused him to be strangled, together with one of his sisters. The new tzar, though he evidently possessed great abilities, seems to have been deficient in point of prudence. Instead of conciliating the favour of his subjects, by attention to their interests, and by conferring on the chief men among them the titles and honours that were at his disposal, he openly displayed his predilection for the Poles, on whom he conferred high posts and dignities, and even connived at the extravagance and enormities which they committed. This impolitic conduct together with his partiality for the Catholic religion; his marked indifference towards the public worship of the national church, and his want of reverence for the Greek clergy; his marrying a Polish lady; his affectation of Polish manners; his inordinate voluptuousness, and the contempt with which he treated the principal nobility; so irritated and exasperated the Russians, that discontents and insurrections arose in every quarter of the empire; and the joy with which he had been at first received, was converted into indifference, contempt, and detestation. The Russians soon discovered, from a curious circumstance, that their new sovereign could not be sprung from the blood of their ancient tzars. These had been always lifted on their horses and rode along with a slow and solemn pace, whereas

Dimitri bestrode a furious stallion, which he mounted without the help of his attendants. In addition to these sources of discontent, it was rumoured that a timber fort, which Dimitri had caused to be constructed before Moscow, was intended to serve as an engine of destruction to the inhabitants, and that at a martial spectacle, which the tzar was preparing for the entertainment of his bride, the Poles, and other foreigners, that composed his body guard, were, from this building to cast firebrands into the city, and then slaughter the inhabitants. This rumour increased their hatred to fury, and they resolved to wreak their vengeance on the devoted tzar. The populace were still farther incensed by the clergy, who declaimed against Dimitri as a heretic, and by Schuiskoy, a nobleman, who had been condemned to death by the tzar, but had afterwards been pardoned. This nobleman put himself at the head of the enraged mob, and led them to attack the tzar's palace. This they entered by assault, put to the sword all the Poles whom they found within its walls, and afterwards extended their massacre to such as were discovered in other parts of the city. Dimitri himself, in attempting to escape, was overtaken by his pursuers, and thrust through with a spear, and his dead body being brought back into the city, lay for three days before the palace, exposed to every insult and outrage that malice could invent, or rage inflict. His father-in-law and his wife escaped with their lives, but were detained as prisoners, and the tzaritza was confined at Yaroslavl.

Schuiskoy, who had pretended to be actuated by no other motives than the purest patriotism, now aspired to the vacant throne, and had sufficient interest to carry his election. His reign was short and uninteresting, and indeed from this time till the accession of the house of Romanof, in 1613, the affairs of Russia have little to gratify the curiosity of our readers.

We have seen the calamities brought upon the empire by the partitions of its early monarchs, and the wars to which these partitions gave birth; by the invasions and tyranny of the Tartars; and lastly, by the disturbances that prevailed from the machinations of the false Dimitri. We have observed the depression which the empire suffered under these calamities. We are now to witness its sudden elevation among the powers of Europe, and to accompany it in its hasty strides to that importance which it has lately assumed. But before we enter on the transactions that have enriched the pages of the Russian annals since the accession of the house of Romanof, it may not be improper or uninteresting to take a general view of the state of the empire at the beginning of the 17th century.

At this period the government of Russia may be considered as a pure aristocracy, as all the supreme power rested in the hands of the nobles and the superior clergy. In particular the boyars, or chief officers of the army, who were also the privy counsellors of the prince, possessed a very considerable share of authority. The election of the late princes Boris, Dimitri, and Schuiskoy, had been conducted principally by them, in concert with the inhabitants of Moscow, where was then held the seat of government. The common people, especially those of the inferior towns, though nominally free, had no share in the government, or in the election of the chief ruler. The boors, or those peasants who dwelt on a nobleman's estates, were almost completely slaves, and transferable with the land on which they dwelt. An attempt to do away this barbarous vassalage had been made both by Boris and Schuiskoy, but from the opposition of the nobles it was abandoned.

The laws in force at the time of which we are now speaking, consisted partly of the municipal laws drawn up for the state of Novgorod by Yaroslaf, and partly of an amended code, called *sudebnik*, promulgated by Ivan Vasiliivitch II. By this sudebnik the administration of the laws was made uniform throughout the empire, and particular magistrates were appointed in the several towns and districts, all subject to the tzar as their chief. The sudebnik consisted of ninety-seven articles, all containing civil laws, as the penal statutes are only briefly mentioned in some articles, so as to appear either connected with the civil, or as serving to illustrate them. In the civil statutes of the sudebnik, theft was punished in the first instance by restitution, or, if the thief were unable to restore the property stolen, he became the slave of the injured party, till by his labour he had made sufficient compensation. Of murder nothing is said, except where the person slain was a lord or master, when the murderer was to be punished with death. There is no mention of torture, except in cases of theft.

Before the accession of the house of Romanof, the commercial intercourse which the cities of Novgorod and Pscove formerly held with the Hans towns, had entirely ceased; but this was in some degree compensated by the newly established trade between Russia and England, the centre of which was Archangel. This trade had been lately increased by the products derived from the acquisition of Siberia, in exchange for which the English principally supplied the Russians with broad cloth. In 1568, an English counting-house was established at Moscow, and about the same time the Russian Company was incorporated. Previous to the 15th century, the trade of the Russians had been carried on merely by barter, but during that century the coinage of money commenced at Novgorod and Pscove; and from this time their commerce was placed on an equal footing with that of the other European nations.

The houses were in general of timber, and badly constructed, except that in Moscow and other great towns, there were a few houses built of brick.

That contempt for the female sex, which is invariably a characteristic of defective civilization, was conspicuous among the Russians. The women were kept in a state of perfect bondage, and it was thought a great instance of liberality, if a stranger were but permitted to see them. They durst seldom go to church, though attendance on divine worship was considered of the highest importance. They were constantly required to be within doors, so that they very seldom enjoyed the fresh air.

The men of the middle ranks always repaired about noon to the market, where they transacted business together, conversed about public affairs, and attended the courts of judicature to hear the causes that were going forward. This was undoubtedly a practice productive of much good, as the inhabitants of the towns by these means improved their acquaintance, interchanged the knowledge they had acquired, and thus their patriotic affections were nourished and invigorated.

In agreements and bargains the highest asseveration was, "If I keep not my word, may it turn to my infamy," a custom extremely honourable to the Russians of those days, as they held the disgrace of having forfeited their word to be the deepest degradation.

If the wife was so dependant on her husband, the child was still more dependant on his father; for parents were allowed to sell their children.

Masters and servants entered into a mutual contract respecting the terms of their connection, and a written copy of this contract was deposited in the proper court, where, if either party broke the contract, the other might lodge his complaint.

Single combat still continued to be the last resource in deciding a cause; and to this the judge resorted in cases which he knew not how otherwise to determine: but duels out of court were strictly prohibited: and when these took place, and either party fell, the survivor was regarded as a murderer, and punished accordingly. Personal vengeance was forbidden under the strictest penalties.

The nobles were universally soldiers, and were obliged to appear when summoned, to assist the prince in his wars.

Till the end of the 16th century, the boor was not bound to any particular master. He tilled the ground of a nobleman for a certain time on stated conditions. Thus, he either received part of the harvest or of the cattle, a portion of wood, hay, &c.; or he worked five days for the master, and on the sixth was at liberty to till a piece of ground set apart for his use. At the expiration of the term agreed on, either party might give up the contract to the other; the boor

boor might remove to another, master or the master dismiss the boor that did not suit him.

During the troubles and dissensions in which the empire had been involved, since the death of Feodor Ivanovitch, the chief men of the state were divided into several parties. Of these, one sought to elevate to the throne a Polish prince, while another rather favoured the succession of a Swede. A third, and by far the strongest party, were desirous to place upon the throne a native Russian; and they soon turned their eyes on Mikhail Romanof, a distant relation of the ancient family of the tzars, whose father was metropolitan of Rostof. The clergy seemed particularly interested in this choice, as they justly concluded, that a Russian, born and brought up in the orthodox Greek faith, would most effectually prevent the poison of Catholic opinions or Protestant heresy, the introduction of which was to be feared from the accession of a Polish or a Swedish monarch. Accordingly, the voice of a single ecclesiastic decided the electors in favour of Mikhail. A metropolitan declared in the hall of election, that it had been announced to him by divine revelation, that the young Romanof would prove the most fortunate and prosperous of all the tzars who had filled the Russian throne. This revelation had an immediate effect on the electors, as their reverence for the superior clergy was so great, that none could presume to doubt the veracity of a person of such exalted rank and sacred function. The revelation once made public, the people too expressed so decidedly their desire to have the young Romanof for their sovereign, that all soon united in their choice. The young man himself, however, refused the proffered hononr, and his mother, dreading the fate that might arise from so dangerous an elevation, with tears implored the deputies to depart. The modest refusal of Mikhail served only to persuade the people, that he was the most worthy object on which they could fix their choice; and at length the deputies returned to Moscow, bringing with them the consent of the monarch elect. The coronation took place on the 11th of June, 1613, and thus the views of Poland and of Sweden, as well as the designs of Marina, the widow of the first pretender Dimitri, who still contrived to keep a party in her favour, were entirely frustrated.

At the accession of Mikhail, the Swedes and Poles were in possession of several parts of the empire; and to dislodge these invaders was the first object of the new tzar. Aware of the difficulty of contending at once with both these formidable enemies, he began by negociating a treaty of peace with Sweden. This was not effected without considerable sacrifices. Mikhail agreed to give up Ingria and Karilia, and to evacuate Esthonia and Livonia. Thus freed from his most dangerous enemy, Mikhail prepared to oppose the Poles, of whom a numerous body had entered Russia, to support the claims of their king's son, Vladislaf. Mikhail proceeded, however, in a very wary manner, and instead of opposing the invaders in the open field, he entrapped them by ambuscades, or allured them into districts already desolated, where they suffered so much from cold and hunger, that in 1619 they agreed to a cessation of hostilities for fourteen years and a half, on condition that the Russians should cede to Poland the government of Smolensk.

Thus freed from external enemies on terms which, though not very honourable, were the best that the posture of his affairs admitted, Mikhail set himself to arrange the internal affairs of his empire. He began by placing his father at the head of the church, by conferring on him the dignity of patriarch, which had become vacant. The counsels of this venerable man were of great advantage to Mikhail, and contributed to preserve that peace and tranquillity by which the reign of this monarch was in general distinguished. The tzar's next step was to form treaties of alliance with the principal commercial states of Europe. He accordingly sent ambassadors to England, Denmark, Holland, and the German empire; and Russia, which had hitherto been considered rather as an Asiatic than a European power, became so respectable in the eyes of her northern neighbours, that they vied with each other in forming with her commercial treaties.

Mikhail also began those improvements of the laws which we shall presently see more fully executed by his son and successor; but the tide of party ran so high, that he could do but little in the way of reformation. His death happened in 1645.

Mikhail was succeeded by his son Alexei; but as the young prince was only 15 years of age at his father's death, a nobleman named Morosof had been appointed his governor, and regent of the empire. This man possessed all the ambition, without the prudence and address of Boris; and in attempting to raise himself and his adherents to the highest posts in the state, he incurred the hatred of all ranks of people. Though Morosof, by properly organizing the army, provided for the defence of the empire against external enemies, he shamefully neglected internal policy, and connived at the most flagrant enormities in the administration of justice. These abuses went so far, that the populace once stopped the tzar as he was returning from church to his palace, calling aloud for righteous judges. Though Alexei promised to make strict inquiry into the nature and extent of their grievances, and to inflict deserved punishment on the guilty, the people had not patience to await this tardy process, and proceeded to plunder the houses of those nobles who were most obnoxious to them. They were at length pacified, however, on condition that the author of their oppression should be brought to condign punishment. One of the most nefarious judges was put to death; and the principal magistrate of Moscow fell a victim to their rage. The life of Morosof was spared at the earnest entreaty of the tzar, who engaged for his future good behaviour.

The war with Poland was occasioned by Alexei's supporting the Kozaks, a military horde, who had left the northern shores of the Dnieper, and retired further to the south. Here they had established a military democracy, and during the dominion of the Tartars in Russia, had been subjects to the khan of those tribes; but after the expulsion or subjugation of the Tartars, the Kozaks had put themselves under the guardianship of Poland, to which kingdom they formerly belonged. As the Polish clergy, however, attempted to impose on them the Greek faith, they threw off their allegiance to the king of Poland, and claimed the patronage of Russia. Alexei, who seems to have sought for a pretext to break with Poland, gladly received them as his subjects, as he hoped, with their assistance, to recover the territories that had been ceded to Poland by his father, He began by negociation, and sent an embassy to the king of Poland, complaining of some Polish publications, in which reflections had been cast on the honour of his father and demanding that, by way of compensation, the Russian territories formerly ceded to Poland should be restored. The king of Poland of course refused this arrogant demand, and both parties prepared for war. The Russians, assisted by the Kozaks, were so successful in this contest, that the king of Sweden became jealous of Alexei's good fortune, and apprehensive of an attack. He therefore determined to take an active part in the war, especially as the Lithuanians, who were extremely averse to the Russian dominion, had sought his protection. The war with Sweden commenced in 1656, and continued for two years, without any important advantage being gained by either party. A truce was concluded in 1658, for three years, and at the termina- of this period, a solid peace was established. In the mean time the war with Poland continued, but was at length terminated by an armistice, which was prolonged from time to time, during the remainder of Alexei's reign.

The reign of this monarch is as remarkable for turbulence, as that of his predecessor had been for tranquillity. No sooner was peace established with the neighbouring states than fresh commotions shook the empire from within. The Don Kozaks, who now formed a part of the Russian population, felt themselves aggrieved by the rigour with which one of their officers had been treated, and placing at their head

head Radzin, the brother of the deceased, broke out into open rebellion. Allured by the spirit of licentiousness, and the hopes of plunder, vast numbers both of Kozaks and inferior Russians flocked to the standard of Radzin, and formed an army of nearly 200,000 men. This force, however, was formidable merely from its numbers. Radzin's followers were without arms, without discipline, and were quite unprepared to stand the attack of regular troops. Radzin himself seems to have placed no reliance on the courage or fidelity of his followers, and eagerly embraced the first opportunity of procuring a pardon by submission. Having been deceived into a belief that his pardon would be granted on his surrendering himself to the mercy of the tzar, he set out for Moscow, accompanied by his brother; but when he was arrived within a short distance of the capital, whither notice of his approach had been sent, he was met by a cart containing a gallows, on which he was hanged without ceremony. His followers, who had assembled at Astracan, were surrounded by the tzar's troops, taken prisoners, and 12,000 of them hung on the gibbets in the highways. Thus this formidable rebellion, which had threatened to subvert the authority of Alexei, was crushed almost at its commencement.

The influence which Alexei had obtained over the Donskoi Kozaks, excited the jealousy of the Sublime Porte, who justly dreaded the extension of the Russian territory on the side of the Crimea, a peninsula which at that time belonged to Turkey. After a successful attempt on the frontiers of Poland, a Turkish army entered the Ukraine, and the Russians made preparations to oppose them. Alexei endeavoured to form a confederacy against the infidels among the Christian potentates of Europe; but the age of crusading chivalry was over, and the tzar was obliged to make head against the Turks, assisted by his single ally the king of Poland. The Turkish arms were for some years victorious, especially on the side of Poland, but at length a check was put to their successes by the Polish general Sobieski, who afterwards ascended the throne of that kingdom.

The reign of Alexei is most remarkable for the improvements introduced by him into the Russian laws. He made a selection from all the edicts of his predecessors, of such as had been current for 100 years; presuming that these either were founded in natural justice, or during so long a currency had formed the minds of the people to consider them as just. This digest, which he declared to be the common law of Russia, and which is prefaced by a sort of institute, is known by the title of the *Ulogenie or Selection*, and was long the standard law book; and all edicts prior to it were declared to be obsolete.

Though there were many courts of judicature in this widely extended empire, the emperor was always lord paramount, and could take a cause from any court immediately before himself. But as several of the old nobles had the remains of principalities in their families, and held their own courts, the sovereign of his ministers, at a distance up the country, frequently found it difficult to bring a culprit out of one of these hereditary feudal jurisdictions, and try him by the laws of the empire. This was a very disagreeable limitation of imperial power; and the more so, that some families claimed even a right of replevance. Alexei embraced the first opportunity that offered of overturning these private jurisdictions.

Alexei died in 1676, leaving three sons and six daughters. Two of the sons, Feodor and Ivan, were by a first marriage; the third, Peter, by a second. The two former, particularly Ivan, were of a delicate constitution, and some attempts were made by the relations of Peter, to set them aside. These attempts, however, proved unsuccessful, and Feodor was appointed the successor of Alexei.

The reign of this prince was short, and distinguished rather for the happiness which the nation then experienced, than for the importance of the transactions that took place. He died in 1682, but before his death nominated his half-brother, Peter, his successor.

The succession of Peter, though appointed by their favourite tzar Feodor, was by no means pleasing to the majority of the Russian nobles, and it was particularly opposed by Galitzin, the prime minister of the late tzar. This able man had espoused the interest of Sophia, the sister of Feodor and Ivan, a young woman of eminent abilities, and the most insinuating address. Sophia, upon the pretence of asserting the claims of her brother Ivan, who, though of a feeble constitution and weak intellects, was considered as the lawful heir of the crown, had really formed a design of securing the succession to herself; and, with that view, had not only insinuated herself into the good graces of Galitzin, but had brought over to her interests the Strelitzes. These licentious soldiers assembled for the purpose, as was pretended, of placing on the throne Prince Ivan, whom they proclaimed tzar by acclamation. During three days they roved about the city of Moscow, committing the greatest excesses, and putting to death several of the chief officers of state, who were suspected of being hostile to the designs of Sophia. Their employer did not, however, entirely gain her point; for as the new tzar entertained a sincere affection for his half-brother Peter, he insisted that this prince should share with him the imperial dignity. This was at length agreed to; and on the 6th of May, 1682, Ivan and Peter were solemnly crowned joint emperors of all the Russias, while the princess Sophia was nominated their co-partner in the government.

From the imbecility of Ivan and the youth of Peter, who was now only 10 years of age, the whole power of the government rested in Sophia and her minister Galitzin, though till the year 1687, the names of Ivan and Peter only were annexed to the imperial decrees. Scarcely had Sophia established her authority than she was threatened with deposition, from an alarming insurrection of the Strelitzes. This was excited by their commander Prince Kovanskoi, who had demanded of Sophia that she would marry one of her sisters to his son, but had met with a mortifying refusal from the princess. In consequence of this insurrection, which threw the whole city of Moscow into terror and consternation, Sophia and the two young tzars took refuge in a monastery, about 32 leagues from the capital; and before the Strelitzes could follow them thither, a considerable body of soldiers, principally foreigners, was assembled in their defence. Kovanskoi was taken prisoner, and instantly beheaded; and though his followers at first threatened dreadful vengeance on his executioners, they soon found themselves obliged to submit. From every regiment was selected the tenth man who was to suffer as an atonement for the rest; but this cruel punishment was remitted, and only the most guilty among the ringleaders suffered death.

The quelling of these disturbances gave leisure to the friends of Peter to pursue the plans which they had formed for subverting the authority of Sophia; and about this time a favourable opportunity offered, in consequence of a rupture with Turkey. The Porte was now engaged in a war with Poland and the German empire, and both these latter powers had solicited the assistance of Russia against the common enemy. Sophia and her party were averse to the alliance; but as there were in the council many secret friends of Peter, these had sufficient influence to persuade the majority, that a Turkish war would be of advantage to the state. They even prevailed on Galitzin to put himself at the head of the army, and thus removed their principal opponent. Assembling an army of nearly 300,000 men, he marched towards the confines of Turkey, and here consumed two campaigns in marches and countermarches, and lost nearly 40,000 men, partly in unsuccessful skirmishes with the enemy, but chiefly from disease.

While Galitzin was thus trifling away his time in the south, Peter, who already began to give proofs of those great talents which afterwards enabled him to act so conspicuous a part in the theatre of the north, was strengthening his party among the Russian nobles. His ordinary residence was at a village not far from Moscow, and here he had assembled round him a considerable number of young men

men of rank and influence, whom he called his play-mates. Among these were two foreigners, Lefort, a Genevese, and Gordon, a Scotchman, who afterwards signalized themselves in his service. These young men had formed a sort of military company, of which Lefort was captain, while the young tzar, beginning with the situation of drummer, gradually rose through every subordinate office. Under this appearance of a military game, Peter was secretly establishing himself in the affections of his young companions, and effectually lulled the suspicions of Sophia, till it was too late for her to oppose his machinations.

About the middle of the year 1689, Peter, who had now attained his seventeenth year, determined to make an effort to deprive Sophia of all share in the government, and to secure to himself the undivided sovereignty. On occasion of a solemn religious meeting that was held, Sophia had claimed the principal place as regent of the empire; but this claim was strenuously opposed by Peter, who, rather than fill a subordinate situation, quitted the place of assembly, and with his friends and adherents, withdrew to the monastery of the Holy Trinity, which had formerly sheltered both him and his co-partners from the fury of the Strelitzes. This was the signal for an open rupture. Sophia, finding that she could not openly oppose the party of the tzar, attempted to procure his assassination; but as her design was discovered, she thought proper to solicit an accommodation. This was agreed to, on condition that she should give up all claim to the regency, and retire to a nunnery. The commander of the Strelitzes, who was to have been her agent in the assassination of Peter, was beheaded, and the minister Galitzin sent into banishment to Archangel.

Peter now saw himself in undisputed possession of the imperial throne; for though Ivan was still nominally tzar, he had voluntarily resigned all participation in the administration of affairs, and retired to a life of obscurity. The first object to which the tzar directed his attention was the establishment of a regular and well disciplined military force. He commissioned Lefort and Gordon to levy new regiments, which, in their whole constitution, dress, and military exercises, should be formed on the model of other European troops. He next resolved to carry into execution the design which had been formed by his father, of constructing a navy. For this purpose he first took a journey to Archangel, where he employed himself in examining the operations of the shipwrights, and occasionally taking a part in their labours; but as he learned that the art of shipbuilding was practised in greater perfection in Holland, and some other maritime countries of Europe, he sent thither several young Russians to be initiated into the best method of constructing ships of war.

The war with Turkey still languished, but Peter was resolved to prosecute it with vigour, hoping to get possession of the town of Azof, and thus open a passage to the Black Sea. He placed Gordon, Lefort, and two of his nobles at the head of the forces destined for this expedition, and himself attended the army as a private volunteer. The success of the first campaign was but trifling, and Peter found that his deficiency of artillery, and his want of transports, prevented him from making an effectual attack on Azof. These difficulties, however, were soon surmounted. He procured a supply of artillery and engineers from the Dutch, and found means to provide a number of transports. With these auxiliaries he opened the second campaign, defeated the Turks on the sea of Azof, and made himself master of the town. On account of these successes, Peter, on his return from the seat of war, marched his troops into Moscow in triumphal procession, in which Lefort, as admiral of the transports, and Scheim, as commander of the land forces, bore the most conspicuous parts, while Peter himself was lost without distinction in the crowd of subaltern officers.

He now resolved to form a fleet in the Black Sea; but as his own revenues were insufficient for this purpose, he issued a *ukase*, commanding the patriarch and other dignified clergy, the nobility and the merchants, to contribute a part of their income towards fitting out a certain number of ships. This proclamation was extremely unpopular, and, together with the numerous innovations which Peter was every day introducing, especially his sending the young nobles to visit foreign countries, and his own avowed intention of making the tour of Europe, contributed to raise against him a formidable party. The vigilance and prudence of the tzar, however, extricated him from the dangers with which he was threatened, and enabled him to carry into execution his proposed journey.

On his return to his own dominions, Peter passed through Rawa, where Augustus king of Poland then was. The tzar had determined, in conjunction with Augustus and the king of Denmark, to take advantage of the youth and inexperience of Charles XII., who had just succeeded to the Swedish throne; and in this interview with Augustus, he made the final arrangements for the part which each was to take in the war. Augustus was to receive Livonia as his part of the spoil, while Frederick king of Denmark had his eye on Holstein, and Peter had formed designs on Ingria, formerly a province of the Russian empire.

In the middle of the year 1700, Charles had left his capital, to oppose these united enemies. He soon compelled the king of Denmark to give up his designs on Holstein, and sign a treaty of peace; and being thus at liberty to turn his arms against the other members of the confederacy, he resolved first to lead his army against the king of Poland; but on his way he received intelligence that the tzar had laid siege to Narva with 100,000 men. On this he immediately embarked at Carlscrona, though it was then the depth of winter, and the Baltic was scarcely navigable; and soon landed at Pernaw in Livonia with part of his forces, having ordered the rest to Reval. His army did not exceed 20,000 men, but it was composed of the best soldiers in Europe, while that of the Russians was little better than an undisciplined multitude. Every possible obstruction, however, had been thrown in the way of the Swedes. Thirty thousand Russians were posted in a defile on the road, and this corps was sustained by another body of 20,000 drawn up some leagues nearer Narva. Peter himself had set out to hasten the march of a reinforcement of 40,000 men, with whom he intended to attack the Swedes in flank and rear; but the celerity and valour of Charles baffled every attempt to oppose him. He set out with 4000 foot, and an equal number of cavalry, leaving the rest of the army to follow at their leisure. With this small body he attacked and defeated the Russian armies successively, and pushed his way to Peter's camp, for the attack of which he gave immediate orders. This camp was fortified by lines of circumvallation and contravallation, by redouts, by a line of 150 brass cannons placed in front, and defended by an army of 80,000 men; yet so violent was the attack of the Swedes, that in three hours the entrenchments were carried, and Charles, with only 4000 men, that composed the wing which he commanded, pursued the flying enemy, amounting to 50,000, to the river Narva. Here the bridge broke down with the weight of the fugitives, and the river was filled with their bodies. Great numbers returned in despair to their camp, where they defended themselves for a short time, but were at last obliged to surrender. In this battle 30,000 were killed in the entrenchments and the pursuit, or drowned in the river; 20,000 surrendered at discretion, and were dismissed unarmed, while the rest were totally dispersed. A hundred and fifty pieces of cannon, 28 mortars, 151 pairs of colours, 20 standards, and all the Russian baggage, fell into the hands of the Swedes, and the duke de Croy, the prince of Georgia, and seven other generals were made prisoners. Charles behaved with the greatest generosity to the conquered. Being informed that the tradesmen of Narva had refused credit to the officers whom he detained prisoners, he sent 1000 ducats to the duke de Croy, and to every other officer a proportionable sum.

Peter was advancing with 40,000 men to surround the Swedes, when he received intelligence of the dreadful defeat at Narva. He was greatly chagrined; but comforting himself with the hope that the Swedes would in time teach the Russians

sians to beat them, he returned to his own dominions, where he applied himself with the utmost diligence to the raising of another army. He evacuated all the provinces which he had invaded, and for a time abandoned all his great projects, thus leaving Charles at liberty to prosecute the war against Poland.

As Augustus had expected an attack, he endeavoured to draw the tzar into a close alliance with him. The two monarchs had an interview at Birsen, where it was agreed that Augustus should lend the tzar 50,000 German soldiers, to be paid by Russia; that the tzar should send an equal number of his troops to be trained up to the art of war in Poland; and that he should pay the king 3,000,000 of rix-dollars in the space of two years. Of this treaty Charles had notice, and by means of his minister Count Piper, entirely frustrated the scheme.

After the battle of Narva, Charles became confident and negligent, while the activity of Peter increased with his losses. He supplied his want of artillery by melting down the bells of the churches, and constructed numerous small vessels on the lake of Ladogo, to oppose the entrance of the Swedes into his dominions. He took every advantage of Charles's negligence, and engaged in frequent skirmishes, in which, though often beaten, he was sometimes victorious. Thus, he proved to his soldiers, that the Swedes though conquerors, were not invincible, and kept up the spirit of his troops by liberally rewarding every instance of courage and success. He contrived to make himself master of the river Neva, and captured Nyenschantz, a fortress at the mouth of that river. Here he laid the foundation of that city which he had long projected, and which was to become the future metropolis of his empire. At length, in 1704, he became master of Ingria, and appointed his favourite Prince Menzikoff to be viceroy of that province, with strict orders to make the building of the new city his principal concern. Here already buildings were rising in every quarter, and navigation and commerce were increasing in vigour and extent.

In the mean time Augustus, king of Poland, though treating with Charles for the surrender of his dominions, was obliged to keep up the appearance of war, which he had neither ability nor inclination to conduct. He had been lately joined by Prince Menzikoff with 30,000 Russians; and this obliged him, contrary to his inclination, to hazard an engagement with Meyerfeldt, who commanded 10,000 men, one half of whom were Swedes. The whole Swedish army were taken prisoners. Augustus had scarcely sung *Te Deum* for this victory, when his plenipotentiary returned from Saxony with the articles of the treaty, by which he was to renounce all claim to the crown of Poland in favour of his rival Stanislaus. The king hesitated and scrupled, but at last signed them; after which he set out for Saxony, glad at any rate to be freed from such an enemy as the king of Sweden, and from such allies as the Russians.

The tzar Peter was no sooner informed of this extraordinary treaty, than he sent letters to every court in Christendom, complaining of this gross violation of the law of nations. He entreated the emperor, the queen of Britain, and the States-General, to revenge this insult on humanity. He stigmatized the compliance of Augustus with the opprobrious name of pusillanimity; exhorted them not to guarantee a treaty so unjust, but to despise the menaces of the Swedish bully. So well, however, was the prowess of the king of Sweden known, that none of the allies thought proper to irritate him, by refusing to guarantee any treaty he thought proper. At first, Peter thought of revenging Patkul's death by massacreing the Swedish prisoners at Moscow; but from this he was deterred, by remembering that Charles had many more Russian prisoners than he himself had of Swedes. Giving over all thoughts of revenging himself in this way, therefore, in the year 1707, he entered Poland at the head of 60,000 men. Advancing to Leopold, he made himself master of that city, where he assembled a diet, and solemnly deposed Stanislaus with the same ceremonies which had been used with regard to Augustus. The country was now reduced to the most miserable situation; one party, through fear, adhered to the Swedes; another was gained over, or forced by Peter to take part with him; a violent civil war took place between the two, and great numbers of people were butchered; while cities, towns, and villages, were laid in ashes by the frantic multitude. The appearance of a Swedish army under king Stanislaus and General Lewenhaupt, put a stop to these disorders, Peter himself not caring to stand before such enemies. He retired, therefore, into Lithuania, giving out as the cause of his retreat, that the country could not supply him with provision and forage necessary for so great an army.

The armies of Sweden, in Saxony, Poland, and Finland, now exceeded 70,000 men; a force more than sufficient to have conquered all the power of Russia, had they met on equal terms. Peter, who had his army dispersed in small parties, instantly assembled it on receiving notice of the king of Sweden's march, and was on the point of attacking Stanislaus, when the approach of Charles struck his whole army with terror. In the month of January, 1708, Charles passed the Niemen, and entered the south gate of Grodno just as Peter was quitting the place by the north gate. Charles at this time had advanced some distance before the army, at the head of 600 horse.

The tzar having intelligence of his situation, sent back a detatchment of 2000 men to attack him, but these were entirely defeated; and thus Charles became possessed of the whole province of Lithuania. The king pursued his flying enemies in the midst of ice and snow, over mountains, rivers, and morasses, and through obstacles, which to surmount seemed impossible to human power. These difficulties, however, he had foreseen and had prepared to meet them. As he knew that the country could not furnish provisions sufficient for the subsistence of his army, he had provided a large quantity of biscuit, and on this his troops chiefly subsisted, till they came on the banks of the Berizine, in view of Borislow. Here the tzar was posted, and Charles intended to give him battle, after which he could the more easily penetrate into Russia. Peter, however, did not think proper to come to an action: but retreated towards the Dnieper, whither he was pursued by Charles, as soon as he had refreshed his army. The Russians had destroyed the roads, and desolated the country, yet the Swedish army advanced with great celerity, and in their march defeated 20,000 Russians, who were strongly entrenched. This victory, considering the circumstances in which it was gained, was one of the most glorious that ever Charles had achieved. The memory of it is preserved by a medal struck in Sweden with this inscription, "Sylvæ, paludes, aggeres, hostes, victi."

When the Russians had repassed the Dnieper, the tzar, finding himself pursued by an enemy with whom he could not cope, retreated; but Charles pursued so closely, that daily skirmishes took place between his advanced guard and the rear of the Russians. In these actions the Sweedes generally had the advantage, though their petty victories cost them dear, by contributing to weaken their force in a country where it could not be recruited. The two armies came so close to each other at Smolensk, that an engagagement took place between a body of Russians composed of 10,000 cavalry and 6000 Kalmuks, and the Swedish vanguard, composed of only six regiments, but commanded by the king in person. Here the Russians were again defeated, but Charles having been separated from the main body of his detatchment, was exposed to great danger. With one regiment only he fought with such fury, as to drive the enemy before him, when they thought themselves sure of making him prisoner.

By the third of October, 1708, Charles had approached within 100 leagues of Moscow; but Peter had rendered the roads impassable, and had destroyed the villages on every side, so as to cut off every possibility of subsistence to the enemy. The season was far advanced, and the severity of winter was approaching, so that the Swedes were threatened, with all the miseries of cold and famine, at the same time that they were exposed to the attacks of an enemy greatly superior in number, who, from their knowledge of the country, had almost constant opportunities of harassing and attacking

attacking them by surprise. For these reasons the king resolved to pass the Ukraine, where Mazeppa, a Polish gentleman, was general and chief of the nation. Mazeppa having been affronted by the tzar, readily entered into a treaty with Charles, whom he promised to assist with 30,000 men, great quantities of provisions and ammunition, and with all his treasures, which were immense. The Swedish army advanced towards the river Disna, only to encounter the greatest difficulties; a forest above forty leagues in extent, filled with rocks, mountains, and marshes. To complete their misfortunes, they were led 30 leagues out of the right way; all the artillery was sunk in bogs and marshes; the provision of the soldiers, which consisted of biscuit, was exhausted; and the whole army spent and emaciated when they arrived at the Disna. Here they expected to have met Mazeppa with his reinforcement; but instead of that, they perceived the opposite banks of the river covered with a hostile army, and the passage itself almost impracticable. Charles, however, was still undaunted; he let his soldiers by ropes down the steep banks, they crossed the river either by swimming, or on rafts hastily put together; drove the Russians from their post, and continued their march. Mazeppa soon after appeared, having with him about 6000 men, the broken remains of the army he had promised. The Russians had got intelligence of his designs, defeated and dispersed his adherents, laid his town in ashes, and taken all the provisions collected for the Swedish army. However, he still hoped to be useful by his intelligence in an unknown country; and the Kozaks, out of revenge, crowded daily to the camp with provisions.

Greater misfortunes still awaited the Swedes. When Charles entered the Ukraine, he had sent orders to General Lewenhaupt to meet him with 15000 men, 6000 of whom were Swedes, and a large convoy of provisions. Against this detachment Peter now bent his whole force, and marched against it with an army of 65,000 men. Lewenhaupt had received intelligence that the Russian army consisted of only 24,000, a force to which he thought 6000 Swedes superior, and therefore disdained to entrench himself. A furious contest ensued, in which the Russians were defeated with the loss of 15,000 men. Now, however, affairs began to take another turn. The Swedes elated with victory, prosecuted their march into the interior; but from the ignorance or treachery of their guides, were led into a marshy country, where the roads were made impassable by felled trees and deep ditches. Here they were attacked by the tzar with his whole army. Lewenhaupt had sent a detachment to dispute the passage with a body of Russians of a morass; but finding it likely to be overpowered, he marched to support it with all his infantry. Another desperate battle ensued: the Russians were once more thrown into disorder, and were just on the point of being totally defeated, when Peter gave orders to the Kozaks and Kalmuks to fire upon all that fled; "Even kill me said he, if I should be so cowardly as to turn my back." The battle was now renewed with great vigour; but the day would have been lost, had not General Bauer arrived with a strong reinforcement of fresh Russian troops. The engagement was once more renewed, and continued without intermission till night. The Swedes then took possession of an advantageous post, but were next morning attacked by the Russians. Lewenhaupt had formed a sort of rampart with his waggons, but was obliged to set fire to them to prevent their falling into the hands of the Russians, while he retreated under cover of the smoke. The tzar's troops however, arrived in time to save 500 of these waggons, filled with provisions, destined for the distressed Swedes. A strong detachment was sent to pursue Lewenhaupt; but so terrible did he now appear, that the Russian general offered him an honourable capitulation. This was rejected with disdain and a fresh engagement took place, in which the Swedes, now reduced to 4000, again defeated their enemies, and killed 5000 on the spot. After this, Lewenhaupt was allowed to pursue his retreat without molestation, though deprived of all his cannon and provisions. Prince Menzikof was indeed detached with a body of forces to harass him on his march; but the Swedes were now so formidable, even in their distress, that Menzikoff dared not attack them, so that Lewenhaupt with his 4000 men arrived safe in the camp of Charles, after having destroyed nearly 30,000 of the Russians.

This may be said to have been the last successful effort of Swedish valour against the troops of Peter. The difficulties which Charles's army had now to undergo, exceed what human nature could support; yet still they hoped by constancy and courage to subdue them. In the severest winter known for a long time, even in Russia, they make long marches, clothed like savages in the skins of wild beasts. All the draught horses perished; thousands of soldiers dropt down dead through cold and hunger; and by the month of February 1709, the whole army was reduced to 18,000. Amidst numberless difficulties these penetrated to Pultava, a town on the eastern frontier of the Ukraine, where the tzar had laid up magazines, and of these Charles resolved to obtain possession. Mazeppa advised the king to invest the place in consequence of his having corresponded with some of the inhabitants, by whose means he hoped it would be surrendered. However he was deceived; the beseiged made an obstinate defence, the Swedes were repulsed in every assault, and 8000 of them were defeated, and almost entirely cut off, in an engagement with a party of Russians. To complete his misfortunes, Charles received a shot in his heel from a carbine, which shattered the bone. For six hours after, he continued calmly on horseback, giving orders, till he fainted with the loss of blood; after which he was carried into his tent.

For some days the tzar, with an army of 70,000 men, had lain at a small distance, harrassing the Swedish camp, and cutting off the convoys of provision; but now intelligence was received, that he was advancing as if with a design of attacking the lines. In this situation, Charles, wounded, distressed, and almost surrounded by enemies, is said to have for the first time assembled a grand council of war, the result of which was, that it became expedient to march out and attack the Russians. Voltaire, however, totally denies that the king relaxed one jot of his wonted obstinancy and arbitrary temper: but that, on the 7th of July, he sent for General Renschild, and told him, without any emotion, to prepare for attacking the enemy next morning.

The 8th of July, 1709, is remarkable for the battle which decided the fate of Sweden. Charles having left 8000 men in the camp to defend the works and repel the sallies of the besieged, began to march against his enemies by break of day with the rest of the army, consisting of 26,000 men, of whom 18,000 were Kozaks. The Russians were drawn up in two lines behind their entrenchments, the horse in front, and the foot in the rear, with chasms to suffer the horse to fall back in case of necessity. General Slippenbach was dispatched to attack the cavalry, which he did with such impetuosity that they were broken in an instant. They, however, rallied behind the infantry, and returned to the charge with so much vigour, that the Swedes were disordered in their turn, and Slippenbach made prisoner. Charles was now carried in his litter to the scene of confusion. His troops re-animated by the presence of their leader, returned to the charge, and the battle became doubtful, when a blunder of General Creuk, who had been dispatched by Charles to take the Russians in flank, and a successful manœuvre of Prince Menzikoff, decided the fortune of the day in favour of the Russians. Creuk's detachment was defeated, and Menzikoff, who had been sent by Peter with a strong body to post himself between the Swedes and Pultava, so as to cut off the communication of the enemy with their camp, and fall upon their rear, executed his orders with so much success, as to cut off a corps de reserve of 3000 men. Charles had ranged his remaining troops in two lines, with the infantry in the centre, and the horse on the two wings. They had already twice rallied, and were now again attacked on all sides with the utmost fury. Charles in his litter, with a drawn sword in one hand, and a pistol in the other, seemed to be every where present; but new misfortunes awaited him. A cannon

cannon ball killed both horses in the litter; and scarcely were these replaced by a fresh pair, when a second ball broke the litter in pieces, and overturned the king. The Swedish soldiers believing him killed, fell back in consternation. The first line was completely broken, and the second fled. Charles, though disabled, did every thing in his power to restore order; but the Russians, emboldened by success, pressed so hard on they flying foe, that it was impossible to rally them. Benschild and several other general officers were taken prisoners, and Charles himself would have shared the same fate, had not Count Poniatofski with 500 horse, surrounded the royal person, and with desperate fury cut his way through ten regiments of the Russians. With his small guard the king arrived on the banks of the Dnieper, and was followed by Lewenhaupt with 4000 foot, and all the remaining cavalry. The Russians took possession of the Swedish camp, where they found a prodigious sum in specie; while Prince Menzikoff pursued the flying Swedes; and as they were in want of boats to cross the Dnieper, obliged them to surrender at discretion. Charles escaped with the utmost difficulty, but at length reached Otchakof on the frontiers of Turkey.

By this decisive victory, Peter remained in quiet possession of his new acquisitions on the Baltic, and was enabled to carry on, without molestation, the improvements which he had projected at the mouth of the Neva. His haughty rival, so long and so justly dreaded, was now completely humbled, and his ally, the king of Poland, was again established on his throne. During the eight years that had elapsed from the battle of Narva to that of Pultava, the Russian troops had acquired the discipline and steadiness of veterans, and had at length learned to beat their former conquerors. Peter made his triumphal entry into Moscow for the third time, and the public rejoicings on this occasion far exceeded all that had before been witnessed in the Russian empire.

The vanquished Charles had, in the mean time, found a valuable friend in the monarch in whose territories he had taken refuge. Achmet II., who then filled the Ottoman throne, had beheld with admiration the warlike achievements of the Swedish hero, and, alarmed at the late successes of his rival, determined to afford Charles the most effectual aid. In 1711, the Turkish emperor assembled an immense army, and was preparing to invade the Russian territories, when the tzar, having intimation of his design, and expecting powerful support from Cantemir, hospodar of Moldavia, a vassal of the Porte, resolved to anticipate the Turks, and to make an inroad into Moldavia. Forgetting his usual prudence and circumspection, Peter crossed the Dnieper, and advanced by rapid marches as far as Yassy or Jassy, the capital of that province, situated on the river Pruth; but his temerity had nearly cost him his liberty, if not his life. Here he was surrounded, and but for the prudent and sage counsels of his consort, Catharine I., he would most probably have been taken prisoner, or reduced to the most humiliating terms. But by the treaty which was concluded, Peter was extricated from a dangerous enemy, and returned to his capital.

The year 1718 is memorable in the history of Peter, as the æra of two important events—the death of his rival, Charles XII., and the execution of his son, Alexis. The latter prince was the offspring of Peter's first marriage. The education of Alexis was much neglected; and he was chiefly left to the tuition of ignorant priests, from whom he imbibed all the vulgar prejudices of their station, with a rooted aversion to his father's improvements. As he grew up, he contracted habits of intemperance and gross debauchery, with a fondness for the lowest company. His father seems never to have felt any affection for him, and treated him with a harshness that rendered him always uneasy in his presence. In the year 1716, renouncing his right of succession in favour of Peter's son by Catharine, he requested permission to retire into a convent. But, during the tzar's absence, he secretly left Russia, and put himself under the protection of the Emperor Charles, at Vienna. By him the tzarowitz was sent first to Inspruck, and then to the castle of St. Elmo, in Naples. He was discovered in this retreat, and by means of solemn promises of forgiveness, was induced to return to Moscow. That Peter should resolve to exclude from the succession a son of such a character, who had openly declared his intention, should he come to the crown, of abolishing all that his father had done, is not to be wondered at, and might be esteemed an act of patriotism. But he determined to proceed further, and subject his unhappy son to the penalties of high treason. He instituted a process for enquiring into all the tzarowitz's delinquencies, which was conducted in the most inquisitorial manner, and, it is said, not without personal severities to the culprit; and to the other charges was added that of a conspiracy against his father, with the intention of usurping the throne, a circumstance highly improbable, considering his character and disposition. In fine, a confession was extorted from him, together with the disclosure of his partizans and advisers, and he was declared, both by the civil and ecclesiastical court assembled on this occasion, to be worthy of death. The sentence was read to him on July 6, 1718, and on the next day it was reported that his agitation of mind had thrown him into violent convulsions, and that his life was in danger. The tzar, with some of his courtiers, repaired to the chamber in which he was confined, where it is said that the prince implored his forgiveness, and received it in pathetic terms; and on the same day he expired. Many mysterious circumstances, however, attended his death; and there are strong grounds to suppose that he had been obliged to take poison. It is certain that Peter displayed few marks of paternal affection in the whole transaction; and he punished, with extreme barbarity, all whom his son had named as his confidants.

The death of the king of Sweden soon compelled the Swedes to sue for peace, which was concluded under the mediation of France, in 1721, and Livonia, Esthonia, and Carelia remained to Russia. On this occasion, the senate of that country requested the tzar to accept the title of Peter the Great, Father of his country, and *Emperor of all the Russias*. The title of tzar fell into disuse. Peter now removed the principal mart of trade from Archangel to Petersburgh, which was become already a large and handsome city.

The designs of this great prince continually expanded with his successes; and as he had opened the Baltic Sea to his subjects at one extremity of his dominions, he resolved to attempt the same with respect to the Caspian, at the other extremity. Making use of the pretext of some violences that had been offered to his people by the Lesghi Persians and Usbeck Tartars, he fitted out a fleet at Astrachan and on the Volga, and marched with a considerable body of troops, in May, 1722, to embark for an expedition into the provinces bordering on the Caspian Sea. By himself and his generals, he obtained possession of the ports of Derbend, Terki, Baku, and of the provinces of Dagestan and Shirvan. The Porte took umbrage at these conquests over a Mahometan power, but by the mediation of the French ambassador, was prevented from interfering. Peter, in fine, concluded a treaty with the Persian sovereign, by which Derbend, Baku, and the provinces of Ghilan, Mazanderan, and Asterban, were ceded to Russia in perpetuity. His empire being now entirely at peace, he proceeded to crown his beloved Catherine. (See CATHERINE.)—Soon after he was attacked by a suppression of urine, attended with an inflammation of the bladder, which, after extreme pain, put an end to his life in 1725, in the 53d year of his age.

This great prince was of a lofty stature, and of a commanding but rude and ferocious countenance. His gestures were quick and impatient, his speech fluent and animated. His manners were gross and uncultivated; and in the midst of his attempts to civilize his nation, he himself remained a semi-barbarian. He was, however, easy and familiar with his inmates, and with those from whom he expected to derive instruction; and, like all truly great men, loved to lay aside pomp, and bring himself to the level of his company. He was furious and ungovernable in his fits of anger, and cruel and inexorable in his punishments, in which he occasionally

sionally officiated as the executioner; he was, however, capable of sentiments of justice and humanity, when brought to cool reflexion. His talents were certainly considerable; and although he did not always take the best road to instruction, his personal acquisitions were various and respectable. If he is estimated by what he *performed*, (the true measure of an absolute sovereign), very few princes in any age can be compared to him. Russia, at his accession, did not possess a single ship of war, and he left it with 40 ships of the line and 400 galleys. It was excluded from the Baltic, and he founded a maritime capital on a branch of that sea. He converted a seditious and half-disciplined militia into a regular army capable of meeting the best troops in Europe. He introduced a police into the great towns, which rendered them secure and comfortable abodes. He planned, and in part executed, a grand system of internal navigation, by which a junction is formed between the remotest parts of that extensive country and the seas surrounding it. He was the creator of a great number of institutions for the promotion of learning and the useful arts and sciences; among which, may be enumerated colleges at the principal cities for the languages and mathematics, an academy of marine and navigation, a college of medicine, with anatomical lectures and a botanical garden, an astronomical observatory, an imperial library and printing-offices, and the academy of sciences at Petersburgh, which he instituted, though death prevented him from putting it in activity. He reformed the architecture of his country, and introduced many improvements in the commerce of private life. He did not, indeed, *civilize* a nation, which long after retained many traces of barbarism, but he roused it from its torpor, gave it the means of future improvement, and was the principal author of that political importance which it has since attained.

Peter was succeeded, A. D. 1725, by his consort Catharine, in whose favour he had, some years before his death, altered the order of succession. As the character of this princess, and the transactions of her short reign, have been fully detailed under her life, we shall here only notice, in the most cursory manner, the events that took place.

From the commencement of her reign, Catharine conducted herself with the greatest benignity and gentleness, and thus secured the love and veneration of her subjects, which she had acquired during the life of the emperor. She reduced the annual capitation tax; ordered the numerous gibbets which Peter had erected in various parts of the country to be cut down, and had the bodies of those who had fallen victims to his tyranny, decently interred. She recalled the greater part of those whom Peter had exiled to Siberia; paid the troops their arrears; restored to the Kozaks those privileges and immunities of which they had been deprived during the late reign; and she continued in office most of the servants of Peter, both civil and military. She concluded a treaty with the German emperor, by which it was stipulated, that in case of attack from an enemy, either party should assist the other with a force of 30,000 men, and should each guarantee the possessions of the other. In her reign, the boundaries of the empire were extended by the submission of a Georgian prince, and the voluntary homage of the Kubinskian Tartars. She died on the 17th of May, 1727, having reigned about two years. She had settled the crown on Peter, the son of the tzarovitch Alexei, who succeeded by the title of Peter II.

Peter was only twelve years of age when he succeeded to the Imperial throne, and his reign was short and uninteresting. He was guided chiefly by Prince Menzikoff, whose daughter Catharine he had decreed him to marry. This ambitious man who, from the mean condition of a pie-boy, had risen to the first offices of the state, and had, during the late reign, principally conducted the administration of the government, was now, however, drawing towards the end of his career. The number of his enemies had greatly increased, and their attempts to work his downfall now succeeded. A young nobleman of the family of the Dolgorukis, who was one of Peter's chief companions, was excited by his relations, and the other enemies of Menzikoff, to instil into the mind of the young prince, sentiments hostile to that minister. In this commission he succeeded so well, that Menzikoff and his whole family, not excepting the young empress, were banished to Siberia, and the Dolgorukis took into their hands the management of affairs. Peter died of the small-pox, in January, 1730.

Notwithstanding the absolute power with which Peter I. and the empress Catharine had settled by will the succession to the throne, the Russian senate and nobility, upon the death of Peter II., ventured to set aside the order of sucession which those sovereigns had established. The male issue of Peter was now extinct; and the duke of Holstein, son to Peter's eldest daughter, was by the destination of the late empress, entitled to the crown; but the Russians, for political reasons, filled the throne with Anne, duchess of Courland, second daughter to Ivan, Peter's eldest brother; though her eldest sister, the duchess of Mecklenburg, was alive. Her reign was extremely prosperous; and though she accepted the crown under limitations that some thought derogatory to her dignity, yet she broke them all, asserted the prerogative of her ancestors, and punished the aspiring Dolgoruki family, who had imposed upon her limitations, with a view, as it is said, that they themselves might govern. She raised her favourite Biron to the duchy of Courland; and was obliged to give way to many severe executions on his account. Few transactions of any importance took place during the reign of Anne. She followed the example of her great predecessor Peter, by interfering in the affairs of Poland, where she had sufficient interest to establish on the throne Augustus III. This interference had nearly involved her in a war with France, and she had already sent considerable armies to the banks of the Rhine, for the purpose of acting against that power, when the conclusion of a treaty of peace rendered them unnecessary. She entered into a treaty with the shah of Persia, by which she agreed to give up all title to the territories that had been seized by Peter I. on the shores of the Caspian, in consideration of certain privileges to be granted to the Russian merchants.

In 1735, a rupture took place between Russia and Turkey, occasioned partly by the mutual jealousies that had subsisted between these powers, ever since the treaty on the Pruth, and partly by the depredations of the Tartars of the Crimea, then under the dominion of the Porte. A Russian army entered the Crimea, ravaged part of the country, and killed a considerable number of Tartars; but having ventured too far, without a sufficient supply of provisions, was obliged to retreat, after sustaining a loss of nearly 10,000 men. This ill success did not discourage the court of St. Petersburgh; and in the following year another armament was sent into the Ukraine, under the command of Marshal Munich, while an army under Lascy proceeded against Azof. Both these generals met with considerable success; the Tartars were defeated, and the fort of Azof once more submitted to the Russian arms. A third campaign took place in 1737, and the Russians were now assisted by a body of Austrian troops. Munich laid siege to Otchakof, which soon surrendered, while Lascy desolated the Crimea.

No material advantages were, however, gained on either side; and disputes arose between the Austrian and Russian generals. At length in 1739, Marshal Munich having crossed the Bog at the head of a considerable army, defeated the Turks in a pitched battle near Stavutshan, made himself master of Yassy, the capital of Moldavia, and before the end of the campaign reduced the whole of that province under his subjection. These successes of the Russian arms induced the Porte to propose terms of accommodation; and in the latter end of 1739, a treaty was concluded, by which Russia again gave up Azof and Moldavia, and to compensate the loss of above 100,000 men, and vast sums of money, gained nothing but permission to build a fortress on the Don.

Upon the death of Anne, which took place in 1740, Ivan, the son of her niece the princess of Mecklenburg, was, by her will, entitled to the succession; but being no more than two years old, Biron was appointed to be administrator of the empire during his minority. This nomination was disagree-able

able to the princess of Mecklenburg and her husband, and unpopular among the Russians. Count Munich was employed by the princess of Mecklenburg to arrest Biron, who was tried, and condemned to die, but was sent into exile to Siberia.

The administration of the princess Anne of Mecklenburg and her husband was upon many accounts disagreeable, not only to the Russians, but to other powers of Europe; and notwithstanding a prosperous war they carried on with the Swedes, the princess Elizabeth, daughter by Catharine to Peter the Great, formed such a party that in one night's time she was declared and proclaimed Empress of all the Russias; and the princess of Mecklenburg, her husband, and son, were made prisoners. The fate of this unhappy family was peculiarly severe. All but Ivan were sent into banishment, to an island at the mouth of the Dvina, in the White Sea, where the princess Anne died in child-bed in 1747. Ivan's father survived till 1775, and at last ended his miserable career in prison. The young emperor Ivan was for some time shut up in a monastery at Oranienburg, when, on attempting to escape, he was removed to the castle of Schlusselberg, where he was put to death.

The chief instrument in rousing the ambition of Elizabeth, and procuring her elevation to the throne, was her physician and favourite Lestoc, who, partly by his insinuating address, and partly by the assistance of the French ambassador, brought over to Elizabeth's interest most of the royal guards.

During the short regency of Anne of Mecklenburg, a new war had commenced between Russia and Sweden and this war was carried on with considerable acrimony and some success, by Elizabeth. The Russian forces took possession of Abo, and made themselves masters of nearly all Finland. But at length in 1743, in consequence of the negociations that were carrying on relative to the succession of the Swedish crown, a peace was concluded between the two powers, on the condition that Elizabeth should restore the greater part of Finland.

Soon after her accession, Elizabeth determined to nominate her successor to the imperial throne, and had fixed her eyes on Charles Peter Ulric, son of the duke of Holstein Gottorp, by Anne, daughter of Peter the Great. This prince was accordingly invited into Russia, persuaded to become a member of the Greek church, and proclaimed grand duke of Russia, and heir of the empire. The ceremony of his baptism was performed on the 18th November, 1742, and he received the name of Peter Feodorovitch. He was at this time only fourteen years of age; but before he had attained his sixteenth year, his aunt had destined for him a consort in the person of Sophia Augusta Frederica, daughter of Christian Augustus prince of Anhalt-zerbst-Dornburg. It is unnecessary for us here to relate the circumstances that led to this marriage, and the unhappy consequences that resulted from it during the life of Elizabeth, as they have already been sufficiently detailed under the article CATHARINE II.

Having thus settled the order of succession, Elizabeth began to take an active part in the politics of Europe. The death of Charles VI. emperor of Germany, had left his daughter, Maria Theresa, queen of Hungary, at the mercy of the enterprising king of Prussia, till a formidable party, more from jealousy of that monarch's military fame than regard to the interests of an injured princess, was formed in her behalf. To this confederacy the empress of Russia acceded, and in 1747 sent a considerable body of troops into Germany, to the assistance of the empress queen. The events of this long and bloody contest have been fully detailed under the article PRUSSIA, and they comprise the greater part of those transactions in the reign of Elizabeth that do not particularly regard the internal policy of the empire. The more private transactions of the court of St. Petersburgh, as far as they are connected with the intrigues of her niece Catharine, and the follies of the grand duke Peter, have also been related in our life of CATHARINE II. Elizabeth died on the 5th January, 1762, the victim of disease brought on by intemperance.

Elizabeth, as empress, governed but little of herself; it being properly her ministers and favourites who dictated the regulations and decrees. Of this number, besides Bestuchef, was also Bazumosky, to whom, it has been said, the empress was even privately married. At the beginning of her reign, it is true, she went a few times to the sitting of the senate; but the matters transacted there were by much too serious for her mind; and, accordingly, she very soon left off that practice altogether, contenting herself by confirming with her signature the resolutions of that assembly, and the determinations of her minister, or the conference, which supplied the place of the council.

Her character in general was mild, as was evident from the tears it cost her whenever she received accounts from Prussia, even of victories gained by her own army, on account of the human blood by which they must necessarily have been purchased. Yet this delicate sensibility did not restrain her from prosecuting the war into which she had entered from a species of revenge, and for the purpose of humbling the king of Prussia, and even on her death-bed from exhorting those persons who surrounded her to the most vigorous continuation of it. It also proceeded from this sensibility, that immediately on her accession to the government she made the vow never to put her signature to a sentence of death: a resolution which she faithfully kept; though it is averred not to have been for the benefit of the empire; since, in consequence of it, the number of malefactors who deserved to die was every day increasing, and the commanders of the army declared that the soldiers were not to be restrained from their excesses by the severest corporal punishments they could employ; whereas such was their dread of a solemn execution, that a few examples of that nature would have effectually kept them in awe.

Commerce and literature, arts, manufactures, handicrafts, and the other means of livelihood, which had been fostered by the former sovereigns, continued their course under Elizabeth with increasing prosperity. The country products were obtained and wrought up in greater quantities, and several branches of profit were more zealously carried on. The sum appointed for the support of the academy of sciences founded by Peter I. at St. Petersburgh, was considerably augmented by Elizabeth; and she moreover established in 1758 the academy still subsisting for the arts of painting and sculpture, in which a number of young persons are brought up as painters, engravers, statuaries, architects, &c. At Moscow she endowed a university and two gymnasia.

The empress Elizabeth herself having a good voice, music, which Anne had already much encouraged, found under her administration a perpetual accession of disciples and admirers; so that even numbers of persons of distinction at St. Petersburgh became excellent performers. The art of acting plays was now also more general among the Russians. Formerly none but French or Italian pieces were performed on the stage of St. Petersburgh, whereas now Sumarokof obtained celebrity as a dramatic poet in his native language, and in 1756 Elizabeth laid the foundation of a Russian theatre in her residence.

The magnificence which had prevailed under Anne at the court of St. Petersburgh was not diminished during Elizabeth's reign, and the court establishment therefore amounted to extraordinary sums. Indeed, in this respect she did not imitate her great father; and accordingly in the seven years' war the want of a well stored treasury was already very sensibly felt.

The population of the empire was considerably increased under her reign; and so early as 1752, according to the statement in an account published by an official person, it was augmented by one-fifth.

Elizabeth continued the practice of her predecessors in encouraging foreigners to settle in her empire. Emigrant Servians cultivated a considerable tract of land, till then almost entirely uninhabited, on the borders of Turkey, where they built the town of Elizabethgorod, and multiplied so fast, that in the year 1764 a particular district was formed of these improvements, under the name of New Servia. Only the Jews Elizabeth was no less resolute not to tolerate than her father had been; insomuch that, so early in her reign as 1743,

1743, they were ordered to quit the country on pain of death.

The army was augmented under Elizabeth, but certainly not improved. The excessive licence which the regiments of guards, particularly the life company of the Preobajerskoy guards, presumed to exercise, under the very eyes of the empress in St. Petersburgh, afforded no good example to the rest of the army. A great number of excellent regulations that had been introduced into the army, were suffered by the Russian generals to fall into total disuse. The bad effects of this negligence were very soon perceived, when the Russians had to engage with the king of Prussia.

Elizabeth tarnished her reign, by the institution of a political court of inquisition, under the name of a secret state chancery, empowered to examine into and punish all such charges as related to the expression of any kind of displeasure against the measures of government. This, as is usual in such cases, opened a door to the vilest practices. And the lowest and most profligate of mankind were now employed as spies and informers.

The grand duke ascended the throne by the name of Peter III. This prince's conduct has been variously represented. He entered on the government possessed of an enthusiastic admiration of the virtues of the king of Prussia, with whom he immediately made peace, and whose principles and practice he seems to have adopted as patterns for his imitation. He might have surmounted the effects even of those peculiarities, unpopular as they then were in Russia; but it is said that he aimed at reformations in his dominions, which even Peter the Great durst not attempt; and that he ventured to cut off the beards of his clergy. He was certainly a weak man, whose chief amusement was buffoonery. He was a stranger to the country, its inhabitants, and their manners; and suffered himself to be persuaded by those about him, that his people were unworthy of his attention, except to make them, by means of the Prussian discipline, good fighting machines. These sentiments regulated his whole conduct and prepared the way for that revolution which improprieties of a different kind tended to hasten.

Becoming attached to one of the Vorontzoff ladies, sister to the princess Dashkoff, he disgusted his wife, who was then a lovely woman in the prime of life, of great natural talents and great acquired accomplishments. The princess Dashkoff, who was married to a man whose genius was not superior to that of the emperor, being *dame d'honneur*, and lady of the bed-chamber, had of course much of the empress's company. Similarity of situations knit these two illustrious personages in the closest friendship. The princess being a zealous admirer of the French *œconomistes*, could make her conversation both amusing and instructive. She retailed all her statistical knowledge; and finding the empress a willing hearer, she spoke of her in every company as a prodigy of judgment, and philanthropy. Whilst the emperor, by his buffoonery and attachment to foreign manners, was daily incurring more and more the odium of his subjects, the popularity of his wife was rapidly increasing; and some persons about the court expressed their regret, that so much knowledge of government, such love of humanity, and such ardent wishes for the prosperity of Russia, should only furnish conversations with Catharina Romanovna (the princess Dashkoff). The empress and her favourite did not let these expressions pass unobserved; they continued their studies in concert; and whilst the former was employed on her famous code of laws for a great empire, the latter always reported progress, till the middling circles of Moscow and St. Petersburgh began to speak familiarly of the blessings which they might enjoy if these speculations could be realized.

Meanwhile Peter III. was giving fresh cause of discontent. He had recalled from Siberia Count Munich, who was indeed a sensible, brave, and worthy man; but as he was smarting under the effects of Russian despotism, and had grounds of resentment against most of the great families, he did not much discourage the emperor's unpopular conduct, but only tried to moderate it and give it a system. Peter, however, was impatient. He publicly ridiculed the exercise and evolutions of the Russian troops; and hastily adopting the Prussian discipline, without digesting and fitting it for the constitution of his own forces, he completely disgusted the army.

Four regiments of guards, amounting to 8000 men, were instantly brought over to the queen's party. The people at large were in a state of indifference, out of which they were roused by the following means. A little manuscript was handed about containing principles of legislation for Russia, founded on natural rights, and on the claims of the different classes of people. In that performance was proposed a convention of deputies from all the classes and from every part of the empire, to converse, but without authority, on the subjects on which it treated, and to inform the senate of the result of their deliberations. It passed for the work of her majesty, and was much admired.

While Catharine was thus high in the public esteem and affection, the emperor took the alarm at her popularity, and in a few days came to the resolution of confining her for life, and then of marrying his favourite. The servants of that favourite betrayed her to her sister, who imparted the intelligence to the empress. Catharine saw her danger, and instantly formed her resolution. She must either tamely submit to perpetual imprisonment, and perhaps a cruel and ignominious death, or contrive to hurl her husband from his throne. No other alternative was left her, and the consequence was what was undoubtedly expected. The proper steps were taken; folly fell before abilities and address, and in three days the revolution was accomplished.

When the emperor saw that all was lost, he attempted to enter Cronstadt from Oranienbaum, a town on the gulf of Finland, 30 versts, or nearly 26 miles, from St. Petersburgh. The sentinels at the harbour presented their muskets at the barge; and though they were not loaded, and the men had no cartridges, he drew back. The English sailors called from ship to ship for some person to head them, declaring that they would take him in and defend him; but he precipitately withdrew. Munich received him again, and exhorted him to mount his horse, and head his guards, swearing to live and die with him. He said, "No, I see it cannot be done without shedding much of the blood of my brave Holsteiners. I am not worthy of the sacrifice."

He was soon after taken prisoner, and removed to a pleasant retreat called Ropscha, about 30 miles from St. Petersburgh; here he supposed he should be detained but a short time previous to his being sent into Germany. He therefore sent a message to Catharine, desiring permission to have for his attendant a favourite negro, and that she would send him a dog, of which he was very fond, together with his violin, a bible, and a few romances, telling her that, disgusted with the wickedness of mankind, he was resolved henceforth to devote himself to a philosophical life. These requests were not granted.

In the mean time the soldiers were amazed at what they had done; they could not conceive by what fascination they had been hurried so far as to dethrone the grandson of Peter the Great, in order to give his crown to a German woman. The majority without plan or sentiment of what they were doing, had been mechanically led on by the movements of others; and each individual now reflecting on his baseness, after the pleasure of disposing of a crown had vanished, was filled only with remorse. The sailors, who had never been engaged in the insurrection, openly reproached the guards in the tippling houses with having sold their emperor for beer. Pity, which justifies even the greatest criminals, pleaded irresistibly in every heart. One night a band of soldiers attached to the empress took the alarm, from an idle fear, and exclaimed that their mother was in danger, and that she must be awaked, that they might see her. During the next night there was a fresh commotion more serious than the former. So long as the life of the emperor left a pretext for inquietude, it was thought that no tranquillity was to be expected.

On the sixth day of the emperor's imprisonment at Ropscha,

Ropscha, Alexey Orlof, accompanied by an officer named Teploff, came to him with the news of his speedy deliverance, and asked permission to dine with him. According to the custom of that country, wine-glasses and brandy were brought previous to dinner; and while the officer amused the tzar with some trifling discourse, his chief filled the glasses, and poured a poisonous mixture into that which he intended for the prince. The tzar, without any distrust, swallowed the potion, on which he immediately experienced the most severe pains; and on his being offered a second glass, on pretence of its giving him relief, he refused it, with reproaches against Orlof.

He called aloud for milk, but the two monsters offered him poison again, and pressed him to take it. A French valet-de-chambre, greatly attached to him, now ran in. Peter threw himself into his arms, saying, in a faint voice, "It was not enough then to prevent me from reigning in Sweden, and to deprive me of the crown of Russia! I must also be put to death."

The valet-de-chambre presumed to intercede for his master; but the two miscreants forced this dangerous witness out of the room, and continued their ill-treatment of the tzar. In the midst of this tumult the younger of the princes Baratinsky came in, and joined the two former. Orlof, who had already thrown down the emperor, was pressing upon his breast with both his knees, and firmly griping his throat with his hand. The unhappy monarch, now struggled with that strength which arises from despair, but the two other assassins threw a napkin round his neck, and put an end to his life by suffocation.

It is not known with certainty what share the empress had in this event; but it is affirmed, on the very day on which it happened, while the empress was beginning her dinner with much gaiety, an officer (supposed to be one of the assassins) precipitately entered the apartment with his hair dishevelled, his face covered with sweat and dust, his clothes torn, and his countenance agitated with horror and dismay. On entering, his eyes, sparkling and confused, met those of the empress. She arose in silence, and went into a closet, whither he followed her; a few moments afterwards she sent for Count Panin (the former governor of Peter), who was already appointed her minister, and she informed him that the emperor was dead, and consulted him on the manner of announcing his death to the public. Panin advised her to let one night pass over, and to spread the news next day, as if they had received it during the night. This counsel being approved, the empress returned with the same countenance, and continued her dinner with the same gaiety. On the day following, when it was published that Peter had died of an hæmorrhoidal cholic, she appeared bathed in tears, and proclaimed her grief by an edict.

The corpse was brought to St. Petersburgh, there to be exposed. The face was black, and the neck excoriated. Notwithstanding these horrible marks, in order to assuage the commotions which began to excite apprehension, and to prevent impostors from hereafter disturbing the empire, he was left three days, exposed to all the people, with only the ornaments of a Holstein officer.

On her accession, Catharine behaved with great magnanimity and forbearance towards those who had opposed her elevation, or were the declared friends of the deceased emperor. She gave to prince George, in exchange for his title of duke of Courland, conferred on him by Peter, the government of Holstein. She reinstated Biron in his dukedom of Courland; received into favour Marshal Munich, who had readily transferred his fidelity from the dead to the living, and even pardoned her rival, the countess Vorontzoff, and permitted her to retain the tokens of her lover's munificence. She permitted Gudovitch, who was high in the confidence of Peter, and had incurred her particular displeasure, to retire to his native country. Perhaps the most unexpected part of her conduct towards the friends of Peter, was her adhering to the treaty of peace which that monarch had concluded with the king of Prussia six months before. The death of his inveterate enemy, Elizabeth, had relieved Frederick from a load of solicitude, and had extricated him from his dangerous situation. He now, as he thought, saw himself again involved in a war with the same formidable power; but to his great joy he found that Catharine, from motives of policy, declined entering into a war at the commencement of her reign.

In one particular, the empress showed her jealousy and her fears. She increased the vigilance with which the young prince Ivan was confined in the castle of Schlusselburg, from which Peter III. had expressed a resolution to release him. Not long after her accession, this unfortunate prince was assassinated; though whether this event was to be imputed to the empress or her counsellors, cannot be determined.

In 1768, the empress composed instructions for a new code of laws for her dominions; and the same year she submitted to the danger of inoculation, in order that her subjects, to whom the practice was unknown, might be benefited by her example; and the experiment, under Baron Dimsdale, having happily succeeded, it was commemorated by an annual thanksgiving.

In the same year a war broke out with the Ottoman Porte. The various events of this long and important conflict, which continued for seven years, will hereafter be more particularly noticed under the article TURKEY. At its termination the Crimea was declared independent of the Porte, all the vast tract of country between the Bog and Dnieper was ceded to Russia, besides the Kuban and the isle of Taman, with free navigation in all the Turkish seas, including the passage of the Dardanelles, a privilege granted only to the most favoured nations, and stipulations were made in behalf of the inhabitants of Moldavia and Wallachia.

In 1779, the empress intending to divide the empire into viceroyalties, began, in January, with the viceroyalty of Orlof. May 13, the treaty of peace between the belligerent powers in Germany, and the French king, was signed under the mediation of her majesty. In June, she established an hospital for invalids at Moscow, to be confined to officers. In July, General Baur received orders to cause a canal to be cut to supply Moscow with wholesome water. In October, a ship built at Taganrok, named the Prince Constantine, sailed to Smyrna with Russian commodities. December 3, the viceroyalty of Voronetsh was instituted; and the 27th, Count Romanzof Zadunaiski opened the viceroyalty of Kursk with great solemnity.

In 1780, February 28, appeared the memorable declaration of her imperial majesty, relating to the safety of navigation and commerce of the neutral Powers. May 9, the empress set out on a journey to White Russia from Zarscoi Selo, visited Narva, Plescof, met the emperor of Germany under the title of Count Falkenstein, at Mohilef, and they pursued the journey together to Smolensk. June 6, Count Falkenstein arrived at Moscow. The 17th, the empress returned to Zarscoi Selo, and the Count Falkenstein, arrived at St. Petersburgh. July 8, the emperor returned to Vienna.

In 1781, March 1, the empress became mediatrix between England and Holland. April 5, instituted the first public school in St. Petersburgh. August 27, the grand dukes, Alexander and Constantine, were inoculated by Baron Dimsdale. August 31, the first stone of a cathedral was laid at Cherson, dedicated to St. Catharine. September 19, the grand duke, Paul Petrovitch, and his consort, Maria Feodorovna, departed from Zarscoi Selo, through Plescof, Mohilef, and Kief, on a journey into foreign countries, under the title of Count and Countess of the North.

In 1782, by a command of her majesty, dated January 18, a Roman Catholic archbishop was installed in the city of Mohilef, with authority over all the Catholic churches and convents in the Russian empire. August 7, the famous equestrian statue of Peter the Great, being finished, was uncovered to the public in presence of the empress, on which occasion she published a proclamation containing pardons for several criminals, &c. November 22, the order of St. Vladimir was instituted. The 27th, the empress published a new tariff.

In 1783, May 7, the empress instituted a seminary for the education

CATHERINE II.

Empress of Russia.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis, 1826.

education of young persons of quality at Kursk. June 21, a treaty of commerce concluded with the Ottoman Porte. July, the institution of the other viceroyalties of the empire followed in succession. July 21, the empress published a manifesto by her commander in chief Prince Potemkin, in the Krim, in regard to the taking possession of that peninsula, the Kuban, and the island of Taman. The 24th, a treaty was concluded with Heraclius II. tzar of Kartalinia and Kachetti, by which he submitted himself, his heirs and successors for ever, with his territories and dominions, to the sceptre of her majesty, her heirs and successors. The 29th, an account was received from the camp of Prince Potemkin at Karas-Basar, that the clergy, the beys, and other persons of distinction, with the towns of Karas-Basar, Bachtshiserai, Achmetchet, Kaffa, Kosloff, with the districts of Tierskanskoikut and Neubasar, and that of Perekop, in the peninsula of the Krim, together with the hordes of Edissank and Dshambolusk, the sultan Alim Girey, and his vassals, with all the Budshaks and Bashkirs there, and all the tribes dwelling beyond the river Kuban, the sultan Boatur Girey and his vassals, took the oath of allegiance to her imperial majesty, and with willing hearts submitted for ever to her sway. The 30th, the hospodar of Wallachia was desposed, and Draco Sutzo set up in his place. September 22, her majesty raised Gabriel, archbishop of Novgorod and St. Petersburgh, to the dignity of metropolitan. October 21, in the great hall of the Academy of Sciences, the new institution of the Imperial Russian academy was opened, after a solemn consecration by the metropolitan Gabriel, and others of the clergy, under the presidency of the princess Dashkoff. November 7, the empress became mediatrix for accommodating the differences between the king of Prussia and the city of Dantzic. The school for surgery was opened at St. Petersburgh on the 18th. December 13, a school commission was instituted for superintending all the public schools. The 28th, an act was concluded with the Ottoman Porte, by which the possession and sovereignty of the Krim, the Kuban, &c. were solemnly made over to the empress.

1784. The Lesgiers, having crossed the river Alasan, and invaded the dominions of Georgia, were repulsed with great loss by a detachment of Russian troops. December 29, Katolikos Maksim, the serdar and court-marshal Prince Zeretelli, and the chief justice Kuinichese, ambassador from David, tzar of Imeretia, were admitted to a public audience of her majesty, at which they submitted, in the name of the tzar, and his subjects, to the will and powerful protection of her imperial majesty, as the rightful head of all the sons of the orthodox eastern church, and sovereign ruler and defender of the Georgian nations.

1785. January 1, the senate, in the name of the empire, humbly thanked her majesty for the benefits she bestowed upon it during the preceding year. The 8th and 15th, the empress in person, held a public examination of the young ladies educated in the Devitza Monastery. The 12th, Mauro Cordato, hospodar of Wallachia, was deposed; and Alexander Mauro Cordato, his uncle, restored to that dignity. The 21st, the empress visited the principal national school, and passed a long time in examining the classes, and the proficiency of the youth in that seminary. April 21, the privileges of the nobility were confirmed; and, on the same day, the burghers of towns constituted into bodies corporate, by a particular manifesto. The public school in Voronetsk was opened. The 24th of May, her majesty went to inspect the famous sluices at Vishney Volotshok, and other water communications, and from thence proceeded to Moscow. June 19th, her majesty returned to St. Petersburgh. July 3d, she visited the hardware manufactories at Sisterbeck, in Finland. 14th, A manifesto was issued, granting full liberty of religion and commerce, to all foreigners settling in the regions of Mount Caucasus, under the Russian government. September 15th, the public school at Nishney Novgorod was opened. October 12th, the Jesuits in White Russia, in a general assembly, elected a vicar-general of their order. November 1st, a treaty of commerce was concluded with the emperor of Germany. The 24th, the Russian consul, in Alexandria, made his public entry on horseback (an honour never before granted to any power); erected the imperial standard on his house, with discharge of cannon, &c. December 28, a Russian mercantile frigate, fully freighted, arrived at Leghorn from Constantinople.

1786. January 1st, the senate returned thanks for the benefits conferred on the empire. From the 11th to the 16th the new election of persons to the offices in the Petersburgh government, ending with masquerade and illuminations, took place. The 29th, the empress confirmed the plan of a navigation school. February 12th, by a decree, the usual slavish subscriptions to petitions were to be discontinued; and, instead of them, only the words humble or faithful subject, and, in certain cases, only subject were ordained to be used. March 2d, the empress granted the university of Moscow 125,000 rubles, and all the materials of the Kremlin for increasing its buildings. The 25th, a decree was passed for making and repairing the roads throughout the whole empire at the sole expense of the crown, and 4,000,000 of rubles were immediately allotted for the road between St. Petersburgh and Moscow. April 10th, a new war establishment for the army was signed: 23d, the hospodar of Wallachia was deposed, and Mavroyeni set up in his place. June 28th, the empress instituted a loan bank at St. Petersburgh, to the fund whereof she allotted 22,000,000 to be advanced to the nobility, and 11,000,000 to the burghers of the town, on very advantageous terms. August 5th, there were published rules to be observed in the public schools. October 4th, a large Russian ship, with Russian productions from St. Petersburgh, arrived at Cadiz. November 24th, the empress erected public schools at Tambof. December 14th, Prince Ypsilanti was appointed hospodar of Moldavia in the room of the deposed Mauro Cordato. December 31st, a treaty of commerce and navigation was concluded between Russia and France.

1787. January 7th, the empress departed from Zarskoi Selo on a journey to her southern dominions: 29th, after having visited the towns of Veleki-Luki, Smolensk, Sterodub, Novgorod, Severskoi, Beresua, Tshernigof, &c. leaving testimonies of her clemency and bounty in each, she arrived at Kief. February 6-7th, the deposed hospodar of Moldavia, Mauro Cordato, thinking his life not safe in Yassi, found an opportunity privately to escape. March, public schools were endowed and opened at Rostof, Uglitsh, Molaga, and Romanof, in the vice-royalty of Yaroslavl; also at Ustiug and Arasovitz, in the vice-royalty of Vologda. April 21st, a manifesto was issued for promoting peace and concord among the burghers of the empire. The 22d, her majesty pursued her journey from Kief to the Dnieper. The 25th, the concerted interview between her and the king of Poland, near the Polish town of Konief, took place. The 30th, the empress visited Krementshuk in the vice-royalty of Katarinoslauf. The treaty of commerce with England being expired, the British factory were informed that they must henceforward pay the duties on imports in silver money, like the other nations who had no commercial treaty. May 7th, the empress hearing that the emperor of Germany was at Cherson, proceeded thither, and met him there on the 12th. The 17th, she prosecuted her journey to the Krim. June 2d, the emperor, after travelling with her majesty through the Krim, took leave of her at Borislauff, in the vice-royalty of Katarinoslauf, on his way home. July 12th, the new built school at Riga, called Lyceum, was solemnly dedicated. August 5th, Bulgakoff, the Russian ambassador, at the Ottoman Porte, was imprisoned in the Seven Towers, contrary to the law of nations, which the empress regarded as a public declaration of war. 21st, the Turkish fleet at Otchakof, attacked the Russian frigate Skorui, and the sloop Bitingi, but was repulsed and put to flight by the bravery of the latter. Many signal advantages were gained over the Turks: several public schools founded in various parts of the empire between this and August following; during which time the war broke out with Sweden.

1788. August 12th, in the expedition beyond the Kuban, the

the Russian troops entirely routed a company of 4000 Arutayans and Alcasinians; 800 of the enemy were slain, and five villages destroyed. 15th, the surrender of the Turkish fortress of Dubitsha took place. 18th, the Turks made a violent sortie from Otchakof, but were repulsed by the Russian yagers: and, after a battle of four hours, were driven back with the loss of 500 men. 23d, a fierce battle was fought between the Russian troops and Sacubanians, in which the latter lost 1000 men. The Russian fleet kept the Swedish blocked up in Sveaborg, ever since the battle of July 6th. The Swedish army left the Russian territory in Finland. September 18th, the town and fortress of Chotzim surrendered to the Russians, with the garrison of 2000 men, 153 cannon, 14 mortars, and much ammunition. 19th—29th, a small Russian squadron from the fleet at Sevastophol, cruising along the coast of Anatolia, destroyed many of the enemy's vessels, prevented the transporting of the Turkish troops, and returned with great booty. 20th, Ussenier Shamanachin, chief of the Bsheduchovians, was, on his petition, admitted a subject of Russia. 26th, a numerous host of Kubanians and Turks were beaten on the river Ubin, with the loss of 1500 men. November 7th, Prince Potemkin, at the head of his Kozaks, took the island Beresan, with many prisoners and much ammunition. December 6th, the town and fortress of Otchakof were taken by Prince Potemkin Tavritsheskoi; 9510 of the enemy were killed, 4000 taken prisoners, 180 standards, 310 cannons and mortars. The whole of the inhabitants were taken prisoners, amounting to 25,000; the Russians lost 956 killed and 1824 wounded. December 19th, General Kamenskoy gained considerable advantages over the Turks near Gangur.

1789. April 16th, Colonel Rimskoy Korsakoff was surrounded by the Turks, who were beaten, with great slaughter, by Lieutenant-General Von Derfelden. 17th—28th, some Russian cruisers from Sevastopol effected a landing on Cape Karakarman, burnt six mosques, and carried off great booty. 20th, General Derfelden drove the Turks from Galatsh, gained a complete victory, killed 2000, took 1500 prisoners, with the Seraskier Ibraham Pasha, and the whole camp. Several skirmishes took place between the Russians and Swedes in Finland, always to the advantage of the former. May 31st, another victory was gained over the Swedes. June 5th, Sulkof was taken from the Swedes, and fort St. Michael on the 8th. July 15th, Admiral Tchitchagoff engaged the Swedish fleet under the command of the duke of Sudermania; but no ship was lost on either side. 21st, a battle was fought at Fokshany to the great loss of the Turks, and Fokshany was taken. August 13th, the Russian galley fleet fought the Swedish under Count Ehrenschwerdt, the former took a frigate and five other ships, and 2000 prisoners. August 21st, another sea fight took place, and Prince Nassau Siegen made good his landing of the Russian troops in sight of the king of Sweden at the head of his army. September 7th, Prince Repnin attacked the Seraskier Hassan Pasha, near the river Seltska, and took his whole camp. 11th, Count Suvaroff and Prince of Saxe Cobourg engaged near the river Kymnik the grand Turkish army of nearly 100,000 men, and gained a complete victory; from which Count Suvaroff received the surname Kymnikskoi. 14th, the Russian troops under General Ribbas, took the Turkish citadel Chodshabey, in the sight of the whole enemy's fleet. 30th, the fortress Palanka being taken, the town of Belgorod or Akermann surrendered to Prince Potemkin Tavritsheskoi. November 4th, the town and castle of Bender submitted at discretion to the same commander.

1790. April 24, General Numsen gained a victory over the Swedes near Memel. May 2, a sea fight took place off Reval, in which the Russians took the Prince Charles of 64 guns, from the Swedes; and in this engagement those two gallant English officers, Captains Trevennin and Denison were killed. 23d, the fleet under Vice-admiral Cruse engaged the Swedish fleet near the island of Siskar, in the gulf of Finland, without any advantage being gained on either side, though they fought the whole day. 24th, an action was fought at Savataipala, when the Swedes were forced to fly. June 6, the Swedes were defeated by Major Ruxhoden, on the island Uransari. June 22, the whole Swedish fleet, commanded by the duke of Sudermania, was entirely defeated by Admiral Tchitchagoff and the Prince of Nassau Siegen; on this occasion 5000 prisoners were taken, amongst whom were the centre admiral and 200 officers. 28th, General Denisoff defeated the Swedes near Davidoff. July 9th, Admiral Ushakoff obtained a victory over the Turkish fleet commanded by the capudan pasha, at the mouth of the straits of Yenikali. August 3d, peace was concluded with Sweden, without the mediation of any other power. August 28th—29th, an engagement took place on the Euxine, not far from Chodshabey, between the Russian Admiral Ushakoff and the capudan pasha, when the principal Turkish ship, of 80 guns, was burnt, one of 70 guns, and three taken, the admiral Said Bey being made prisoner, and another ship sunk; the rest made off. September 30, a great victory was obtained over the Turks by General Germann, with much slaughter, and the Seraskier Batal Bey, and the whole camp, were taken. October 18, Kilia surrendered to Major Bibbas. November 6, 7, the fortress Cultsha and the Turkish flotilla were taken. December 11, the important fortress of Ismail, after a storming for seven hours without intermission, surrendered to Count Suvaroff, with the garrison of 42,000 men: 30,816 were slain on the spot, 2000 died of their wounds, 9000 were taken prisoners, with 265 pieces of cannon, an incredible store of ammunition, &c. The Russians lost only 1815 killed, and 2450 wounded.

1791. March 25—31, the campaign opened by the troops under Prince Potemkin, not far from Brailof, when the Turks were defeated in several battles, in which they lost upwards of 4000 men. June 5, the troops under General Golenitshef Kutusoff, near Tultsha, drove the Turks beyond the Danube, and at Babada entirely routed a body of 15,000 men, of whom 1500 were left dead upon the field. 22, the fortress Anapuas was taken by storm, when the whole garrison, consisting of 25,000 men, were put to the sword, excepting 1000, who were taken prisoners. 28, the troops under prince Repnin attacked the Turkish army, consisting of nearly 89,000 men, commanded by the grand vizir Yussuf Pasha, eight pashas, two Tartar sultans, and two beys of Anatolia; and after a bloody battle of six hours, entirely routed them: 5000 Turks were killed in their flight. June 28, Sudskuk Kale was taken. July 31, Admiral Ushakoff beat the Turkish fleet on the coasts of Rumelia. Prince Repnin and Yussuf Pasha signed the preliminaries of peace between the Russian empire and the Ottoman Porte, by which the Dniester was made the boundary of the two empires, with the cession of the countries lying between the Bog and the Dniester to Russia. August 15, 16, at Pilnitz near Dresden, a congress was held by the emperor of Germany, the king of Prussia, the elector of Saxony, the count d'Artois, &c. &c. One of the most important events in this year was the death of Prince Potemkin, at Yassy, in Moldavia, on the 15th October.

1792. Early in this year Bulgakoff, the Russian minister at Warsaw, declared war against Poland; and the Polish patriots raised an army in which Thaddeus Kosciusko soon bore a conspicuous part. See POLAND.

1795. On the 18th February, a treaty of defensive alliance between the empress of Russia and his Britannic majesty was signed at St. Petersburgh. The ostensible object of this treaty was to maintain the general tranquillity of Europe, and more especially of the north; and by it Russia agreed to furnish Great Britain with 10,000 infantry and 2000 horse in case of invasion; while Great Britain was, under similar circumstances, to send her imperial majesty a squadron consisting of two ships of 74 guns, six of 60, and four of 50, with a complement of 4560 men. On the 18th March was signed the act by which the duchies of Courland and Semigallia, together with the circle of Piltcn, all which had lately belonged to the duke of Courland, but had long retained only the shadow of independence, submitted themselves to the Russian dominion.

In this year there took place between the courts of St. Petersburgh

J. Chapman sculp.

PAUL 1st EMPEROR of RUSSIA.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1826.

Petersburgh and Stockholm, a dispute which threatened to terminate in a war. Gustavus III. had been assassinated by Ankerstroem at a masquerade, on the 15th March, 1791, and the young king Gustavus Adolphus, being still a minor, the duke of Sudermania, his uncle, had been appointed regent of the kingdom. The regent had determined to effect a marriage between his nephew and a princess of the house of Mecklenburg; but Catharine publicly declared that the late king had betrothed his son to one of her granddaughters. The misunderstanding hence originating, was increased by the rude and indecorous behaviour of the baron Von Budberg, the Russian *chargé des affaires* at Stockholm, and matters seemed tending to an open rupture; when, in 1796, a French emigrant named Christin, effected a reconciliation, and General Budberg, the baron's uncle, was sent as ambassador to Stockholm from the Russian court. In consequence of this reconciliation, the young king, attended by the regent, and a numerous train of Swedish courtiers, set out on a visit to St. Petersburgh, where they arrived on the 24th of August, and an interview took place between the empress and her royal visitors, for the purpose of finally adjusting the projected matrimonial alliance. Gustavus Adolphus was much pleased with the appearance of the grand duchess Alexandra; but informed the empress, that, by the fundamental laws of Sweden, he could not sign the marriage contract before the princess had abjured the Greek religion; and as neither the solicitations nor the flatteries of Catharine could prevail on the young monarch to depart from the received custom of his country, the negociation ended, and the next day Gustavus and his retinue quitted St. Petersburgh.

The last transaction of importance in the reign of Catharine was her invasion of the Persian territories, undertaken for the purpose of acquiring certain possessions on the shores of the Caspian. A Russian army entered Daghestan, and made itself master of Derbent, but was afterwards defeated by the Persians under Aga Mahmed.

The death of the empress took place on the 9th of November of this year; and the grand duke Paul Petrovitch, ascended the throne under the title of Paul I.

Paul Petrovitch had attained his 42d year before the death of his mother placed him on the imperial throne; but for many years before her death, he had lived in a state of comparative obscurity and retirement, and had apparently been considered by the empress as incapable of taking any active part in the administration of affairs. It is well known that Catharine never admitted him to any participation of power, and kept him in a state of the most abject and mortifying separation from court, and in almost total ignorance of the affairs of the empire. Although by his birth he was generalissimo of the armies, president of the admiralty, and grand admiral of the Baltic, he was never permitted to head even a regiment, and was interdicted from visiting the fleet at Cronstadt. From these circumstances it is evident, that the empress either had conceived some jealousy of her son, or saw in him some mental imbecility, that appeared to her to disqualify him for the arduous concerns of government. There is little doubt, from the circumstances which distinguished his short reign, that Catharine had been chiefly influenced in her treatment of the grand duke, by the latter consideration. There were, certainly, times at which Paul displayed evident marks of insanity, though he occasionally gave proofs of a generous and tender disposition, and even of intellectual vigour.

It is generally believed, that a short time before her death, Catharine committed to Plato-Zuboff, her last favourite, a declaration of her will, addressed to the senate, desiring that Paul should be passed over in the succession, and that on her death the grand duke Alexander should ascend the vacant throne. As soon as Zuboff was made acquainted with the sudden death of the empress, he flew to Pavlovsk, about 23 miles from Petersburgh, where Paul occasionally resided; but meeting the grand duke on the road, he, after a short explanation, delivered up the important document. Paul, charmed with his zeal and loyalty, rewarded the late favourite, by permitting him to retain the wealth and honours which had been heaped on him by his mistress, while a general and rapid dispersion soon took place among the other adherents of the late sovereign. On the day following the death of his mother, Paul made his public entry into St. Petersburgh, amidst the acclamations of all ranks of people.

One of the first measures adopted by the new emperor, excited considerable surprise, and divided the opinions of the public with respect to the motives by which it had been suggested; some attributing it to his respect for the memory of his late father; others to a culpable reflection on that of his mother. He ordered the remains of Peter III. to be removed from the sepulchre in which they had been deposited in the church of St. Alexander Nefski, and caused them to lie in state for three weeks, while they were watched night and day by the only two remaining conspirators who had assisted at his assassination. After this, he consigned the ashes to the sepulchre of Catharine II., in the cathedral of St. Peter and St. Paul, obliging the assassins to walk in the procession as chief mourners.

Few political events of any importance marked the reign of Paul, previous to the year 1798; when, in consequence of a treaty between Paul and the emperor of Germany, a Russian army of 45,000 men, under Field-marshal Suvaroff, joined the imperialists in the Austrian territories in Italy. The progress of Suvaroff, his successes over Moreau, and his final recal by his master, have already been related in the article FRANCE.

In 1799, Paul entered into a treaty of offensive and defensive alliance with his Britannic majesty. This treaty was signed at Petersburgh on the 22d of June, having been preceded by a provisional treaty between the same powers at the end of the year 1798. By the provisional treaty it had been stipulated that Paul should assist the king of Prussia, if the latter could be persuaded to join his arms to the allied powers against France, with 45,000 men; and that the king of Great Britain should pay to Russia a subsidy of 75,000*l.* sterling per month; and in case the king of Prussia should refuse to join the coalition, the same number of troops, in consideration of the same subsidy, should be employed as occasion might require, to assist the common cause. By the new treaty, the emperor of Russia, instead of the 45,000 troops, engaged to furnish 17,593, with the necessary artillery, to be employed in an expedition against Holland; and he engaged to furnish six ships, five frigates, and two transports, for the purpose of transporting part of the invading army from Britain to the continent. In consideration of these succours the court of London engaged to advance to Russia a subsidy of 44,000*l.* sterling per month; to pay the sum of 58,929*l.* 10*s.* sterling, for the expenses of equipping the fleet; and after the period of three months had elapsed from such equipment, to pay a further subsidy of 19,642*l.* 10*s.* sterling per month, so long as the fleet should remain under the command of his Britannic majesty.

In consequence of this treaty, a Russian fleet joined that of Britain in Yarmouth roads, and took part in the unfortunate expedition to the coast of Holland, undertaken in the summer of 1799.

In the beginning of the year 1801, all Europe was thrown into the greatest astonishment by the appearance of a paragraph in the Hamburgh Gazette of the 16th of January. The paragraph was dated from Petersburgh the 30th December, 1800, and is as follows:—

"We learn from Petersburgh, that the emperor of Russia, finding that the powers of Europe cannot agree among themselves, and being desirous to put an end to a war which has desolated it for 11 years past, intends to point out a spot, to which he will invite all the other sovereigns to repair and fight in single combat; bringing with them as seconds and squires, their most enlightened ministers, and their most able generals, such as Messrs. Thugot, Pitt, Bernstorff, &c. and that the emperor himself proposes being attended by generals count de Pahlen and Khutosof: We know not if this report be worthy of credit; however, the thing appears not

not destitute of some foundation, and bears strong marks of what he has been often taxed with."

This paragraph was immediately copied or translated into all the public papers, and it was strongly affirmed by many that it was the composition of Paul himself. This has since been confirmed by the poet Kotzebue, who was employed by the emperor of Russia to translate the original into German, for the express purpose of its being inserted in the Hamburgh Gazette. This was not the only mark of mental derangement displayed by the unhappy monarch. His favours and his displeasure were alternately experienced by some of his most distinguished courtiers and adherents. Stanislaus, the deposed king of Poland, partook by turns of his beneficence and his severity; and at length on the death of that monarch, Paul assisted at his funeral, commanded in person the guards that attended on the ceremony, and uncovering himself with the utmost emotion, saluted the coffin as it passed. To the memory of the hoary Suvaroff, who is said to have fallen a broken-hearted victim to the distraction of his imperial master, he raised a colossal statue of bronze; and on the days when he reviewed his troops in the square where the statue has been erected, he used to command them to march by in open order, and face the statue. Notwithstanding the important service that had been rendered him by Zuboff, the emperor soon became disgusted with him; spoke of him to his friends with great asperity; at length denounced him as a defaulter to the imperial treasury of half a million of rubles; and convinced of the justice of the allegation, proceeded to sequestrate the vast estates which belonged to him and his two brothers. Driven to desperation by such conduct, the second brother of the favourite one day walked up boldly to the emperor upon the parade, and with manly eloquence represented the injustice of his measures. Paul received him without anger, heard him without interruption, and restored the property; but soon after he ordered Plato Zuboff to reside on his estate. He formed an adulterous connexion with Madame Chevalier, a French actress, through whose influence Zuboff was again recalled to court, and restored to favour.

At length some of the nobles who had suffered private injuries, and who persuaded themselves that they would render a most important service to their country, conspired and effected Paul's death in the most determined and barbarous manner, while in his new palace of St. Michael, on the 11th March, 1801.

The emperor Alexander was in his 24th year when he ascended the throne, and from his amiable disposition had acquired the love and respect of all his subjects. The first measure which he adopted, his proclamation, and his first imperial orders, all tended to encourage and confirm the confidence with which the people beheld him ascend the throne of his forefathers. He solemly promised to tread in the steps of Catharine II.: he allowed every one to dress according to their own fancy; exonerated the inhabitants of the capital from the trouble and duty of alighting from their carriages on the approach of the imperial family; dismissed the court advocate, who was universally and justly detested; suppressed the secret inquisition that had become the scourge of the country; restored to the senate its former authority; set at liberty the state prisoners, and recalled from Siberia several of the exiles.

It is not easy to explain the motives that induced Alexander to forego that vengeance which justice seemed to demand on the heads of his father's assassins. It has been attributed by one of his panegyrists to a forlorn and melancholy conviction that the murderers had been prompted solely by a regard for the salvation of the empire. This conviction might have induced the young monarch to diminish the weight of that punishment which piety and justice called on him to inflict, but can scarcely account for his total forbearance.

The emperor Alexander on his accession to the throne, appeared desirous to cultivate the friendship of the neighbouring states, and especially that of Great Britain. His late father, among other projects, had procured himself to be elected grand master of the knights of Malta, and had lain claim to the sovereignty of that island. This claim, which had nearly produced a rupture between the courts of London and St. Petersburgh, Alexander consented to abandon, though he expressed a wish to be elected grand master of the order, by the free suffrages of the knights. In the mean time a confederacy had been formed among the northern powers of Europe, with a view to oppose the British claim to the sovereignty of the seas; but by the spirited interference of the British court, especially with the cabinet of St. Petersburgh, the good understanding between Britain and the northern states was re-established, and the embargo which had been laid on British vessels in the Russian ports was taken off.

On the 19th of June, Alexander caused to be published a circular letter, showing his disposition to be on terms of amity with the French republic.

Early in the same month there was signed at St. Petersburgh, a treaty of amity, commerce and navigation, between Russia and Sweden, to contiuue for 12 years, by which Sweden was allowed to import into Russia, alum, salt herrings, and salt, on the payment of one half of the duties then exacted, and into Russian Finland the produce of Swedish Finland, duty free; while the importation from Russia into Sweden, of hemp, linen, and tallow, was allowed at one half of the existing duties, and of linseed at two-thirds. The most remarkable part of this treaty was the recognition, by the court of St. Petersburgh, of the northern confederacy, which the amicable adjustment with Britain appeared to have done away.

The commerce of Russia had now recovered its former splendour. The exports from the city of Riga alone for the year ending in July, 1801, amounted to 6,770,638 rubles; and of these exports, England alone imported to the value of 2,509,853 rubles.

On the 25th of March, 1802, was signed at Amiens the definite treaty of peace between the belligerent powers of Europe, by one material article of which the islands of Malta, Gozo and Comimo, were to be restored to the knights of St. John of Jerusalem, under the protection and guarantee of France, Great Britain, Austria, Spain, Russia and Prussia; and his Sicilian majesty was invited to furnish 2000 men, natives of his states, to serve in garrisons at the different fortresses of the said islands, for one year after their restitution to the knights, or until they should be replaced by a force deemed sufficient by the guaranteeing powers. Some time after the conclusion of this treaty, disputes arose among the contracting powers relative to the sovereignty of Malta, which the emperor of Russia insisted should be yielded to Naples, otherwise he would not undertake to guarantee the order, and would separate from it the priories of Russia. The result of these disputes, as is well known, afforded a reason for renewing the contest which so long desolated the face of Europe.

During the short interval of peace that was enjoyed by Europe, the emperor of Russia made several prudent regulations in the internal administration of his empire. On the 12th of September, 1801, a manifesto had been published, proclaiming the union of Georgia, or Russian Grufinia, with the empire, and on the 1st April, 1802, Alexander sent a deputation to establish the new government at Teflis, the capital of the province. This deputation was received by the natives with enthusiastic joy, especially as they brought back the image of St. Nina, which their prince Wachtang at his death had left at Moscow. The emperor now offered considerable premiums to persons who should introduce any new or advantageous mode of agriculture, or who should bring to perfection any old invention, open any new branch of commerce, establish any new manufacture, or contrive any machine or process that might be useful in the arts.

Early in the year 1803, the emperor fitted out at his own expense, two vessels for a voyage of discovery round the world under the command of Captain Krusenstern. These ships were provided with every necessary for accomplishing the object of the voyage; and several men of eminence for science and literature, among whom was Churchman, the American

R. Page, sculp.

ALEXANDER I^ST

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis, 1826.

American astronomer, volunteered their services on this occasion. The vessels sailed in the latter end of 1803.

In the beginning of 1804 the emperor established a university at Khardof, in Lithuania, for the cultivation and diffusion of the arts and sciences in that part of the Russian empire, and Mr. Fletcher Campbell, a Scotch gentleman, was employed to procure masters for this new institution. Some time after, the emperor ordered that meteorogical observations should be regularly made at all the universities and public schools, and the results published. It appears that at the end of this year the sums allotted by the Russian government, for defraying the expenses of these institutions amounted to 2,149,213 rubles, besides a gift of nearly 60,000 rubles towards erecting the new university.

About this time an imperial ukase was published, granting to the Jews a complete emancipation from the shackles under which that devoted people had long groaned, and allowing them the privileges of educating their children in any of the schools and universities of the empire, or establishing schools at their own expense.

For some time the genius of discord, which had again actuated the minds of the European sovereigns, failed to extend her baleful influence over the Russian empire; but it was scarcely possible that the emperor should long remain an impartial spectator of the renewed disputes between his more powerful neighbours. An important change had, in the latter end of 1802, taken place in the ministry of the empire; and Count Woronzoff, brother to the late ambassador at London, had been appointed great chancellor in chief of the department of foreign affairs, with Prince Adam Tzartoriski for his assistant. How far this change in the councils of the empire influenced the political measures of the court of St. Petersburgh, it is not easy to determine; but in the latter end of 1803, Alexander appeared to view with a jealous eye the presumption and violence exercised by France among the German states, and the encroachments which she appeared desirous of making on the freedom of the Baltic. Alexander had offered his mediation between Great Britain and France, but without effect, and both these parties strove to bring over the Russian emperor to their alliance. France seems to have held out to the ambition of Alexander the bait of a partition of the Turkish territories, the dismemberment of which had long been a favourite object with his predecessors. At length, however, the court of London prevailed, and the Russian ambassador, by his master's orders, took leave of the First Consul of the French republic, though without demonstrating any intentions of immediate hostility. A new levy of 100,000 men was immediately ordered to recruit the Russian army; and, to prevent any jealousy on the side of Turkey, assurances were given to the Sublime Porte of the amicable intentions of Russia towards that power.

On the 11th April, a treaty of concert was concluded between Great Britain and Russia, in which the two governments agreed to adopt the most efficacious means for forming a general league of the states of Europe, to be directed against the power of France. The objects of this league were undoubtedly of great importance to the welfare of Europe; and it is deeply to be regretted that the circumstances of the times did not admit of their being carried into execution. From the terms of the treaty, these objects appear to be,—First, The evacuation of the country of Hanover and the north of Germany. Secondly, The establishment of the independence of the republics of Holland and Switzerland. Thirdly, The re-establishment of the king of Sardinia in Piedmont, with as large an augmentation of territory as circumstances would allow. Fourthly, The future security of the kingdom of Naples, and the complete evacuation of Italy, the island of Elba included, by the French forces. Fifthly, The establishment of an order of things in Europe, which might effectually guarantee the security and independence of the different states, and present a solid barrier against future usurpation.

For the prosecution of the great objects of this treaty, it was proposed by the first article that an army of 500,000 men should be levied; but in a subsequent separate article, the contracting parties, after observing that it was more desirable than easy to assemble so large a force, agreed that the treaty should be carried into execution as soon as it should be possible to oppose to France an active force of 400,000 men. It was understood and stipulated that these troops should be provided by the powers of the continent who should become parties to the league, and subsidies should be granted by Great Britain in the proportion of 1,250,000*l.* sterling for every 100,000 men, besides a considerable additional sum for the necessary expense occasioned in bringing them into the field.

About this time the occupation of Genoa by the French, on the pretence that that republic was too feeble to support itself against the attacks of Great Britain, was communicated to the different courts of Europe, and excited in every quarter the highest indignation. The emperor Alexander, in particular, was incensed at this new outrage. Such an open violation of those principles which were justly regarded as essential to the general safety, committed not only during the peace of the continent, but when passports had been delivered to his ambassador, in order that a negociation might be commenced for the purpose of providing for the permanent security and repose of Europe, he considered as an indecent insult to his person and crown. He issued immediate orders for the recall of M. Novosiltzoff: and the messenger dispatched upon this occasion was commanded to repair with the utmost diligence to Berlin.

It stated that the emperor had, in compliance with the wishes of his Britannic majesty, sent his ambassador to Buonaparte, to meet the pacific overtures which he had made to the court of London: that the existing disagreement between Russia and France might have placed insurmountable obstacles in the way of a negociation for peace by a Russian minister; but that his imperial majesty of Russia did not for a moment hesitate to pass over all personal displeasure, and all the usual formalities; that he had declared he would receive the passports only on condition that his minister should enter directly upon a negociation with the chief of the French government, without acknowledging the new title which he had assumed; and that Buonaparte should give explicit assurances that he was still animated by the same wish for a general peace, which he had appeared to shew in his letter to his Britannic majesty; that after his Prussian majesty had transmitted the positive answers of the court of the Thuileries, that it persevered in the intention sincerely to lend its hand to a pacific negociation, the emperor had accepted the passports; but that by a fresh transgression of the most solemn treaties, the union of the Ligurian republic with France had been effected; that this event of itself, the circumstances which had accompanied it, the formalities which had been employed to hasten the execution of it, the moment which had been chosen to carry the same into execution, had formed an aggregate which must terminate the sacrifices that the emperor would have made at the pressing request of Great Britain, and in the hope of restoring tranquillity to Europe by the means of negociation.

The recall of the Russian envoy appeared to be the signal of hostilities on the part of Russia and Austria against France. These hostilities may be said to have commenced and terminated in the autumn of this year. The military operations that distinguished this short but bloody conflict, the rapid successes of the French, the capitulation of Ulm on the 17th of October, the occupation of Vienna by the French on the 12th of the same month, and the sanguinary battle of Austerlitz on the 27th of November, have been already noticed under FRANCE. The consequences of these disastrous events were, first, a cessation of hostilities, and at length a treaty of firm alliance between Russia and France.

Before Alexander finally stooped to the imperial eagles of Napoleon, however, he was determined to make one more effort to preserve his independence. The Russian envoy at Paris, d'Oubril, had hastily concluded a preliminary treaty of peace between his master and the emperor of the French, which he signed at Paris on the 8th of July, 1806,

1806, and instantly set out for St. Petersburgh to procure the ratification of his master. The terms of this convention were laid before the privy council by Alexander; but they appeared so derogatory to the interests of Russia, that the emperor refused them his sanction, and declared that the counsellor of state, d'Oubril, when he signed the convention, had not only departed from the instructions he had received, but had acted directly contrary to the sense and intention of the commission with which he had been intrusted. His imperial majesty, however, signified his willingness to renew the negociations for peace, but only on such terms as were consistent with the dignity of his crown, and the interests of his empire.

In the mean time, the king of Prussia began, when it was too late, to see the folly and imprudence of the neutrality which he had so long maintained, and he at length prepared to oppose his now feeble efforts to the growing power of France. He brought together in the summer of this year, an army of at least 200,000 men, near Weimar and Jena, while the French myriads assembled in Franconia, and on the frontiers of Saxony. Previous to the commencement of hostilities, his Prussian majesty issued a spirited manifesto, in which he explained his motives for abandoning his plan of neutrality, and appealed to Europe for the justice of his cause. The king of Prussia entered into an alliance with the emperor Alexander, and with the king of Sweden, and it was expected, that these united forces would at length compel Napoleon to listen to equitable terms of pacification. These expectations were, however, miserably disappointed. The same extraordinary success still attended the arms of France, and the north of Europe was again condemned to submit in silence to her yoke.

The wars in which Russia became engaged against France, have already received our notice under the articles FRANCE, LONDON, and PARIS. In the article LONDON, pp. 294-8, where the invasion of Russia and the disastrous retreat of the French are related, we have said that the famous burning of Moscow was effected by order of the governor. This, it seems, is not precisely the fact. Rostopchin has disclaimed it, and Colonel Boutourlier attributes it, authoritatively, to a *grand personage*—we presume Alexander.

The war which Russia carried on against Sweden, will be considered in the history of the latter country. It is enough to notice here, that in 1810, a peace was concluded with Sweden, by which Russia acquired Finland as far as the river Torneo with the Aland islands. In 1810, a new form was given to the imperial council, and by a manifesto, a part of Gallicia was taken under protection. In 1811, considerable changes took place with the ministers and the colleges, and the beautiful cathedral of the mother of God of Kazân, which was founded by Paul, and built after the plan of a Russian bondsman, was consecrated.

In 1815, the Holy Alliance, as it is called, was formed between the emperors of Russia, Austria, and the king of Prussia, and some other powers afterwards joined it. That part of Gallicia acquired by Russia from Austria in 1809, was returned to that power, and the greatest part of the principality of Warsaw was ceded to Russia. Poland, or that part of it over which the emperor of Russia extends his sway, has since been called the *Kingdom of Poland*, and Alexander added to his other numerous titles, that of *King of Poland*. On the return of Alexander to his capital, the new exchange, a large and handsome edifice, was opened at Petersburgh with great ceremony, by his majesty. In 1816, the emperor visited part of his dominions, and issued an ukâz, henceforth forbidding punishment by tearing out the nostrils. In the winter of 1817-18, the imperial court was held at Moscow, and ever since, as before, at Petersburgh.

The government of Russia since the general peace of Europe has been occupied chiefly with the organization of its immense military force. The plan which has been adopted is that of *Military Colonization*. Count Araktcheëf, who had risen from the ranks, solely by his great talents, to become a general of artillery, and to be one of the chief military counsellors attached to the person of the emperor, is said to have first suggested this system. Its peculiar nature will be at once perceived by the following summary: 1st. For the formation of these military colonies, no part of the inhabitants is sent out of the empire, there being a great superabundance of territory in proportion to the population. 2d. The peasantry, who are already civil slaves, by this plan, are absolutely made both civil and military slaves, and are in the mean time burthened with the support of regular troops; and indeed, in time, nearly the whole army is to be formed from among them. 3d. As they are governed by a code of laws peculiar to themselves, so they are not directly dependent upon the general legislature of the country, nor are they independent of it, because all their laws emanate from a committee at Petersburgh; which, after receiving his imperial majesty's signature, are put in force. 4th. Like some of the Roman colonies, they are both of an agricultural and of a military nature.

The objects the Russian government has chiefly in view by the establishment of the military colonies, some of which are peculiar, are chiefly the following:—1st. The increase of the native population in certain districts, by the transfer and fixture to them of part of the existing regular troops, and even of peasantry when requisite, and, of course, by the progeny of both. 2d. The extension of knowledge and civilization. 3d. The saving of the greatest part of the pay of the whole army to the crown. 4th. The organization of an immense army to be employed in agriculture in time of peace, and to form nearly the whole land force of the empire in time of war.

Military colonies are already in part organized, and no doubt will be more extensively organized, in a line stretching from near Petersburgh, along the borders of Poland, and towards the boundaries of Turkey: the chief points where Russia now requires to have powerful forces, whether with a view to make an irruption into other countries, or for the defence of her own frontiers, for she is neither to be regarded as inaccessible, unattackable, nor unconquerable.

The system of colonization will be best understood by a detail of the course adopted to colonize a single regiment. The emperor issues an ukâz, in which are indicated the crown villages which are to become military colonies. In the villages so designated, (which are inhabited by crown-peasants, and consequently are at the emperor's disposal,) the name, age, property, and family of each householder are registered; those who are above fifty years old are chosen to form what are called the Master-colonists. Houses are built for them in lieu of those they inhabited, forming a street or streets of cottages similar to one another, each separated from the neighbouring cottage by a court-yard, and each master-colonist receives fifteen deciatins, about forty English acres; with this condition annexed, that he is to support a soldier, his family, if he has one, and his horse, if cavalry are colonized in the village; he receiving the benefit of the soldier's assistance in the cultivation of the land and other duties of husbandry, when not engaged in his military duties. In seed-time and harvest-time, it is understood that the soldiers are to be little exercised, in order to leave them free for the labours of the field. As many of the present agriculturalist soldiers have formed part of the regular army, the master-colonists need scarcely expect much assistance from their exertions. When a new progeny shall have taken their places, who have been trained from their youth to agriculture and to arms, perhaps the dissimilar union may become assimilated.

The soldier who becomes domesticated in the house of the master-colonist, shares his table, and assists him in his labour, is called Agriculturalist soldier. Close to the house of the master-colonist is built one exactly similar, which is occupied by the Reserve, who may be considered as the soldier's second self. He is chosen by the colonel of the regiment colonized from the peasants, and is usually a son or relation of the master-colonist. The Reserve is instructed in every part of a soldier's duty, and qualified in every respect to take the place of his prototype, or to form one of an army of reserve in case of danger. He too assists, when wanted, in the

the cultivation of the fifteen deciatins of land, or follows such other occupation as may suit him, tailor, shoe-maker, and so on.

The master-colonist, agriculturalist soldier, and reserve, may chuse their wives where they like, and are encouraged to marry; but the women, once within the pale of the military colonies, cannot marry out of them.

The sons of the master-colonist, agriculturalist-soldier, and reserve, who are from thirteen to seventeen years old, are called Kantonists, are exercised as soldiers, and continued at the village which is the residence of the Colonel, and the head-quarters of the regiment: they also occasionally attend school to complete their education.

The boys from eight to thirteen years old go to school in the village in which their parents reside, and learn their military duties alternate days; they, as well as the Kantonists, are dressed in uniform, and considered as soldiers; the children under eight years old remain with their parents.

The education of the children forms a very important feature in the system. All the male children in the colony are sent to schools of mutual instruction, where they are taught reading, writing, and arithmetic. They learn a sort of catechism containing the duty of a soldier, much the same as that which Buonaparte taught his soldiers. They are instructed in the use of the sword; learn to ride in the Manège, and after the age of thirteen, they are assembled at the head-quarters of the regiment, and formed into a corps, in which those who distinguish themselves most by their quickness and attention are made officers. At Vosnesénsk (the head-quarters of the first regiment of the Boog) Dr. Lyall saw a body of 200 Kantonists who marched, fired, and performed all the evolutions of experienced soldiers, with a steadiness and precision which was astonishing. There was an *esprit de corps* about them, which cannot fail to make them good soldiers.

The education of the women has hitherto been much neglected, but they have now begun to establish schools on the Lancasterian plan for them, which, no doubt, will soon become general.

A military colony, therefore, consists of

1. The Master-Colonist, so called because he is master of the family and of the farm.
2. The Assistant, so called because he aids the master-colonist in cultivating the ground.
3. The Agriculturist-Soldier, who adds to the usual military duties the occasional one of assisting in the fields.
4. The Reserve, who, like the agriculturist-soldier, combines the two capacities of soldier and agriculturist; and, as the name implies, forms one of a *corps de reserve*, to supply the soldier's place in case of necessity.
5. The Kantonist, under which head are comprised all the boys in the colony from thirteen to seventeen years old.
6. The Boys from eight to thirteen years.
7. The Male Children under eight years old.
8. The Females.
9. The Invalids.

The colonies in the south of Russia occupy 380 villages, in the governments of Kherson, Kharkoff, and Yekaterinoslaf. The villages, according to their size, contain from two squadrons to half a squadron. In each village is stationed half a battalion, a battalion, or even two battalions of infantry, in the government of Novgorod; and the number of troops there amounted, in 1822, to 24,000 men.

In the above 380 villages, were colonized, in the summer of 1822, twelve regiments of lancers, and twelve of cuirassiers, forming a total of 24,000 men. The total number of colonized forces, therefore, amounted to 48,000 in 1822. At present they may be estimated at 80,000 soldiers.

The three governments above mentioned constitute a military district, which is placed under the command of General Count de Witt, from whose jurisdiction there is no appeal but to the emperor, and that only in particular cases. Count de Witt is entitled commander-in-chief of the military colonies in the governments of Kherson, Kharkoff, and Yekaterinoslaf.

A code of laws, consisting of fourteen volumes, has been compiled by a committee appointed for the purpose at St. Petersburgh, for the special use of the military colonies.

These laws are administered, in the first instance, by the committees of the squadrons: each squadron having a committee composed of its officers, one of whom is elected president. These committees take cognizance of small offences committed in their respective squadrons: the term squadron including not only the soldiers who form it, but the colonists belonging to it.

From the decision of this committee, there is an appeal to the regimental committee of administration, consisting of the colonel, who is president, the lieutenant-colonel, who is vice-president, two captains, and six deputies chosen by the colonists, one from each of the six squadrons composing the regiment. The decisions of this regimental committee are referred to Count de Witt for his approval, and from his decision the soldiers and colonists have no appeal, even though it should extend to sending them to Siberia, the *ne plus ultra* of Russian punishment. Officers may appeal from Count de Witt's decisions to the emperor.

Great offences are usually tried by a Commission appointed by Count de Witt; a sort of court-martial.

A very inquisitorial police maintains the good order of each colony. A subaltern officer goes every day into each of the houses, and makes his report of the state of the inmates; and on parade days, the master-colonist and his assistant appear at the door of their cottage to shew themselves to the inspecting field-officer.

At the head-quarters of each regiment is its chancery, in which the code of laws is deposited, where the committee of the regiment meet, and a number of clerks are employed to keep the accounts, and register the proceedings.

In most of the military villages are churches, where the priests officiate who belonged to them, before they were included in the colonies.

Such an *imperium in imperio* can hardly subsist with impunity to the parent-state, unless its energies are directed against foreign powers. It is held in utter abhorrence by the peasantry; it is detested by the regular army to such an extent, that the government is obliged to give the officers a higher degree of rank, and additional pay, in order to induce them to attach themselves to colonized regiments; and it is highly disapproved of by all classes of the nobility.

The nobles regard the plan, and apparently with much justice, as highly dangerous to the empire. For, suppose a popular leader, especially in the south of Russia, should differ with the government, or with his sovereign, after a few hundred thousand men were first taught to obey him, and afterwards obeyed him through attachment, what might not he effectuate?

When the experiment of colonizing was first made in the neighbourhood of Novgorod, it produced much discontent and some disturbances in the south of Russia. Its institution elsewhere was followed by discontent and murmurs, which sometimes went so far as to cause disturbances, and to threaten revolts. The poor peasants loudly and generally complain of being restrained in their dwellings by the severe military police; and bitterly regret their fate in being forced to become colonists. When the empress and the dowager-empress went to and returned from Moscow, in the year 1818, hundreds of the peasants collected at the post-stations, and when the imperial carriages stopped, in the language of the deepest sorrow and distress, entreated their majesties to intercede with the emperor to abandon the new system of colonization.

Notwithstanding the extreme unpopularity of the system of colonization, and the vehement and general opposition which it has met with, it still goes on.

With this careful attempt at supporting invincible land-forces the extension of the Russian marine has not been forgotten. The improvements of the fleets in the Baltic and Black Sea, have been so extensive, as to enable Russia to assume a somewhat formidable station among the maritime powers of Europe. The fleet consists of thirty-two ships of the line, eighteen frigates, six cutters, seven brigs, twenty-five floating

floating batteries, 121 gun-boats, and numerous armed small craft. This fleet is manned by 32,000 men.

The emperor Alexander died suddenly of a fever, at Taganrok, on the 19th day of November, 1825. He had previously, with the consent of the senate, and the approbation of the imperial family, disqualified his brother Constantine, the presumptive heir, from reigning. In favour, however, of this prince, the feeling seemed so strong in the army, that apprehensions were entertained for the peace of the empire. Constantine, however, ceded his rights voluntarily; and a body of soldiers, who refused to acknowledge the elected emperor Nicholas, were attacked, and several of them destroyed. The only event that has occupied the present reign, is the trial and condemnation of the conspirators of the 26th of December. These were a number of officers, who had served in France and Germany, had imbibed some crude notions of liberty, and had formed secret societies in different parts of the empire, for the purpose either of establishing a constitutional monarchy, or a republic. The principal characters were Alexander Nikita, Serg, Mouravieff, Prince Tronsbetsky Nonkiff (formerly director of the office of Governor-General of Russia proper), Michael Lounime, besides a great number of minor characters. A society, called the "Union of Safety, or the True and Faithful Sons of the Country," was formed soon after the return of the Russian armies from France and Germany, in 1814 and 1815, and a number of branch societies were established in different parts of the country, at different periods. According to the report, which cannot of course be trusted, their seems to have been little union among the principal leaders, and nothing like a concerted plan, or rational system of liberty adopted. It is said, that some proposed a republic—some a constitutional monarchy—and that some wished to assassinate the emperor Alexander, and put the empress Elizabeth on the throne. It is highly surprising if their opinions were so dissonant, that they should have held together so long. The following is the result of the sentences pronounced against them. Thirty-six were sentenced to death, but five only have been hanged. The sentences of the others being commuted to labour in the mines.

The Emperor Nicholas, with the documents relative to this conspiracy, submitted also to the senate his reflexions on the situation of the Russian army, and on his position with respect to the Ottoman Porte; and he requested the senate to advise him in what manner he ought to act. They are understood to have protested in the strongest manner against any interference on the part of the emperor in the contest between the Greeks and Turks. With respect to the formation of the Russian army, the senate are said to have given their opinion, to re-model the whole, and to reduce its number by one half, dismissing, without delay, all those officers and soldiers who possessed property, or had other occupations whence they could derive subsistence, and who, in short, united the duties of a military life, with those of the citizen or the agriculturist. They recommend, that the nobleman so circumstanced, should retire to his estate, and the peasant to his labour.

The last news from Russia announces the pompous ceremonial of the coronation of Nicholas, and the perfect quietude of the empire.

Soil and Climate of Russia.

Nothing can be more false than the almost general association of extreme cold with the name of Russia. The summer of its northern governments, though short, is very warm; and the southern provinces enjoy a mild climate throughout the year. Authors, in treating of the climate of Russia, have divided the empire into regions, some choosing but three, others four regions. Herrmann adopts the four following:—

1st. The very cold region, extending from 78° to 60° of north latitude. 2d. The cold region, extending from 60° to 55° of north latitude. 3d. The moderate region, extending from 55° to 50° of north latitude. 4th. The hot region, extending from 60° to the southernmost parts of the empire. In a great extent of the first region there is scarcely any summer; for the few months it does not snow or rain scarcely deserve that name. The eastern districts of this region are much colder and more barren than the western. At Petersburgh, the climate is rude and severe, and sometimes excessively cold. There, Fahrenheit's thermometer has stood as low as 39° below 0. When the weather is moderate, the air pure, and the sun shining, and without any wind, a well-clothed healthy person enjoys even this frigid season. But when a severe east wind arises during frost, all animated nature feels its powerful influence. When it snows, with a gentle wind in the depth of winter, nothing can present a more gloomy, lurid, desponding spectacle, than the splendid capital of the north. The spring here has frequently much frost, snow, and rain, and is peculiarly disagreeable at the breaking up of the ice, when the streets are nearly impassable. But the transition from one season to the other is almost instantaneous. The short summer of four months is, for the most part, fine, and often delightful. It is occasionally oppressively sultry; so that the cool and beautiful mornings and evenings are highly enjoyed. When the days are at the longest, i. e. about 18½ hours, the twilights are charming beyond conception, and sometimes so luminous, that a person can read in the open air at midnight. The autumn has sometimes bright days, but is more generally cloudy, wet, and boisterous. The winter is always severe, but varies considerably both as to the degree of severity, and as to the period of the greatest cold. Most frequently, however, the severest frosts occur in January. During the winter months, the atmosphere is generally dry, and the mortality is less than at other seasons of the year. The length of the shortest day is only five and a half hours; and when they happen to be cold and gloomy, there is little earthly enjoyment out of doors, though the body be well enveloped in a fur shoob, fur cap, and fur boots, so as to defy the effects of cold, and the mind be ever so disposed to gaiety, except the natural amusement of descending the ice-hills, and looking at trotting matches on the river. But while winter rages without, the inhabitants at home feel not its effects in their well-warmed houses. During this season of the year the Néva is covered with ice nearly a yard in thickness. On an average, there are annually from 150 to 190 days of frost, during which the ground is frozen to the depth of nearly three feet. The aurora borealis is very frequent, and its corruscations peculiarly varied. Thunder storms are not unfrequent, and are sometimes violent, high winds are not predominant, and it seldom hails; but hoar-frosts, producing the most beautiful appearances on the trees, are very frequent. When the sun shines, these trees appear like enormous chandeliers covered with millions of resplendent gems.

In the second region of the empire the summer is indeed short in many parts; but in most of them it is so warm, and the days are so long, that the fruits of the earth usually come to maturity in a shorter time than in other places. The winter in the greatest part of this region is generally very severe.

In the third region the winter is also long and cold, especially in some parts of Siberia. This is rather owing to the lofty mountains with which these districts abound, than to their high degree of latitude. The governments belonging to this region in European Russia, however, usually enjoy a short and mild winter, and a fine warm summer.

In the fourth region the winter is short, and except in some parts of Irkutsk and Kholivan, not very cold; and the summer is warm, and in many parts very dry. One of the most delightful districts in this region is the Krimea, or rather its south coast.

The most celebrated *mountains* of Russia, are Mount Kaucasus, stretching between the Caspian and the Black Sea; the Ural mountains, separating Europe from Asia; the mountains of Olonets, which extend to an immense length, and on the north divide Russia from Sweden; the romantic mountains on the south coast of the Krimea; the Altaic chain, which has various names in different places, and separates

Russia

Russia from China; and the Valdai hills, half way between Petersburgh and Moscow, &c. &c.

The famous *steppes* of the Russians are immense plains, some of them barren, others very productive, especially of grass, occupying different parts of both Asiatic and European Russia. In Asia, the principal are those of the Irtish, of the Oby and Yenissey, of the Yenissey and Lena, and of the Lena and Indighirka. In Europe, are the *steppes* of Petshora, of the Dnêper, of the Don, of the Volga, of the Ural, &c. Some of the *steppes* in Siberia are covered with forests, or birch, pines and firs, and interspersed with salt lakes.

With respect to the *cultivated lands* in Russia, Hermann informs us that, allowing the general extent of Russia to be 1,473,881,726 desiatins, of which 402,100,552 belong to European Russia, and 1,071,781,174 to Siberia, or Asiatic Russia, the tilled lands may be reckoned at $61\frac{1}{2}$ millions, the woods and forests at 156, the meadows at $\frac{7}{223\frac{1}{2}}$ millions of desiatins; so that there remain $178\frac{1}{2}$ millions for the site of buildings, the roads, water, and uncultivated land.

By an harvest table before us, it appears that the winter corn (wheat and rye) does not yield, on an average, more than three and a half for one grain that is sowed; and the summer corn (barley and oats) not much more than two and a half for one. The increase of production seems to be about as progressive as the increase of population. By a return of the whole produce of the harvest of 1808, it appears that the whole quantity raised in Asiatic Russia, was 43,424,966 tschetwerts or 29,854,622 quarters; from which, if two-sevenths be allowed for seed, there will remain for subsistence 21,324,760 quarters. Taking the whole population at 10,164,000, and allowing for 1,164,000 who eat no bread, there will have been about 18 bushels of corn for each individual. In many parts the goats and sheep, and in some the oxen, furnish food for the inhabitants; whilst aid for the subsistence of others is afforded from the fish of the seas, lakes, and rivers.

Morasses are frequent in Russia, and are of enormous extent in Siberia.

The *seas* connected with Russia are the Arctic ocean, the Eastern ocean or Archipelago, the Inland Seas, the Baltic Sea, the Black Sea, the Sea of Azoph, the Caspian Sea, the Sea of Aral, and the Sea of Ochotsk.

The bays and gulfs of Russia are chiefly the gulf of Finland, the gulf of Archangel, the bays of the Oby and of the Yenissey, the bay of Anadhir in the eastern Archipelago; the harbour of St. Peter and St. Paul, in the southern extremity of Kamstchatka.

The Russian empire is watered by numerous and highly important *rivers*, some of them of small size, and others of great magnitude, and running a course of thousands of miles. Among them are to be enumerated the northern Dvina (generally though falsely, called the Duna), the western Dvina, the Neva, the Volga, the Oka, the Térek, the Don, the Kubán, the Dnéper, the Dnéster, the Boog, the Ob or Oby, the Irtish, the Tobol, the Yenissey, the Lena, the Yana, the Indighirka, the Kolyma, the Anadhir, the Kamstchatka, &c. &c.

Russia is not abundant in *lakes* considering its size. In Europe, are the Yenadia; in Russian Lapland, the Ladoga; the Onega, and the Peipus, in the neighbourhood of St. Petersburgh; and the Ilmen, and the Belo-Ozéro, in the government of Novgôrod. In Asia, the chief lakes are, the Lake or Sea of Baikal, the Lake of Altyn-Noor, or the Golden Lake, and the Lake of Altyn or Telitsko.

European Russia for the most part, abounds in wood. Extensive and even boundless *forests* are seen between Petersburgh and Moscow, Moscow and Vladimir, and in some of the north-eastern governments. Towards the south, woods are less abundant; and the vicinity of the Black Sea, of the Caspian Sea, and the Kubán, are almost naked. In some parts of Siberia are also seen interminable forests; but its northern and eastern parts are destitute of wood.

Statistics of Russia.

The population of Russia is, by a somewhat doubtful calculation, reckoned at about 53,778,000 souls.

In the year 1722, the population only amounted to 14,000,000; in 1742, to 16,000,000; in 1762, to 20,000,000; in 1782, to 28,000,000; in 1795, to 36,000,000; in 1807, to 35,000,000; in 1811, to 37,000,000; in 1818, from 45,000,000 to 48,000,000.

At this period, according to M. Hermann, of the Academy of Sciences at Petersburgh, the classes of the inhabitants of Russia, including the Polish provinces, but not the kingdoms of Poland and Finland, were as follow:—

	Males.	Both Sexes.
Nobles	261,600	580,000
Clergy	211,300	400,000
Merchants	142,000	300,000
Traders, Inhabitants of Towns	600,000	1,000,000
Cultivators, exempt from capitation	1,200,000	2,500,000
Kozaks, *idem*	1,110,000	2,200,000
Peasants in vassallage	16,110,000	32,795,000
Jews	108,000	210,000
Employed by Government	59,300	120,000
Army and Navy	589,000	1,000,000
Uncivilized Tribes	500,000	1,000,000
Total		42,105,000

The local arrangement of this mass may be fully seen from from the following tables.

Names.	Extent in Square Miles.	Population.
East-Sea Province	192,064	3,857,107
Great Russia	938,929	21,330,279
Little Russia	88,256	6,124,585
South or New Russia	192,362	2,550,700
West Russia	139,712	8,480,022
Poland	46,741	2,732,324

It thus appears, that in the whole of European Russia, the density of the population is somewhat less than $2\frac{1}{4}$ persons to each square mile, or nearly one person to 282 English statute acres.

The *East-Sea Province* is divided into the following governments, viz:—

Names.	Extent in Square Miles.	Population.
Petersburgh	18,090	808,512
Finland	134,444	1,346,139
Esthonia	6,890	396,032
Livonia	20,110	737,734
Courland	9,544	568,690

So that the inhabitants in this province are nearly one to twenty acres of land.

The principal cities in the government of Petersburgh are, Petersburgh, one of the capitals of the empire, with 300,000 inhabitants; Kronstadt, with 35,000; Narva, with 3800. In Finland are Helsingfors, with 8000 inhabitants; Abo, with 11,300; Uleaborg, with 3350; and Wiborg, with 3200. The chief city of Esthonia is Revel, with 15,000 inhabitants. The cities of Livonia are Riga, with 30,000; Dorpat, with 6000; and Pernau, with 2500. The only city of note in Courland, is Miltau, containing 12,000 inhabitants.

The province of *Great Russia* is divided into 19 governments, whose names, extent, and population, are as follow:—

Names.	Extent in Square Miles.	Population.
Moscow	10,500	1,289,823
Smolensko	22,088	1,297,055
Pskow, or Pleskow	22,293	793,945
Novgorod	54,997	960,000
Olonez	80,789	352,904
Archangel	346,133	162,666
Wologda	163,712	802,178
Kostroma	38,570	1,422,700
Nishegorod	20,501	1,349,508
Wolodimir	18,669	1,306,046
Tula	11,904	1,093,721
Kaluga	12,736	1,159,600
Twer	24,213	1,233,358
Jaroslaw	14,528	1,022,991
Kurst	14,954	1,611,109
Orel	16,779	1,270,085
Riäsan	14,553	1,270,291
Tambow	22,869	1,391,400
Woronesh	32,487	1,437,357

The inhabitants in this province are nearly one to twenty-four acres of land.

The province of *Little Russia*, composed chiefly of the Ukraine, or the country of the Kozaks, the best people of the whole empire, is divided into four governments, viz.—

Names.	Extent in Square Miles.	Population.
Kiew	17,557	1,353,800
Slobodsk Ukraine	21,717	1,471,000
Tschernigow	22,983	1,378,500
Pultoway	16,810	1,933,000

The inhabitants are about one to eight acres of land.

The province of *South Russia*, a great part of which has been added to the empire in the course of the eighteenth, and the first ten years of the nineteenth century, is divided into five governments, viz.—

Names.	Extent in Square Miles.	Population.
Catherinoslaw	29,757	944,994
Cherson	25,728	523,600
Taurida	43,562	437,428
Bessarabia	18,711	310,000
Land of the Kozaks	77,034	398,103

The inhabitants are about one to forty-nine acres of land.

West Russia comprehends those provinces of Poland and Lithuania which have been formed into a component part of the Russian empire. They have been divided into eight governments, viz.—

Names.	Extent in Square Miles.	Population.
Wilna	23,061	1,328,100
Grodno	11,434	842,500
Minsh	14,140	914,686
Witebesk	23,424	1,135,100
Mohileu	19,584	963,400
Wolhynia	29,739	1,464,000
Podolia	20,224	1,606,400
Bialystock	3,370	219,050

The inhabitants are about one to eleven acres of land.

For the poupulation of POLAND, see that article.

We shall consider this immense body of people, first, as regards their artificial, and, secondly, in relation to their natural division.

The *Nobles* in Russia, though distinguished by the several titles of prince, count, or baron, are all upon an equal footing, and enjoy equal privileges. Their persons and lands are freed from taxation; they are exempted from the recruiting ballot; and are not subject to bodily penalties. These exemptions are, however, more apparent than real; for though their lands and persons are not taxable, yet a capitation tax, at the will of the government, may be imposed on their slaves, who form the most valuable part of their possessions. Though not in person compelled to serve in the army, yet they are bound to furnish from their slaves a number of recruits in proportion to the demands of the service. In some of the more recently acquired provinces, such as Livonia, Esthonia, and in Poland, the nobles have or rather exercise other privileges, extending even to the power of life and death, over their vassals; but these powers arise from custom and general acquiescence, much more than from the existing law. Of this class, according to Dr. Lyall, those who have travelled may be regarded as equally civilized, in so far as regards their conduct and manners, though generally not so learned, as individuals of corresponding rank in the other nations of Europe. The lower nobility, and especially the untravelled, retain more of the national customs and manners, and exhibit more decidedly distinguishing characteristics.

The despotic nature of the government, the excessive military taste, and the puerile distinctions of ranks, naturally render the natives of all classes of society servile and obsequious, diffident, and even cowardly to superiors; haughty, commanding, and frequently severe to inferiors; and insensibly lead the attention more to the exterior of the man,—his uniform and his ribbands, his stars and his crosses, than to his religious or his moral conduct, his literary attainments, or his place in the intellectual world. The same causes explain the neglect of inferiors, and even at times of equals: when a noble of higher rank makes his appearance unexpectedly in the circle of a family party, the harmony and sociability of which are destroyed, by the general and long protracted attention and deference paid to the visitor. To this, however, there are honourable exceptions; there are spirits which breathe liberality and independence, and minds too great to accept the proffered honours, or assume airs of *hauteur*, in consequence of vain and factitious distinctions; but the noble is viewed by his vassal as a being of a superior creation. A look, a gesture, or a word from the former, having a magic effect upon the latter. Dr. Lyall, however, relates that as far as his experience goes, he cannot say that the nobles are generally cruel or oppressive to their slaves. They are very extravagant. All their undertakings are upon the great scale, and they are seldom completely executed. They are pushed on with vigour till novelty becomes exhausted, or till pecuniary means fail; they are often interrupted, sometimes recommenced, but rarely receive the last, the finishing touch. There are, however, exceptions to this general feature, but not numerous: for Dr. Lyall says, he could not point out half a dozen completely well arranged and furnished noblemen's establishments, among the hundreds of sumptuous palaces, the numerous fine villas, and the many beautiful country retreats, which decorate Moscow and its vicinity.

Though some of the nobles are cleanly in their persons, and have their mansions well furnished and arranged, it must be allowed that, generally speaking, there is, in both these respects, much room for improvement. Our travellers dwell with especial delight on the vermin found in the heads of these grandees; on their using the same knife and fork during a whole repast, and on the correspondent dirtyness of their attendants. There are many pretty stories of this kind in the works of Lyall and Clarke. The hospitality of the Russian nobility has been proverbial, yet it seems rather the ostentation of a grandee who delights in a crowd of dependants, than

than the social feeling of the convivial philanthropist. Clarke says that "they consider the honour of their families so materially implicated in maintaining a numerous table, that should any of the satellites which usually surround them, forsake his post at dinner, and swell the train of any other person, the offence is rarely forgiven; they will afterwards persecute the deserter by every means of revenge within their power; and, not being burdened by scruples of conscience, they generally find means of indulging their vengeance."

Among the people in general hospitality is, however, universal, and founded on the purest motives of tenderness and duty.

The *clergy* are exempt from taxation, and from corpora punishment; which privileges are extended to each eldest son, who must, however, though his father is excused, take the risk of being called upon for military service.

The high clergy, who are all monks, are generally men of considerable information. But the lower orders, by far the most numerous, including the popes, or parish priests, with a few exceptions, know little beyond the performance of the duties of their calling. Few of them are worthy men; most of them are dissolute and irregular in their lives, and freely indulge in potations of spirits. They are rarely seen in genteel society, and by no means receive that attention or deference to which their holy calling, entitles their contemporaries in this country. They are in the primitive stage, in so far as regards theology. With respect to customs and manners, and general mode of life, some may be said to be, in the imitative stage of civilization, a step more elevated than the peasantry; while the bulk of them cannot claim that distinction.

The *citizens* are divided into three guilds or classes, according to the amount of capital they possess, and have some most whimsical privileges proportioned to their rank. Those of the first rank, with a capital of from 10,000 to 50,000 roubles, may carry on home or foreign trade; may be owners of ships; may drive a carriage with two horses; and are exempt from corporal punishment. The members of the second guild, possessing a capital of from 5000 to 10,000 roubles, can only carry on home trade, but enjoy all the other rights of the first guild. The members of the third guild must enjoy a capital between 1000 and 5000 roubles; they may carry on retail trades, be proprietors of barges and boats, keep taverns, and drive one horse, though not in a coach; but are not exempt from corporal punishments. Besides these there are the foreign and designated citizens. In this class is comprehended each person who has twice served any civic office; learned men and artists who can produce academic testimonials; bankers who possess capitals from 100,000 to 200,000 roubles; wholesale dealers, that keep no shops, and ship-owners, that use the sea. These may harness two or four horses to a coach; may possess country houses and gardens; may own ships; and are exempt from bodily penalties. None of the trading classes are exempt from the military conscription; but they are allowed to procure substitutes.

Though the merchants of the first and second guilds are often rich, they by no means present any resemblance to the dignified characters called by that name in England. The Russian merchant degraded by law, destitute of liberal education, cannot of course be capable of that independence and lofty sense of honour, which so eminently distinguish his class in all free governments; but it is said that he wants even common honesty. Dr. Lyall tells us that the Russians demand three, four, six, or even ten times the value of an article, or more than they accept of; adulterate their goods and wares; and use false weights and false measures. "The Russian merchants, shopkeepers, and dealers," he continues, "cheat in the quantity, in the quality, and in the price. If they miss their aim in the quantity, they succeed in the quality; and if they fail in both, it will be ten to one that they are successful in the price. The wary even are cheated in one or two of these ways, and the stranger is often duped by stratagem in all the three."

The nobles, clergy, and merchants are not so abstemious in regard to drinking as the peasantry.

The next class is that of the *peasants*, or free inhabitants, of the country. In this rank are included, 1st. The ancient race of proprietors who cultivate their own lands, but do not enjoy the right of possessing slaves. The males of this description amount to about 1,150,000. 2d. The Tartars, the Bashirs, and several other races, less numerous, to the south of Siberia, who are all proprietors of the lands they cultivate. 3d. The peasants of Finland. Since the acquisition of New Finland, the privileges enjoyed by the peasants of that country, under the Swedish government, have been continued and confirmed to them; and the same rights granted to those of Old Finland, where all are now either proprietors or renters. 4th. The colonists, consisting of foreign families of agriculturists, who are proprietors of the lands they cultivate, and whose number is about 65,000. 5th. The military colonists.

The class next below these is that of the *Serfs*. They are chiefly peasants on the crown lands, or of the province of Livonia. Of the first of these, the crown peasants, labour in the fields, the others in the mines and manufactories. The lot of this class seems to be placed on the confines betwixt liberty and slavery. They may rise to the rank of citizens, they may acquire property, they enjoy the protection of the laws; and, under some restrictions, may quit their residences to obtain employment for a limited time; but they are liable to be hired to the service of the mines, or to be sold. Although the empress Catharine rarely gave these peasants away as presents to favourites, and Alexander never did so, yet there is no legal security against the practice; and consequently their condition is scarcely less precarious than it was formerly. The peasants of Livonia, amounting to about 560,000, were slaves until the year 1804, when they first obtained the rights of serfs. They are now subject to some peculiar claims, but those claims are fixed, and they cannot be removed from the soil without their own consent.

The last and most numerous class is that of the slaves. They are in law considered as *things*, not as persons; may be bought, sold, or exchanged, with no more restrictions than are enacted in dealing for cattle: and have no other protection against their masters than what is created by a regard to pecuniary interest. They belong to the nobles, or to such civil or military officers as have acquired the right of possessing them. They are divided into agricultural, mining, manufacturing, or domestic slaves, and have their condition only improved when drawn for military service.

Of the condition of the Russian peasants, horrible pictures have been drawn. But they are not in all respects wretched, nor are they all equally so. Dr. Lyall informs us that they generally live well. They highly esteem their black bread, an excellent, wholesome and nourishing article, their *kvass*, when good, a simple pleasant drink; their *stchi*; or cabbage-soup, sweet or acidulated; their condiments, salt, leeks, onions, and garlic; articles to be found everywhere in Russia; their salted cucumbers; their *kasha*, or boiled millet, eaten with butter or with oil, during the fasts; their milk, which in the country at least, is generally added to the articles of their diet, as also eggs, and vegetables, especially mushrooms; besides, at times, butcher's meat, and various kinds of pies on Sunday and festivals. The poorest fare, except in time of famine, a Russian is ever reduced to, is formed of black bread and salt, boiled millet and butter, all nutritive substances. Although Dr. Lyall is of opinion that as the generality of the peasantry fare well, their lot is comfortable, he candidly admits that numbers are oppressed, and most inhumanly treated. When some of the rich nobles, in consequence of dissipation and debt, are pressed for money, the *obrok*, or yearly capitation tax, is augmented, or demanded before the regular time. Such a demand is like an imperial ukáz, it has a despotic influence; for the vassals well know that non-compliance with it, if within their capability, would draw vengeance upon themselves. As, however, they are very cunning, they secrete their

their property, and invent a thousand excuses. But it is chiefly the vassals of the poor nobles, whose case calls for sympathy and commiseration. The necessities of their lords, when combined with avarice or rapacity, reduce humanity to the most abject condition. It is not merely in respect of money that the peasants are oppressed. The time fixed by law which they ought to have for tilling their own land, and managing their own affairs, is directly encroached upon, or almost altogether taken up with their master's work. Themselves, their wives, their children, and their horses, are continually occupied in labouring for their lords, or in advancing some favourite scheme. These oppressions are sometimes contrary to the laws of their country; but the laws generally are a dead letter, since a peasant cannot quit the estate without his master's permission. And if he had reached the courts of justice, and complained of his lord, his attorney would obtain a present or a bribe from the latter and thus the affair would terminate. The peasants, when dreadfully oppressed, sometimes become exasperated, and sacrifice their tyrannical masters, in the the same way as the nobles sacrifice their sovereigns. More frequently, however, this is the lot of cruel stewards. The irritated boors unite in a body; the oppressor is murdered, and no single individual is responsible.

At the time of Porter's residence in Russia, a gentleman, having by some severities incurred the hatred of his slaves, who were employed in a distillery, they seized him one day and threw him into a large boiler of hot spirits. The murder was not discovered for some days; ten or fifteen of the perpetrators were knouted and banished for life to Siberia.

Some of the lords also make unjust demands upon the sheep, the calves, the hens, the chickens, the eggs, the milk, the cream, and the vegetables of their peasants; and at times they contrive that their people shall make presents of these articles to them The starost, or elder of the village, knowing the wants of his master, counsels the vassals to offer of their own accord what they know may be taken from them. Sometimes less ceremony is used, and an order is sent to each peasant of a village to produce forty or fifty eggs, that his lord may have abundance to prepare for the grand festival at Easter; when, according to the custom of the country, boiled and stained eggs are presented to friends. Even the coarse linen, which is made by most of the females in the village, is sometimes shamefully pillaged, or asked under various pretences. The lot of the peasants of the richer nobles, as those of most of the Sheremétefs, the Galitzins, the Dolgorukis, the Orlofs, &c. seems to be much envied by common people. If the nobleman is benevolent, his slaves are happy; for by him they are fed, clothed, and lodged. In sickness they are attended, and in old age are supported at his expense.

Authors who have considered the Russian people under the natural division of races, have adopted the following classification:—

1st. Sclavonians. These, comprehending the inhabitants of Russia, Poland, Lithuania, and Courland, are estimated at 44,930,000.

2d. Fins. These consist of the chief residents of Finland, Livonia, Lapland, and some other tribes, which together amount to about 2,360,000.

3d. Tartars. They comprehend several tribes, and a great number of sub-divisions of tribes. The Tartars proper are divided into fourteen different branches; the Noggiers into six; besides which are the Kirgusiens, the Aralians, the Chewensens, the Bucharens, the Bashirs, the Teleutes, and the Jakutes, who are taken together at 1,800,000.

4th. The Caucasians, which comprehend the Ischerkessens, the Aucheses, the Lesghies, the Ossetts, and Kistenses, estimated at 1,300,000.

5th. Monguls. Under this head are comprehended the Monguls proper, the Kalmucks, the Buritens, and the Kuriles, supposed to amount to 350,000 only.

6th. The Mandshurs, in two branches, viz. Tungusens and Lamutes, whose numbers do not exceed 80,000.

7th. Polar People, comprehending Samoiedes, Korjacks, Ostjacks, Kamschats, and some smaller tribes, whose whole numbers are not more than 300,000.

8th. The Colonists. These include the various foreigners established in the empire with peculiar rights. The Jews amount to about 500,000; the Germans to 250,000; and the other Europeans and Asiatics to about 750,000; making together, under this head, 1,500,000.

Of the foregoing divisions the first four only are worthy of particular notice. Of the *Sclavonians*, the Russians, Malo-Russians, and Poles, are the most remarkable. The peculiarities of the Russians have received all the consideration our limits allow. Of the Poles we have spoken fully under POLAND. It may be remarked, that in Moscow, Petersburgh, and the large cities of the empire, the distinction of races is scarcely apparent; it is only in the country that original distinctions are forcibly marked.

The governments of Kiew, Novgorod, Peversky and some parts of Polish Ukraine formerly constituted Little Russia. Though sprung from the same race as the other Russians, the inhabitants of Little Russia had not much intercourse with their countrymen. They long formed a distinct republic, and were divided into regiments and companies, each company having its chief place and its captain. They called themselves Tcherkasses or Kozaks. When, after a separation of three centuries, they were reunited to Russia, they formed a very different people by their manners, language, and constitution. This difference still exists. In 1784, the Malo-Russians lost their military organization, and were taxed like the Russian peasants.

They are not, however, attached to the soil, like the latter, but are strangers to servitude. No other cause need be sought for their manifest superiority in every thing that can exalt one set of men above another. They are cleaner, more industrious, more honest, more generous, more polite, more courageous, more hospitable, more truly pious, and of course less superstitious. They are of taller stature, have ruddier complexions, a more serious disposition, and are less addicted to intoxication than the other Russians. Their language only differs from the Russian as the dialect of the southern provinces of France does from that spoken in Paris.

These people in their features resemble Kozaks, and both bear a similitude to the Poles, being doubtless all derived from one common stock.

The Malo-Russian women wear a petticoat, sometimes of one piece of cloth fastened round the waist; at others, particularly among more aged females, this petticoat consists of two pieces, like aprons, fastened on before and behind. It is chequered like the Scotch plaid, and answers to the kelt worn in certain parts of Scotland to this day.

The men shave the beard, leaving the mustaches; they also shave the head with the exception of a tuft of hair on the crown. They wear caps in the Polish fashion, bordered with lambskin, and go with the breast constantly bare. The upper garment is a caftan of very coarse cloth, with a hood. Brown is the colour which they prefer. A girdle is fastened over this caftan, the seams of which are generally embroidered and somtimes laced. Pantaloons and boots either black or of some other colour, complete their dress.

The Malo-Russians, when they dwell on the domains of nobles, are but their farmers, and are then called *sosedi*, which signifies neighbours. An art in which they excel is the making of cider and wines from different sorts of fruit, good specimens of which are to be found in the meanest cottages.

The musical instruments of these people are the bagpipe and double pipes of reed. The former, like those used in North Britain and Finland, is common to the Kozaks as well as to the Malo-Russians. The latter are six inches in length, and not thicker than a goose-quill: both are played at once. This method of playing on the pipe is very ancient, as may be seen in many antique basso-relievos, and in the monuments of Herculaneum.

The *Finnish* race was formerly one of the most considerable

1. Russian poulterer. 2. Villager of Little Russia. 3. Regular Monk. 4. Yakout priest. 5. Tcherkassian warrior. 6. Tcherkassian prince.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis, 1826.

able on the face of the globe, extending from Danish Lapland and the western frontiers of Norway, along the Frozen Ocean to the Ural, and southward as far as the Dwina and Yaik. Nestor and the other Russian historians distinguish it by the name of *Tchudes*, and this is in fact a more appropriate appellation for the whole of that great family of which the Fins form but a part. In Ingria there are to be found Fins, who still call themselves Tchudes, and have a peculiar language and costume. Their name, given to them by the Scandinavians, has a reference to the country which they occupy; the word *finne* or *fenne* (the same as our English *fen*) signifying marsh.

Inhabiting the most dreary, rugged, and barren portion of Europe, the Fins had, in ancient, times but little intercourse with other nations, who felt no desire to make themselves acquainted with countries so poor and so remote. The history of these people is therefore extremely obscure; they were too ignorant to have historians, and all that they knew of their origin was confined to a few vague traditions. Divided into numerous tribes, they had probably but little connexion with each other. Some of these tribes were reduced by the Tartars; others were obliged to submit to the Russian dominion, when the tzars extended their conquests northward, and it is only since that period that they have been known to the moderns.

It must not, however, be imagined that the ancients had no knowledge of the Fins; the conquests of Cæsar in Gaul, and those of the emperors in Germany, opened the north of Europe to the Romans. Tacitus, in his account of the inhabitants of Germany, has given us some particulars of the miserable state of the Fins. On comparing this part of his admirable picture with the details which occupy the pages of modern travellers, the reader will perceive that the Fins have not, in the last eighteen centuries, made any great progress in civilization.

"The Fins," says the Roman historian, "are exceedingly savage and disgustingly wretched. They have neither arms, horses, nor houses: subsisting on grass, clothing themselves in skins, and lying upon the ground. Their only hope is in hunting, and their arrows are pointed with bone, for want of iron. They are accompanied in the chase by the women, who demand their share of the spoil. Their children have no other shelter from the inclemency of the air and the attacks of wild beasts than cabins composed of the branches of trees: this is the only receptacle for both young and old. They prefer this kind of life to cultivating the earth, building houses, and harassing themselves and others with the vicissitudes of hope and fear. Having nothing to dread either from men or gods, they have arrived at the point which it is most difficult to attain—they have nothing even to wish for." They remain the same as Tacitus describes them, mere hunters and fishers.

The *Tartars* of the Russian empire, to whom our attention must be confined, inhabit the governments of Casan, Orenburg and Tobolsk, the north coasts of the Caspian and Black Seas, the northern part of Mount Caucasus, and lastly the immense steppes, or deserts, situated between the rivers Ural and Yenisei. They have a particular constitution, which secures to them the privilege of choosing chiefs to govern them from among their nobility. They formerly paid to the Russian government the tribute imposed by their ancient khans, but they are now taxed the same as Russian peasants.

Simplicity, frugality, and economy, are predominant virtues among these originally pastoral and roving people. An erratic life is what they prefer; but they begin to be habituated to towns and to sedentary occupations. The ancient Tartars were always on horseback, and their nobility followed no other profession than that of arms. This fondness for a military life is but repressed by circumstances, not extinguished. They are as ferocious in war, as they are gentle and kind at home. An enemy is treated by the Tartars with the utmost inhumanity, but the stranger who seeks an asylum beneath their roof is cherished as a member of the family, and they frequently kill a mare for an entertainment on occasion of his coming.

Their disposition is grave, serious, and phlegmatic. Like all the nations of the East, they consider rest as their chief happiness, and spend whole hours together sitting cross-legged, and doing nothing but smoking their pipes.

The Turukish or Turkish language is common among all the Tartars. Such of them as are Mahometans not only speak, but also write it with Arabic letters. They employ the Arabic language in their prayers, and in all religious exercises, though it is understood by very few even of their priests. They are less fanatic than the Turks; and their attachment to the doctrine of fatalism produces in them a patient resignation under misfortunes, and an apathy which frequently prevents them from shunning calamities. They have a mufti, or supreme head of their religion—a dignity created for them by the empress Catharine. This mufti resides in the government of the Kaucasus; he has under him three *agouns*, or elders, residing at Casan, Tobolsk, and Astracan, and all the *mollas*, or priests.

The pagan Tartars are rude and ignorant; they have neither schools nor writing; hence, their language is become so corrupt, that the Mahometan Tartars can scarcely understand them.

The Tartar has frequently been confounded with the Mongol. This is a great mistake. The Mongol is ugly and deformed, whereas the Tartar is well-shaped, has handsome features, and an European face, but a sallow complexion.

The Baschkirs only merit to be called ugly. These Tartars inhabit the province of Ufa, in the government of the same name, and the province of Ekatherinenburg, in the government of Permia. Their ugliness has even been somewhat exaggerated; they have, it is true, small eyes, a flat nose, and long ears; yet there is not a Baschkir who resembles the hideous portrait that we find of them in Lavater's work. With the exception of bow legs and thighs, they are well proportioned and robust. Their character is none of the best: they are hard-hearted, and suspicious. Their neighbours, the Kirghises, call them *istaki*, or the *dirty*; and they completely justify this epithet.

These people are not absolute rovers as formerly, but yet they do not lead a stationary life. They have two kinds of habitations, one for summer, and the other for winter: the former is a tent of felt or birch bark, in the shape of a truncated cone; in the winter-hut there is but one apartment. Hamlets containing twenty such habitations are to be met with; but in summer it is rare to find more than twenty families in one place.

Pastoral pursuits are still their favourite occupation, though they have been compelled to cultivate the ground. With the Baschkirs the horse is an indispensable animal; they are scarcely ever on foot. Their food chiefly consists of horse-flesh and mare's milk. The hide of the horse serves them for clothing, and with his hair they make ropes. They drink to intoxication of *kumiss*, and so general is this practice, that, as we are assured, in the evenings of summer not one sober man is to be found among them. Some of the Baschkirs keep camels. If they were to cultivate the naturally fertile soil of their country, they might live very comfortably; to induce them to do so, the government annually distributes fine scarlet dresses among the best husbandmen; but they cannot yet be prevailed upon to addict themselves to agriculture. They might also derive considerable profit from the mines which they possess; but in general, when any hamlet discovers a vein or mine, the right of working it for sixty years is made over to some Russian speculator. In the government of Permia, however, there are Baschkirs who work the mines themselves, and sell the ore to Russian foundries.

The Baschkirs, like the Tchuwasches, Tchermisses, and Mestsheraiks, keep a great quantity of bees. Besides the swarms which they have at home, some of them have several hundred, nay even a thousand swarms of wild bees in the woods.

It would be vain to attempt to describe all the different nations that are to be met with in the Kaucasus. Its most celebrated nation is the Tcherkasses, called by Europeans the Circassians. A general outline of them may be drawn in a very few words: a strong constitution, handsome face, graceful figure, extraordinary agility, great indifference to religion, a dislike of agriculture, but a decided propensity to plunder, a crafty mind and hospitable manners—such are the characteristic features of all the Kaucasians.

Nothing can be more beautiful than the equipment of the Tcherkassian princes and ousden when they go to war, or upon extraordinary occasions. Kimmel has justly observed, that there is no nation whose army can exhibit a more brilliant spectacle. They are then armed in the manner of the ancient knights, wearing a cuirass, or coat of mail, a large helmet, gauntlets, coverings for the thighs and arms, in short, all the pieces of armour employed by our heroes of old, excepting the buckler, to the use of which they are strangers. To this antique and brilliant suit, made of fine iron or steel, ornamented with silver, they add the sabre, carbine, and pistol; on parade days they also carry a quiver, bow and arrows.

The opposite plate (fig. 5) represents a Tcherkassian clothed in armour, and provided with a peculiar weapon which is sometimes used by them. This weapon is a thick stick having a large iron ball at one end and a sharp point at the other; it is thrown like a javelin, and seems to resemble the javelins called *plumbatæ*, used by the Illyrian legions in the time of Dioclesian.

Figure 6 is a prince of the same nation.

The *Government* of Russia is an absolute hereditary monarchy, in which the Emperor is the sole framer of the laws; but, as in other absolute monarchies, the exercise of power is tempered, and somewhat moderated by the rights and privileges to which many bodies in different provinces have, by long-established usage, such claims as would be dangerous to the monarch to infringe. In the administration of the government, there is an uniformity preserved throughout all the several provinces, and in the different branches into which the executive power is divided. The Emperor, through the directing senate, issues his ukases, or laws, to the Governors of the several provinces; which laws are executed by a Board, divided into sections, of which they are presidents. Besides the civil, there is a military governor in each department, to whom alone the affairs of the army are intrusted. There are in Russia 36 of these governments. The remaining nine, consisting of Esthonia, Livonia, Courland, Vitebsk, Mohilof, Minsk, Wilna, Grodno, and Volchinia, are administered according to particular laws. Some tribes of the Kozaks are ruled by their hereditary chiefs. The ministers are appointed to different branches, denominated Foreign Affairs, War, Marine, Interior, Instruction, Finance, Justice, Police, Agriculture, and Ecclesiastical.

Law.—The Civil and Criminal codes of Russia are very imperfect, notwithstanding the efforts directed towards their improvement by the empress Catharine, and the more practical attempt of Alexander. In the cities, two burgomasters and four counsellors; and in the country, one justice, with two noble and two plebeian proprietors, form tribunals of the first instance. From these, appeals may be made to higher courts in the several provinces; and from them again to the supreme tribunals at St. Petersburgh or Moscow. Among the less civilized people, great deviations from this system are still indulged; and their chiefs exercise an hereditary power in civil as well as in criminal matters, over their several tribes. A kind of Court of Conscience exists in most places, which hears verbal complaints; acts as arbiters in differences about smaller matters; and exercises power in behalf of minors and idiots.

Finances.—The Finances of the Russian empire are not submitted to general inspection; and the great depreciation experienced in the paper currency, creates some difficulty in ascertaining their amount. The chief taxes are the capitation-tax of two roubles from each peasant, and five from each burgher; the property-tax of $1\frac{3}{4}$ per cent. on the capital of the traders; and the duties on the importation of foreign goods. The other material sources of revenue are, the monopoly of distilled corn spirits; the profits of the coinage, of postage, and of stamped paper; and the sale of wood from the annual cuttings of the royal forests. These several branches have been estimated to have afforded, in the year 1820, about thirteen or fourteen millions sterling, including the kingdom of Poland. The expenses of the state, for many years, exceeded the income; and thus the public debt has been constantly increasing; but, it is said, the revenue now equals, or rather exceeds the expenditure. The national debt is supposed to amount to 1,000,000,000 roubles, or about 160,000,000*l.* sterling. One-half of this is believed to consist in the government paper roubles, which have been issued at a gradually increasing depreciation. The other half, or funded debt, is principally owing to foreigners, and the interest is paid to them in silver money. This state of debt, for so extensive and so numerously peopled a country, may not appear very heavy; but in Russia there is only paper money in circulation, and the constant drain to pay the interest of the debt in the precious metals, makes the difficulty of returning to a metallic currency almost insurmountable. The project of a sinking fund was adopted in 1817, but it has hitherto made but a slight progress in redeeming the debt.

The increase of the Russian *army* has far exceeded what has been experienced in either the territory, the population, or the revenue of the empire.

Tzar Peter I. in 1687, had, of regular troops	10,000
Emperor Peter I. in 1724	108,350
Empress Elizabeth, in 1747	162,750
Empress Catharine, in 1771	198,107
——— in 1786	263,662
Emperor Paul, in 1800	368,715
Emperor Alexander, in 1805	428,287
——— in 1820	989,117

Besides this prodigious force, a national guard, or militia, is organized in all parts of the empire, except in Siberia and the two northern European provinces. The expense of this vast force is very small; the articles of their equipment, provisioning, and arming, being of the cheapest and coarsest kind; and as the recruits are procured by ballot, and the pay of officers and men is low, the whole expense of the establishment is only 20,000,000 roubles, or about 3,000,000*l.* sterling. The institutions for military education are fully commensurate to the extent of the force. In the Cadets' house at Petersburgh, are 1000 youths; and the whole number in the empire, under appropriate instruction for the military profession, amounts to nearly 3000.

The *navy* of Russia has not been neglected; but though the present force is equal to what existed in 1813, yet its character is much inferior, as many of the ships are become old. Very little timber of the best quality is to be found in the Russian territory; but every other article, required for a navy, is abundantly and cheaply supplied from domestic sources. We have already mentioned its numerical force.

Commerce.—Though Russia is, in common with all semi-barbarous states, rather fitted by nature for production than manufacture, a very natural, though pitiable emulation of England, has induced her rulers to take considerable pains to encourage the practices of weaving, cutlery, &c. Their success has not been so great as to produce any importan consequences; and the exportations of Russia are confined to raw, or nearly raw, products.

The imports consist chiefly of rice, sugar, yarn, dyeing materials, cotton, cotton manufactures, and wine. The exports, of tallow, flax, hemp, and corn.

The

The annexed table contains the summary of the exports and imports for several years:—

Years.	Importation.	Exportation.	Years.	Importation.	Exportation.
	Roubles.			Roubles.	
1802	56,530,094	63,277,759	1812	79,365,560	139,255,713
1803	55,557,855	67,148,643	1813	121,084,865	133,807,040
1804	49,500,109	59,017,549	1814	113,785,322	196,216,820
1805	55,529,118	72,430,185	1815	114,729,440	220,895,110
1806	51,641,466	62,649,556	1819	167,599,003	210,589,310
1807	40,403,662	53,564,901	1825	182,706,835	234,731,448

The grand channels of this commerce by sea, were as follow:—

Years.	By the Baltic.		By the White Sea.		By the Black Sea and the Sea of Azof.		By the Caspian Sea.	
	Importation.	Exportation.	Importation.	Exportation.	Importation.	Exportation.	Importation.	Exportation.
1802	32,983,418	46,917,134	549,732	4,796,017	2,054,789	2,986,096	666,044	89,984
1803	30,125,676	49,430,718	504,506	4,802,638	2,960,886	4,924,050	802,192	150,138
1804	27,107,653	45,152,020	388,669	2,221,490	4,216,343	4,915,357	757,241	96,485
1805	28,930,001	52,115,188	389,872	3,754,091	5,365,059	7,403,372	857,201	126,564
1806	27,191,468	49,143,759	287,226	4,095,661	4,730,138	3,628,323	544,760	91,443
1807	27,394,978	43,027,294	587,424	3,287,034	584,977	397,694	1,077,610	185,599

From this Table, it results, 1st. That the importation upon the Baltic Sea, and upon the White Sea, during the above period, was very inferior to the exportation; that commerce was more equal upon the Black Sea, but that the importation greatly surpassed the exportation upon the Caspian Sea.

2d. That the importation upon the Baltic Sea has diminished, but that the exportation has been better sustained. The first phenomenon was the effect of the continental system; the second arose from the want which foreigners had of Russian productions.

3d. That the commerce of the White Sea is chiefly commerce of exportation, which has been pretty well sustained in spite of all obstacles.

4th. That the commerce upon the Black Sea is the most equal commerce among the commercial nations. The surplus which there is of exportation, arises chiefly from the commerce of Odéssa in corn.

5th. That the commerce upon the Caspian Sea is the most disadvantageous to Russia, the importation being seven or eight times greater than the exportation.

6th. That the general importation by sea amounted, during this period, at a medium to 33,506,643 roubles, and the exportation to 55,623,024. The balance was therefore in favour of Russia; for there were 22,116,381 roubles more exported than imported.

1812	47,542,819	82,932,106	8,713,083	10,609,158	3,019,905	10,767,677	1,059,138	309,689
1813	89,937,446	76,474,118	5,549,598	7,723,398	6,364,631	15,480,616	2,337,734	1,918,824
1814	80,072,063	129,517,007	1,140,864	8,845,528	9,600,063	15,396,537	2,962,388	1,769,625
1815	80,135,941	141,682,571	2,499,332	15,854,110	7,714,974	22,020,421	2,203,644	2,032,182

The importation by the Baltic Sea, in 1813, is unique in its kind; it exceeds by forty-two millions that of the year 1812; it even exceeds the exportation by thirteen millions. When the continental system fell to the ground, and when peace was restored to Europe after the dreadful conflict of 1812, England especially filled the ports of Russia with colonial merchandise and her manufactured goods. This period passed, the importation of the Baltic Sea fell somewhat, but it always remained thirty-three millions superior to the year 1812, and fifty-three millions superior to the last years of the preceding period.

The *Literature* of Russia (that is to say of the capital and largest cities,) is advancing at a fair pace. In poetry, the first step towards knowledge made by a barbarous people, the "specimens" published by Mr. Bowring shew a high degree of excellence. In science, translations from other languages form of course the mass of Russian books. Nevertheless original productions are met with. The principal physicians of St. Petersburgh form a Society, which publishes essays on medical subjects in German, under the title of "Vermischte Abhandlungen aus dem Gebiete der Heilkunde." *Zoology* has been recently treated by Michel Maximovich in a Russian work, entitled Glavnia Osnovania, of which the first volume was published at Moscow, in 1824. This is the first original work on Zoology hitherto composed in the Russian language.—In *Entomology*, the Baron de Mannerheim, a Member of the Society of Natural History at Moscow, published at St. Petersburgh, in 1823, a treatise in Latin, on the class of insects called Eacnemis.—The author is employed in the administration of the civil government of Finland, but devotes his leisure, with great effect, to the study of Natural History.—Dmitri Perevoztchikoff, Assistant Professor in the University of Moscow, published in 1822, "Glavnié Osnovanïe," &c. (Primary Elements) of Geometry, in the Russian language. The same writer had, in 1819, translated into Russian, Francœur's Cours des Mathematiques, and in 1820, an elementary work on Arithmetic. The only original Russian work of merit on mathematical subjects previously to M. Perevoztchikoff's, was a treatise on Algebra, published about twelve years ago by M. Platof Gamaley, an author of profound erudition. There have, however, been several Russian translations of mathematical works from the French and German; but the number of persons in Russia who devote themselves to the study of mathematics is small.—*Geography* has been rather more cultivated. In 1823, was published in Russian, at Moscow, "Noveïskaïa guéographitchekaïa i istoritcheskaïa Izvestia o Kavkazé," new geographical and historical notices on Caucasus, by Semen Bronevsky, who, having accompanied the mission to Persia, in 1796, remained in Georgia from 1802 to 1804, as Director of the Chancery under Prince Tzitzianof. M. Bronevsky has consulted the works of most authors

authors, both on the natural and civil history of Kaucasus, and has corrected their statements by his own observations on the spot, so that his work presents a complete statistical and historical description of a country little known in Europe, but extremely interesting on many accounts. The mountains, rivers, and natural productions of the country are described with spirit and accuracy; the population, revenue and trade of the inhabitants, are fully stated, as are their customs, manners, laws, and religion. "Ponteschestvrié vokrong Sveta," &c., published at St. Petersburgh in 1822, contains the voyage of Capt. Golovnin round the world, in the brig of war Kamptchaka, in 1817, 1818, and 1819. This voyage is already well known to the English reader. The Russian work is divided into two parts—one containing a simple narrative of the voyage, with a description of the countries visited, excluding as much as possible all technical expressions; the other describing those things, and offering those observations which peculiarly relate to seamen and maritime matters. M. Timkovsky, a person holding an important post in the Asiatic department of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs, published, in 1824, the 1st volume of a work, called "Ponteschestvié v' Kitai," &c., or a Journey to China by way of Mogul Tartary. This volume contains the traveller's journal from the time of his leaving Kiachta till his arrival at Pekin. The second volume is to contain an account of his residence in the Chinese capital; and the third is to give a sketch of the occurrences on his return, with a description of Mongolia, its inhabitants, and the religion of Buddha which they profess. Some time previously M. Mouravieff published a description of Turkomania and Kchiva. Baron Meyendorf, who accompanied the Russian Embassy to Bucharia, in 1820 and 1821, has drawn up an account of his travels; and, lastly, another geographical work, in Russian, is announced for publication, containing a complete description of the Steppes of the Kirguises. There is at Moscow a "Society of Russian History and Antiquities," which has charged M. Kalaidovitch with the task of publishing the most ancient Russian Chronicle extant, being that which is commonly called the "Chronicle of Nestor," from the name of the transcriber. This chronicle, which is also called the "Chronicle of Pouschkin," and the "Chronicle of Souzdale," was composed in 1377, by a monk named Lavrenti, for the Grand Duke Constantinovich. In 1811, the above-mentioned society commissioned Professor Timkovsky to publish this work. The professor carefully copied the whole, and had proceeded so far as to print thirteen sheets, when the greater part of the impression, together with the Society's library, was burnt in the conflagration of Moscow, in 1811. M. Kalaidovitch has published so much of the copy as comes down to A. D. 1019, and is to proceed with the rest. Nicolas Gretch has written an abridged History of Russian Literature, ("Opite kratkoi Istorü," &c.) published in Russian, at St. Petersburgh, in 1822. The author divides his history into two parts; the first reaching from the middle of the ninth to the end of the seventeenth century; the second reaching to the present time. This work is dedicated to Count Romanzoff, the enlightened and zealous patron of literature and the arts: it has already been translated into the Polish language, and is about to be translated into German and French. Prince Tzertelef is engaged on a work of a similar kind, of which some portions have been inserted in a periodical Russian publication.

The periodicals of Russia amount to seventy.

At Moscow are published two newspapers; The Moscow Gazette, and The Senate Advertiser, and seven journals, besides the Journal of the Imperial Society of Agriculture, and the Memoirs of the Society of Belles Lettres, of the Imperial Society of Natural Hsitory, and of the Physico-Medical Society. At Petersburgh the following newspapers are published: The Petersburgh Gazette, in Russ and in German, (separate); The Russian Invalid, in Russ and in German, (separate); The Senate Gazette; The Senate Advertiser; the Price Current; and *Le Conservateur Impartial*, and eleven journals, besides the Transactions of the Academy of Sciences, of the Free Economical Society, and of the Society of Belles Lettres. In these journals, almost every subject is treated of with respect to arts and sciences and general literature, especially history, statistics, geography, and natural history. With respect to politics, only such information is made known to the public as the government, through its organs the censors, may please.

The number of universities, of academies, of gymnasia, of public schools, of private schools, of Bible Societies, and of other similar institutions in Russia, taken collectively, and in connection with the above facts, shows that a mighty engine is at work in the civilization of that empire.

In the seven Russian universities, there are at present 3000 students, 220 professors, lecturers, &c. But the students are organized in almost a military manner, wear a uniform, and are under a very strict superintendence.

The adoption of the Lancasterian system of education has also taken place. It is put in practice in the army, among the Kozaks, and even by some of the noblemen among their slaves. The imperial army, amounting to a million of men, when better educated, as they are scattered over the Russian dominions, cannot fail to have much influence upon the manners, and to tend to the illumination of the people. When it is also kept in mind, that the number of officers of that army amount to above fifty thousand; that many of them have received a good education, have served during the last campaigns, and have carried back to their country some of the learning, of the usages, and of the liberal opinions of other nations, it seems but natural to argue such an advance of civilization of the people, as may tend gradually to loosen the shackles, if not to break asunder the chains of despotism, and to the attainment of a higher rank in the intellectual world.

The arts of printing and engraving are making great strides in the north, and daily furnish specimens which would do honour to any nation. Bookbinding is also arrived at much perfection. The art of making paper is likewise astonishingly improved of late years. So that all the agents and materials for the composition and publication of books are now abundant in Russia; and even the number of authors, translators, and compilers, is become superabundant. The number of printing presses employed in each of the capitals is considerable, and some of them are extensive. Some of the engravers are natives, and others are foreigners. At the imperial Depôt de Cartes, at Petersburgh, scores of young soldiers are daily employed in engraving maps and plans of every part of the Russian empire, many of whom have made great progress. In this magnificent institution, these maps, executed in the most detailed, accurate, and beautiful manner, are sold at very moderate prices.

Arts and Sciences.—The arts and sciences were chiefly introduced into Russia after the ascent of Peter the Great to the throne, and have ever since continued to flourish to a certain extent. Their sphere of influence, however, is, in a great degree, confined to the universities and academies, at which both the professors and the pupils are necessarily supported by the crown.

Education.—The public education of the Russian nobles is at the pensions, or boarding-schools, of which some are under the patronage of the crown, or of the universities, while the greater part are conducted by private individuals. Most of the public seminaries have a magnificent and imposing appearance, and their syllabuses convey exalted ideas of their utility, which are rarely realized. Dr. Lyall has given a minute account of some of them, as well as of the universities, and of the general course of instruction, to which we refer the curious reader. We may briefly state, that the plans of instruction seem excellent on paper, and, with a few changes dictated by necessity, are such as might be adopted for the education of youth in any country. The greatest part of the private boarding-shools are liable to the same objections as the public ones, few of them being ably and well conducted. Scarcely any of the nobles enter the universities, on account of a foolish idea, that such institutions are only the sanctuaries of education for those who are afterwards, in some way or other, to gain their bread by their talents or learning.

learning. This is too plebeian an association, therefore, for a Russian nobleman to be connected with. A few of the better instructed and more liberal minded individuals, notwithstanding, attend the public lectures of the professors, and no doubt in time this practice will become general.

Having thus described the present state of Russia, and briefly detailed its past history, it remains to make a few observations on the probable duration of this gigantic power. Those who have watched the balance of power in Europe, have long been affrighted at the prospect of a state gradually acquiring the arts necessary to war; possessing an innumerable army of inflexible automata, almost religiously devoted to their leaders, setting no bounds to its encroachments but those which resistance compels it to submit to, and which is governed by men whose proclaimed opinion is, hatred of all limitations of sovereign power, far more of republican government. It has been almost predicted, that these Scythian hordes shall enact on the stage of Europe a drama similar to that which their forefathers played with the falling Romans, and that the tide of happiness and civilization shall again be rendered stationary for ages by the ascendancy of barbarians. Others, on the other hand, see nothing formidable in the Russian power: they repeat, 1st. That however numerous its subjects may be, an effective force cannot be sent out of the country for any purposes of mischief without immense supplies of money, and that in this main source of war, Russia cannot compete with more civilized countries. 2d. That the progress of commerce and its necessary attendant education, though they may hereafter supply Russia with wealth, will, at the same time, destroy the brutish inclination for war and plunder, will probably excite divisions and dismemberments, attempts at popular government, and the like.

In our opinion, if the fear of the first class of writers be excessive and absurd, the confidence of the second is, nevertheless, too little bounded. It must be a long time ere Tartars and Kozaks can be so far instructed as to learn that peaceful trade is a more direct road to wealth and happiness, than fighting and plundering. There is no education that will teach men out of their desire for property. However rapidly civilization may advance in the greater towns and in trading districts, all the more polished classes will still be glad to use their vast population of serfs as instruments of encroachments on the rights or acquisitions of their foreign rivals. The minor states of the continent can never be safe until the boors of Russia are converted into freemen, jealous of political influence, and emancipated from the thraldom of religious and monarchical bigotry. It seems, therefore, to be the especial duties of all the European governments, 1st. To resist any accessions that might possess Russia too soon with commerce (whence wealth and navies follow). 2d. To use every allowable means to instruct and enlighten the Russian people. At the present season, it is absolutely necessary to prevent, if possible, the union of *Greece* with Russia, and rather to secure the former country to Turkey than allow any change of masters. With respect to the education of Russia, our Bible Societies have already received the encouragement and aid of the sovereign. When zeal becomes better directed, and the teaching our Saviour's doctrines begins at the right end, we may probably be allowed to instil precepts of a temporal nature, highly conducive to national happiness.

RUSSIA, Black, was formerly the name of a subdivision of Lithuania, which now forms a considerable part of the government of Minsk, in European Russia.

RUSSIA, Great, the former name of a large province of European Russia, which comprehended the immense track extending from the Frozen ocean to about the middle of the course of the Don. It is now divided into 19 governments, and still forms the largest and most populous portion of this empire to the west of Siberia.

RUSSIA, Little, was that part of the empire that lay to the south of Great Russia, and now forms the governments of Czernigov, Cherson, Kiev, Ekaterinoslav, and Poltava.

RUSSIA, Red, was formerly an independent duchy, but which belonged to Poland after 1396. It formed the palatinates of Chelm, Belcz, and Lemberg, and now belongs partly to Russia, but more to Austria.

RUSSIA, White, was a part of Lithuania, which now forms the governments of Smolensk, Mohilev, Vitepsk, and a small part of that of Minsk.

RUSSIA, a township of the United States, in Herkimer county, New York. Population 1381; 26 miles north of Herkimer.

RUSSNAKS, one of the various tribes that constitute the rural population of Hungary and Transylvania. They are divided into two classes, but are all found among the mountains, and are all characterised by the ignorance and backwardness common to a poor and oppressed people. Those of Transylvania are likely to lose gradually their distinctive character, as they coalesce easily with the Walachians. The Russnaks are said to have been originally peasants who fled from Red Russia to escape the hardships imposed on them by the Polish and Russian landholders.

RUSSOOLPORE, a town of Hindostan, province of Oude. Lat. 25. 57. N. long. 74. 58. E.

RUSSOU, a town of Hindostan, province of Nepaul, on the Thibet frontier. Lat. 28. 3. N. long. 85. 40. E.

RUSSWYL, a petty town of the interior of Switzerland; 9 miles west-by-north of Lucerne.

RUST, *s.* [ruſt, Sax.] The red desquamation of old iron.

But Pallas came in shape of *rust*,
And 'twixt the spring and hammer thrust,
Her Gorgon shield, which made the cock
Stand stiff, as 'twere transformed to stock. *Hudibras.*

The tarnished or corroded surface of any metal.

By dint of sword his crown he shall increase,
And scour his armour from the *rust* of peace. *Dryden.*

Loss of power by inactivity. Matter bred by corruption or degeneration.—Let her see thy sacred truths cleared from *rust* and dross of human mixtures. *King Charles.*

To RUST, *v. n.* [ruſtian.] To gather rust; to have the surface tarnished or corroded.

Her fallow leas,
The darnel hemlock, and rank fumitory
Doth rest upon, while that the culter *rusts*,
That should deracinate such savagery. *Shakspeare.*

To degenerate in idleness.

Must I *rust* in Egypt; never more
Appear in arms, and be the chief of Greece? *Dryden.*

To RUST, *v. a.* To make rusty.—Keep up your bright swords, for the dew will *rust* them. *Shakspeare.*—To impair by time or inactivity.

RUST, a small town of the west of Hungary. The environs produce a delicate quality of wine, which is made with great care, and is esteemed little inferior to Tokay. Population 1100; 31 miles south-south-east of Vienna, and 4 east-north-east of Oedenburgh. Lat. 47. 40. 40. N. long. 16. 28. 11. E.

RUST, a small town of the west of Germany, in Baden, with 1500 inhabitants; 20 miles north-north-west of Freyburg, and 4 west of Ettenheim.

RUST, a small island in the North sea; about 70 miles from the coast of Norway, in Lat. 67. 5. N.

RUSTAN, a village of Schirvan, in Persia; 14 miles north of Derbend.

RUSTENBERG, a small town of Prussian Saxony, in the Upper Eichsfeld; 9 miles west of Heiligenstadt.

RUSTHALL, a hamlet of England, in Kent, near Tunbridge Wells.

RUSTIC, *adj.* [*rusticus*, Lat. *rustique*, Fr.] Rural; country.—By Lelius' willing missing was the odds of the Iberian side, and continued so in the next by the excellent running of a knight, though fostered so by the muses, as many times

times the very *rustick* people left both their delights and profits to hearken to his songs. *Sidney.*—Rude; untaught; nelegant.—An ignorant clown cannot learn fine language or a courtly behaviour, when his *rustick* airs have grown up with him till the age of forty. *Watts.*—Brutal; savage.

My soul foreboded I should find the bower
Of some fell monster, fierce with barbarous power;
Some *rustick* wretch, who liv'd in heav'n's despight,
Contemning laws, and trampling on the right. *Pope.*

Artless; honest; simple.—Plain; unadorned.

RU'STIC, *s.* A clown; a swain; an inhabitant of the country.—As nothing is so rude and insolent as a wealthy *rustick*, all this his kindness is overlooked, and his person most unworthily railed at. *South.*—Rude sort of masonry, in imitation of simple nature, not according to rules of art.

Clap four slices of pilaster on't,
That laid with bits of *rustick* makes a front. *Pope.*

RU'STICAL, *adj.* [*rusticus*, Lat.] Rough; savage; boisterous; brutal; rude.—On he brought me unto so bare a house, that it was the picture of miserable happiness and rich beggary, served only by a company of *rustical* villains, full of sweat and dust, not one of them other than a labourer. *Sidney.*

RU'STICALLY, *adv.* Savagely; rudely; inelegantly. My brother Jaques he keeps at school, and report speaks goldenly of his profit; for my part he keeps me *rustically* at home. *Shakspeare.*

RU'STICALNESS, *s.* The quality of being rustical; rudeness; savageness.

To RU'STICATE, *v. n.* [*rusticor*, Lat.] To reside in the country.—My lady Scudamore, from having *rusticated* in your company too long, pretends to open her eyes for the sake of seeing the sun, and to sleep because it is night. *Pope.*

To RU'STICATE, *v. a.* To banish into the country.—I was deeply in love with a milliner, upon which I was sent away, or, in the university phrase, *rusticated* for ever. *Spectator.*

RUSTICA'TION, *s.* [*rustication*, Fr.] A dwelling in the country. The word is old, being in Cockeram's vocabulary. Later usage of it implies a kind of exile into the country.—I was afraid that her resolution would sink under the sudden transition from a town life to such a melancholy state of *rustication*. *Smollett.*

RUSTI'CITY, *s.* [*rusticus*, Lat.] Qualities of one that lives in the country; simplicity; artlessness; rudeness; savageness.—There presented himself a tall, clownish, young man, who, falling before the queen of the fairies, desired that he might have the atchievement of any adventure, which, during the feast, might happen; that being granted, he rested him on the floor, unfit for a better place by his *rusticity*. *Spenser.*

RU'STILY, *adv.* In a rusty state.—Their armour they should make look so *rustily*, and illfavouredly, as might well become such wearers. *Sidney.*

RU'STINESS, *s.* The state of being rusty.

RUSTINGTON, a parish of England, in Sussex, near Brighthelmstone.

To RU'STLE, *v. n.* [hpiꝼlan, Sax. crepitare. "Factum-crediderim a Suio-Goth. *hrista*, *rista*, quatere, usurpatumque primum ad exprimendum sonum ab armis concussis factum." *Serenius.*] To make a low continued rattle; to make a quick succession of small noises.

This life
Is nobler than attending for a check;
Richer, than doing nothing for a bauble;
Prouder, than *rustling* in unpaid-for silk. *Shakspeare.*

RU'STLING, *s.* A quick succession of small noises.—Let not the creaking of shoes, nor the *rustling* of silks, betray thy poor heart to women. *Shakspeare.*

RUSTNALL, a village of England, in Wiltshire, near Uphaven.

RUSTOIR, a promontory of Scotland, in Sutherlandshire. Lat. 58. 13. N. long. 2. 4. W. from Edinburgh.

RUSTON, East, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 12 miles from Norwich. Population 466.

RUSTON PARVA, a parish of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles north-east of Great Driffield.

RUSTRE, a term in Heraldry, denoting a bearing of a diamond shape, pierced through the middle with a round hole.

RUSTSCHUK, or Ruscek, a large town in the north of European Turkey, in Bulgaria, sandgiacat of Nikopoli, situated at the influx of the Cara Lom into the Danube, which is here a very large river; nearly two miles wide. It has a castle of considerable strength, with several mosques, baths, and other public buildings. It is the see of a Greek archbishop, and contains a population of 24,000, composed of Greeks, Turks, Arminians, and Jews. They have considerable manufactures of cotton, silk, linen, woollen, and tobacco. Rustschuk and Giorgiev are also the two great entrepots for the commercial intercourse by the Danube between the Euxine and the interior. Though within the limits of the Turkish empire, the commercial habits of its citizens have introduced several of the comforts of the more civilised parts of Europe, and the traveller arriving from the southward, finds here an evident change of the better. It was taken by the Russians in 1810, and the following year a Turkish army was totally defeated near this by the Russians, with the loss of artillery, baggage, and magazines. About 5 miles from Rustschuk are to be seen the ruins of the old town of Tschernow or Csernavoda; 40 miles east of Nicopoli, and 55 west of Semendria. Lat. 43. 52. N. long. 25. 15. E.

RU'STY, *adj.* Covered with rust; infected with rust.—After a long calm of peace, he was left engaged in a war with a *rusty* sword and empty purse. *Howell.*—Impaired by inactivity.

Hector, in his dull and long continued truce,
Is *rusty* grown. *Shakspeare.*

Surly; morose.—There was a guard by St. Giles's of *rusty* ruffians, kept by lord Lovelace's order: they made a great clutter. *Clarendon.*—Rancid: a corruption of *reasty*. See Reasty.

RUSWARP, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire, situated on the banks of the Esk; 1½ mile south-west-by-west of Whitby. Population 1490.

RUT, *s.* [*rugitus* Lat.] Roquefort. From *rauta*, *ryta*, Su. Goth. *rugire*. Serenius.] Copulation of deer.—The time of going to *rut* of deer is in September; for that they need the whole summer's seed to make them fit for generation: and if rain come about the middle of September, they go to *rut* somewhat the sooner. *Bacon.*—*Route*, Fr. *ratta*, Su. Goth. a path.] The track of a cart wheel. *Ainsworth.*

From hills raine-waters headlong fall,
That allwayes eat huge *ruts*, which, met in one bed, fill a vall
With such a confluence of streames, that on the mountaine grounds
Farre off, in frighted shepheards' eares the bustling noise rebounds. *Chapman.*

To RUT, *v. n.* To desire to come together. Used of deer.

RUTA [adopted by the Romans from the Greek Ρυτη, Varro], in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order monogynia, natural order of multisiliquæ, rutaceæ *(Juss.)* —Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-parted, short, permanent. Corolla: petals five, spreading, subovate, concave; with narrow claws. Stamina: filaments ten, awl-shaped, spreading, the length of the corolla, whitish at the base. Anthers erect, very short. Pistil: germ gibbous, inscribed with a cross, surrounded at the base by ten honey dots; raised on a receptacle punctured with ten honey pores. Style erect, awl-shaped. Stigma simple. Pericarp: capsule

RICCIA, RUBUS AND RUTA.

1 & 2. Rubus Saxatilis. 3. Riccia fluitans. 4. Ruta graveolens.

J. Pass sc.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1826.

sule gibbous, five-lobed, half five-cleft, five-celled, opening into five parts between the tips. Seeds very many, rugged renifom-angular. Ruta graveolens, in all the flowers except the primary one, loses a fifth part of the number in every part of the fructification; and has the petals ciliate at the base.—*Esesntial Character.* Calyx five parted. Petals concave. Receptacle surrounded by ten honey dots. Capsule lobed.

1. Ruta graveolens, or common rue.—Root woody, branched. Stems frutescent, covered with a rugged, gray, striated bark, eighteen inches high and more. Branches, especially the young ones, smooth and pale green. Leaves glaucous, pulpy, dotted. Leaflets obovate, sessile. Flowers in a branching corymb on subdivided peduncles.—Native of the South of Europe, flowering from June to September. Rue was anciently also named in English, herb grace, or herb of grace.

2. Ruta montana, or mountain rue.—Leaves superdecompound, all the leaflets linear, petals quite entire. Stalks from two to three feet high, branching out from the bottom, and garnished with leaves divided into five parts, and those at the top into three, which are as small and narrow as the bottom leaves; they are of a gray colour, but not so fetid as those of the preceding. The flowers grow at the end of the branches in loose spikes, which are generally reflexed. The petals are yellow. The seed-vessels are small, and filled with angular black seeds.—Native of the South of Europe, and Barbary.

3. Ruta chalepensis, or African rue.—Leaves superdecompound oblong, the end one obovate, petals ciliate-toothed. This is very like ruta graveolens. Stem three feet high, upright, round, very much branched.—Native of Africa.

4. Ruta pinnata, or wing-leaved rue.—Leaves pinnate, leaflets lanceolate, attenuated at the base, serrate-crenate; petals quite entire. Stem as in the other species—Native of the Canary Islands.

5. Ruta patavina, or three-leaved rue.—Leaves ternate sessile, linear quite entire, attenuated at the base. The stalk rises singly from the root, is about a foot high, and herbaceous. It seems to be a plant of short duration.—Found near Padua.

6. Ruta linifolia, or flax-leaved rue.—Leaves simple, lanceolate smooth, filaments ciliate, stem simple herbaceous. —Native of Spain and Tunis.

7. Ruta fruticulosa, or shrubby rue.—Leaves simple, linear, spatulate, pubescent, filaments woolly, stem branched shrubby. The flowers are as small again as in the preceding species, and the petals are more clawed.—Native of Media, and of Syria, near Damascus.

Propagation and Culture.—Most of these plants may be propagated either by sowing their seeds, or by planting slips or cuttings; both of which may be done in the spring. No. 7. is propagated by seeds, sown in autumn, soon after they are ripe. The plants will come up the following spring. Whereas when the seeds are sown in the spring, the plants seldom rise the same year. On poor ground, or among rubbish, in a warm situation, it will live in the open air without covering; but in rich ground it is frequently killed in the winter.

RUTACEÆ [so named from the genus *ruta*, which is one of the tribe], is a natural order of plants, the 81st in the system of Jussieu, or the 21st of his 13th class, that is to say, of Gerania. Of the order now before us, Jussieu must be considered as the founder. We shall, therefore, exhibit his own view of it, though that view is very incomplete, and capable of being much improved and elucidated by recent discoveries.

Calyx of one leaf, often in five deep segments. Petals mostly five, alternate with the segments of the calyx. Stamens definite, distinct, generally ten, alternately opposite to the petals and to the calyx. Germen simple; style solitary; stigma simple, or rarely divided. Fruit either of many cells, or many capsules, the cells or capsules mostly five, each containing one or more seeds, inserted into the inner angles. Corculum flat, in a fleshy albumen. Stem either herbaceous or shrubby, rarely arboreous. Leaves in some alternate, naked; in others accompanied by stipulas, in which case they are most usually opposite. Flowers either axillary or terminal.

Sect. 1. Leaves with stipulas, and mostly opposite.—This section consists of tribulus, fagonia, zygophyllum, and guaiacum; all Linnæan genera.

Sect. 2. Leaves alternate, without stipulas.—Ruta, peganum, and dictamnus.

Sect. 3. Genera akin to the rutaceæ.—Melianthus, diosma, empleurum of Solander, and aruba of Aublet.

RUTCHESTER, the *Vindohala* of the Romans, a township of England, in Northumberland, north-west of Chollerton. The ruins of the fort, which was once very considerable, are still remarkable. Severus's wall runs on the middle of the east rampart, and Adrian's vallum passes the distance of a chain to the south of it.

RUTENI PROVINCIALES, a people of Gallia Narbonnensis, according to Pliny. Cæsar (Bell. Gall. l. vii. c. 7.) mentions them. These people inhabited the territory to the left of the Tarn.

RUTGERS (John), an able critic and negociator, was born of an ancient family at Dordrecht, in 1589. He received a part of his early education under Gerard Vossius, and in 1605, was sent to Leyden, where he resided with Dominic Baudius. Having completed his course, he travelled into France, and took the degree of licentiate in law, at Orleans. While at Paris, he printed, at the office of Robert Stephens, an edition of Horace, with notes; which was afterwards reprinted by Burmann, at Leyden, in 1699. When he returned to Holland, he accepted the invitation of the Swedish ambassador to accompany him to Sweden, where Gustavus Adolphus, in 1614, conferred upon him the title of his counsellor. He was, after this, employed three times as envoy from that prince to Holland upon very important affairs, in which he acquitted himself with great credit, and quite to the satisfaction of his majesty, who ennobled him in 1619. He visited Bohemia, Denmark, and several German courts, in the same quality; and lastly, he resided at the Hague, as minister from Gustavus to that republic, where he died in 1625, at the age of 36. He had published, in 1618, six books, entitled "Variæ Lectiones;" and after his death, Heinsius published his Latin poems in conjunction with his own.

RUTH, *s.* Mercy; pity; tenderness; sorrow for the misery of another. *Out of use.*—Misery; sorrow.

The weary Britons, whose war-hable youth.
Was by Maximian lately led away,
With wretched miseries and woful *ruth*,
Were to those Pagans made an open prey. *Spenser.*

RUTHEMSHEIM, a small town of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, near Leonsberg, with 800 inhabitants.

RUTHEN, or RUDEN, a small town of Prussian Westphalia, in the government of Arensberg, on the Monne. Population 1600; 20 miles south-west of Paderborn.

RUTHERFORD, a county of the United States, in the west part of North Carolina. Population 13,202, including 979 slaves.

RUTHERFORD, a county of the United States, in West Tennessee. Population 10,265, including 2701 slaves. The chief town is Murfreesborough.

RUTHERFORDTON, a town of the United States, and capital of Rutherford county, North Carolina; 45 miles south of Morgantown.

RUTHERFORTH (Thomas), was born at Papsworth-Everhard, in Cambridgeshire, in 1712. Having passed through the elementary parts of his education, he was entered at St. John's College, in the university of Cambridge, where he took his degrees in the arts, and obtained a fellowship in the college. He was afterwards appointed regius professor of divinity in the university, and created D.D. Being attached to, and well versed in, mathematics and natural philosophy, he was elected a fellow of the Royal Society, and was afterwards appointed a chaplain to his royal highness the prince of Wales. In the church he was rector of Barley, in Hertfordshire, and of Shenfield in Essex, and an archdeacon. He

He died in October, 1771, having nearly completed his 59th year. He was author of a thin quarto in Latin, entitled "Ordo Institutionum Physicarum in privatis Lectionibus," of which the second edition was published at Cambridge in 1756; also of "A System of Natural Philosophy," in 2 vols. 4to., which for many years was held in high estimation; "Institutes of Natural and Political Law," being the substance of a course of lectures on Grotius, read in St. John's College, in Cambridge, in 2 vols. 8vo., 1756; "A Letter to Dr. Middleton, in defence of Bishop Sherlock's Discourse on Prophecy," and divers other theological works. Dr. Rutherforth communicated to a philosophical society at Spalding, a curious correction of Plutarch's description of the instrument used to renew the vestal fire, as relating to the triangle with which the instrument was formed. It was nothing else, it seems, than a concave speculum, the principal focus of which, that collected the rays, was not in the centre of concavity, but at the distance of half a diameter from its surface. That some of the ancients thought otherwise, appears from prop. 31. of Euclid's "Catoptrics." *Gen. Biog.*

RUTHERGLEN, a parish of Scotland, in the county of Lanark, bounded on the north by the Clyde, on the east by Cambuslang, on the south by Kilbride and Carmunnock, and on the west by Govan and Gorbals. It extends on the south bank of the Clyde, 3 miles in length, and 1 in breadth. The surface is level, the soil fertile, and the whole is inclosed and well cultivated. Population of the town and parish 3625.

RUTHERGLEN, by contraction RUGLEN, a royal burgh of Scotland, in the county of Lanark, in an elevated situation near the Clyde; 2½ miles above Glasgow. Few towns in Scotland can lay claim to greater antiquity than this place. It was erected into a royal burgh by king David I. in 1126. The territory was extensive, and the inhabitants enjoyed many privileges, which were, however, gradually wrested from it by the influence of Glasgow, which, in later times, rose into greater consequence, from its trade and manufactures. Formerly small craft came up the Clyde to Rutherglen quay, as the tide flows this length; but the Broomielaw is the farthest they come at present. The ancient size of Rutherglen is now unknown; but in the fields towards the east, the foundation of houses and streets have been frequently dug up. It now consists of one principal street, nearly half a mile in length, and upwards of 100 feet in breadth. The ancient castle or fortress is celebrated for the sieges which it sustained during the turbulent reign of Robert Bruce. It was demolished by the regent's party after the battle of Langside. The church of Rutherglen, an ancient Gothic building, was pulled down in 1794, and a new one built in its stead. Rutherglen was anciently under the direction of a self-elected magistracy, many of whom lived at a distance, and continued in office without interruption. Negligence, and an undue influence of power, had brought the affairs of the burgh into a state of disorder, so that the inhabitants were excited to apply a remedy to the evil. The community, by the charters, were empowered to elect their magistracy; but, through lapse of time, the right had become obsolete, which it was the object of the burgesses to restore. Great opposition was made to the plan adopted by the burgesses, which was prosecuted with unremitting assiduity, and at length crowned with success. They formed a new set of the burgh upon liberal principles, which in 1671, was approved of by all the inhabitants of the town, and by the convention of royal burghs. It is governed by a provost, 2 baillies, a treasurer, and 15 councillors, and unites with Glasgow, Renfrew, and Dumbarton, in sending a member to Parliament. It gives the title of Earl to the Marquis of Queensberry. The fairs of this town have long been famous for a great show of horses of the Lanarkshire breed, which are esteemed the best draught horses in Scotland. Population 1630; 9 miles west of Hamilton.

RU'THFUL, *adj.* Merciful; compassionate.—He [God] *ruthful* is to man. *Turberville*—Rueful; woful; sorrowful. What sad and *ruthful* faces! *Beaum.*

RU'THFULLY, *adv.* Woful; sadly.—The flower of horse and foot, lost by the valour of the enemy, *ruthfully* perished. *Knolles.*—Sorrowfully; mournfully.

Help me, ye baneful birds, whose shrieking sound
Is sign of dreary death, my deadly cries
Most *ruthfully* to tune. *Spenser.*

Wofully. *In irony.*

By this Minerva's friend bereft
Oileades of that rich bowl, and left his lips, nose, eyes,
Ruthfully smear'd. *Chapman.*

RUTHIN, a market town of North Wales, in the county of Denbigh, pleasantly situated on the summit and slope of a considerable hill, which rises in the centre of the delightful vale of Clywd, near the river Clywd, which is here an inconsiderable stream. The town derives its name from a castle called Rhyddin, or *Red Fortress*, from the colour of the stone, and which was probably erected by Edward I. During the civil wars it was garrisoned by the royalists, till about the middle of April, 1646, when it was compelled to surrender, after sustaining a siege of two months. After this it was demolished by order of parliament, and a few fragments of walls only remain to denote its site and its large dimensions. The town is described as being formerly populous, and having the largest market in the vale. It is still a respectable and flourishing place. It extends about a mile in length, consisting chiefly of one long street. The church, though only a chapel to Llanrudd, is a large building, of considerable antiquity. It was originally conventual, and belonged to the religious house of monks called *Bon-hommes*. In 1310, it was made collegiate by John de Gray. The interior of the church is much admired, particularly the roof, which is of curious workmanship. In the town is a free school, of equal, if not greater note than any other in North Wales. It was founded and endowed by Gabriel Goodman, D. D. a native of Ruthin, and who was dean of Westminister in the reign of Elizabeth. From this school young men are sometimes admitted into orders, without having graduated at any university. It has two masterships, the head one of which is in the gift of Jesus college, Oxford. Near the market place stands the town-hall, which, though not a very elegant building contains tolerable apartments for the administration of justice, the great sessions being held here instead of Denbigh, on account of the more central situation. The new jail is a handsome and commodious building, erected from designs of Mr. Joseph Turner. The debtors' apartments are divided from those of the felons by a lofty wall, and both have spacious yards and baths attached to them. Ruthin is a borough, both by prescription and by charter. It contributes with Denbigh in sending a member to Parliament. It is governed by 2 aldermen and 16 common councilmen, chosen annually in the lord's court. The number of burgesses is unlimited. Markets well supplied, on Monday and Saturday. Population 1292. Houses 271; 15 miles south-west of Hollywell, and 206 north-west of London. Lat. 53. 7. N. long. 3. 17. W.

RU'THLESS, *adj.* Cruel; pitiless; uncompassionate; barbarous.

What is Edward but a *ruthless* sea?
What Clarence but a quicksand of deceit? *Shakspeare.*

The *ruthless* flint doth cut my tender feet;
And when I start, the cruel people laugh. *Shakspeare.*

RU'THLESSNESS, *s.* Want of pity

RU'THLESSLY, *adv.* Without pity; cruelly; barbarously.

RUTHVEN, a parish of Scotland, in Forfarshire, pleasantly situated on the north side of the valley of Strathmore, near the foot of the Grampian mountains. It is of small extent, containing only 1700 acres. Population 240.

RUTHVEN, a small river of Scotland, in Perthshire, which falls into the Erne, nearly a mile east of the village of Auchterarder.

RUTHWELL, a parish of Scotland, in Dumfries-shire, extending about 9 miles in length along the Solway frith, and

and 3 miles where broadest; bounded on the north by Mouswald and Dalton, on the east by Cummertrees, and on the west by Caerlaverock. It contains 12¾ square miles, or 6602 Scots acres. The ground enjoys a fine south exposure, and the soil is in general, when properly managed and manured, sufficiently fertile. The sea has receded above a mile from its former coast, and many green fields now appear, where, not above 70 or 80 years ago, the tides flowed over a surface of sand. The village of Ruthwell, formerly a long straggling dirty place, has been lately rebuilt on both sides of the road from Port Patrick to England, by the earl of Mansfield, who is the proprietor of the greater part of the parish. Population 1184.

RUTICILLA. See Muscicapa.

RUTIGLIANO, a small town of Italy, in the east of the kingdom of Naples, in the province of Bari. Population 4300; 20 miles west of Monopoli.

RU'TILANT, *adj.* [*rutilans*, Lat.] Shining. *Coles.* —Parchments—coloured with this *rutilant* mixture. *Evelyn.*

To RU'TILATE, *v. n.* [*rutilo*, Lat.] To shine; to appear bright; and, actively, to make bright. Cockeram, and Coles. *Not in use.*

RUTILE, in Mineralogy, *Titane Ruthile* of Brongniart, an oxyd of titanium: it is of a dark blue-red colour, inclining to brown, with a degree of metallic splendour: the longitudinal fracture is foliated; the cross fracture conchoidal and unequal. It is opaque or slightly translucent, and sometimes sufficiently hard to scratch quartz. The specific gravity is from 4.18 to 4.24. Rutile is infusible by the blowpipe, but with the addition of borax it melts into a yellow glass. It is found crystallized: the primitive form of the crystals is a right-angled prism. Sometimes two crystals are united by their extremities, forming a kind of twin-crystal. It also occurs in extremely minute capillary crystals, which are either divergent or reticulated, but sometimes single, and are imbedded in quartz and rock crystal. From the analysis of Klaproth, it appears to be a pure oxyd of titanium. This mineral is found near Limoges, in France; in Hungary; at St. Gothard, in Switzerland; on the Carpathian mountains, near Burgos, in Spain; in Siberia; on the summit of Sierra de Avilla, in New Granada in South America, and in South Carolina in North America.

RUTILIUS NUMATIANUS (Claudius), a Latin poet, was the son of a Gaul of high rank, probably a native of Toulouse. Rutilius rose to high employments at the Roman court, was a military tribune, master of the offices, prefect prætorio, and about the year 414, was prefect of Rome. The empire in his time was overrun by the Visigoths under the dreaded Alaric and his successors; and Rutilius, for the purpose of succouring his distressed native country, took a journey from Rome to Gaul, of which he wrote a description in elegiac verse. It consisted of two books, of which the greater part of the latter is lost. Nothing more is known of his history. The work gives a favourable impression of the writer, who was a Pagan; and though he has undergone censure from the ecclesiastical writers for the reflexions he has made on the monks on the island of Capraria (see Gibbon, ch. 29.), and on the Jewish Sabbath as a commemoration "lassati Dei," yet they will scarcely offend a rational Christian. His verse is more elegant than the common standard of his age, and though the subject does not admit of much poetry, he displays taste and ingenuity.

The "Itinerarium" of Rutilius, of which the MS. was discovered in 1494, at a monastery in Bobbio, has been several times published. The best editions are those of Castalio, *Rome*, 4to., 1582, and the Variorum, *Amst.* 8vo., 1687. It is contained in Burmann's "Poetæ minores," and in Maittaire's "Corpus Poetarum." *Vossii Hist. Lat. Moreri. Bibliogr. Dict.*

RUTILUS, the roach. See Cyprinus.

RUTLAMGUR, a town of Hindostan, province of Malwah, belonging to the Mahrattas. Lat. 23. 46. N. long. 75. 26. E.

RUTLAND, a small island near the west coast of Ireland, and county of Donegal, with a village. Lat. 54. 58. N. long. 8. 22. W.

RUTLAND, a county of the United States, on the west side of Vermont, bounded north by Addison county, east by Windsor county, south by Bennington county, and west by New York and Lake Champlain. Population 29,486.

RUTLAND, a township of the United States, and capital of Rutland county, Vermont, on the Otter creek; 55 miles from its mouth. In the central part of the town there is a pleasant village, situated on a high and commanding hill. It contains a court-house, a meeting-house, and an academy, and has some trade. Pipe clay is found in this town. A weekly paper is published here. Population 2397; 45 miles west-by-north of Windsor, and 60 south-south-west of Montpellier. Lat. 43. 36. N. long. 72. 57. W.

RUTLAND, a township of the United States in Worcester county, Massachusetts. Population 1231; 52 miles west of Boston.

RUTLAND, a township of the United States, in Jefferson county, New York, on Black river; 170 miles north-west of Albany. Population 1600.

RUTLAND, a township of the United States, in Gallia county, Ohio.

RUTLANDSHIRE, one of the central counties of England, is bounded on the north, north-west, west, and south-west, by Leicestershire; on the south and south-east by Northamptonshire; and on the east and north-east by the county of Lincoln. It is the smallest shire in the kingdom, extending only about 18 miles in length and 15 in breadth; its circumference being 60 miles, which gives an area of 200 square miles, or 128,000 acres.

The *history* of this county, in remote times, is so intimately connected with that of the surrounding counties, that they can scarcely be separated. Previous to the arrival of the Romans, it formed part of the territories of the Coritani; and after the latter were forced to submit to the imperial authority, it was included in the province of Flavia-Cæsariensis. During the Saxon heptarchy, it formed part of the kingdom of Mercia, under eighteen successive monarchs; and when the Saxon kingdoms became united into one, it seems to have belonged to the crown; as we find that Edward the Confessor bequeathed it to his queen Edith, and after her demise to Westminster Abbey. His will, which is still extent says, "I will, that after the decease of queen Eadgith my consort, Rotelond, with all its appurtenances, be given to my monastery of St. Peter, and be surrendered, without delay, to the abbot and monks there serving God, for ever." So anxious, indeed, was the king to secure this obituary grant to the abbey, that he endeavoured to render more certain the observance of his will by a kind of anterior deed of gift, bearing date in the 25th year of his reign. This grant, however, was but of short duration, for when William the Conqueror ascended the throne, he resumed possession of Rutlandshire as crown land, and merely allowing the monastery to receive the tithes, divided it among some of his nearest relatives, and his most powerful adherents. These first Norman grantees were Robert Malet, great chamberlain of England; Gilbert de Gaunt; Earl Hugh; Aubrey, the clerk, and several others. Some manors were likewise granted to the conqueror's niece Judith, afterwards countess of Huntingdon; and to Maud, Countess of Albemarle, his half sister. Considerable possessions, however, were reserved to the crown; and in the reign of Edward II. it possessed the hundreds of Martinsley, Alsto, and East hundred, all of which that monarch granted to the lady Margaret, wife of Piers de Gaveston, duke of Cornwall, to be held by her during the royal pleasure. The hundred of Wrangdyke was then the property of Guy de Beauchamp, Earl of Warwick, but his son Thomas being a minor at his father's death, Edward gave that estate to Hugh Spencer the elder, on the pretence of its being in satisfaction

satisfaction of a debt due to him of 6770*l.* During those transactions, the present hundred of Oakham-Soke is never mentioned: it is therefore conjectured to have formed part of Martinsley hundred.

The appearance of this small county is pleasing to the traveller. It is much diversified by ranges of moderate hills, running from east to west, in some parts well timbered. Between these ranges of hills the valleys, of about half a mile in breadth, are luxuriant and verdant. The principal vale, called Catmose, is in the centre of the county, having to the north a tract of table land, overlooking the well wooded plains of Leicester, Lincoln, and Nottinghamshire. The eastern part is more diversified; the southern division of it consisting of a beautiful valley, stretching towards Northamptonshire, and the western, bordering on Leicestershire, being abundantly wooded.

The soil on the east and south-east parts is chiefly shallow, resting upon a basis of limestone composed of clays and loams. The other parts consist principally of a tenacious but fertile loam; but the vale of Catmose enjoys a most fertile soil of good clay, or red loam, or a grateful mixture of both those earths. A peculiarity of the soil is a redness which generally prevails, and which tinges all the waters of the country.

Mr. Parkinson, surveyor for the Board of Agriculture, estimates the land of the county in the following manner, viz.

Pasture land	34,861 acres.
Arable land	42,536
Wastes	30
Woods	2,815
Meadows	9,356
Commons	693
Plantations	65
Lakes and ponds	44

The woods of this county were far more extensive in former ages than they are at present. The ancient forest of Leafield, and the chase of Beaumont, though now under the plough, once occupied a great portion of the surface. The climate is generally accounted peculiarly soft and healthy; and the elevation is of that medium kind which equally exempts it from the pernicious effects of moist exhalations and cold mountain fogs.

The agriculture, though it has partaken of some modern improvements, is not conducted, upon the whole, in the best manner. In some parts, the reprobated system of two corn crops succeeding a fallow is still continued. In other parts, after a fallow, barley is sown with clover; the clover is mowed two years, or sometimes fed the second year, and then, after one ploughing, the land is sown with wheat. In some cases, on the lighter lands, the four course system of turnips, barley, clover, and wheat, is followed. The wheat of Rutlandshire is highly valued for seed, and much in request in even very distant counties. Nearly two-thirds of the land is tithe free, and in all the late inclosures, provisions to that end have been inserted in the acts of Parliament for effecting them. The cows of Rutlandshire are remarkable for the richness of their milk, though they yield but a small quantity. The rich cheese, commonly known as Stilton, is chiefly made in the dairies of this county. As many oxen are brought from the more northern countries, and fattened in Rutlandshire, as are bred within it: the annual number of each is from 2700 to 3000. The sheep are more numerous in proportion than horned cattle. Mr. Parkinson calculated them to be about 80,000; consisting of old and new Leicesters, of Southdowns, and a few Lincolnshires. It has been remarked, that though the quality of the wool has increased in fineness, the diminution in the weight of the fleeces has of late years more than counterbalanced that advantage.

The small rivulets that water this district run into the two rivers, the Guash, or Wash, which passes through it, or the Walland, which forms its southern boundary. The latter river is navigable only to Stamford, on the confines of Rutlandshire; but is useful in opening a communication with the ocean. A canal has been constructed from Oakham to Melton Mowbray, by which a supply of coals has been drawn from the mines of Leicestershire.

Rutlandshire is neither a manufacturing nor a mineral district, but depends exclusively on its agriculture. By the returns in 1801, the inhabitants were 16,356; viz. 7978 males, and 8378 females; in 1811 the numbers were 16,380, viz. 7931 males, and 8449 females: in 1821 they were 18,487, viz. 9223 males, and 9264 females.

The residences of noblemen and gentlemen in this county hold nearly the same proportion as in the other divisions of England; the most remarkable are, Ayston, G. B. Breidnell, Esq.; Burley on the Hill, Earl of Winchelsea; Cotsmore House, Earl of Lonsdale; Exton, Colonel Noel; Lyndon, Thomas Barker, Esq.; Normanton, Sir Gilbert Heathcote; Ryall, Matthew Pierrepoint, Esq.

RUTLEDGE, a township of the United States, and capital of Granger county, Tennessee.

RUTNAGIRY, a town of Hindostan, province of Bejapore, on the sea coast of the Concan, now probably in possession of the British. Lat. 17. 1. N. long. 73. 3. E.

RUTTEE, a weight used in the East Indies, one hundred of which make eighty-eight caracts. See CARACT.

RU'TTER, *s.* [*ruyter*, Teut. *reuter*, Germ. *reitre*, old French.] A kind of horse-soldier; a rider; a trooper.—Neyther shall they be accompanied with a garde of ruffelynge *rutters. Bale.*—The Flanders *ruyters*, or cavaliers, who now by Magna Charta were expressly, and by name, ordered to be expelled the kingdom, as a nuisance to the realm. *Vindication of Magna Charta.*

RU'TTERKIN, *s.* A word of contempt. Perhaps from the old Fr. *routier*, "one by long practice master of his profession, and in every part an old crafty fox, notable beguiler, ordinary deceiver." *Cotgrave.*—Such a rout of reguler *rutterkins*, some bellowing in the quire, some muttering, and another sort jetting up and down, to wayte when my Ladie shal be readye to see a cast of theyr office! *Confut. of N. Shaxton.*

RU'TTIER, *s.* [*routiere*, Fr.] A direction of the road, or of the course at sea; an old traveller well acquainted with most ways; an experienced soldier. *Cotgrave.*

RU'TTISH, *adj.* Wanton; libidinous; salacious; lustful; lecherous.—That is an advertisement to one Diana, to take heed of the allurement of count Rousillon, a foolish idle boy; but for all that very *ruttish. Shakspeare.*

RUTTUNGUNGE.—There are two towns of this name in Bengal, but neither of consequence.

RUTTUNPORE, a town of Hindostan, and capital of a small district of the same name, in the province of Gundwaneh, and district of Chotusgur. It is governed by a rajah who is tributary to the Mahrattas. The present town consists of about 1000 houses, but it was formerly a place of much greater consequence. In the year 1741, the rajah of this place gave an asylum to the family of Moorshud Cooly, the deputy-governor of Cuttack, when expelled by the usurper Aly Verdy Khan; but in the year 1760, a party of French who had made their escape from Bengal, and were proceeding by this route, were, through the influence of the Mahrattas, stopped, and either put to death or detained by them as prisoners. This place is said to have been in possession of a family of Rajepoot Hindoos from time immemorial. Their last independent chief, named Sirdar Sing, was, after a severe contest, subdued by Ragogee Bounsla, the founder of the Nagpoor dynasty, and compelled to become a tributary; but as his descendants have been lately taken under the British protection, it is to be hoped they will benefit by the change. Lat. 22. 16. N. long. 82. 35. E.—There are several other places of this name in Hindostan, but none other of consequence.

RUTULI, a people of Italy, in Latium, who inhabited the country near the sea-coast. Their origin is uncertain; but it seems, according to Virgil, that at the arrival of Æneas,

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Engraved for the Encyclopedia Londinensis

Stockdale Sc. 354 Strand.

Æneas, Turnus was their king. This prince, in his attempt to oppose the establishment of the Trojans, was killed in the combat. The Rutuli, in process of time, were often confounded with the Latins. Their capital was called Ardea.

RUTULUS, in Roman Antiquity, the barrier of the cavea, or place where the wild beasts used in amphitheatrical sports were shut up. It was made of iron bars, which turned upon hinges, and all at once flew open with great swiftness.

RUTY-PUNDOC, a name given by the people of the East Indies to a peculiar species of yellow orpiment, which they find on the tops of the mountains there; and, after several calcinations, give internally in coughs and colds. The ancient Greeks used this orpiment in the same manner. We have of late run into an opinion of its being a fatal poison; but Boerhaave, in his Chemistry, affirms, on his own trials, that it is innocent and harmless.

RUTZEN, a large village of Prussian Silesia; 18 miles east of Gross Glogau.

RUVO, a small town of Italy, in the east of the kingdom of Naples, in the province of Bari. It is the see of a bishop. Population 3300; 6 miles south of Trani, and 20 west of Bari.

RUYSBEKE, a large village of the Netherlands in the province of South Brabant. Population 2100; 7 miles south-south-west of Brussels.

RUYSCH (Frederic), an eminent anatomist, was born in 1638, at the Hague, where his father resided as secretary to the States General. He was first placed with an apothecary, and afterwards studied at Leyden, where his preceptor in anatomy was Van Hoorne. Nature, rather than books, was the great object of his attention, and he carried his inquiries into all the classes of natural productions. He took the degree of M.D. at Franeker, and then settled at his native place, where he married. Having learned the art of anatomical injection from Swammerdam, he became the most distinguished practitioner of it in his time, and formed a collection of preparations which was visited by all persons of curiosity. His reputation caused him, in 1665, to be invited to a professorship of anatomy in Amsterdam, and that capital was thenceforth his residence during life. With his office as professor, he united the practice of physic, and was appointed inspector of the bodies of those who were killed in private quarrels, and the examiner and instructor of midwives. He kept secret his processes of injection, which he carried to such a degree of perfection as almost to renew the appearance of life in the subjects on which he operated. The tzar Peter, in his visit to Holland, took great delight in the museum of Ruysch, and often spent much time in his dissecting room, partaking of the frugal dinner of the anatomist. He purchased his collection, which he sent to Russia; and Ruysch, though then in years, set about forming a new one. Haller speaks of him in the following terms: "He employed wonderful patience, with the assistance of his daughters, in rendering all his preparations elegant and beautiful, being equally skilled in the methods of softening, hardening, filling, and drying. He loved to preserve them all as objects for show, whence he scarcely ever displayed any part in conjunction with the rest of the body. He was the first who prepared cellular membranes distended by inflation; and the first and almost the only one who exhibited injected bodies preserved in air with their natural colour. He first discovered the art of hardening the brain; and although Lieberkuhn despised the mummies of Ruysch, it would be an ungrateful return for his long labours to neglect the many valuable things either dispersed through his works, or deducible from his experiments, and which Boerhaave chiefly employed as the foundations of his vascular theory. He was, moreover, a candid man, who did not refuse to confess his own mistakes." The cabinet of Ruysch was set off with all the nicety and ornamental taste belonging to his country. Plants disposed in nosegays, and shells arranged in figures, were mixed with skeletons of animals and anatomical preparations, and suitable inscriptions from the Latin poets, were placed at proper intervals. The whole was a spectacle of equal entertainment and instruction. He had been made professor of botany as well as of anatomy; and he carried his skill in preparation into that science also, employing maceration and other contrivances to display the vessels and skeletons of various vegetable substances. By his museum and his writings, he rendered his name celebrated throughout Europe, and obtained various literary honours, being made a member of the Academy Naturæ Curiosorum, the Royal Society of London, and the Academies of Sciences of Petersburgh and Paris. He passed a long life with no other confinement from disease than that occasioned by a broken thigh three years before his death; and he continued sound in body and mind to his 93d year, when he was carried off by a fever in 1731.

Of the writings of Ruysch, the first and one of the most valuable, was his "Dilucidatio Valvularum in Vasis Lymphaticis, et Lacteis," 12mo., 1665: by this work a complete confutation was given to Bilsius, who had denied the existence of valves in those vessels. Some anatomical observations were subjoined, relative to varieties in the vessels and viscera. His other publications were "Observationum Anatomico-chirurgicarum Centuria," 4to., 1691, to which was added a Catalogue of the Rarities in his Museum: this collection contains several valuable observations in surgery and midwifery, which have been translated into French and English; "Responsio ad Godof. Bidloi Vindicias," 4to., 1697. Ruysch had been attacked by Bidloo, a less industrious but more learned man, and this is his reply; it contains sixteen epistles of his disciples with his answers. In 1711 he began to publish his "Thesauri Anatomici," in Latin and Dutch, of which, to the year 1715, he successively printed ten parts, in 4to.; and he interposed a work called "Thesaurus Animalium," with figures, 1710. He then published "Adversariorum Anatomico-medico-chirurgicorum, Part III.," from 1717 to 1723: and in 1722 he published "De Fabrica Glandularum in Corpore humano, Epistola responsorio ad H. Boerhaave," in which he ably defended his opinion concerning the vascular nature of the glands, against that of their follicular structure adopted by Boerhaave. This industrious writer was the author of some smaller pieces which it is not necessary to enumerate. A collection of his "Opera omnia Anatomico medico-chirurgica" was published at Amsterdam, in five vols. 4to., 1737. After his death, his anatomical preparations were sold by auction: a part of them was purchased by the king of Poland, and sent to Wirtemberg.

His son Henry, who was a doctor of physic, and well versed in anatomy and natural history, died before his father, in 1727. He was the author of a work entitled "Theatrum universale omnium Animalium," &c., *Amst.* 2 vols. folio, 1718, which passes for an improved edition of Johnston's "Historia Naturalis," but is so much augmented as to be rather a new composition. *Eloges De Fontenelle. Halleri Bibl. Anatom. & Chirurg. Eloy.*

His daughter painted flowers in an eminent style.

RUYSCHIA [so named by Jacquin, in memory of Frederic Ruysch, professor of anatomy and botany at Amsterdam], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-leaved, permanent: leaflets roundish, concave, blunt, converging, imbricate, augmented at the base by a three-leaved involucre: one leaflet bent down, difform. Corolla: petals five, ovate flattish, blunt, reflexed, three times as long as the calyx. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, flat, patulous shorter than the petals. Anthers oblong, incumbent. Pistil: germ ovate-roundish. Style none. Stigma quadrangular, cruciform, flat. Pericarp: berry four-celled. Seeds many. Stigma five-rayed. Pericarp five-celled. *Aubl.*—two-celled, many-seeded. *Swartz.* — *Essential Character.* Calyx five-leaved. Corolla five-petalled, reflexed. Style none. Berry many-seeded.

1. Ruyschia clusiæfolia.—A parasitical undershrub, with round smooth branches. Leaves alternate, entire, without nerves or veins, shining, pale green, three or four inches long, on short petioles. Racemes at the ends of the branches, simple, a foot long, nearly upright, many-flowered; the common

mon peduncle round, thick, smooth; flowers scattered alternate, on short pedicels. Petals purple, deciduous. Fruit a berry; two-celled and many-seeded.—Native of Martinico.

2. Ruyschia surubea.—Stem sarmentose, round; with long, divaricate, flexile, declining, round, fragile branches. Leaves alternate, acuminate at the base, emarginate at the top, mucronate in the middle, with a minute toothlet; on short round petioles, channelled above. Racemes terminating, long, many-flowered. Flowers alternate, somewhat remote from each other, large; on round fleshy pedicels, an inch in length. Petals oblong, deciduous, yellow. Filaments yellow, wider at the base. Anthers brown.—Native of the woods in Guiana.

RUYSDAAL (Jacob), a landscape painter of great excellence, was born at Haarlem, in 1636. He was brought up to physic and surgery, and is said to have advanced so far as to perform surgical operations with credit; but his inclination led him to painting, with no other master, as far as is known, than nature. This he studied with the greatest assiduity and success, so that no master has surpassed him in the reality of the scenery which he has represented, and in the choice of which he has displayed great taste and elegance. He particularly delighted in landscapes connected with water, such as the banks of rivers, mill-pools, cascades, and the like, shaded with depth of wood, the trees of which he touched with singular delicacy, expressing the different kinds with appropriate leafing. His water is remarkably pellucid, and finely contrasted by the foam of cataracts. The tone of his colouring is natural and agreeable, his lights and shades are skilfully disposed, his distances well preserved, and all parts of his works are touched with a master-hand, except his figures, in which he was conscious of defect, and therefore often procured them from another hand. Many of his scenes are the manifest product of his native country; but others, in which he paints hilly ground and torrents, must have been derived from a different face of nature. It has, therefore, been supposed that he, with his friend Nicholas Berghem, visited Italy: but of this there is no proof. Ruysdaal resided chiefly at Amsterdam, living in the state of celibacy, that he might be the better able to support an aged father. He returned to Haarlem before his death, which happened in 1681. His works are met with in the principal cabinets, and are highly valued. Several of his landscapes have been engraved; and he himself executed some engravings of views near Amsterdam. *D'Argenville. Pilkington.*

RUYSSELEDE, an inland town of the Netherlands, in the province of West Flanders, with 5400 inhabitants, employed partly in the manufacture of linen. Here are also considerable breweries; 14 miles south-south-east of Bruges, and 15 west of Ghent.

RUYTER (Michael-Adrian de), a celebrated Dutch admiral, born at flushing in 1607, entered into the naval service of his country very early. From the situation of cabin-boy he rose through all the commands to the rank of captain, in which he distinguished himself both among his own countrymen and foreigners. Much of the early part of his life was spent in the service in the West Indies, to which he is said to have made eight voyages, and two to Brazil. In 1641 he was sent to the assistance of the Portuguese, who had thrown off the yoke of Spain, and on this occasion he was raised to the rank of rear-admiral. His conduct obtained for him the applause of the king of Portugal, and he afterwards rendered some important services on the Barbary coast, entering the road of Sallèe in a single ship, although five Algerine corsairs disputed the passage. When war broke out, in 1652, between the English and Dutch, Van Tromp having been disgraced, De Ruyter was appointed to the comand of a separate squadron, for the purpose of convoying home a rich fleet of merchantmen. He fell in with the English admiral Ayscough, with whom he had an engagement off Plymouth, in the month of August, which lasted two days, and terminated so far to the advantage of the Dutch, that he brought his convoy safe into port. In the following October, De Ruyter and De Witte had an action with Blake and Ayscough on the Flemish coast, which was severely contested; but De Ruyter, being deserted by some of his captains, found it advisable to retreat to his own coast, the loss having been nearly equal on both sides. Van Tromp was now restored to the chief command, and De Ruyter had a squadron under him in the battle of December, off Folkstone, in which Blake was obliged to take shelter in the Thames. De Ruyter likewise distinguished himself in the terrible battle of three days, fought in February 1653, between Tromp and Blake, near the mouth of the channel. In the month of June, Tromp and De Ruyter engaged Monk and Dean, of Nieuport; and after a battle of two days, in which the two Dutch admirals successively rescued each other from imminent danger, the Dutch confessed their inferiority by retiring behind their own sand-banks. The commanders thence sent a warm remonstrance to the States concerning the necessity of a reinforcement, and at length they were enabled to attack the English, under Monk and Lawson, near Scheveling. In the final battle between the two republics, Tromp was killed; and though De Ruyter made every effort to restore the day, returning to the combat after he had been obliged to shift his flag to a frigate, yet he was at length compelled to withraw his shattered ships to the Meuse. The peace with England, which was concluded the following year, gave a respite to this terrible service, and De Ruyter was sent to cruize in the Mediterranean. He was next ordered to reinforce Opdam, who was laying siege to Dantzig, and this service being effected, he returned to his station. The Dutch trade was at this time much molested by French privateers, but the vigorous conduct of De Ruyter put an end to this predatory warfare. A dispute with Portugal brought this Dutch admiral again into action, and he exhibited his vigilance, taking several Portuguese ships at the mouth of the Tagus, and made several prizes from the Brazil fleet, till a want of provisions obliged them to return to Holland. War having recommenced between the Swedes and Danes in 1658, De Ruyter was sent with a fleet to the assistance of the latter. He made a descent on the island of Funen, defeated the Swedes, and forced them to surrender at discretion in Nyborgh, whither they had retired. He then wintered at Copenhagen, where the king of Denmark ennobled him for his good services. In 1662 he was sent with a strong squadron to curb the insolence of the Barbary states, who had exercised their piracy upon the Dutch shipping, and succeeded entirely to the satisfaction of his employers. At the commencement of the disputes between Charles II. and the United Provinces, De Ruyter had a command on the coast of Africa, where he recovered the forts which had been taken from the Dutch by the English, and made prizes of some merchant ships. After the defeat of the fleet of Opdam, by the Duke of York, in 1665, De Ruyter returned, and was raised to the rank of lieutenant-admiral-general of the Dutch navy. In the parties into which Holland was at this time divided, De Ruyter was at this time considered as attached to the republican cause, while the younger Tromp, his rival, was a warm adherent to the house of Orange: they however, went to sea together. The first service of De Ruyter was to convey home a fleet of merchantmen; and in June 1666, the great fleets of the two marine powers met in the Downs; the Dutch commanded by De Ruyter and Tromp; the English by prince Rupert and Monk, afterwards duke of Albermarle. In the three day's fight which ensued the Dutch had the advantage, though the valour of the English rendered the contest very severe. Both De Ruyter and Tromp were obliged several times to shift their flags from ship to ship, and the latter having borne down to the centre of the English, was reduced to the utmost extremity, when he was nobly rescued by his rival and political foe. The action was renewed on the fourth day, and in the end the English, who had been the greatest sufferers, withdrew to their harbour.

In the following August, the duke of Albermarle and prince Rupert fell in, near the coast of Essex, with De Ruyter and Tromp, and in the ensuing action, Tromp, eagerly pursuing a defeated division of the English fleet, left De Ruyter alone to contend with the main body of the enemy, who, after a long and most severe contest, was obliged to retreat,

retreat, exclaiming how wretched he was that not one bullet of so many thousands would free him from the disgrace. He gained, however, additional glory by the good order in which he drew off his shattered ships, and in no action were his skill and courage more distinguished.

The year 1667 was memorable for the disgrace which the reign of Charles II. incurred by the triumphant entrance of the Dutch into the Thames. Negociations for peace had been carrying on at Breda, which De Witte had protracted, while he hastened the naval preparations. The Dutch fleet appeared in the Thames under the command of De Ruyter, which threw the English into the utmost consternation. A chain was thrown across the Medway, and some new fortifications were added to Sheerness and Upnore castle: but these preparations were unequal to the urgency of the case. Sheerness was soon taken, though defended with the utmost valour by Sir Edward Sprague. Having the advantage of a spring tide and an easterly wind, the Dutch, with six men of war and five fire-ships, pressed on, broke through the chain, and burnt several English men of war in their course: among these was the Royal Oak, the commander of which, captain Douglas, perished in the flames, though he might readily have escaped. "Never was it known," said he, "that a Douglas left his post without orders." The peace which soon after followed gave some repose to De Ruyter, till the alliance between Charles II. and Lewis XIV. for the ruin of the Dutch republic, again called him to the defence of his country. With a fleet of 91 sail, in June, 1672, De Ruyter attacked the combined fleets of 130 sail, commanded by the duke of York, lord Sandwich, and count d'Estrees, in Solebay; and after an engagement, which he represented as the most obstinate that he ever witnessed, night parted the adversaries, each claiming the victory. Lord Sandwich and eount d'Estrees lost their lives, and the other losses were nearly equal, but De Ruyter kept the sea, and safely convoyed home a large fleet of merchantmen. The French kept aloof, and suffered very little.

De Ruyter was now doomed to suffer danger from a different cause. During the popular fury against the opposers of the house of Orange, which proved fatal to the De Wittes, De Ruyter, as one of the party, notwithstanding the great services which he had rendered his country, was attacked in the streets of Amsterdam with all sorts of weapons, but escaped without much injury. When William was raised to the stadtholdership, the services of this great admiral were too important to be slighted through party disputes, and in 1673 he was sent to sea with a strong fleet, in quest of the combined English and French, who were on the Dutch coast, under the command of prince Rupert. An indecisive engagement ensued on the 7th of June, in which De Ruyter disengaged Tromp from the French squadron which had surrounded him. The battle was partially renewed on the 14th, and in August, a more severe engagement took place, in which an English and two Dutch admirals were killed, and both parties claimed the victory. De Ruyter, however, received the thanks of the statdholder for his good conduct on this occasion. Peace between England and the Dutch soon after followed, and never since have the two nations contested the empire of the ocean with such mighty force, and so determined a spirit. France, at this time, was rising fast to be a maritime power, and Holland, in alliance with Spain, had to contend with her for the superiorty. De Ruyter, in 1674, made a fruitless expedition to the French Caribee islands. In the beginning of 1676 he was sent with a fleet to Sicily, which had been encouraged by the French to revolt from the Spaniards. He fell in with the French fleet under the duke de Vironne, and an action ensued, which lasted the whole day, with no decisive advantage to either side. De Ruyter repaired to Leghorn to refit, and then, forming a junction with the Spanish fleet, they proceeded towards Messina. The French came out to meet them, led on by the celebrated Du Quesne, and a second battle took place on the 21st of April. The Spaniards kept at a cautious distance, but De Ruyter like himself, rushed to the centre, broke the French line, and was in the act of chasing, when a cannon shot wounded him in the left heel and right leg. A fever supervened, which within a week put an end to his life in the port of Syracuse, at the age of 69, deeply regretted by his country and admired by all Europe. The king of Spain had, only a few days previously to this, conferred upon him the title of duke, with a pension. His remains were magnificently interred at Amsterdam at the public expense, and a superb monument was erected to his memory.

RUYTON, a parish of England, in Salop; 10 miles north-west of Shrewsbury. Population 758.

RYACOTTA, a town and celebrated fortress of the south of India, district of Baramaul. The fort is situated on a rock, and is very strongly fortified. It was taken by the British in 1791, and afterwards ceded by Tippoo Sultan to the British. The air is very salubrious, and the country in the vicinity fertile. Lat. 12. 33. N. long. 78. 17. E.

RYADER, a river of Wales, in Denbigh and Montgomeryshires, which falls into the Tanot, near Llanyader.

RYAGUDD, a town of Hindostan, province of Orissa, belonging to an independent Hindoo chieftain. Lat. 19. 1. N. long. 83. 27. E.

RYAL, a hamlet of England, in Northumberland; 14 miles from Newcastle.

RYAN, Loch, a considerable bay of Scotland, in Wigtonshire, which extends in a south-east direction from the Atlantic, forming, by its approximation to the bay of Luce, the peninsula called the Rinns of Galloway. It extends about 10 miles in length, and is about two miles in breadth at its entrance, and continues of the same breadth for about three miles: it then spreads out in a circular form about four miles in breadth. The whole bay affords excellent anchorage, particularly opposite to the village of Cairn at Portmore, the Wig, the bay of Soleburn, the bay of Dalmennock, and the harbour of Stranraer.

RYANIA [so named by Vahl, in honour of John Ryan, M.D. F.R.S. who collected plants at Santa Cruz, Montserrat], in Botany, a genus of the class polyandria, order monogynia.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth inferior, permanent, five-leaved; leaflets lanceolate, attenuated, spreading, very finely nerved, coloured. Corolla none.—Nectary between the germ and stamens, pitcher-shaped, very villose, the height of the germ. Stamina: filaments numerous (sixty), in a double row, a little shorter than the calyx, awl-shaped, having a few hairs scattered at the base; in other parts smooth. Anthers erect, awl-shaped, three times shorter than the filaments, torulose, mucronate, smooth, after the pollen is discharged, waved about the edge. Pistil: germ ovate, very villose. Style smooth, the length of the stamens. Stigmas four, convex. Pericarp: berry suberous, elliptic-spheroid, brown, scrobicular. Receptacles five, formed out of the sides of the berry, suberous, oblong, attenuated both ways, having minute tubercles scattered over them in transverse rows. Seeds abundant, ovate, subglobular, having a few minute hairs scattered over them, brown, arilled. Aril incomplete, covering the base and belly of the seed, membranaceous, three-winged, the wings doubled.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-leaved, permanent, coloured. Corolla none. Stigmas four. Berry suberous, one-celled, many-seeded.

Ryania speciosa.—This is a tree with handsome flowers, and round ash-coloured boughs, covered with a very fine nap towards the end. Leaves alternate, a span long, elliptic, acuminate, smooth on both sides, obliquely nerved, quite entire: the midrib underneath mealy; the nerves raised, and between these frequent, simple, transverse veins. Petiole very short, channelled above. Stipules awl-shaped, hoary, a little longer than the petiole, deciduous. Peduncles axillary, very short, one-flowered. Calycine leaflets an inch and half long. Berry double the size of a walnut. Seeds a little bigger than Coriander. It was found in the Island of Trinidad.

RYARSH, a parish of England, in Kent; 5½ miles west-north-west of Maidstone.

RYBENSK, a small town of the interior of European Russia, on the Wolga. Population 2200. It has a considerable

siderable manufactory of linen; 56 miles north-west of Jaroslav.

RYBOLYCZE, a small town of Austrian Poland, 23 miles east-south-east of Przemysl.

RYBURGH, Great and Little, two adjoining parishes of England, in Norfolk, about 4 miles south-east of Fakenham.

RYCHOOR, a town of Hindostan, province of Bejapore. It is a place of considerable extent, and surrounded by a brick-wall, with round towers. It was for some time in the last century the residence of the nabob Dara Jah, nephew of the late Nizam. It now belongs to the British. Lat. 15. 59. N. long. 77. 17. E.

RYCKE (Theodore de), a learned critic, born at Arnheim, in 1640; was first an advocate at the Hague, and then professor of history at the university of Leyden. In 1681, he delivered an oration "De Gigantibus," which, with a dissertation "De Primis Italiæ Colonis et Æneæ adventu," he added to an edition of Stephanus Byzantinus and Scymmus Chius, Lugd. Bat. 1684. He also published a valuable edition of Tacitus, with notes and illustrations, in 1687, in 2 vols. 12mo. He died in 1690.

RYCQUIUS (Justus), was born at Ghent, in 1587, and educated at Douay. From this place he travelled into Italy, and was for some time librarian to count Lodovico Sahero. Returning to the Low Countries, he was made canon of Ghent, and resided some time at Louvain. In 1624, he was appointed by Urban VIII. to the chair of eloquence in the university of Bologna, where he died in 1627. He published a number of Latin poems, and other works, but is chiefly known by his treatise "De Capitolio Romano," 1617, containing a description of the works of art, ancient and modern, preserved in that relic of antiquity. This performance obtained for him the title of a Roman citizen. It was reprinted at Leyden by Gronovius, in 1696, with notes and plates. *Gen. Biog.*

RYCZWAL, a small town in the interior of Poland, on the Vistula; 23 miles north-by-east of Radom.

RYDAL, a fertile valley of England, in the North Riding of Yorkshire, in which there are above 20 churches. It is so named from the river Rye, Ridale, or Risdale, which, passing through it, runs into the Swale, near Richmond.

RYDAL, a village of England, in the county of Westmoreland; 2 miles from Ambleside, noted for the beautiful lake of Rydal water, a little to the west of Ambleside: this is about one mile in length. Its surface is varied with numerous little islands, and it communicates by a narrow channel with Grassmere water, to the west, and by the river Rothay, with Windermere water, to the south.

RYDE. See Ride.

RYDER (Sir Dudley), was born in the year 1691, and having received a good elementary education, he was brought up to the profession of the law. It may be observed, that the family from which the subject of this article was descended, had been very long established in Yorkshire, and took their name from Ryther, in the hundred of Barkston, in that county, hence the name has been written differently at different periods, as Rythre, Ryther, or Ryder. It appears from Dugdale's Baronage, that William de Ryther was summoned to parliament among the barons of the realm, from the 21st of Edward I. till the 1st of Edward II., and that he was succeeded by John de Rythre, governor of Shipton castle. Sir Dudley Ryder was appointed solicitor-general to his majesty George II. in 1733; in 1736 he was advanced to the office of attorney-general, and in 1754 he was appointed to the high office of lord chief justice of the court of King's Bench. In the year 1756, his majesty, as a reward for his long and very faithful services, determined to advance him to the dignity of the peerage, by the title of Lord Ryder, baron of Harrowby in Leicestershire, and a warrant was accordingly signed by the king for that purpose, on the 24th May; but Sir Dudley died on the following day, before the patent could be completed. He left a son, Nathaniel, the first lord who was so created in 1776. He died in 1803, and was succeeded by his eldest son, Dudley, the present lord.

RYDER, or Ruyder, a gold coin in Holland, worth 1*l.* 4*s.* 10*d.*

RYDROOG, a district of Hindostan, province of Bijanagur. This district was taken possession of in the end of the 16th century, by the Delawai, or minister of the rajah of Bijanagur, after the defeat of that prince by the Mahometan powers. In the year 1766, it was subdued by Hyder Aly; and at the peace of 1792, was ceded to the Nizam; but in the year 1800, was made over to the British, and is now included in the collectorship of Bellary.

RYDROOG, the capital of the above-mentioned district, and a fortress of some consequence. Although the district had been subdued by Hyder Aly in 1766, and the chief compelled to become a tributary, he was nevertheless allowed to retain his capital; but the unfeeling Tippoo seized on it by stratagem, while the unfortunate chief was serving with his quota of troops in the army of the tyrant. Lat. 14. 19. N. long. 77. 2. E.

RYE, a small river of Scotland, in Ayrshire, which, after a short course, falls into the Garnock, half a mile above the village of Dalry.

RYE, a market town and borough of England, in the county of Sussex, and one of the Cinque Ports. It is situated on the coast of the British channel, on an eminence at the mouth of the river Rother. The town in general is regular and well built; the houses are of brick; most of them command delightful prospects of the sea. The church dedicated to St. Mary, is built of stone, and is reckoned one of the largest parish churches in the kingdom. There are, besides, in the town, meeting-houses for Methodists, Quakers, Baptists, and other dissenters, and a chapel for a colony of French refugees, who settled in the town and neighbourhood during the last war. There are also two free schools, one of which was erected and endowed by a Mr. Peacock, in the year 1644, and the other by a Mr. Saunders at a later period. The only monastic establishment in Rye was a priory of Augustine friars, which existed before the time of Edward III. and flourished till the general dissolution of religious houses, by Henry VIII. The church of this monastery is still standing, having been converted into a storehouse for mercantile goods. In the centre of the principal street stands the market-house, the higher story of which is used as a town-hall. Rye carries on a considerable trade, chiefly in hops, wool, timber, kettles, cannon, chimney backs, and other iron goods from the works at Beckley and at Breed. Seven sloops belonging to the town are pretty constantly engaged in the conveyance of chalk from the cliffs near East Bourne, for the purpose of being burned into lime. The herring and mackarel fisheries are also prosecuted to a great extent, and the trawling for flat fish. The mackarel and herrings caught here are reckoned the finest of the kind brought to the London Market. The harbour of Rye lies to the south-east of the town. The old harbour having become nearly choaked up with sand, partly on that account, and partly to gain a quantity of marsh land, it was determined to form a new one, by cutting a large canal in a more direct line to the sea. This plan was carried into effect some years ago, and vessels of about 200 tons now come up to the quay on the north side of the town, a mile and a half from the entrance. A great improvement was made by a dam of peculiar construction, thrown across the old channel, and contrived by the Reverend Daniel Pape. Still, however, the harbour is but in an indifferent state; at spring tides, the sea rises so high as nearly to surround the town with water. Rye is a member of the Cinque Ports, subordinate to Hastings. It is a borough by prescription, as well as by several charters granted to confirm its privileges. The corporation consists of a mayor, bailiff, jurats, and freemen. It sends two members to parliament, who are elected by the mayor and freemen inhabiting the borough, and paying scot and lot. Rye is a place of great antiquity, but its early history is little known. It appears clearly to have been one of the original Cinque Ports, and is mentioned as a member of them

them in a charter granted by Henry III. In the reign of Edward III. the town was surrounded by a strong wall, and guarded by towers under the superintendence of William d'Ypres, earl of Kent, one of which still bears his name, and is now used for the town jail. At that period, Rye was so considerable a port, that it sent nine armed vessels to the royal fleet, when the king undertook the invasion of France. In the next reign it was plundered and burnt by the French, but soon recovered its consequence. The rise of other ports on the same coast, during the last century, has rendered it of less importance than before. Population 2681. Houses 476. Market on Wednesday and Friday; 34 miles south-east of Tunbridge, and 63 south-east of London. Lat. 51. 57. N. long. 0. 44. E.

RYE, a small town of Denmark, in North Jutland, 18 miles west of Aarhuus. It is said to have been formerly a place of consequence, but is at present much reduced.

RYE, a township of the United States, in Rockingham county, New Hampshire; 7 miles south of Portsmouth. Population 1020.—There is a small village of the same name on the road to Boston; 25 miles from New York.

RYE, a township of the United States, in West Chester county, New York, on Long Island sound; 28 miles north-east of New York. Population 1278.

RYE, a township of the United States, in Cumberland county, Pennsylvania, on the west side of the Susquehannah. Population 1233.

RYE, *s.* [ryge, Sax.] A coarse kind of bread corn.

Between the acres of the *rye*,
These pretty country folks would lye. *Shakspeare.*

Rye is more acrid, laxative, and less nourishing than wheat. *Arbuthnot.*—A disease in a hawk. *Ainsworth.*

RYEGATE, a market town, borough, and parish of England, in the county of Surrey, situated in a pleasant valley called Holmsdale, at the foot of the chalk ridge of hills which traverses this county from west to east. It stands on a rock of beautiful white sand, which is not equalled, it is said, in colour, by any in the kingdom; and the wells dug in this rock supply abundance of excellent water. The town consists of two streets; the principal, or High-street, running nearly east and west, and the other, called Bell-street, from north to south. The church is situated at the western extremity of the town; it is dedicated to St. Mary Magdalen, and is built of squared chalk or limestone. It has two aisles extending through the chancel, nearly to the east end of the nave, and an embattled tower of hewn stone, containing eight bells. Within the church are various handsome and costly monuments. On the north side of the town, behind the principal street, was situated the castle, of whose origin and ancient history little is known. It was one of the chief seats of the powerful earls of Warren and Surrey; and here the insurgent barons are reported to have held frequent meetings, especially on the evening preceding the celebrated congress of Runnymede. Some portions of the outer wall of the castle were standing about 30 or 40 years ago, but no part of the building now remains. The site is the property of Lord Somers. It is an eminence surrounded by a ditch of considerable breadth and depth, on the south and west sides. Here is still to be seen a singular passage, 235 feet long, into a vaulted room 123 feet long, 13 wide and 11 high, all hewn out of the solid rock. This cave probably afforded the barons a repository for their treasures and military stores, and safe custody for their prisoners. The priory, a modern mansion, at the southern extremity of the town, belongs to Lord Somers. It stands on the site of a religious house founded by William de Warren, earl of Surrey, who died in 1240. The market-house is a small brick building, with piazzas below, and a chamber above, for the purposes of a town-hall. It was erected about the year 1708, on the site of a chapel dedicated to Thomas Becket. The block-house, a smaller building contiguous to it, was designed as a prison for felons and others brought to the Easter sessions held at Ryegate. Here were two other chapels in the town, one dedicated to the Holy Cross, and the other to St. Lawrence: the latter is now a dwelling-house. Ryegate formerly carried on a considerable trade in oatmeal, in the manufacture of which nearly 20 mills were employed about 60 years ago. This business has gradually declined, and only one mill now remains. Ryegate is a very ancient borough, and has sent two members to parliament ever since 23d Edward I. The electors are the freeholders of messuages or burgage tenements within the precincts of the borough: the returning officer is the bailiff of the manor. The elections, however, are under the influence of the noble families of Somers and Hardwicke, to the former of whom the manor belongs. Ryegate gives the title of baron to the earl of Peterborough. The neighbourhood of the town abounds with fullers' earth, and medicinal plants and herbs. Holmsdale, though now overgrown with furze, was formerly noted for producing immense quantities of strawberries. In the woody part of this track outlying red deer were formerly often found; and James II., when duke of York, used to chase the largest stags that have ever been seen in England. The deer have since been entirely destroyed. Population of the borough part of Ryegate, 1128; of the remainder, which has no vote at elections, 1312. Market on Tuesday; also a monthly one on Wednesday; 16 miles east of Guildford, and 21 south of London. Lat. 51. 14. N. long. 0. 13. W.

RYEGATE, a township of the United States, in Caledonia county, Vermont, on the Connecticut; 28 miles east of Montpelier. Population 812.

RYE'GRASS, *s.* A kind of strong grass.—Some sow *ryegrass* with the corn at Michaelmas. *Mortimer.*

RYEHILL, a hamlet of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 12 miles east-by-south of Kingston-upon-Hull.

RYEHILL, a hamlet of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 6 miles south-east of Wakefield.

RYELAND SHEEP, a breed of fine-woolled sheep, originally met with in the greatest perfection in a district of Herefordshire, termed the Ryelands. See Ovis.

RYEPOOR, a town of Hindostan, province of Gundwaneh, district of Choteesgur. It contains about 3000 houses of different descriptions, and was formerly reckoned the second town in the Nagpore dominions. It is situated on the road from Cuttack to Nagpore. Lat. 21. 17. N. long. 82. 26. E.

RYER (Andrew du), sieur de Malezais, a gentleman, who resided a considerable time at Constantinople, in the French king's service, and was consul for the French nation in Egypt. He published a "Turkish Grammar," 1636, 4to.; a "French Translation of the Koran," 1647, 12mo.; and another of the "Gulistan" of Saadi, 1634, 8vo. His version of the Koran is not regarded as faithful.

RYER (Peter du), a copious dramatic and miscellaneous writer, was born of a good family at Paris, in 1605. He procured a place of secretary to the king in 1626, but the indigence consequent upon an imprudent marriage obliged him to sell it, and he afterwards served in the same quality Cæsar duke of Vendome. In order to support his family, he employed a very ready pen in prose and verse, and produced a great number of translations, for which he was paid at a crown a sheet, and which, of course, bear all the marks of haste. He composed nineteen pieces for the theatre, which were successful at the time of their appearance. Two or three of his tragedies obtained the applause of maturer criticism. His "Alcyonée" so much delighted Queen Christina, that she heard it read three times in one day. His "Scevole" still gives pleasure on the stage. Du Ryer was received into the French Academy in 1646. His life seems to have been a perpetual struggle with penury; but a short time before his death, he obtained the brevet of historiographer royal, with a pension. He died in 1658. *Moreri.*

RYFFTHAL, a pleasant valley in the west of Switzerland, in the canton of Vaud, lying between the lake of Geneva and Mount Jura, and extending from Lausanne to Vevay.

RYHALL, a hamlet of England, in Rutlandshire; 13 miles east of Oakham.

RYHOPE, a village of England, in Durham, near Sunderland.

RYLE,

RYLE, Great and Little, two hamlets of England, in Northumberland; 8½ miles west of Alnwick.

RYLE, a hamlet of England, in Dorsetshire, near Whitchurch.

RYLSK, a town of the central part of European Russia, in the government of Kursk, at the confluence of the rivers Sem and Ryla. It contains 4600 inhabitants, is the chief place of a circle, and a bishop's see; 52 miles west-south-west of Kursk.

RYMANOW, a small town of Austrian Poland, on the Wisloca; 18 miles west-by-south of Sanok.

RYME. See Rhyme.

RYME, a parish of England, in Dorsetshire; 6 miles south-west of Sherborne.

RYMER (Thomas), a critic and antiquary, who received his early education at the school of Northallerton, and was afterwards a student in the University of Cambridge, upon quitting which he entered at Gray's Inn. He first made himself known in 1678, by publishing "Edgar, a Tragedy;" and he was the author of a work, entitled "A View of the Tragedies of the last age," in which he exercised great severity against several of our early dramatic writers, not excepting Shakspeare. Some manuscript remarks on this work by Dryden are given in Johnson's life of that poet, in which the critic is treated with considerable respect, though some of his opinions are confuted. Rymer seems, in his critical capacity, to have displayed much learning, and a good share of plain sense, but without any of that fancy and feeling which are essential in estimating works of true genius; and his own dramatic composition is spoken of as very inferior. It is only as an historical antiquary that his name is entitled to commemoration. He had probably made himself conspicuous by some publications in that quality, when, in 1692, he was appointed historiographer to William III.; and he employed the opportunities afforded him by this office, in making a collection of public treaties and compacts, which he began to publish, in 1704, under the title of "Fœdera, Conventiones, et cujuscunque generis Acta publica inter Reges Angliæ et alios Principes ab An. 1101 ad nostra usque tempora," of which he completed 15 vols. folio, and five more were afterwards added by Robert Sanderson. It was reprinted at the Hague in 1739, in ten vols. folio, and was abridged in French by Rapin, in Le Clerc's "Bibliothèque." Although confused and ill digested, it is a publication of great value, and necessary to the accurate knowledge of English history. Rymer died in 1713.

RYNABAD, a town of Bengal, district of Jessore. It stands on the south bank of the Boirub river, which is one of the most frequented channels by boats coming down the country in the hot season, through the woods or sunderbunds, and where they may be well supplied with provisions and fresh water for the remainder of their extraordinary voyage. Lat. 22. 42. N. long. 89. 44. E.

RYNACH, a small town of the Swiss canton of Argovia, on the borders of that of Lucerne; 12 miles south-south-east of Aaran.

RYNCHOPS, the Skimmer, in Ornithology, a genus of birds of the order Anseres, of which the generic character is, that the bill is straight, the upper mandible is much shorter than the under, the latter truncated at the apex; the tail is forked and shorter than the wings, nostrils linear, and the back toe small.

Rynchops Nigra, Black Skimmer, or Cut-water.—The specific character is blackish, beneath white; bill red at the base; the lower mandible grooved; the front and chin are white; wings with a transverse white band; the two middle tail-feathers are black, the next edged with white; the legs are red, and it is about twenty inches long. It is found in divers parts of Asia and America. This bird is ever on the wing, sweeping the surface of the water, dipping its bill, or at least its under mandible, to scoop out the smaller fishes, on which it feeds. In stormy weather it frequents the shores, and is contented with oysters, and other shell-fish. There is a variety of a tawny colour, with a black bill.

RYND, a parish of Scotland, in Perthshire, about 4 miles long and 1 broad, situated at the confluence of the Erne with the Tay. Population 393.

RYNSBURG, or Rhynsburg, a village of Holland, on the channel called the Old Rhine. Population 1100; 2 miles north-west of Leyden.

RYOT, *s.* A renter of land in Hindostan. In every part of India, where the native Hindoo princes retain dominion, these Ryots hold their possession by a lease, which may be considered as perpetual, and at a rate fixed by ancient surveys and valuations. This arrangement has been so long established, and accords so well with the ideas of the natives, concerning the distinctions of casts, and the functions allotted to each, that it has been inviolably maintained, in all the provinces subject either to Mahometans or Europeans; and to both it serves as the basis on which their whole system of finance is founded. In a more remote period, before the original institutions of India were subverted by foreign invaders, the industry of the husbandman, on which every member of the community depended for subsistence, was as secure, as the tenure, by which he held his lands, was equitable. Even war did not interrupt his labours or endanger his property. It was not uncommon, we are informed, that while two hostile armies were fighting a battle in one field, the peasants were ploughing or reaping in the next field in perfect tranquillity. (Strabo, lib. xv.) Under a form of government, which paid such attention to all the different orders of which the society is composed, particularly the cultivators of the earth, it is not wonderful that the ancients should describe the Indians as a most happy race of men; and that the most intelligent modern observers should celebrate the equity, the humanity, and mildness of Indian policy. A Hindoo rajah resembles more a father presiding in a numerous family of his own children, than a sovereign ruling over inferiors subject to his dominion. He endeavours to secure their happiness with vigilant solicitude; they are attached to him with the most tender affection and inviolable fidelity. We can hardly conceive men to be placed in any state more favourable to their acquiring all the advantages derived from social union. It is only when the mind is perfectly at ease, and neither feels nor dreads oppression, that it employs its active powers in forming numerous arrangements of police, for securing its enjoyments and increasing them. Many arrangements of this nature the Greeks, though accustomed to their own institutions, the most perfect at that time in Europe, observed and admired among the Indians, and mention them as instances of high civilization and improvement. There were established among the Indians three distinct classes of officers, one of which had it in charge to inspect agriculture, and every kind of country work. They measured the portions of land allotted to each renter. They had the custody of the *tanks*, or public reservoirs of water, without a regular distribution of which, the fields in a torrid climate cannot be rendered fertile. They marked out the course of the highways, along which, at certain distances, they erected stones, to measure the road and direct travellers. To officers of a second class was committed the inspection of the police in cities; their functions of course were many and various; some of which only we shall specify. They appropriated houses for the reception of strangers; they protected them from injury, provided for their subsistence, and, when seized with any disease, they appointed physicians to attend them; and, on the event of their death, they not only buried them with decency, but took charge of their effects, and restored them to their relations. They kept exact registers of births and of deaths. They visited the public markets, and examined weights and measures. The third class of officers superintended the military department; but, as the objects to which their attention was directed are foreign from the subject of this article, it is unnecessary to enter into any detail with respect to them.

There is still the same attention to the construction and preservation of tanks, and the distribution of their waters. The direction of roads, and placing stones along them, is still an object of police. *Choultries*, or houses built for the

the accommodation of travellers, are frequent in every part of the country, and are useful, as well as noble monuments of Indian munificence and humanity.

The precise mode, however, in which the Ryots of Hindoostan held their possessions, is a circumstance in its ancient political constitution, with respect to which gentlemen of superior discernment, who have resided long in the country, and filled some of the highest stations in government, have formed very different opinions. Some have imagined, that grants of land were made by the sovereign to villages or small communities, the inhabitants of which, under the direction of their own chiefs or heads-men, laboured it in common, and divided the produce of it among them in certain proportions. (Descript. de l'Inde, par M. Bernouilli, tom. ii. 223, &c.) Others maintain, that the property of land has been transferred from the crown to hereditary officers of great eminence and power, denominated *Zemindars*, who collect the rents from the Ryots, and parcel out the lands among them. Others contend that the office of the Zemindars is temporary and ministerial; that they are merely collectors of revenue, removeable at pleasure, and the tenure by which the Ryots hold their possessions is derived immediately from the sovereign. This last opinion is supported, with great ability, by Mr. Grant, in an Inquiry into the Nature of Zemindary Tenures in the landed Property of Bengal, &c. This question still continues to be agitated in Bengal, and such plausible arguments have been produced in support of the different opinions, that although it be a point extremely interesting, as the future system of British finance in India appears likely to hinge, in an essential degree, upon it, persons well acquainted with the state of India, have not been able to form a final and satisfactory opinion upon this subject. (Captain Kirkpatrick's Introd. to the Institutes of Ghazan Khan. New Asiatic Miscell. No. II., p. 130.) Though the sentiments of the Committee of Revenues, composed of persons eminent for their abilities, lean to a conclusion against the hereditary right of the Zemindars in the soil, yet the Supreme Council, in the year 1786, declined, for good reasons, to give any decisive judgment on a subject of such magnitude.

Mr. Rouse, in his ingenious and instructive Dissertations concerning the landed property of Bengal, adopts an opinion contrary to that of Mr. Grant, and maintains, with laudable candour and liberality of sentiment, that the Zemindars of Bengal possess their landed property by hereditary right. Dr. Robertson, in his "Historical Disquisition concerning India," suggests, that the possession of land was granted at first during pleasure, afterwards for life, and at length became perpetual and hereditary property. But even under this last form, when land is acquired either by purchase or inheritance, the manner in which the right of property is confirmed and rendered complete, in Europe by a charter, in India by a "Sunnud" from the sovereign, seems to point out what was its original state. According to each of the theories above-mentioned, the tenure and condition of the Ryots nearly resemble the description which our author has given of them. Their state, we learn from the accounts of intelligent observers, is as happy and independent as falls to the lot of any race of men employed in the cultivation of the earth. The ancient Greek and Roman writers, whose acquaintance with the interior parts of India was very imperfect, represent the fourth part of the annual produce of land as the general average of rent paid to the sovereign. Upon the authority of a popular author, who flourished in India prior to the Christian era, we may conclude, that a sixth part of the people's income was, in his time, the usual portion of the sovereign. (Sacontella, act v. p. 53.) It is now known, that what the sovereign receives from land varies greatly in different parts of the country, and is regulated by the fertility or barrenness of the soil, the nature of the climate, the abundance or scarcity of water, and many other obvious circumstances.

RYPEN. See Ribe.

RYPPIN, a small town in the north-west of Poland, in the palatinate of Plock, with 1000 inhabitants; 32 miles east-by-north of Thorn.

RYPTICS. See Rhyptics.

RYSBERGEN, a village of the Netherlands, in North Brabant, with 1200 inhabitants; 6 miles south-by-west of Breda.

RYSSADIUM, a town and port of Africa, in Mauritania Tingitana, on the coast of the Iberian ocean, between Sestiaria Extrema and the promontory Mesagonites, according to Ptolemy. It is named by Antonine Rusarder Colonia, and Rusardir by Pliny, who places it near the promontory "Solis."—Also, a promontory of Africa, in the Interior Libya, near the promontory Arsinarium, according to Ptolemy.

RYSSEN, a small town of the Netherlands, in the province of Overyssel, not far from the small river Regg. Population 1500; 16 miles east-north-east of Deventer.

RYSWIK, a large village of the Netherlands, in Holland; 2 miles south-east of the Hague. Population 1700. It was in the fort of this place called Nieuwburg, that the well known peace of Ryswik was concluded, in 1697.

RYTHER, a parish of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 7 miles north-west of Selby.

RYTON, a parish of England, in Salop; 4 miles south-by-east of Shiffnal.

RYTON, a parish of England, in Warwickshire; 4½ miles south-east of Coventry.

RYTON, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 3 miles north of New Malton.

RYTON, a parish of England in Durham; 7 miles west-north-west of Gateshead. Population 5307.

RYVES (Thomas), born in the latter end of the 16th century, and educated at Winchester school, from whence he was sent to Oxford. He became celebrated as a civilian in Doctors' Commons, and in the court of Admiralty. At the accession of Charles I. he was made king's advocate, and was knighted. He died in 1651. He wrote several works, among which were "The Vicar's Plea;" "Historia Navalis Antiqua;" "Historia Navalis Media."

RYVES (Bruno), an English divine, and near relation of the preceding. At the restoration of Charles II. he had the deanery of Windsor conferred on him. He was also secretary to Garter King-at-arms. He was author of "Mercurius Rusticus," or "The Country's Complaint;" and divers other works, which were popular in their day.

RZECZICA, a small town of Russian Lithuania, in the government of Minsk, on the Dnieper; 152 miles south-south east of Minsk.

RZECZICZ, Roth, or Czerwena Stara Rzeczice, a small town of the east of Bohemia; 52 miles south-east of Prague. Population 1200.

RZESZOW, one of the circles of Austrian Poland, which contains a track of 1675 square miles, lying along the southern frontier of the country called, since 1815, the kingdom of Poland. It is watered by the San and the Wisloka, and has about 225,000 inhabitants. It is in general level and fertile, but it is covered on the north side by large and almost impenetrable forests.

RZESZOW, a small town of Austrian Poland, on the Wisloka; 70 miles west of Lemberg, and 80 east of Cracow, and the chief place of the above circle. It is one of the best built towns of the Austrian part of Poland, contains 4600 inhabitants, and has a brisk traffic in corn and poultry. There are here also several goldsmiths, who, as well as the merchants, are mostly Jews.

RZGOW, a small town of the west of Poland, on the river Nev, with 900 inhabitants; 70 miles west-south-west of Warsaw, and 20 north-by-west of Petrikau.

S.

S, a consonant, and the eighteenth letter of the alphabet. Its sound is formed by driving the breath through a narrow passage between the palate and the tongue elevated near it.

S has two different sounds, viz. a soft and flat sound, like *z*, as *dismal*, and a sharp hissing sound, as *sister*.

It is the peculiar quality of *s*, that it may be sounded before all consonants, except *x* and *z*, in which *s* is comprised.

Some of the ancients avoided all use of the *s* very studiously; particularly Pindar, who has whole poems without once mentioning it. And hence also in Plautus, and some others of the Latin poets, we find it cut abruptly off, as in *dignu'*, *omnibu'*, &c. Others, on the contrary, affected the use of it every where, inserting it where it was not wanted; as *Casmenæ* for *Camenæ*, *dusmosæ* for *dumosæ*, *cæsna* for *cœna*, &c.

Of all letters, the *s* is nearest akin to the *r*: whence it was frequently changed, on account of its disagreeable sound, into *r*. Thus the *Valerii*, *Furii*, &c. were at first called *Valesii*, *Fusii*, &c.; and what we now call *ara*, *arena*, *earmen*, *feriæ*, *lares*, &c. were anciently written *asa*, *asena*, *casmen*, *fesiæ*, *lases*, &c. Add to this, that the Latin nouns now terminated in *or*, as *arbor*, *labor*, &c. all anciently ended in *s*; as *arbos*, *labos*, &c.

It is much to be regretted, that the beauty of the English language has been much injured by modern innovation. The *s*, already too frequent, has been used to supersede in verbs the euphonous *th*; and the plural of nouns, which our ancestors formed after the German fashion, by the *en*, is immutably formed by the same offensive letter. These changes are too well established to allow a return to our old system in prose. In poetry, however, it is to be hoped that such words as *hath*, *appeareth*, &c. will still maintain their ground against *has*, *appears*, and the like.

S was a numerical letter among the ancients, signifying seven: according to the verse,

"S vera septenos numeratos significabit."

Among the Greeks, σ' signified 200, and σ denoted 200,000; the *sigma* joined to *tau*, i. e. στ, denoted 6.

In abbreviations, S. stands for *societas*, or *socius*; as, R.S.S. for *Regiæ Societatis Socius*, i. e. *Fellow of the Royal Society*. In medicinal prescriptions, S.A. signifies *secundum artem*, i. e. *according to the rules of art*; and in the notes of the ancients, S. stands for *sextus*, *servius*, or *sanctus*; S.S. *sanctissimus*; S.P. for *spurius*; S.C. for *senatus consultum*; S.D. for *salutem dicit*; S.P.D. for *salutem plurimam dicit*; S.P.Q.R. for *senatus populusque Romanus*; S.S.S. for *stratum super stratum*, i. e. *one layer above another, alternately*; S.V.B E.E.Q.V. for *si vales bene est ego quoque valeo*, a form used in Cicero's time, in the beginning of letters. Upon the French coins, S. distinguished those that were struck at Rheims.

SA DE MIRANDA (Francis), a Portuguese writer and chevalier of the order of Christ, was born at Coimbra, in 1495, and died in 1558. He was author of a quarto volume, consisting of satires, comedies, and pastorals, which was printed at Lisbon, in 1614.

SA, or Sah, a village, situated on the ruins of Sais, formerly the metropolis of Lower Egypt. It was celebrated for a temple of Minerva, and for an asylum and tomb dedicated to Osiris. It is situated on the canal of Belkin, or of Hashabi, which runs parallel to the Rosetta branch of the Nile, on its eastern side, and falls into the lake Bourlos; 17 miles west of Mehallet Kibeer.

SA, or Saa (Emanuel), a learned Portuguese Jesuit in the 17th century. He was the author of "Scholia in Quatuor Evangelia," 1596, 4to., consisting of short, but learned and ingenious notes on the four Gospels, partly original and partly selected from the labours of preceding commentators; "Notationes in totam Sacram Scripturam, quibus tum omnes ferè Loci difficiles, tum variæ ex Hebræo, Chaldæo, et Græco, Lectiones explicantur," published after his death, in 1598, 4to., and of the same character with his former work; and "Aphorismi Confessariorum ex Doctorum Sententiis collecti," 1595, 12mo., which, though so small a work, is said to have employed much of his attention during the long term of forty years. It has undergone numerous impressions at Venice, Cologne, Antwerp, Paris, Lyons, &c., and is held in much estimation by the Catholics. *Moreri*.

SAAD, a town of great Bukharia; 20 miles north-east of Samarcand.

SAADE, a town of Arabia, the most important in the Sahan, or mountainous district of Yemen. It is the residence of a chief, who assumes the title of Imam; but his territories are so small, that he often finds it difficult to maintain his ground against his highland neighbours. His revenue arises chiefly from a custom-house here established, at which duties are paid by the goods passing from Yemen into the interior of Arabia. In the neighbourhood of this town is a fortified height, distinguished for the stand there made by a chief against the Turkish force; 368 miles north-north-east of Mocha.

SAADIAS-GAON, or Saadias the Excellent, a learned and celebrated rabbi, who flourished in the 10th century, was a native of the city of Pithom, or *Al fiumi* in Egypt, where he appears to have been born about the year 892. Having acquired a high reputation for learning and abilities, in the year 927, he was sent for by David the son of Zachai, the prince of the captivity, to preside over the academical institution at Sora near Babylon, which, owing to the dissentions between that prince and the chiefs of the academies, was threatened with dissolution. In these circumstances he undertook its management, and laboured for two years with great success in raising its character. One of the first objects of his care after entering upon his presidency, was to explode the doctrine of the transmigration of souls, which had obtained very generally, not only among the Persians and Arabs, but even among the Jews. He had already made considerable progress in it, when he was sent for by the prince of the captivity to subscribe to a new regulation, which appeared to him to be repugnant to the Jewish laws, and for that reason he firmly refused to give it the sanction of his signature. This refusal so exasperated David, that at first he sent his son to our rabbi, threatening to have his head broken if he persisted in not signing; which menace his scholars resented, by raising a tumult against the prince, in which he received from them some severe blows. Hence a breach arose between David and Saadias, and the academy soon became divided into two parties, in which that of Saadias so far prevailed, that David was deposed from his dignity, and his brother Joseph appointed in his room. It was not long, however, before David got himself restored, and Saadias was obliged to flee, and seek out for a place of safe retreat. He remained in concealment seven years, during which time he composed the greatest part of the books which were published in his name. Afterwards he found means to be reconciled to David, and was restored to his chair at Sora, which he occupied peaceably and with great success till his death in 942, when he was about 50 years of age. He was the author of a work, entitled, "*Sepher Heamunah*," or a treatise concerning the Jewish articles of faith, in ten chapters, which was translated from the original Arabic into Hebrew, by Rabbi

Rabbi Jehuda Ben Samuel Aben Tibbon, and was printed at Constantinople in 1562, 4to., and since that at Verona, Amsterdam, and other places; "A Commentary on the Book *Jezira*," which was printed, with other commentaries on that book, at Mantua, in 1592, 4to.; an Arabic translation of the whole Old Testament, of which the Pentateuch is still extant, and may be seen both in Le Jay's and Walton's Polyglots, accompanied with the Latin Version of Gabriel Sionita; "A Commentary on the Song of Songs," in Hebrew, printed at Prague, in 1609, 4to.; "A Commentary on Daniel," in Hebrew, inserted in the great rabbinical Bibles of Venice and Basil; "A Commentary on Job," in Arabic, the manuscript of which is in the Bodleian Library at Oxford; "A Commentary upon the Jewish Liturgy," in Arabic, preserved in manuscript in the same repository; and other pieces on grammar, &c., of which some account may be seen in *Wolsii Bibl. Hebræa. Moreri.*

SAADIS, a sect of enthusiasts or impostors in Egypt, resembling the Psylli of Cyrenaica, who were persuaded that they possessed the power of setting serpents at defiance, of charming them, of making these reptiles follow them at their call, and of curing their bites. The Saadis derive their name from that of their founder, who was a saint highly venerated among the Mahometans of Egypt. This saint, when young, having convinced his uncle, who was a great man in Syria, of his ingenuity, by binding a faggot of branches of trees, which he was sent by his uncle to collect in the desart, with a number of living serpents knotted together, commenced his travels through the country, practising the art of charming serpents by his wonderful and supernatural skill, and gathering together a number of disciples, to whom he communicated his art. The tomb of this saint is near Damascus; and it is filled with serpents and other venomous animals, among which a person may lie down and sleep, without suffering the slightest injury. Such is the superstitious origin of a very numerous sect in Egypt, each individual of which inherits the skill of its founder. Every year they celebrate his festival in a manner analogous to the institution. They march in procession through the streets, each holding in his hand a living serpent, which he bites, gnaws, and swallows piece-meal, making, at the same time, frightful grimaces and contortions. Sonnini informs us, that he had an opportunity of observing the practices of a member of this sect. A priest of this profession carried in his bosom a large serpent, which he was continually handling, and after having recited a prayer, delivered it to the Saadi who accompanied him. The teeth of the reptile had been drawn, but it was very lively, and of a dusky green and copper colour. The Saadi seized the serpent, which entwined itself round his naked arm. Upon this he began to be agitated; his countenance changed; his eyes rolled; he uttered terrible cries; bit the animal in the head, and tore off a piece, which he chewed and swallowed. At that moment his agitation increased; his howlings were redoubled; his limbs writhed; his aspect bore the marks of madness; and his mouth, distended by horrid grimaces, was covered with foam. From time to time he devoured fresh pieces of the reptile. It was in vain that three men exerted themselves to hold him; he dragged them round the room, throwing his arms with violence on all sides, and striking every thing within his reach. At length the priest took the serpent from him; but his fury and convulsions were not at first appeased; he bit his hands, and his passion continued. The priest clasped him in his arms, put his hands gently on his back, lifted him from the ground, and recited some prayers. His agitation gradually subsided, and he became complety exhausted, in which state he continued for a few moments. The Turks, who were present, believed that this religious frenzy was real.

SAALES, a small town in the east of France in Lorraine,; 11 miles east-north-east of St. Diez.

SAALFELD, a small town of the interior of Germany, duchy of Saxe-Coburg, on the Thuringian Saale. It is pleasantly situated, and contains 3700 inhabitants. Here is a mint, a mine office, and some manufactures. Saalfeld was formerly the chief town of a small principality of the house of Saxe, but the family became extinct in 1749. In October 1806, prior to the fatal battle of Jena, prince Louis Ferdinand of Prussia was defeated and killed here by the French; 50 miles west-south-west of Altenburg.

SAALFELD, or ZELLWALD, a small town of East Prussia; 67 miles south-south-west of Konigsberg. Population 1300.

SAALFELDEN, a small town in the south-west of Austria, on the river Salza. Population 1000; 28 miles south-south-west of Salzburg.

SAALFELDNER-SCHARTE, a lofty mountain of the district of Salzburg, near Saalfelden. Elevation 7000 feet.

SAALMUNSTER, a small town of the west of Germany, in Hesse-Cassel, on the Kinzig. Population 1350; 24 miles south-south-west of Fulda.

SAANE, SANE, or SARINE, a considerable river in the west of Switzerland, which rises on the borders of the Valais, flows through the canton of Friburg, from north to south, and falls into the Aar; 7 miles west of Bern. It is rapid, and not navigable. It gives name to a winding valley of the Oberland, surrounded with lofty mountains, and producing little corn, but abundance of pasturage. The population of the valley is 8000. Its chief town is Saanen.

SAANEN, in French *Gessenai*, a small but well built town of the Swiss canton of Bern, in the Saanerland. It is the chief place of the valley of the same name, and is situated between beautiful and fertile mountains; 24 miles south of Friburg, and 25 east-south-east of Lausanne.

SAAR. See SARRE.

SAARBRUCK, a small town of the Prussian province of the Lower Rhine, on the river Sarre. It contains 2700 inhabitants, and has a Lutheran church and gymnasium; the former a good building. The inhabitants carry on some manufactures of iron and steel, but their chief traffic arises from their position on the river, which becomes navigable at this place; 18 miles east of Luxemburg, and 9 south of Treves. On the other side of the Sarre is a small town called St. John.

SAARDAM. See ZAANDAM.

SAARGEMUND. See SARGUEMINES.

SAAR-LOUIS, a fortified town of the Prussian province of the Lower Rhine, situated on a peninsula formed by the Sarre. It contains 4100 inhabitants, and has some manufactures of leather and hardware; and in the neighbourhood are iron and coal mines. It was fortified by Vauban, under Louis XIV. but was ceded to Prussia by the treaty of Paris in 1815. During the revolution, this place was called Sarre Libre; 11 miles north-west of Saarbruck, and 34 east of Thionville.

SAARTAY, a small island of the Hebrides, in the sound of Harris.

SAAR UNION, a town in the north-east of France, on the Saar, department of the Lower Rhine. It consists of the two petty towns of St. Saarwerden and Bouquenon, and has a population of 2800; 45 miles north-east of Nancy. Lat. 48. 56. N. long. 7. 5. E.

SAAS (John), an ecclesiastic, was born in the year 1703, and died in 1774. He was an active and useful member of the academy of Rouen, and published an account of the manuscripts found in the cathedral of that city; he was author of "An Abridgement of the Historical Dictionary," in four vols.; "Criticisms on the Supplement to Moreri," and some religious pieces.

SAASA, a village of Palestine, in the district beyond Jordan, which tradition has reported as the place where Nimrod was buried; 40 miles north-west of Sarchad.

SAATZ, a circle in the north-west of Bohemia, lying contiguous to the Saxon frontier, and to the Bohemian circles of Leutmeritz, Rakonitz, and Elnbogen. Its area is about 820 square miles, its population 114,000 who are more of German than of Bohemian descent. The south of this circle is level, and contains some of the best corn land of Bohemia, but the north is covered in part by the Erzgebirge mountains, in

in which there are mines of iron, alum and tin. The woods are extensive in this quarter, and abound in game. The other products of this circle are hops, flax, turf, and coal. There are some manufactures, of which that of cotton is most considerable.

SAATZ, in Bohemian ZATETS, a town of Bohemia, on the Egra, and the chief place of the preceding circle. Population 3800; 89 miles west-by-north of Prague, and 28 east of Carlsbad. Lat. 50. 18. 35. N. long. 13. 35. E.

SAAVEDRA (Fajardo Diego), a Spanish writer and statesman, was born of a noble family in the kingdom of Murcia, and after being ambassador in Switzerland, was appointed a member of the supreme council of India. He died in 1648. As an author, his chief works are, "The Idea of a Politic Prince;" "The Gothic Crown;" and "The Literary Republic." This last is said to be a curious and well-written picce.

SAAVEDRA (Miguel Cervantes de), better known by the name of CERVANTES, the most celebrated literary character of modern Spain, was born about the year 1549. Neither he himself, nor any authentic biographer, has mentioned the place of his nativity; so that different parts of Spain have laid claim to that honour, with as much zeal of contention as the different places which of old were claimants for the cradle of Homer. The province of Andalusia seems on the whole to possess the best title. His descent is by himself said to be honourable; and his writings prove that his education must have been liberal; but his own total silence as to the manner in which he passed his youth, and the circumstance of his serving as a common volunteer in the army of Mark Antony Colonna, seem to prove that he had no other patrimony than his sword and learning. When his military service commenced is doubtful; it is certain, however, that embarking with the troops under Colonna, on board the fleet commanded by Don John of Austria, he was present at the famous battle of Lepanto in 1571, where he had the misfortune to lose his left hand by a shot. Either in this expedition, or in his service as chamberlain to cardinal Aquaviva at Rome, he obtained a certain share of wealth; for in his captivity at Algiers, during five years and a half, which commenced in 1574, when he was taken by a Barbary corsair, he appears to have been well furnished with money, which he liberally bestowed among his fellow-captives. Several romantic circumstances, but of dubious authority, are recorded of him whilst a slave at Algiers. A large price was paid for his ransom, which, together with his subsequent expense of living, probably in the free style of a soldier, entirely exhausted his store. He had already established a reputation for poetical talents in his country, which was much augmented by the publication in 1584 of his "Galatea," a poem in six books, dedicated to Ascanio Colonna. He likewise, either before or after his captivity, or in both periods, composed various pieces for the Spanish theatre, which was then nearly in a state of barbarism, and of which, in its more regular form, he is reckoned one of the fathers. A course of years little accounted for, now elapsed in the life of Cervantes, of the incidents of which scarcely any thing is known, but that he married, was reduced to great distress, and was finally lodged in a jail for debt. In this forlorn situation he composed the work which has conferred immortal honour on his name—his "Don Quixote." As to the serious purpose of it, various opinions have been given, probably with more fancy and subtlety than truth. Perhaps he had nothing further in view than to write a diverting and instructive satire on the extravagant tales, which, under the title of romances, over-ran the age, and prejudiced the taste, at least, if not the manners of his country. That any thing like practical knight-errantry was the foible of his countrymen at that time, is a supposition not warranted by the state of society; and a soldier and patriot could not wish to quell the gallant spirit of martial enterprise. But books of chivalry, with their monstrous fictions and affected sentiments, were fair game for a man of wit and sense; nor could they be more agreeably ridiculed, than by displaying their effects on the imagination of a madman, resolved to put their lessons into practice. The first part of this work was printed at Madrid in 1605, and its success was prodigious. It was read by all ages and ranks; its fame spread into foreign countries, and editions and translations of it were multiplied. It seems to have had its full effect in correcting the public taste, and putting a stop to the fabrication of romances. That it also lowered the adventurous spirit of the Spanish nation, and laid the foundation of the timid indolence under which it has since languished, is, probably, an overstrained conclusion. With respect to the author, it appears to have been the means of liberating him from prison, and obtaining him a degree of patronage from the great; but the court and kingdom of Spain have by no act of solid bounty freed themselves from the disgrace of suffering their greatest genius to sink under the depression of habitual indigence. In 1613, Cervantes published his "Novels," which are agreeable specimens of that kind of writing, and became popular. They are of a similar character with some introduced in to the Adventures of Don Quixote, and display his inventive and descriptive talents in serious story, as the other had done in burlesque. Indeed, Cervantes, though he chose to make the fictions of chivalry the object of his ridicule, had much of the romantic in his own composition; and in the points of love and heroism was a true Spaniard, though he discarded the follies of enchantment and supernatural agency. While preparing for the press a second part of his Don Quixote, he underwent the mortification of being anticipated by an Arragonian writer of mean genius, under the name of Alonzo Fernandez de Avellaneda; who not only debased the original by a very insipid and absurd application of its plan and characters, but loaded the author with much personal abuse. Cervantes, however, reclaimed his right, by publishing, in 1615, a true second part, which sufficiently proved that the author of the first was alone capable of an adequate continuation, and which was received with avidity by all who had been interested in the genuine Don Quixote. About this time he also published a poem entitled "A Voyage to Parnassus," which was an ironical satire upon the Spanish poetry of his time, and upon the bad taste of patrons. This was more likely to increase the number of his enemies, than to acquire him any substantial favours from the great. Accordingly, such was his poverty at this period, that he was obliged to sell eight plays and as many interludes to a bookseller, for want of means to print them on his own account. The indifferent terms he was upon with the actors prevented his bringing them on the stage; and indeed the rising reputation of Lope de la Vega had eclipsed that of Cervantes as a dramatic writer. His last work was a novel, entitled, "The Troubles of Persiles and Sigismunda," which he did not live to print. In his preface, that humour, which had illuminated the pages of his Don Quixote, still flashes out, and dispels the gloom of poverty and sickness. He relates an adventure which befel him on a journey on horseback to Toledo, when a scholar, who had joined the company, being informed who he was, leaps from his ass in a rapture, pays him high compliments, and in the course of conversation recommends to him a regimen for the dropsy under which he laboured. Cervantes, however, excuses himself from complying with his advice. "My life," says he, is drawing to a period, and by the daily journal of my pulse, which I find will have finished its course by next Sunday at farthest, I shall also have finished my career: so that you are come in the very nick of time to be acquainted with me." An affectionate dedication of this work to his best patron, the Count de Lemos, is dated April 19th, 1617; and as he mentions in it that he had already received extreme unction, it is probable that a day or two more finished the scene. A licence was granted in the September following to the widow of Cervantes to print this novel for her own benefit; and it was probably the only property this literary glory of his country had to leave.

To enter into a discussion of the character and merits of such

such an original and unrivalled performance as "Don Quixote," would carry us beyond the limits assigned to the present biographical sketch. But a work which has not only become a classic throughout all Europe, but which has in a manner obscured the fame of all the other literature of his country, and has enriched every modern language with words and phrases to express new ideas, cannot but rank with the capital productions of the human invention. It would be an endless task to enumerate all the editions of the original, or versions of it, in different countries. They still occasionally appear, decorated with all the art of the engraver and typographer. The other works of the author meet with few readers out of Spain. His "Novels" have indeed been considerable favourites, but are superseded by more modern productions. His poems and plays are exclusively accommodated to the taste of his country; nor do they seem there to have ranked among master pieces.—See *the Life of Cervantes*, prefixed to Smollett's translation of Don Quixote.

SABA, an island in the West Indies, belonging to the Dutch. It is about 12 miles in circumference, extended in one delightful valley, which produces necessaries for the inhabitants, and materials for several manufactures; but being destitute of any port, its commerce is very inconsiderable. There is abundance of fish caught on the coasts, particularly bonitos, which are in great request; nor is it in general deficient in the conveniences of life. Along the coast the sea is very shallow; rocks appear for some distance, and vessels of course cannot come close in, unless they be very small. There is only one small bay here, which has a sandy bottom, where the inhabitants now keep their canoes. The access to it is by a road cut out of the rock, by which one man only can mount at a time; and this road is plentifully stored with magazines of stones, by which alone the inhabitants might defend it against any number of assailants. These were the arms with which they repulsed the desperate French buccaneers, who attacked them in 1688. This island was taken by the English in the year 1781, and again in 1801. The inhabitants raise some indigo and cotton, but their chief manufacture is shoes; and such is their economy and industry, that they live comfortable among themselves; 13 miles north-west of St. Eustatius, and 24 south-west of St. Bartholomew. Lat. 17. 40. N. long. 63. 12. W.

SABA, one of the smaller Virgin islands, in the West Indies, situated south of St. Thomas.

SABAGAN ISLANDS, a cluster of small islands in the Red sea. Lat. 14. 55. N. long. 41. 54. E.

SABAISM, *s.* A species of idolatry of great antiquity, which had numerous followers.

Sale, in his preliminary discourse to the Koran, p. 14, &c., has given the following brief account of the tenets and worship of this sect. They believe in the existence of one God, though they also pay an adoration to the stars, or the angels and intelligences which they suppose reside in them, and govern the world under the Supreme Deity. They endeavour to perfect themselves in the four intellectual virtues, and believe the souls of wicked men will be punished for nine thousand ages, but will afterwards be received to mercy. They are obliged to pray three times a-day, before sun-rise, before noon, and before sun-set; and in praying, they turn their faces, as some say, to the north; according to others, to the south, to Mecca, or to the star to which they pay their devotion. They have three fasts in the year; the first lasts thirty days, the second nine days, and the last seven. They offer many sacrifices, of which they eat no part, but wholly burn them. They abstain from beans, garlic, and some other pulse and vegetables. They go on pilgrimage to a place near the city of Harran, or Charran, in Mesopotamia, where great numbers of them dwell; and they have also a great respect for the temple of Mecca, and the pyramids of Egypt; fancying these last to be the sepulchres of Seth, and of Enoch and Sabi, his two sons, whom they consider as the first propagators of their religion; and at these structures they sacrifice a cock and black calf, and offer up incense. This is one of the religions, the practice of which Mahomet tolerated (on paying tribute), and the professors of it are often included in that expression of the Koran, "Those to whom the Scriptures have been given," or, literally, "People of the Book."

SABAKA, a town of Niphon, in Japan; 130 miles south-west of Meaco.

SABANAS, a river of the province and government of Darine, which rises in the mountains of the south coast, and enters the Pacific ocean in the gulf of St. Miguel.

SABANDIJAS, a river of the New Kingdom of Granada, in the province of Carthagena, which runs east, and enters the Rio Grande de la Magdalena.

SABANJA. See SOUBANDIE.

SABAOTH, *s.* A Hebrew term for hosts or multitude.

SABARA, a river of Brazil, which falls into the Galera, one of the head branches of the river Guapore.

SABARACUS, the RIVER OF AVA, a large river of India, on the other side of the Ganges. It is said to have its source in the same mountain with the Ganges, but to the east of it. Its course is directed towards the south-east for about 18 degrees, but then turns towards the south, and discharges itself into a gulf of the same name. Ptolemy gives the name of Sabara *(Bragu)* to its principal mouth.

SABARÆ, a people of India, on this side of the Ganges, who, according to Ptolemy, inhabited the territory at the foot of the mountains towards one of the sources of the *Adamas*, corresponding to the Mahanuddy. This district, situated on the banks of this river, is said by Ptolemy to abound in diamonds.

SABARIA, a town of Pannonia, which had the title of a Roman colony, according to Ammianus Marcellinus. The emperor Valentinian wintered at this place.

SABART, a village of Tripoli, in Africa; 36 miles west of Tripoli.

SABAT, a town of Great Bukharia; 65 miles north-north-east of Samarcand.

SABATEI-SEVI, a famous pretended Messiah of the Jews, in the 17th century, was the son of a broker to the English factory at Smyrna, where he was born in the year 1726. He received as good an education as his native place afforded, and made a considerable progress in various branches of learning. With the scriptures he became intimately conversant, and from the study of the prophecies was either led to believe, or, from the superstitious credulity of the Jewish populace, was encouraged to pretend, that he was selected by God to be that redeemer of Israel who had been expected for so many ages. Whether he was a fanatic, or an impostor, or, as his subsequent history may perhaps lead us to surmise, a compound of both characters, he possessed qualifications which were highly favourable to his pretensions, being of a personable figure, and endowed with persuasive powers of eloquence. He began to preach in the fields about Smyrna, but excited only the derision of the Turks, while many of the lower orders of his nation became his admiring and zealous disciples. To impress their minds with a high idea of his chastity, at twenty-four years of age he married a young Jewess, whom he soon afterwards divorced without having cohabited with her; and he then married a second, with whom he lived in abstinence from the connubial enjoyments. He now began to boast of miraculous powers; and one day, either influenced by the deceptions of an heated imagination, or, confident that he had sufficient authority to impose upon his disciples, he asked them whether they had not seen him carried through the air? upbraiding those of them with blindness who would not confess that they had witnessed such a vision. At length the heads of the synagogue at Smyrna, alarmed at his pretensions, cited him before them, and condemned him to banishment. He then went to Thessalonica, Athens, and other cities in Greece, and, according to some accounts, to Constantinople; from all which places he was expelled by the influence of the Rabbis. Afterwards he went to Jerusalem, where his learning and abilities secured him an honourable reception, and he gained many disciples. At their request he departed on a journey to Egypt, that he might collect the alms of their brethren. On his coming to Gaza,

Gaza, he met with a Jew called Nathan Levi, who was a man of no little weight with his countrymen, as he had married the daughter of a very rich merchant. This man entered thoroughly into Sabatei's designs, announcing him to be the Messiah, and assuming to himself the character of the prophet Elias, who was to be his forerunner. In this character he assembled the Jews at Jerusalem, whom he persuaded to abolish the fast celebrated in the month of June, since sorrow was not suitable to the feast of the Messiah, who was raised up by God in the person of Sabatei-Sevi. In the mean time the latter was preaching repentance to the Jews at Gaza, whence his fame spread far and near, and attracted multitudes of that nation to attend on his ministry, of whom the great majority became proselytes to his cause.

Having returned to Jerusalem, Sabatei was received by the infatuated Jewish populace with cries of joy; and they were so tumultuous in their expressions of their attachment to him, that they aroused the jealousy of the Turks, whom the Rabbis were compelled to appease by presents of large sums of money. Obliged to quit Jerusalem, Sabatei withdrew to Smyrna, where, by his pathetical sermons, he daily increased the number of his adherents. Soon afterwards, in consequence of a plan concerted between him and his prophet Nathan, the latter sent a solemn deputation of four persons in the character of ambassadors to Sabatei, who saluted him in the public synagogue as the Messiah. This embassy completed the infatuation of the populace, and even imposed upon some of the Jewish doctors, on account of the credit in which Nathan was held. It is true, that the more judicious of them endeavoured to oppose the popular frenzy, and condemned Sabatei as an impostor, who ought to be put to death; but the voice of the multitude was in his favour, and proclaimed him king of the Hebrews. In his character of prophet, Nathan went so far as to declare, that within twelve months, Sabatei should appear before the Sultan, take the crown from his head, lead him in chains as a captive, and be acknowledged monarch of the whole universe; and that the holy temple should descend from heaven, a complete and glorious edifice, in which the chosen people were to offer sacrifices till the end of the world. Sabatei now found his authority so predominant with his nation, that he ordered the name of the Ottoman Emperor to be omitted in their public prayers, and his own to be substituted in the room of it; and he assumed the title of King of Kings, while he gave to his brother Joseph-Sevi, that of king of Judah. He also directed letters to be written to the Jews in all parts of Europe and Africa, announcing his pretensions, and calling upon them to unite in supporting the kingdom of their Messiah. Astonishing was the impression which his claims made on the credulous Jews in all parts of the world; and astonishing were the sacrifices, mortifications, and other extravagances committed by them in his cause. Many abandoned all their occupations and employments, flattering themselves that they should not stand in want of any thing under the triumphant government of the hope of Israel. They believed the most improbable stories concerning him. Some invented miracles in his favour, and others swore to the truth of them, while almost all believed them, and were ready to tear in pieces those who had not so much faith as themselves. At length, on the approach of the time when Nathan's prophecy was to be accomplished, Sabatei took shipping for Constantinople, in the year 1666, that he might receive in that city the solemn homage of his principal subjects. However, on the arrival of the vessel at the destined port, the grand vizier, by the Sultan's orders, caused Sabatei to be arrested, and committed to prison, in one of the castles of the Dardanelles. Finding that no orders were issued for putting him to death, the Jews persuaded themselves that the Sultan had not power over his life; and, flocking to the place of his confinement, enriched the governor with the presents which they made for permission to visit their king and lay their wealth at his feet. As their frenzy daily increased, the Sultan Mahomet ordered him to be brought to Adrianople, where his court then was, that he might himself examine the man who had wrought up the enthusiasm of his nation to so high a pitch. No pen can describe the confidence of the Jews on this occasion, in asserting the power of their pretended Messiah, and the wonders which he would perform; but the Sultan soon put his pretensions to a test, which immediately detected their fallacy. For, after demanding a miracle from Sabatei, in proof of his mission, Mahomet put it to this issue, that he should be stripped naked for his archers to shoot at him, promising, in case the arrows did not pierce his body, that he himself would acknowledge him to be the Messiah. This was a very fair proposal; but Sabatei chose rather to confess himself an impostor, and embrace the Mahometan religion, than stand the trial. Afterwards, information having been brought to the Sultan that he assisted secretly at the festivals of the Jews, an order was issued for his imprisonment in the castle of Dulcigno, on the confines of Albania, where he died in 1576, when about 50 years of age. As a striking proof of the extent to which enthusiasts can carry their credulity, it is related, that even his own confession of his being an impostor had no effect upon the minds of great numbers of his deluded followers; and that when they saw him wear the Turkish habit after the change of his religion, they affirmed that it was only his shadow which appeared in that dress, but that his body was taken up into heaven, there to reside till the time appointed for the accomplishment of the wonders of the Messiah's kingdom was come. *Basnage's Hist. of the Jews*, b. vii. ch. xxiii. *Modern Univ. Hist.* vol. x. ch. xxxviii. sect. xxi. *Moreri. Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

SABATO, a river of Naples, in the Principato Ultra, which falls into the larger stream of the Calore, near Benevento.

SABAZIA [Σαβαζια], among the Greeks, nocturnal mysteries in honour of Jupiter Sabazius, into which all that were initiated had a golden serpent put in at their breasts, and taken out at the lower part of their garments.

There were also other feasts and sacrifices distinguished by this appellation, in honour of Mithras, the deity of the Persians, and of Bacchus, who was thus denominated by the Sabians, a people of Thrace.

SABBATARIAN, *s.* A strict observer of the Sabbath.

SABBATARIAN, *adj.* Belonging to the Sabbath.

SABBATARIANISM, *s.* An extraordinary attention to the observance of the Sabbath.

SABBATH, *s.* The seventh day; set apart for the purposes of rest, innocent pleasures, and devotion.

There is no religious institution which has received such universal assent as that of the Sabbath. We find it established in nearly every spot of earth, and in the remotest periods of antiquity. Its beneficial influence, whether viewed in a worldly sense as a respite from that infliction which doomed man to earn his bread by the sweat of his brow, or in the more important relation of a regular memento of our duties towards our Creator, is clearly apparent. It is much to be regretted, however, that some blind though benevolent enthusiasts, should endeavour to render this most grateful institution odious to the common people by force and violence. The strong arm of the law has been made use of to compel a remission from business, which, if not voluntary, must be mischievous. The barber has been mulcted for the very necessary act of shaving men on Sunday (of which crime they may themselves be guilty with impunity), and the butcher has been punished, for furnishing meat on the same day to those who had not money to procure it on Saturday. Hence, the day which every principle of nature renders one of delight and benevolence, becomes, to men so punished, a day irksome and hateful; and, what is far worse, religion is brought into contempt by the folly of her warmest admirers.

I purpose,
And by our holy *sabbath* have I sworn,
To have the due and forfeit of my bond. *Shakspeare*

Intermission of pain or sorrow; time of rest.

Never any *sabbath* of release
Could free his travels and afflictions deep. *Daniel.*

Peaceful

Peaceful sleep out the *sabbath* of the tomb,
And wake to ruptures in a life to come. *Pope.*

SA'BBATHBREAKER, *s.* Violator of the Sabbath.—The usurer is the greatest *sabbathbreaker*, because his plough goeth every Sunday. *Bacon.*

SA'BBATHLESS, *adj.* Without intermission of labour; without interval of rest.—Although men should refrain themselves from injury and evil acts, yet this incessant and *sabbathless* pursuit of a man's fortune leaveth not tribute, which we owe to God, of our time. *Bacon.*

SABBATIANS, SABBATIANI, a sect thus called from Sabbatius, their leader, who lived under Dioclesian.

The Sabbatians are recorded by ecclesiastical historians, as having a great abhorrence of the left-hand; so as to make it a point of religion not to receive any thing with it. This custom, which is now become a piece of manners among us, was then esteemed so singular, that the Sabbatians were thence denominated αριστεροι, or left-hand men.

SABBA'TIC, or SABBA'TICAL, *adj.* [*sabbatius*, Lat. *sabbatique*, Fr.] Resembling the Sabbath; enjoying or bringing intermission of labour.—In accounting the *sabbatical* years, this rule is to be observed, that the same year which endeth one jubilee, beginneth the next. *Gregory.*—The appointment and observance of the *sabbatical* year, and after the seventh *sabbatical* year, a year of jubilee is a circumstance of great moment. *Forbes.*—Belonging to the Sabbath.

SABBATINI (Andrea), known likewise by the name of Andrea da Salerno, is the first artist of the Neapolitan school that deserves notice. Enamoured of the style of Pietro Perugino, who had painted an Assumption of the Virgin in the dome of Naples, he set out for Perugia to become his pupil; but hearing, at an inn on the road, some painters extol the works of Raffaello in the Vatican, he altered his mind, went to Rome, and entered that master's school. His stay there was short; for the death of his father obliged him to return home, against his will, in 1513. He returned, however, a new man. It is said that he painted with Raffaello at the Pace, and in the Vatican, and that he copied his pictures well: he certainly emulated his manner with success. Compared with his fellow-scholars, if he falls short of Giulio Romano, he soars above Raffaello del Colle, and the rest of that sphere. He had a correctness and selection of attitude and features, depth of shade, perhaps too much sharpness in the marking of the muscles, a broad style in the folding of his draperies, and a colour which even now maintains its freshness. Of his numerous works at Naples, mentioned in the catalogue of his pictures, the altar-pieces at S. Maria dell Grazzei deserve perhaps preference; for his frescoes there and elsewhere, extolled by the writers as miracles of art, are now, for the greater part, destroyed. He painted likewise at Salerno, Gaeta, and other places of the kingdom, for churches and private collections, where his Madonnas often rival those of Raffaello. He died about 1545, aged 65. *Fuseli's Pilkington.*

SABBATINI (Lorenzo), called Lorenzin di Bologna, was one of the most genteel and most delicate painters of his age. He has often been mistaken for a scholar of Raffaello, from the resemblance of his Holy Families in style of design and colour to those of that master, though the colour be always weaker. He likewise painted Madonnas and angels in cabinet pictures, which resemble those of Parmigiano. Nor are his altar-pieces different; the most celebrated is that of St. Michele, at St. Giacomo, engraved by Agostino Caracci, and recommended to his school as a model of graceful elegance. He excelled in fresco: correct in design, copious in invention, equal to every subject, and yet, what surprises, rapid. Such were the talents that procured him not only employment in many patrician families of his own province, but a call to Rome, under the pontificate of Gregorio XIII., whom, according to Baglioni, he pleased much in his naked figures, a branch he had not much cultivated in Bologna. The stories of St. Paolo in the Capella Paolina, Faith triumphant over Infidelity in the Sala Regia, and various other subjects in the gallery and loggia of the Vatican, are the works of Sabbatini, always done in competition with the best masters, and always with applause: hence, among the great concourse of masters, who at that time thronged for precedence in Rome, he was selected to superintend the different departments of the Vatican, in which office he died in the vigour of life, 1577. *Fuseli's Pilkington.*

SABBATINI, Galleazzo, an eminent Italian composer, born at Pesaro, who published, in 1644, "Regole facile e breve per Suonare sopra il Basso continuo nell' Organo." This seems to have been the second tract, after Viadana's, that appeared on the subject of thorough-base. The author is much praised for his science by Kircher in his "Musurgia," and by Walther in his Musical Dictionary. But the book is very inadequate to the present wants of musical students, treating of nothing but common chords, which are invariably given to every sound of the scale.

SA'BBATISM, *s.* [from *sabbatum*, Lat.] "Observance of the sabbath superstitiously rigid." *Johnson.*—Periodical rest.—This is that *sabbatism*, or rest, that the author to the Hebrews exhorts them to strive to enter into, through faith and obedience. *More.*

SABBEA, a town of Yemen, in Arabia, situated in the mountainous district of Khaulan; 8 miles north-east of Abu Arish.

SABBER, a mountain of Yemen, in Arabia, near Taas.

SABBIA, a town of Arabia, in the mountainous district of Yemen.

SABDARIFFA, the South American name of a species of HIBISCUS (see that article), retained by Linnæus as a specific appellation.

SABEIA, a small island in the Red Sea. Lat 18. 22. N.

SABELLA, a genus of the class vermes, order testacea. The generic character is as follows: the animal is a nereis, with a ringent mouth, and two thick tentacles behind the head; the shell is tubular, composed of particles of sand, broken shells, and vegetable substances, united to a membrane by a glutinous cement. There are twenty-five species:

1. Sabella scruposa. The shell of this species is solitary, loose, simple, curved, with lentiform glossy granulations. It is found in divers parts of India, and in the American islands. The shell is subulate, obtuse at the tip, as thick as a swan's quill, and composed of equal white grains of sand.

2. Sabella scabra. The shell of this also is solitary, fixed by the base, simple, curved, with radiate-rough granulations. It is found in America.

3. Sabella alveolata. This is composed of numerous parallel tubes communicating by an aperture, forming, in the mass, an appearance of honey-comb. It is found on the coasts of our own country, and of other parts of Europe, covering rocks for a considerable space, and easily breaking under the feet. The shell is composed chiefly of sand, and very fine fragments of shells, and is from two to three inches long.

4. Sabella chrysodon. The shell of this species is solitary, subcylindrical, papyraceous, chiefly composed of fragments of shells. It is described by Pennant as the Sabella rudis. It inhabits the European and Indian seas; is from two to six inches long, and about as thick as a quill. The shell is pointed, dirty yellow, flexile while it is wet.

5. Sabella belgica. Shell straight, conic, composed of minute particles of sand. This is the sabella tubiformis of Pennant: it is from two to three inches long, and is found on many European coasts.

6. Sabella rectangula. The shell of this is brown, with alternate white and black rings, straight, with a rectangular gibbous extremity. It is full nine inches long, not half an inch in diameter.

7. Sabella Capensis. Shell cylindrical, conic, open at both ends, membranaceous, rough with interrupted transverse striæ. It inhabits the promontory of the Cape of Good Hope.

8. Sabella Nigra. The shell of this is cylindrical, black, smoothish on the outside, composed of very minute particles of

of sand. It is found in the rivulets of Thuringia, and is half an inch long.

9. Sabella stagnalis. Shell straight, tapering, open at both ends, smooth, with a marginal aperture, composed of the most minute particles of sand. It is found in the rivers of Thuringia, sometimes black and solitary, sometimes cinereous, adhering in a mass to the Ranunculus aquatilis.

10. Sabella conica. Shell narrow, conic, smooth, straight, cinereous, with a blackish open tip, composed of most minute particles of sand. It inhabits near Jena; is not half an inch long; the aperture is not margined.

11. Sabella uncinata. Shell smooth, round, tapering, with an open hooked tip. It inhabits the rivers of Thuringia; is not more than a quarter of an inch long. The shell is solitary, composed of very fine sand, cinereous, or black.

12. Sabella sabulosa. Shell cylindrical, closed at the tip, subclavate, perforated, composed of larger grains of sand. It is found in Thuringia and Belgium. It is about an inch long; the shell is straight, or a little inflected in the middle, cinereous or black, or cinereous above and black beneath.

13. Sabella vegetabilis. Shell depressed, composed of fragments of twigs, stems, and bark, and broken pieces of the Tellina cornea. This is found in the waters of Thuringia, and is an inch long.

14. Sabella ammoniata. Shell cylindrical; within it is smooth, composed of the fragments of the cornu ammonis.

15. Sabella helicina. Shell roundish, within smooth, composed of fragments of the Helix pusilla. It inhabits the stagnant waters of Thuringia, and is about an inch long.

16. Sabella dimidiata. One part of the shell is composed of sand and gravel, the other is thicker, clavate, and composed of fragments of shells. It inhabits the waters of Thuringia.

17. Sabella fixa. The shell of this species is composed of small stones, tapering towards the tip. It inhabits Thuringia, affixed to stones in the water, is an inch long, gregarious, open at the side, by which it is fixed.

18. Sabella clavata. Shell composed of small stones, the open end clavate, and consisting of larger stones. This is a native of Thuringia.

19. Sabella corticalis. The shell of this is composed of pieces of bark, towards the end of broken stems. It is found in great varieties in the rivers of Thuringia.

20. Sabella arundinacea. Shell subconic, open at both ends, composed of fragments of the bark of reeds placed on each other. It inhabits Thuringia, and is about an inch long.

21. Sabella aculeata. Shell roundish, composed of small twigs and the culms of grasses, the points of which project a little. This is found in Thuringia. The shell is sometimes conic, sometimes cylindrical.

22. Sabella marsupialis. The shell of this species is black, the open end is cylindrical and narrower, the other part turgid and ovate. It is more than two inches long, and composed of black sand; within it is smooth.

23. Sabella Norwegica. Shell roundish, open at both ends, brittle, membranaceous, composed of very minute grains of sand. It inhabits Norway, is four inches long, and about the thickness of a crow's quill.

24. Sabella lumbricalis. Shell coarse, creeping, fragile, open at both ends. The inhabitant has no tentacula at the mouth, but has a prickly jointed body. It inhabits the Greenland seas, fixed to stones. The shell is of a greyish colour, composed of particles of sand connected to a convex membrane; within it is lubricous, polished. The inhabitant is rufous, annulate with white, beneath paler: it has twenty-one joints, each of which is armed with two spines; and two other terminal ones, which are unarmed.

25. Sabella Indica. The shell of this is cylindrical, composed of capillary, sub-cylindrical, agglutinated crystals of quartz. It inhabits the Indian ocean.

SABELLIANS, a sect in the East, who reduced the three persons in the Trinity to three states or relations; or rather reduced the whole Trinity to the one person of the Father; making the Word and the Holy Spirit to be emanations, or functions of it.

Sabellius, their chief, first broached this doctrine, in the third century, about the year 255, in a city of Libya, called Ptolemais. He taught, according to Epiphanius, that the same being is Father, Son, and Holy Ghost; so that there are only three denominations in one hypostasis or subsistence.

SABELLICUS, an Italian historian and philologist, whose proper name was Marcantonio Coccio, was born about the year 1436, at Vicovaro, in the Campagna of Rome. He studied under different masters at Rome, and finally under Pomponio Leto, who admitted him into his academy, in which he obtained the name of Sabellicus, as being a native of the ancient country of the Sabines. In 1475, he accepted an invitation to the professorship of eloquence at Udine. He there employed himself in researches into the antiquities of the province of Friuli, the fruits of which were given to the public in a work, "De Vetustate Aquileia, lib. vi." About the year 1484, he removed to Venice, where he taught the belles lettres, till he was forced away from that city by the plague. He now went to Verona, where, in the space of fifteen months, he wrote, in the Latin language, thirty-two books of the history of Venice, which he printed on his return to that capital, in 1487. This work was held in high estimation by the republic, and the author was assigned a pension. In gratitude to the state, he wrote a description of the city,—a dialogue concerning its magistrates,—and two poems in praise of the republic. He was afterwards made librarian of St. Mark: this situation afforded him much leisure time, which he employed in pursuing his studies with the greatest assiduity, as appeared by the number of works which he published. Of these was a history of the world from the creation to the year 1503, entitled "Rhapsodiæ Historiarum Enneades," in sixty-three books. Sabellicus founded an academy at Venice, and he appears to have enjoyed a very high reputation among the learned of his time. He died, in consequence of some irregularities in his moral conduct, in 1506. As a philologist, he gave notes upon Pliny, Livy, Valerius, Maximus, and Catullus, which have been preserved in Gruter's "Thesaurus."

SABEN. See SEBEN.

SABERCAN, a village of Irak, Arabia; 50 miles east of Bagdad.

SABI, or XAVIER, a town of Central Africa, in the kingdom of Whidah, and residence of the sovereign before the subjection of the country to the king of Dahomey. When that prince, named Guadjo Trudo, conquered it in 1727, he caused the forts to be dismantled, and the guns removed to his palaces at Ardra, Calmina, and Abomey. Nothing remains of the fortifications except the moat which surrounded the town. The site of the palace of the Whidah kings may still be traced, and is held sacred by that unfortunate family, who live in exile near Popo. Sabi, however, is still considerable, being situated in a country most luxuriantly fertile, and surrounded with plantations of corn, yams, &c. It stands on the river Euphrates, about a mile from the sea.

SABIA, a country of Eastern Africa, situated to the south of Sofala, traversed by a river of the same name, which falls into the Indian ocean. Slaves, ivory, and gold-dust, may be procured here, as in other parts of the same coast. The Portugese, however, have not formed an establishment at the mouth of the river, but carry on their trade from Sofala on the north, and Inhambane on the South. The country is therefore little known to, or frequented by, Europeans.

SABIANGO, a large river of Quito, in the province of Loxa, which runs west, and enters the Macara on the west bank, in Lat. 0. 25. S.

SABIER, a small seaport on the Slave coast of Africa; 18 miles south-west of Assom.

SABINA. See JUNIPERUS.

SABINA, a port of the gulf of California, in the province and government of Sonora.

SABINAS, a river of Mexico, which runs south-east, to enter the Rio Norte.

SA'BINE, *s.* [*sabine*, Fr. *sabina*, Lat.] A plant.—*Sabine* or savin will make fine hedges, and may be brought into any form by clipping. *Mortimer.* See JUNIPERUS SABINE

SABINE, a river of North Ameriea, which takes its rise in the extensive plains to the north-west of Natchitoches, in about the 33d degree of north lat., and flows into the gulf of Mexico, in long. 93. 57. W. lat. 29. 50. N. According to the claim of the Americans, it forms the boundary between their territories and the Spanish dominions; but the Spaniards claim an extension of territory to the river Mermentau or Mexicana. It is about a quarter of a mile wide at its discharge into the gulf, and maintains that breadth six miles, when it dilates into a wide shallow lake, called Sabine Lake, 30 miles in length, by eight in breadth; its depth not exceeding at a medium 3 feet. Above the lake the Sabine is contracted to a stream of about 200 yards wide, with an excessively windiug channel. Ten miles above the lake deep woods inclose both banks of the river; but in other parts of its banks the land is in general good, and fit for agriculture. It is navigable 280 miles.

SABINES, Sabini, a people who were for a long time considerable in Italy. Authors have suggested a variety of etymologies in accounting for their name. Pliny and Festus have ascribed it to their worship of the gods, απο τον σεβισται. But in this appellation there is nothing that discriminates them from other neighbouring nations. If Portius Cato and Dionysius Halicarnassensis are to be credited, they took their name from Sabinus, the son of Sancus, or Sabus, whom they worshipped under the name of Dius Fidius. According to Varro, Sancus, in the language of the Sabines, was equivalent to Hercules in Greek. Sancus was the principal deity of the Sabines, and probably one of their deified heroes, and of Umbrian or Etruscan extraction. M. Gebelin, ascribing their origin to the ancient nation of Umbria, where the Celtic language prevailed, suggests that, in this language, *sab* signifies high or elevated, and that they were thus denominated as the inhabitants of high places, as the Orobii are called men of the mountains. According to some ancient writers, the Sabines, as some have supposed, were a colony of Lacedæmonians; and others conjecture, that they were the offspring of the Ausones But it is most probable that they originated from Umbria. From them, however, were descended the Picentes, Frontani, Marrucini, Peligni, Vestini, Marsi, Æqui, Hernici, and the Samnites; and from the Samnites, the Hirpini, Lucani, Brutii, and Campani.

The country of the Sabines lay between the Nar and the Anio, now the Teverone; the former separating it from Umbria, and the latter from Latium. Cures, whence the Romans are said to have been called Quirites, was, at first, the metropolis of the Sabini, and in succeeding ages Reate, now Rieti. The mines of Cures are still to be seen at a place called Vicovio di Sabini. The other cities in this country worthy of notice, were Nursia, Eretum, Nomentum, Cutiliæ, and Amiternum; now known by the names of Norcia, Monte, Rolondo, and Lamenturio. The cities of Cutiliæ and Amiternum, have long since been destroyed; but the ruins of the former still remain at Civita Ducale, and those of the latter near the city of Aquila. The Sabines extended themselves from the heights of the Apennines, by their colonies, to the southern parts of Italy, and established themselves on the left of the Anio, where, according to Livy, they possessed a town called Collatia. Their original country was bounded on the north by Umbria and Picenum; on the south by Latium; on the west by part of Umbria and Etruria; and on the east by the territories of the Picentes, Vestini, and Marsi. Its length was computed to be 1000 stadia, or 125 miles, according to Strabo. The Picentes, Samnites, Lucanians, and Brutians, deduced their origin from the Sabines. The Picentes, in particular, seem to have been placed at first in a district between the Nar and the Anio. As for the Samnites, they were, in the earliest times, called Saunites, or Sabinites, derived evidently from Sabines. That the Lucanians and Brutians were originally Sabine colonies, we learn from Strabo, lib. v.

The government, laws, language, arts, manners, and religion of the Sabines, must have been generally almost the same with those of the Umbrians and Etruscans, from one or both of which nations they were undoubtedly descended. With respect to religion, however, some peculiarities prevailed among the Sabines; one of which was the high honour and adoration paid to Sancus, whom the Sabines considered as the chief deity of their country. Jupiter and Juno Curis were likewise distinguished deities amongst them. So was also Vacuna, supposed by some to be the same with Diana, by others with Ceres, by others with Venus; but, according to Varro, she was the goddess of wisdom. The worship of these divinities passed from the Sabines to the Romans; and this is no matter of surprise, since the coalition of the Roman and Sabine nations, even in the time of Romulus, must, of course, have introduced into Rome the Sabine religion.

Among the principal cities of the Sabines, may be ranked the following; viz. Fidenæ, situated on the Tiber, about 40 stadia from Rome; Crustumerium, north of Fidenæ; Ficulea, at a small distance from the two former towns; Corniculum, north of Ficulea; Collatia, on the borders of Latium, and the country of the Sabines, between the Prænestine way and the left bank of the Anio, about six miles from Rome; Nomentum one of the most considerable Sabine cities, 10 miles from Rome; Eretum, on the Tiber, about 10 miles from Rome; Regillum, near the Tiber; Cures, or Curis, anciently the capital of the Sabines; Casperia, now Aspra; Fanum Vacunæ, now Vacuna or Vacune; Reate, 15 miles from the last-mentioned town, built by the Aborigines, or Umbrians, the progenitors of the Sabines; Palatium, or Palantum, about 25 stadia west of Reate; Trebula, upon an eminence, about 60 stadia from Reate; Vescola; Suna; Mesula; Orvinium; Corsula; all of which were towns built by the Aborigines: Issa, an island and town, environed by a lake, and Maruviun, situated upon that lake; Vatia; Tiora; Lista; Cutilia, or Cotyle, about 70 stadia from Reate, situated on a mountain, and near a lake of the same name; Amiternum, a famous city of the Sabines, in the time of the Aborigines; Testrina; Nursia, or Norica; Tarinum;—also, Antemnæ, Cænina, Cameria, Medullia, and Ameriola, placed by Cluverius among the Sabine towns, but really belonging to the Latins. We shall here add, that the country of the Sabines corresponded to that tract of country, which, at present, forms a part of the duchy of Spoleto, and the farther Abruzzo.

The chief mountains of the Sabine territory were the Mons Tetricus, now Monte di S. Giovanni; Mons Severus, now Monte Negro; Mons Piscellus, a part of the Apennines, out of which issue the Nar; the Montes Gurgures, near Reate; the Mons Canterius; Mons Matela, now Monte Genaro; Mons Sacer, near the Anio, and not far from Rome; and the Mons Coritus, placed by some in Etruria. The principal rivers of this tract are the Nar or Nera; the Velinus, or Velino; the Telonius, now the Turano; the Himella, now the L'Aja; the Farfarus, now the Farfa; the Allia, now the Rio di Mosso; the Turia; the Anio; the Veresis; the Digentia, now the Rio del Sole; and the Avens; all which rivers discharged themselves into the Tiber. The lakes of this country are Lacus Cutiliensis, now Il Pozzo Retignano, and Lacus Velinus, now Lago die Pie di Luco.

The history of the Sabines, previous to the foundation of Rome, is so blended with fables, that it is undeserving the attention of the judicious reader. It is incorporated with that of the latter nation. We may form some judgment of the political importance of the Sabines, if we advert to the character given of them by Cicero, at the close of the Roman republic, who calls them "robur reipublicæ," the strength or stay of the republic. Anc. Un. Hist. vol. ix. x.

SABINE PRAIRIE, a track of meadow ground in Louisiana, which occupies all the space between the Sabine, and the Calcasiu rivers. Near the shore this province is an extensive marsh; but on receding from the gulf, the surface gradually rises, and before reaching the woods much high land is found. The soil is, like that of the adjacent woods, almost all sterile.

SABINEZ, a small village of Mexico, in America, situated on the Rio del Norte.

SABINO, a province of the Popedom, including a part of the territory of the ancient Sabines, and bounded by the duchy of Spoleto, and Neapolitan frontier, the Tiber, and the Teverone. The chief productions are oil and wine. The capital is Magliano.

SABIO, a small town of Austrian Italy, in the Bresciano. It stands on the Chiesa, and gives name to a beautiful valley, surrounded with mountains, and abounding in rich pasturage; 13 miles north-east of Brescia.

SABIONCELLO, or SABIONEIRA, a peninsula of Austrian Dalmatia, which has the islands of Curzolo and Meleda on the south, and on the north the island of Lesina, from which it is separated by the part of the gulf of Venice called the canal of Sabioncello, or the Stagno; 45 miles north-west of Ragusa. Lat. 43. 15. N. long. 17. 40. E.

SABIONETTA, a town of Austrian Italy, in the Mantuan, with a castle and upwards of 6000 inhabitants. It was for a time the capital of a principality of the same name, given in 1806, by an imperial decree of Buonaparte, to his sister Paulina, and her husband, the Prince Borghese, Duke of Guastalla, who retained it till the French were driven out of Italy in 1814; 19 miles south-south-west of Mantua. Lat. 44. 59. 47. N. long. 10. 30. 5. E.

SABLANCEAUX, a fortress in the north-west of France, on the isle of Rhe, department of the Lower Charente; 15 miles south-by-west of Saintes.

SA'BLE, *s.* [*zibella*, Lat.] Fur.—*Sable* is worn of great personages, and brought out of Russia, being the fur of a little beast of that name, esteemed for the perfectness of the colour of the hairs, which are very black. Hence *sable*, in heraldry, signifies the black colour in gentlemen's arms. *Peacham.*

SA'BLE, *adj.* [Fr.] Black.

By this the drooping daylight gan to fade,
And yield his room to sad succeeding night,
Who with her *sable* mantle gan to shade
The face of earth, and ways of living wight. *Spenser.*

With him inthron'd
Sat *sable* vested night, eldest of things,
The consort of his reign. *Milton.*

SABLE, a small town in the north-west of France, in the department of the Sarthe, situated at the junction of the rivers Sarthe and Erve. It has some manufactures of linen, flannel, and Serge; also a trade in gloves, and in the neighbourhood are quarries of marble. The town was formerly strongly fortified, and has still a fine castle. Population 3100; 40 miles south-west of Le Mans, and 27 south-east of Laval. Lat. 47. 51. N. long. 0. 15. W.

SABLE, a river of the United States, in New York, which rises in Essex county, and runs north-east into Lake Champlain, forming for 20 miles the boundary between Clinton and Essex counties. Length 35 miles. Adgate's Falls on this river, in Chesterfield, are a great curiosity. The whole descent is 80 feet, and the channel has walls on each side, one mile in length, and 100 feet high, and as regular as any work of art. There is a bridge across this channel, 196 feet above the water.

SABLE, an island in the North Atlantic ocean. Here Monsieur de Lery intended to have settled a French colony, in the year 1598; but Father Charlevoix says, that there never was a place more unfit for such an undertaking, it being small, and without any port, or product, except briars. It is very narrow, and has the shape of a bow. In the middle of it is a lake, 15 miles in compass, and the island itself not more than 30. It has a sand-bank at each end, one of which runs north-east and south-west. It has lofty sand hills, which may be seen in clear weather 24 miles off; 90 miles south-east of Cape Breton. Lat. 44. 15. N. long. 59. 50. W.

SABLE, a river of Canada, which runs into St. John's lake. Lat. 49. 38. N. long. 72. 34. W.

SABLE, a river of America, which runs into Lake Erie. Lat. 42. 17. N. long. 83. W.

SABLE, CAPE, the south-westernmost point of the province of Nova Scotia. Lat. 43. 24. N. long. 65. 39. W. Variation of the needle, in 1787, 12. 15. W.

SABLE MOUNTAIN, a mountain of the United States, in Essex county, New York, between Jay, Chesterfield, Lewis, and Willsborough.

SABLE POINT, on the west side of the island of Newfoundland. Lat. 50. 24. N. long. 57. 35. W.

SABLES, a river of North America, which runs into Lake Huron, near the St. Clair river.

SABLES D'OLONNE, LES, a seaport in the west of France, situated on a peninsula, in the department of La Vendée. It is well built, has 5200 inhabitants, and a harbour capable of admitting vessels of considerable size. The chief traffic of the town is in corn, cattle, and bay salt. It has an extensive fishery of pilchards, and sends a few ships annually to the cod fishery at Newfoundland; 45 miles south of Nantes. Lat. 46. 30. N. long. 1. 42. W.

SA'BLIERE, *s.* [Fr.] A sandpit. *Bailey.*—[In carpentry.] A piece of timber as long, but not so thick, as a beam. *Bailey.*

SABOE. See SEBOO.

SABOE, a town on the west coast of the island of Gilolo. Lat. 1. 6. N. long. 127. 21. E.

SABOLCS, a palatinate in the east of Hungary, bounded on the west and north by the great river Theyss. It has a superficial extent of 2120 square miles, with 135,000 inhabitants, exclusive of a district belonging to the Hey dukes. The palatinate of Sabolcs consists entirely of level ground; part of it is covered with sand, and another part with small lakes, of so little depth as to dry up in summer, when soda is found in the bottom, in the form of an efflorescence. The Theyss often overflows its banks, and causes great ravages; yet this district produces large quantities of corn, tobacco, fruit, and melons. The chief town is Nagy Kallo, and the inhabitants of the palatinate are almost all Calvinists.

SABON, an island at the south entrance of the Straits of Malacca, of a triangular form, about 24 miles in circumference, separated from the island of Sumatra by a navigable channel, called the Straits of Sebon. Lat. 0. 42. N. long. 103. 21. E.

SABOR, a river in the north-west of Spain, which has its source in the province of Galicia, and falls into the Douro at Torre de Moncorvo, in Portugal.

SABOT, *s.* [Fr., *zapato*, Span. a shoe.] A sort of wooden shoe.—They wear large clumsy shoes, almost as bad as the French *sabot*. *Swinburne's Trav. through Spain.*

SABOU, or SAIVU, probably the same as *Savo*, an island in the Eastern seas, near Timor, 10 leagues in length, high towards the south. Most part is covered with forests, among which are many habitations interspersed; and the numerous palm and cocoa trees come down to the water's edge.

SABRACÆ, a people of India, on this side of the Ganges. Quintus Curtius represents them as a very powerful republican nation; and he reports, that they armed 60,000 foot and 6000 horse, to oppose the progress of Alexander the Great; but that as soon as they perceived the Macedonians, they took them for an army of gods, and immediately submitted.

SABRAO, an island in the Eastern seas, about 100 miles in circumference, separated from the east coast of the island of Flores by a narrow channel, called the strait of Flores. Lat. 8. 8. S. long. 123. 20. E.

SABRE, *s.* [From the Germ. *sabel*; Sclavonic, *sabla.*] A curved sword. It is much used in the East.

To SABRE, *v. a.* To cut with a sword.

SABRE-WOUNDS. See SURGERY.

SABRES, a small town in the south-west of France, in the department of the Landes. Population 1800; 18 miles north-north-east of Tartas.

SABRIDGEWORTH, a parish of England, formerly a market town, in Hertfordshire; 12 miles east-by-north of Hertford. Population 1827.

SABUGAL, a small town in the east of Portugal, near the Spanish frontier, in the province of Beira; 7 miles west-north-west of Alfayates. Population 1400.

SABULAGH,

SABULAGH, a town and district of Aderbijan, in Persia, situated upon the lake of Urumea; 30 miles from Maraga.

SABULO'SITY, *s.* Grittiness; sandiness.

SA'BULOUS, *adj.* [*sabulum*, Lat.] Gritty; sandy.

SAC, *s.* [ſac, Saxon.] One of the ancient privileges of the lord of a manor. See Soc.

SAC, a river of Southern Africa, which rises in the settlement of the Cape of Good Hope, and falls into the Orange river, about 90 miles from its mouth.

SAC, Grande Riviere du Cul de, a river of St. Domingo, which runs west into the sea; about two leagues north of Port au Prince.

SACÆ, a people who inhabited a territory south of Babylon, between the Tigris and the Euphrates, or the country situated along the confines of these two rivers. (See the third book of the Cyropædia of Xenophon). These people were powerful enemies of the king of Assyria. Cyrus made an alliance with them in his enterprise against the Assyrians, and they furnished him with a body of 10,000 infantry and 2000 cavalry; and having become master of the garrisons by which the Assyrians defended their frontier, he transferred them to his new allies, who placed in them garrisons composed of Sacæ, Cadusians, and Hyrcanians, all of whom had an equal interest in preserving them, for the defence of their own territories. The Sacæ were originally a nation of Scythians, established on the other side of the river Jaxartes, in the Greater Scythia; this appears from the testimony of all the ancient geographers; and the Persians attributed the general name of Sacæ to the people, called, by the Greeks, Scythians. These Sacæ occupied the greatest part of Sogdiana, the country that lay between the Oxus and the Jaxartes. In process of time they passed the Oxus, and established themselves in Margiana, and they were denominated Amyrgian Scythians, because they inhabited the territory along the river Margus or Morgus, according to Herodotus. Strabo (l. xvi.) says, that the Paræetaci had preserved the name of Sacæ in the Elymaide territory, and that they had given it to a canton of Susiana, named Sagapena. From the time of Strabo, they celebrated at Zela, a town of Pontus, a feast under the name of Sacæa, in commemoration of the advantage which the people of the country had obtained over the Sacæ.

SACÆA, [Σακαια, Gr.] in Antiquity, a feast which the ancient Babylonians, and other Orientals, held annually in honour of the deity Anaitis.

The Sacæa were in the East what the Saturnalia were at Rome, viz. feasts for the slaves. One of their ceremonials was to choose a prisoner condemned to death, and allow him all the pleasures and gratifications he would wish, before he was carried to execution.

SACALA, a district of Abyssinia, famous for its excellent honey.

SACANDAGUA, a river of the United States, in New York, which runs east into the Hudson, in Hadley. It has a course of 80 miles.

SACARAPPA, a post village of the United States in Cumberland county, Maine.

SACAROIDE, in Mineralogy, a term introduced from the French to denote the fine granular texture of some lime-stone resembling that of loaf-sugar.

SACASINA, a country on the confines of Armenia and Albania, extending as far as the river Cyrus. *Strabo.*

SACATECOLUCA, Santiago Lucia de, a settlement of the kingdom of Guatimala, on the coast of the Pacific ocean, containing above 3000 Indians.

SACATEPEC, a settlement of Guatimala; 25 miles north-east of Guatimala.—It is also the name of several other inconsiderable settlements of Spanish America.

SACCA'DE, *s.* [Fr.] A violent check the rider gives his horse, by jerking back the reins suddenly: a brutal correction used to make the horse rise his head.

SACCAI, a large and populous seaport of Niphon, in Japan; 70 miles south-west of Meaco.

SACCANI, one of the four provinces into which the Peloponnessus, or Morea, is divided by the Turks. It is bounded by the province called Zakounia (the ancient province Laconia) by the isthmus of Corinth, and the gulfs of Lepanto, Egina, and Napoli. It comprehends the ancient territories of Corinth, Sicyon, and Argos, forming the north-east part of the Morea. See Greece and Morea.

SACCAR EL PERLII, a village of Algezira, in Asiatic Turkey, on the Euphrates; 10 miles below El Dier.

SACCHARI'FEROUS, *adj.* [*saccharum*, and *fero*, Lat.] became *sacchariferous* trees. *Hist. R. Soc.*

SA'CCHARINE, *adj.* [*succharin*, Fr. Cotgrave; *saccharum*, Lat.] Having the qualities of sugar.

SACCHARUM [of Pliny. In Greek σακχαρ, η σακχαρι, or σακχαρον; from the Arabic *sacchar*, or *zuchar*. Vossius: or rather from the Indian *Skukur*], in Botany, a genus of the class triandria, order digynia, natural order of gramina, gramineæ or grasses.—Generic Character. Calyx: glume two-valved, one-flowered: valves oblong-lanceolate, acuminate, erect, concave, equal, awnless, surrounded with a long lanugo at the base. Corolla: two-valved, shorter, sharpish, very tender. Nectary two-leaved, very small. Stamina: filaments three, capillary, the length of the corolla. Anthers somewhat oblong. Pistil: germ oblong. Styles two, feathered. Stigmas plumose. Pericarp none. Corolla invests the seed. Seed single, oblong. In saccharum, the wool is without the calyx, in arundo it is within it.—*Essential Character.* Calyx two-valved, involucred with a long lanugo. Corolla two-valved.

1. Saccharum Teneriffæ, or Teneriffe sugar-cane.—Leaves awl-shaped, flat, flowers panicled awnless, hairy, involucre none, calyx very villose. This grass is a foot high and more. The glumes of this are ovate, and not subulate as in the next species.—Native of the Island of Teneriffe.

2. Saccharum spontaneum, or wild sugar-cane.—Leaves convolute; panicle effused, spikes capillary, simple, flowers remote, involucred, germinate, one of them peduncled. Culm twelve feet high, but not arborescent, the thickness of a goose quill, even, covered by the sheaths of the leaves, hollow. —Native of Malabar, in watery places.

3. Saccharum Japonicum, or Japan sugar-cane.—Culm frutescent, round, smooth, simple, a fathom in height. Leaves linear-ensiform, gradually drawing to a point at the end, serrate, smooth, striated; the midrib thick, keeled, entire. Flowers panicled: panicle patulous, racemes capillary, flexuose, smooth, a span in length. Pedicels in pairs alternately, recurved, one-flowered: glumes equal acute.—Native of Japan; flowering in July.

4. Saccharum officinarum, or common sugar-cane.—Flowers panicled, leaves flat. The root of the sugar-cane is jointed, like that of other sorts of cane or reed. From this arise four, five, or more shoots, proportionable to the age or strength of the root, eight or ten feet high, according to the goodness of the ground. In some moist rich soils canes have been measured near twenty feet long; but these are not near so good as those of middling growth; abounding in juice, but having little of the essential salt. The canes are jointed, and these joints are more or less distant, in proportion to the soil. A leaf is placed at each joint, and the base of it embraces the stalk to the next joint above its insertion, before it expands; from hence to the point it is three or four feet in length, according to the vigour of the plant; there is a deep whitish furrow or hollowed midrib, which is broad and prominent, on the under side; the edges are thin and armed with small sharp teeth, which are scarcely to be discerned by the naked eye, but will cut the skin of a tender hand, if it be drawn along it. The flowers are produced in panicles at the top of the stalks; they are from two to three feet long, and are composed of many spikes nine or ten inches in length, which are again subdivided into smaller spikes; these have long down inclosing the flowers, so as to hide them from sight. The seed is oblong-pointed, and ripens in the valves of the flower.—Native both of the East and West Indies, China, Cochinchina, Africa, and the islands of the South Sea.

It has been asserted, that the sugar-cane is not indigenous of America; but that it migrated through the Europeans, from

from Sicily and Spain, to Madeira, and the Canary islands; and afterwards to the West Indian islands, and to Mexico, Peru, and Brazil. On the discovery of the western hemisphere, however, the sugar-cane was found on the continent, and in some of the islands; but the art of making sugar, it is said, never was practised by the native inhabitants of the islands of South America. Of this there may be some doubt with respect to Mexico.

Thus far is certain, that before the discovery of the West Indies, in 1492, by the Spaniards; before the discovery of the East Indies by the Portugueze, in 1497; and before the discovery of the Brazils by the same nation, in 1500; abundance of sugar was made in the islands of Sicily, Crete, Rhodes, and Cyprus. The sugar-cane is supposed to have been brought to these islands originally from India, by the Saracens; and thence transplanted into some parts of Italy; and to Spain, from Africa, by the Moors. In Spain, the sugar-cane was first planted in Valencia, and afterwards in Granada and Murcia. Sugar was formerly produced in great quantity in these southern provinces, and some is still made in the two latter.

From Valencia, the cultivation and manufacture of sugar were carried by the Spaniards to the Canary islands, in the 15th century; but prior to this period, the Portugueze, in 1420, carried the cane, and the manufacture from Sicily to Madeira. Hence the culture of the sugar-cane, and the art of making sugar, were extended to the West Indian islands and the Brazils.

But the sugar-cane itself was found growing near the mouth of the Missisippi, when Europeans first went to that part of America. Father Hennepin, who was there in 1680, says that the banks of that river were full of canes, from thirty leagues below Maroa down to the sea.

5. Saccharum polystachyon, or many-spiked sugar-cane. —Flowers panicled, spikes filiform, very long fastigiate, florets rather remote. Height from three to four feet. Culm round, jointed, smooth. Leaves whidish, acute, smooth: sheaths smooth, except at the neck, which is hairy.—Native of the Island of St. Christopher.

6. Saccharum arundinaceum, or reedy sugar-cane.—Panicles clustered, with the peduncles divided, florets two together, one sessile, the other pedicelled, corollas three-valved polygamous. Culm, as high as ten feet, thick, leafy. Leaves wide, in whorls, approximating to the stem.—Native of the East Indies.

7. Saccharum Benghalense, or Bengal sugar-cane.—Panicles clustered, with the peduncles divided, florets two together, one sessile, the other pedicelled, corollas two-valved, hermaphrodite.—Native of Bengal.

8. Saccharum repens, or creeping sugar-cane.—Paniele patulous, florets two together, sessile, awned, leaves flat, sheaths hairy.—Native of Guiana.

9. Saccharum Ravennæ, or Italian sugar-cane.—Panicle loose, with the rachis woolly, flowers awned. Culm the thickness of the finger or thumb, upright, smooth. Leaves smooth, serrate, with the midrib white.—Native of Italy, Provence, and Mount Atlas, on the banks of streams.

10. Saccharum cylindricum, or cylindric sugar-cane.—Panicle spiked cylindric, peduncles one-flowered, flowers awnless, two-stamened, leaves flat, joints bearded. Roots long, slender, twisted, white. Culm often branched at the base.—Native of the South of France, Italy, Sicily, Candia, Smyrna, Barbary, and the East Indies.

11. Saccharum Thunbergii, or Thunberg's sugar-cane.—Panicle spiked, cylindric. peduncles one-flowered, flowers awnless, two-stamened, eaves convolute, joints smooth. This is a very tall grass; with the panicle more contracted, and twice as long as in the preceding, with the wool rather yellowish.—Native of the East Indies.

Propagation and Culture.—The sugar-cane is preserved, by way of curiosity, in several gardens in England; but being too tender to thrive here, unless it be preserved in a warm stove, it cannot be brought to any great perfection. Some of the plants arrive at the height of seven or eight feet, and are as large as a common walking cane.

It is propagated by slips taken from the sides of the older plants; those which grow near the root, and have fibres to them, will most certainly grow; so that when the shoots are produced at some distance from the ground, the earth should be raised about them, that they may put out fibres before they are separated from the mother plant. These slips should be planted in pots, filled with rich kitchen-garden earth, and plunged into a moderate hot-bed of tanner's bark, being careful to shade them from the sun until they have taken new root, after which they must be treated in the same way as other tender plants from the same countries. They must be constantly kept plunged in the tan-bed in the stove; and as their roots increase in size, the plants should from time to time be shifted into larger pots; but this must be done with caution; for if they are over-potted they will not thrive: they will require to have water frequently, but sparingly. As the leaves of the plants decay, they should be cleared from the stalks; for if these are left to dry upon them, it will greatly retard their growth. The stove in which thisplant is placed, should be kept in winter to the same temperature of heat as for the pine-apple, and in hot weather there should be plenty of free air admitted to the plants, otherwise they will not thrive.

It should always be observed in the planting of fresh land with canes, to allow them more room than is generally done; for as the ground is strong, so there will be a greater number of shoots come out from each plant, and not having room to spread at bottom, they will draw each other up to a great height, and be full of watery juice, the sun and external air being excluded from the canes by the multiplicity of leaves, which are both absolutely necessary to ripen and prepare the salts during the growth of the canes.

If the ground be proper for the sugar-canes, and they are planted at a good distance from each other, and the land is carefully managed, the same plantation may be continued about twenty years without replanting, and produce good crops the whole time; whereas in the common method, they are generally replanted in six or seven years, and in some poor land they are continued but two or three.

The canes are in warm countries propagated by cuttings or joints, of proper lengths; these are from fifteen to twenty inches long, in proportion to the nearness of their joints or eyes.

The distance which the canes are usually allowed in planting, is from three to four feet, row from row, and the hills are about two feet asunder in the rows.

In planting of the canes, make a trench with a hoe, which is performed by hand; into this drop the cuttings, at the distance the hills are designed; these are by others placed in their proper position.

If the right use of ploughs were well known in sugar-countries, the work might be much better performed, and for less than half the expense; if, instead of making a trench with a hoe, a deep furrow were made with a plough, and the cuttings properly laid therein, the ground would be deeper stirred, and there would be more depth for placing the canes.

A more recent method of cultivation is as follows:—Employ the whole of the first six months of the year in the business of the crop, and in May and June plant the canes which have been cut in January. This of course induces a necessity of cutting the rattoons (or the canes proceeding from the old stumps) at the end of the eleventh instead of the end of the twelfth month, and the planted canes, which would otherwise stand fifteen months, at the end of the year; so that the whole plantation is cut every year. It is a fundamental principle to plant the canes in the only season fitted to accelerate and preserve them. Now, in the Windward islands, the weather is commonly dry from the 15th of February to the 15th of May, and the rains are moderate till August, and copious the two or three following months, and afterwards decrease till February: under this plan, therefore, the progression of the rain keeps pace, as it were, with that of the canes. With regard to the maturity of the cane,

J. Pass sc.

1. 2 The Sugar-cane. 3. 4 Santalum album.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1826.

cane, as far as it is of consequence to the sugar, this does not depend on the age, but on the season. In February, March, and April, all the canes, whatever be their age, are as ripe as the nature of the soil ever allows them to be. The dryness of the weather (and not the age of the canes), which increases from January to April, is the cause, that in January four hundred gallons of juice commonly yield forty-eight gallons of sugar and molasses one with another; in February, from fifty-six to sixty-four; in March, from sixty-four to seventy-two; in April, sometimes eighty; after which period the sugar ferments, and even burns when the refiner is not very expert at his business. The greatest relative maturity of canes, is when the juice of them is made up of four parts of water, and one part of sugar and molasses: and in canes perfectly ripe, the quantity of sugar is equal to that of the molasses. After a trial of this plan for five years, there is found a difference of above one-sixth in its favour.

The best soil for the production of sugar of the finest quality, and in the largest proportion, is the ashy loam of St. Christopher's. Next to that is the soil, which in Jamaica is called the black-mould, containing a due mixture of clay and sand. Plant-canes in this soil (which are those of the first growth), have been known, in very fine seasons, to yield two tons and a half of sugar per acre. After this may be reckoned the black mould of several varieties. The best is the deep black earth of Barbadoes, Antigua, and some other of the Windward islands; but there is a species of this mould in Jamaica, that is little, if at all, inferior to it, which abounds with lime-stone and flint, on a substratum of soapy marle. We shall not enumerate the varieties of soil proper for this kind of culture, but content ourselves with mentioning a peculiar sort of land on the north side of Jamaica, chiefly in the parish of Trelawney, as few soils produce finer sugars, or such as answer so well in the pan, or which yield a greater return of refined sugar. This land is of a red colour, varying by different shades; but every where remarkable, when first turned up, for a glossy or shining surface, and, if wetted, for staining the fingers like paint. This soil seems to consist of a native earth, or pure loam, with a mixture of clay and sand. It is easily wrought, and at the same time so tenacious, that a pond dug in this soil in a proper situation, with no other bottom than its own natural texture, holds water like the stiffest clay. The system of husbandry in sugar plantations, which abound with this, chiefly depends on what are called rattoon-canes.

In most parts of the West Indies, it is usual to hole and plant a certain proportion of the cane-land (commonly one-third), in annual succession. The common yielding of this land, on an average, is seven hogsheads of 16 cwt. to ten acres, which are cut annually. In the cultivation of other lands, especially in Jamaica, the plough has been introduced of late years, and in many cases to great advantage; but the use of the plough is not adapted to every soil or situation. The most prevalent system of ploughing in the West Indies, is to confine it to the simple operation of *holing;* which is much more easily and expeditiously performed by the plough than by the hoe, and which affords, in the case of stiff and dry soils, great relief to the negroes. The method of *holing* has been already described. The proper season, generally speaking, for planting, is in the interval between August and the beginning of November. By having the advantage of the autumnal season, the young canes become sufficiently luxuriant to shade the ground before the dry weather sets in: thus the roots are kept cool, and the earth moist. By these means, they are ripe for the mill in the beginning of the second year, so as to enable the overseer or manager to finish his crop by the latter end of May. It has been justly remarked, that there is not a greater error in the system of planting, than to make sugar, or plant canes, in improper seasons of the year; for by mismanagement of this kind, every succeeding crop is put out of regular order. However, neither prudence in the management, nor favourable soils, nor seasonable weather, will exempt the planter at all times from misfortune in the culture of his sugar canes. They are subject to a disease called the "blast," which consists of many myriads of little insects of the aphis genus, said to be invisible to the unassisted eye, whose proper food is the juice of the cane; in pursuit of which they wound the tender blades, and destroy the vessels. The circulation is thus impeded, and the growth of the plant is checked, until it withers or dies in proportion to the degree of the ravage. In some of the Windward islands, the cane in dry weather is liable to be destroyed by a species of grub, called the "borer." In Tobago they have another destructive insect, called the "jumper-fly." It is said that the "blast" never attacks those plantations, where colonies have been introduced of the little animal, called the carnivorous ant; the "formica omnivora" of Linnæus, and the "Raffles" ant of Jamaica.

When the rattoons or canes are ripe, as they ordinarily are in eleven or twelve months, they are cut, and carried in bundles to the mills. The mills consist of three wooden rollers, covered with steel or iron plates; and have their motion either from the water, the wind, cattle, or even the hands of slaves. These rollers, or cylinders, are from 30 to 40 inches in length, and from 20 to 25 inches in diameter; and the middle one, to which the moving power is applied, turns the other two by means of cogs. Between these rollers the canes, being previously cut, are twice compressed; for having passed the first and second rollers, they are turned round the middle one by a circular piece of frame-work, or screw, called the "dumb-returner," and forced back through the second and third; an operation which squeezes them completely dry, and sometimes even reduces them to powder. The juice from the mill ordinarily contains eight parts of pure water, one part of sugar, and one part made of gross oil and mucilaginous gum, with a portion of essential oil. Some juice, however, has been so rich as to make a hogshead (16 cwt.) of sugar from 1300 gallons; and some so watery as to require more than double that quantity. A pound of sugar from a gallon of raw liquor, is reckoned very good yielding.

In preparing the sugar, the juice or liquor runs from the receiver to the boiling-house, along a wooden gutter lined with lead. In the boiling-house it is received into one of the copper pans or cauldrons, called clarifiers. Of these, there are commonly three; and their dimensions are generally determined by the power of supplying them with liquor. There are water-mills that will grind, with great ease, canes sufficient for thirty hogsheads of sugar in a week. On plantations thus happily provided, the means of quick boiling are indispensably requisite, or the cane-liquor will unavoidably become tainted before it can be exposed to the fire. The purest cane-juice will not remain twenty minutes in the receiver without fermenting. As cane-juice is so very liable to fermentation, it is necessary also that the canes should be ground as soon as possible after they are cut, and great care taken to keep and throw aside those which are tainted, which may afterwards be ground for the still-house. Clarifiers, therefore, are sometimes seen of one thousand gallons each. On estates that make on a medium, during crop-time, from fifteen to twenty hogsheads of sugar a week, three clarifiers of three or four hundred gallons each are sufficient. With pans of this size, the liquor, when clarified, may be drawn off at once; and there is leisure to cleanse the vessels every time they are used. Each clarifier is provided either with a syphon or cock for drawing off the liquor. It has a flat bottom, and is hung to a separate fire, each chimney having an iron slider, which being shut, the fire goes out for want of air. The clarifiers are commonly placed in the middle or at one end of the boiling-house. Where the clarifiers are in the middle, there is usually a set of three boilers on each side, which constitute, in effect, a double boiling-house. On very large estates, this arrangement is found useful and necessary. The objection to so great a number, is the expense of fuel; to obviate which, in some degree, the three boilers on each side of the clarifiers are sometimes hung to one fire.

The stream then from the receiver having filled the clarifier with fresh liquor, and the fire being lighted, the *temper*, which is commonly Bristol white-lime in powder, is stirred into it. One great intention of this is to neutralize the superabundant acid; to get properly rid of which, is the great difficulty in sugar-making. This is generally effected by the alkali or lime; part of which, at the same time, becomes the basis of the sugar. The quantity necessary for this purpose must, of course, vary with the quality both of the lime and of the cane-liquor. Some planters allow a pint of Bristol lime to every hundred gallons of liquor; but this proportion is generally found too large. In some parts of Jamaica, where the cane-liquor was exceedingly rich, very good sugar has been made without a particle of temper. Too much temper prevents the molasses from separating from the sugar, when it is potted or put into the hogshead.

As the fire increases in force, and the liquor grows hot, a scum is thrown up, which is formed of the mucilage or gummy matter of the cane, with some of the oil, and such impurities as the mucilage is capable of entangling. The heat is now suffered gradually to increase, until it rises to within a few degrees of the heat of boiling water. The liquor must by no means be suffered to boil: it is known to be sufficiently heated, when the scum begins to rise into blisters, which break into white froth. They appear in general in about forty minutes. The damper is then applied, and the fire extinguished; after which, the liquor is suffered to remain a full hour, if circumstances will permit, undisturbed. During this interval, great part of the feculencies and impurities will attract each other, and rise in the scum. The liquor is now carefully drawn off, either by a syphon, which draws up a pure defecated stream through the scum, or by means of a cock at the bottom. In either case, the scum sinks down unbroken as the liquor flows; its tenacity preventing any admixture. The liquor is received into a gutter or channel, which conveys it to the evaporating boiler, commonly called the "grand copper;" and, if originally produced from good and untainted canes, will now appear almost, if not perfectly, transparent.

In the grand or evaporating copper, which should be large enough to receive the net contents of one of the clarifiers, the liquor is suffered to boil; and as the scum rises, it is continually taken off by large scummers, until the liquor grows finer and somewhat thicker. This labour is continued until, from the scumming and evaporation, the *subject* is sufficiently reduced in quantity to be contained in the next or second copper, into which it is then ladled. The liquor is now nearly of the colour of Madeira wine. In the second copper the boiling and scumming are continued; and if the *subject* is not so clean as is expected, lime-water is thrown into it. This addition is intended not merely to give more temper, but also to dilute the liquor, which sometimes thickens too fast to permit the feculencies to run together, and rise in the scum. Liquor is said to have a good appearance in the second copper, when the froth in boiling arises in large bubbles, and is but little discoloured. When, from such scumming and evaporation, the liquor is again sufficiently reduced to be contained in the third copper, it is ladled into it, and so on to the last copper, which is called the *teache*, probably from the practice of trying by the touch. This arrangement supposes four boilers or coppers, exclusive of the three clarifiers.

In the *teache* the *subject* is still farther evaporated, till it is judged sufficiently boiled to be removed from the fire. This operation is usually called "striking," i. e. lading the liquor, now exceedingly thick, into the cooler.

The cooler, of which there are commonly six, is a shallow wooden vessel, about eleven inches deep, seven feet in length, and from five to six feet wide. A cooler of this size holds a hogshead of sugar. Here the sugar grains; i. e. as it cools, it runs into a coarse irregular mass of imperfect semi-formed crystals, separating itself from the molasses. From the cooler it is carried to the curing-house, where the molasses drain from it. Many of the negro boilers guess solely by the eye when it is sufficiently evaporated for *striking*, judging by the appearance of the grain on the back of the ladle; but the practice most in use is to judge by what is called "the touch," or taking up with the thumb a small portion of the hot liquor from the ladle; and, as the heat diminishes, drawing with the fore-finger the liquid into a thread. This thread will suddenly break, and shrink from the thumb to the suspended finger, in different lengths, according as the liquor is more or less boiled. The proper boiling height for strong muscovado sugar is generally determined by a thread of a quarter of an inch long. It is evident, that certainty in this experiment can be attained only by long habit; and that no verbal precepts will furnish any degree of skill in a matter depending wholly on constant practice.

The curing-house is a large airy building, provided with a capacious molasses cistern, the sides of which are sloped and lined with terras, or boards. Over this cistern there is a frame of massy joist-work, without boarding. On the joists of this frame, empty hogsheads, without headings, are ranged. In the bottoms of these hogsheads eight or ten holes are bored, through each of which the stalk of a plantain leaf is thrust, six or eight inches below the joists, and long enough to stand upright above the top of the hogshead. Into these hogsheads the mass from the cooler is put, which is called "potting;" and the molasses drain through the spongy stalk, and drop into the cistern, from whence it is occasionally taken for distillation. The sugar, in about three weeks, grows tolerably dry and fair. It is then said to be cured, and the process is finished. The curing-house should be close and warm, as warmth contributes to free the sugar from the molasses.

Sugar thus obtained, is called "muscovado," and is the raw material from which the British sugar-bakers chiefly make their loaf, or refined lump. There is another sort, which was formerly much approved in Great Britain for domestic purposes, and was generally known by the name of Lisbon sugar. It is fair, but of a soft texture, and in the West Indies is called "clayed sugar." The process is conducted as follows:—A quantity of sugar from the cooler is put into conical pots or pans, called by the French "formes," with the points downwards, having a hole about half an inch in diameter at the bottom, for the molasses to drain through, but which at first is closed with a plug. When the sugar in these pots is cool, and become a fixed body, which is discoverable by the middle of the top falling in, (generally about twelve hours from the first potting of the hot sugar), the plug is taken out, and the pot placed over a large jar, intended to receive the syrup or molasses that drain from it. In this state it is left as long as the molasses continue to drop, which it will do from twelve to twenty-four hours, when a stratum of clay is spread on the sugar, and moistened with water, which, oozing imperceptibly through the pores of the clay, unites intimately with, and dilutes the molasses; consequently more of it comes away than from sugar cured in the hogshead, and the sugar, of course, becomes so much the whiter and purer. The pots remain for twenty days in this situation, after which the sugar is taken out, dried in the sun for some hours, and then taken to a large store-room, where it is kept in a pretty strong heat for three weeks. The process, according to Sloane, was first dicovered in Brazil, by accident. "A hen," says he, "having her feet dirty, going over a pot of sugar, it was found under her tread to be whiter than elsewhere." The reason assigned why this process is not universally adopted in the British sugar islands is this, that the water, which dilutes and carries away the molasses, dissolves and carries with it so much of the sugar, that the difference in quality does not pay for the difference in quantity. The French planters probably think otherwise; upwards of four hundred of the plantations of St. Domingo having the necessary apparatus for claying, and actually carrying on the system. The loss in weight by claying is about one-third: thus, a pot of sixty pounds is reduced to forty pounds; but if the molasses

molasses which are drawn off in this practice be reboiled, they will give nearly forty per cent. of sugar; so that the real loss is little more than one-sixth; but the distillery, in that case, will suffer for want of the molasses. On the whole, shipping muscovado sugar, and distilling the molasses, is more generally profitable than the system of claying.

The Cochinchinese prepare a very excellent moist sugar, remarkably cheap, by a very simple process, similar to that of claying. The grained sugar, after the gross syrup has drained from it, and it has become considerably solid, is placed in layers about an inch thick, under layers of the same dimensions of the herbaceous trunk of the plantain tree; the watery juices, exuding from which, act like claying, and leave the sugar very white and porous, like a honeycomb. This is pure enough to dissolve in water, without any sediment.

The first operation in the *refining* of sugar, is that of *clearing the pans;* previously to which they are charged, by throwing about six quarts of fresh bullock's blood (called *spice)* into each pan, and filling it with lime-water to about half the height from the bottom to the part in which the brace is fixed; and when these are well stirred together, the pan is filled to the brim with raw sugar. This mass, with a moderate fire, will, in about two hours, be brought to the verge of boiling heat; but it should not be allowed actually to boil; and in this time the earthy particles of the sugar, and other adventitious impurities, will be separated from it by the effect of the heat, and the cleansing quality of the spice, and thrown up to the surface. About two quarts of spice are added to each pan, within the first hour after the fires are lighted. The scum thus produced, which is usually from four to ten inches thick, is fit to be taken off, when the surface appears black and dry, and not greasy; and it is gently removed with a broad skimmer into a portable tub, and conveyed to the scum-cistern. Having done this, the panman stirs together a ladleful of spice *(e. gr.* about a quart), and a quantity of lime-water *(e. gr.* one or two gallons, as the case may require); and pours this mixture into each pan. When the sugar is again brought to a scalding heat, it throws up a second scum, not so foul as the first, which is removed as before. He then adds a fresh quantity of spice, but less than the former, and repeats this operation, till the sugar casts up a clean milky froth, which indicates that the impurity is wholly extracted. The liquor is also sometimes examined with a bright silver or metal spoon, that any remaining foulness may be discovered. In the making of double loaves, powder loaves, or very fine single loaves, it is usual to heighten the natural colour of the sugar by the addition of a little blue. For this purpose, when the pans are almost clear, the quantity of about six pennyweights troy of the finest indigo, finely powdered and filtered through a piece of woollen or blanketing in a bason of fresh water, and well stirred together in a bason, is thrown into each pan. The sugar being once raised in the pan after this infusion, the grosser particles of the colour are taken off in the last scum, and the remainder is incorporated with the sugar in the pan.

The panman having brought the sugar to the cleanest state, prepares to *skip it off*, or to shift it from one vessel to another: this is done by means of a wooden gutter laid along the parts, and opening into the clarifying cistern. Over this cistern, upon large iron bars, is fixed an oblong basket, about sixteen inches deep, in which a large thick blanket is fastened; and through this blanket and basket the sugar liquid passes out of the gutter; and to the mass a quantity of syrup is usually added. Having measured the quantity of liquid in the cistern with a rod graduated by inches, the panman pumps back into the pans either the sixth or ninth part of the whole, as he is directed by the supervisor or boiler; and the pans are all supplied together by means of a trough. When this is done, the fire is stirred up to a considerable degree of fierceness; and then commences a new operation, viz. *evaporation.* In this part of the process (the day's work being divided into three fillings), the panman pumps into the pan one-ninth part of the quantity in the cistern, which in a few seconds begins to boil, and must be continued in a boiling state, but not with too intense a fire; and to prevent the sugar from boiling up to the surface of the pan, or from boiling over, he casts a piece of butter or grease, about the size of a nutmeg, into the boiling liquor. Sugar should boil low in in the pan, and yet not too flat, like water; for by rising hollow from the bottom, the necessary evaporation is retarded, and the sugar is exposed to the action of the fire for a longer time than it ought to be. In a space of time from twelve to thirty minutes, the evaporation will have produced its effect, and the sugar acquire the requisite degree of viscousness. The state will be indicated by various circumstances; as by the bubbles dragging heavily over the surface of the boiling mass, and by the clammy liquid falling in ropes from the proof-stick; but principally by that test which is called the *proof.* For this purpose the boiler draws the stick out of the boiling liquid with his right hand, and placing his left thumb upon the sugar, draws it across the stick, carrying away upon the end of his thumb as much of the sugar as will hang upon it; he then, by means of a candle placed in a black box, called the proof-box, and by repeated trials (drawing the sugar to a thread between his thumb and fore-finger), determines when the evaporation is complete; and when this is decided, the fire is smothered, and nearly quenched. The hot sugar-liquor is then removed by means of basons out of the pans into coolers, two or three gallons being left in each pan to prevent the bottom from being scorched; and the pans are again supplied with a quantity of liquor for the next evaporation. The liquor in the coolers is gently stirred to prevent a crust from forming on its surface. When the second quantity is brought to proof, and skipped off into the coolers, the pans are supplied with a similar quantity; and while this is boiling, that part of the process of refining, called *granulation*, is pursued. For this purpose the sugar is disturbed in the coolers by an instrument called an *oar*, and resembling the oar of a boat: the violent motion thus continued for several minutes, serves to destroy the viscousness of the sugar, and to complete the granulation. Upon this operation much of the beauty and success of the manufacture depend; for if the sugars are not stirred enough, the grain of the refined sugar will be large and loose, and its colour not sufficiently white; but if it be stirred too much, the grains will be broken, the sugar will be disunited in its parts, and though close and smooth, without lustre; and it will lose considerably of its due weight. When the third skipping is boiled, and the coolers sufficiently stirred, the contents of the pans are removed to the coolers, as before; and thus the first stage of boiling for the day is completed. The course of the other two fillings is precisely the same.

The next operation in refining is conducted in that part of the ground-floor of a sugar-house, which is denominated the *fill-house*, because all the upper floors of the house are to be filled from this; and this operation consists in *filling* the moulds with the three skippings contained in the coolers. The moulds, in the form of inverted cones, previously prepared by soaking and washing them, and stopping their apertures with wet linen rags, are placed side by side, and in rows two or three deep: their number is to suffice for the quantity of liquor in the coolers, which is estimated by the number of basons which were skipped off from the pans; and they are propped up by other moulds (commonly such as are broken), placed with the broad end downwards, in front of the outward rank, by way of abutment; these are called *flayers*. The sugar, being previously stirred in the coolers, in order thoroughly to mix each skipping, is ladled out of the coolers in succession, and not all at once, (unless the fillings are small, in loaves, and always in lumps), into basons conveniently situated; and these are carried into the fill-house, where as much of the sugar is poured into each mould as will fill about one-third of its capacity; the same quantity is again poured into each; and at the third time they are filled to the brim.

The moulds being filled, the next operation, which is that of

of stirring the sugar in them, is called *hauling*, and is designed to prevent an adhesion to the mould, and to lay the grain of the mass even and regular through all its parts. In this business each man takes a tool, made of wainscot, called a knife, in size proportioned to that of the mould to be stirred; with this tool, keeping his hand over the centre of the mould, he scrapes the sugar from its sides by successive strokes downwards, carried all round; and when two revolutions are performed, the sugar is allowed to rest some minutes, until it has acquired some firmness. The moulds, being stirred round three or four times, according to the direction of the boiler, are no more disturbed till they are pulled up.

The process already described relates to sugar once refined, called single loaves: double loaves are usually cleared with the whites of eggs instead of spice, (two hundred of which are necessary to each pan,) and with fresh water instead of lime-water. With respect to the proof, one rule only can be laid down, viz., the sugar must be boiled higher, as the moulds which contain it are increased in size.

The order of refining is uniformly this: to begin the first day with the finest sugar intended to be wrought, and to proceed daily with sugar of a lower quality, and of course to begin with small loaf-moulds, and to use larger moulds progressively; so that the brownish sugar will be put into large lump-moulds; for this sugar works best in large masses, and it is likewise more in demand in England than the finer kind. The use of this distribution of a refining is to enable the boiler to make a more advantageous disposition of his syrups and scums. The order of the first twelve days is usually as follows: first day, double loaves; second and third days, powder loaves; fourth, fifth, and sixth, single loaves; seventh, Prussian-lumps; eighth, Canary, or pattern lumps; ninth, tenth, eleventh, and twelfth days, large lumps. To these twelve days are added four or five more, in a part of the process called bastard-boiling; and these sixteen or seventeen days constitute a complete series, denominated a complement, or refining.

From this digression let us now return to the fill-house; where the second and third fillings having been boiled off, and passed from the coolers into the moulds, in the manner already described, the panman proceeds to make over the scum which was taken off the pans in the morning, in order to extract the remaining sugar from it; the method of doing this will be hereafter explained. When it is finished, the pans are loaded for the work of the following day. In the evening, when the new-made goods are cool, and fit for removal without damage, they are pulled up into that floor of the house which is best suited for receiving them, and where a proper number of well-sorted pots are placed in ranks for this purpose. The up-stairs man plucks out from the point of every one the stopper or rag; and pricks them in the point with an awl, the size of which is proportioned to the mould; and they are then set upon the pots.

The contents of the moulds, cleared by the preceding operations of their earthy particles and water, consist of the vegetable salt, and an oily matter, now called syrup, but which, after the final extraction of the salts, will be called molasses. For the separation of these there is required a series of operations, which may be distinguished by the name of filtering, or draining. In twenty-four hours after the loaves have been placed upon the pots, the quantity of syrup which will have exuded from the aperture of each, will fill more than half of the pot on which it stands. When the state of the loaves has been examined, by drawing one or two loaves of each filling out of their moulds, if the syrups are not in a digesting state, they are left unclayed for two or three days longer, and the warmth of the room in which they stand is somewhat increased; but if they manifest a proper appearance, they are prepared for receiving the first clay, which is laid on either the next or the third day. The green or new-made loaves are judged to bear a healthy and promising appearance, when the syrups have quitted the broad part of the loaf, and are evenly drawn together; and when the whole surface has a compact and smooth appearance, they are fit to receive clay. When the syrup hath scarcely descended from the top or face of the cone; when the head, i. e. the narrow and moist end, is not evenly drawn off to a line, it is concluded that the sugar is over-boiled, or of an ill quality; the syrups are not in a state of digestion; and time is given, and heat added, to make them fit to receive the clay. On the other hand, if the moisture is shrunk and settled, and of a pale colour just round the apex of the cone, there is reason to apprehend that the sugar is under-boiled, or too free; in which case the surface or coat will appear loose, and want that smoothness which the well-boiled loaves exhibit. When this is the case, they must be lightly clayed, and care must be taken that the clay be not too thin or wet. Before the clay is laid on, the thin crust, which had been formed round the edge of the mould by the motion of the hauling knife, is scraped from each loaf into the receiving box, and by pressing the face of the loaf with that part of the hand which is nearest the wrist, a small concavity is made for receiving the first clay, as well as a proper solidity to the bed on which it is intended to rest.

The first or green syrup is now taken away, and poured into large earthen jars, called gathering-pots; and the empty pots are returned to receive the moulds which had been taken from them. When they are returned to their proper places, a small ladleful of wet clay is poured on the face of each loaf. This first or green clay dries up in five or six days, and forms a cake, which is taken off, and laid by for future use. When the clay is removed, the whole surface of the loaf will be found to have shrunk under it, and the loaf is become concave in the middle. With a tool, called a bottoming-trowel, the sugar which adheres to the sides of the mould is cut away by a horizontal movement; and a small quantity of scrapings, or of lumps broken down for this purpose, is added to the loose sugar which the trowel had cut; and they are pressed down together on the surface, till the whole has been brought to a good level, and to a moderate degree of firmness for bearing the next clay.

On the following day the loaves are clayed a second time; and when this clay is dry, it is removed, like the former; and each loaf is drawn out of its mould, and carefully examined; and this part of the process is called overseeing. Double loaves, fine powder loaves, and fine single loaves, will sometimes, under this clay, be found neat, i. e. the redness or brownness will have quitted the loaf, and the head, though still moist, will appear perfectly free from discoloration. The workman, however, in order to be farther satisfied, cuts off the heads of two or three loaves with the trowel; and if he is satisfied, these loaves are to be clayed no more; but he proceeds to the operation of brushing-off, i. e. of scraping off the irregularities and impurities occasioned by the contact with the clay with an iron tool, called a brushing-hook; and with one corner of this a number or letter is scratched upon the level face of the loaf. To those loaves which are not found neat, the workman gives a third clay; which is usually laid on in a thinner mass than the former. If his loaves are not yet quite finished, he puts a little fresh moisture on the back of the clay, and thus effects his purpose.

The loaves being now rendered neat, and brushed off, must stand some days in the moulds to acquire face, or that stony hardness of surface, which will enable them to stand firm, when they are turned down out of the moulds; and during this time they are once or twice loosened in the moulds by a gentle blow on a stool, or against a post; and thus the coats are improved by preventing adhesion to the moulds, and facilitating the precipitation of the remaining moisture. The windows are opened to let in air, if the weather be dry; and the points or noses are also examined, which will sometimes melt away, whilst the above operation is effecting. When these symptoms appear, the workman proceeds to turn down his loaves, by taking the moulds from the pots, covering the floor with clear brown paper, and turning each loaf down with its mould over it. They are usually turned down either upon the stove-head, or in some warm place, because

because, by being left uncovered, and exposed to the action of cold air, the moisture remaining in the head will not descend into the body of the loaf, and be equally dispersed; but remaining in the head, would spoil and disfigure the loaf; partly by the syrup's coagulating, and becoming unfit to descend between the fine interstices of the concrete body, and partly from the adstriction of the solid particles. With these precautions, in twenty-four hours the moisture is apparently dispersed, and the cone assumes throughout an uniform appearance. The loaves are then taken off the floor, separately examined, and cleared of any discoloured specks with a small knife; and are either papered and set in the stove, or else are placed in the stove without paper, as the case may require. If any of them have still a remaining yellowness in the head, the point is cut off, and they are then called spot-loaves. They remain in the stove five, six, or seven days, till they are entirely dry, and are then fit for sale and use. The management above stairs in the course of this one day's work is nearly the same, whether the sugar be fine or coarse.

Brown sugars, wrought in large moulds, require more clay than fine sugars in small moulds: nor is it necessary that lumps should be made neat; but it is the constant practice to cut off the wet head from every lump, so as to leave no remaining redness; these wet tips, called *lump-headings*, are received into a large mould, and placed upon a pot to drain, and when dry, are melted for making double loaves, or for improving powder loaves; or else they are bruised and mixed with brushings to *bottom-up*, i. e. to defend the face of loaves, or other goods, before they receive clay. Large lumps frequently need claying four times. And it may be observed in general, that sugars of every kind require more heat to bring them forward, as they sink in quality.

The materials for double-loaf boiling are made from refined sugar, and frequently from loaves or lumps bought for that purpose. But those who are most curious in this fabric, chuse to make lumps for this purpose, which are called *melters:* they are low boiled, and stirred but little (though some boilers stir them much), in order to preserve the strength of the sugar unimpaired. Fine double loaves are kept in a room of the temperature of a common parlour; a little warmth is sufficient for powder loaves, and fine single loaves; inferior loaves, and lumps of a middling quality, require warmth; but the brownest lumps and *bastards* thrive in a glowing heat. Every sort of refined sugar will bear and require more heat in proportion as it is higher boiled; for the brown syrupy matter will not quit the denser, unless it be kept in a fluid state; and this can only be effected by the action of heat; and, moreover, the fluid parts of high-boiled goods must be more viscous than those of goods which have been less bound up by fire.

The syrups, which are discharged from refined sugar during the operation of draining, exceed in bulk and weight the whole quantity of loaf or lump sugar, and are, therefore, of great importance in this manufactory; and upon the proper management of them much of its success depends. It will be proper, therefore, to pursue the inquiry relating to the use of syrups, produced from a day's work of sugar once refined in loaves. When the loaves are prepared to receive the first clay, the syrup is collected into gathering-pots, each of which contains from 50 to 60 pounds of syrup; this is called *green* syrup, on account of the new or green state of the loaves from which it runs; and the quantity of it is usually about 15 gathering-pots from each pan of goods. The next syrup, called *second runnings*, is commonly collected when the second clay is removed, and amounts in quantity to about eight gathering-pots per pan. The third and last collection is made after the moulds are finally removed from the pots; it is called *drippings*, and is about five gathering-pots per pan. However, some workmen collect their syrups oftener than thrice. The syrups of every kind of refined sugar increase in fineness and value, the later they exude from the moulds. As for the appropriation of them, the green or low syrups are boiled away on the days next after the conclusion of refining: they are taken into the pans without the addition of any sugar, and, after a sufficient evaporation, are poured into large moulds; and, under the name of *bastard* sugar, form a principal article in the sugar-trade. The finer syrups are all incorporated with sugar, and a proportion of them is daily brought down through the syrup-pipes into the cistern, at the same time in which the sugar is first skipped from the pans; the syrup-pipe discharging its contents into the clarifying basket, so that the syrup, as well as the sugar, passes through the blanket; and it is pumped back from the cistern into the pans.

The following estimates exhibit the quantity of syrup that may be allowed *(cæteris paribus)* to a given quantity of sugar; viz. for double loaves, six gathering-pots per pan; for powder loaves, 10 ditto; for fine single loaves, 15 ditto; for middling loaves, 20 ditto; for brown single loaves, and Canary lumps, 25 ditto; for lumps, 30 or 40 ditto.

With the necessary allowances for particular circumstances, the several sorts of syrups may be duly appropriated in the following manner. Green syrups of every kind may be mixed with raw sugar, or applied to the making of goods, two degrees in quality lower than those from which these syrups were produced. Second runnings of every kind are fit to be incorporated with goods one degree below those from which they were produced. Drippings may be used with raw sugar, or with other proper materials, in making the same kind of goods from which they had been supplied. In other words, the green syrup of double loaves would be used in making single loaves; the second runnings would go into the composition of powder loaves; and the drippings would enter into the substance of other double loaves. Again, the green syrup of large lumps would be boiled off in *bastards;* the second running would make *pieces;* and the dripping, added to proper sugar, would be united therewith in the production of other lumps.

Pieces are a better kind of bastards, which are either boiled from syrups that are too good to make bastards, or are made of such syrups, and a small portion of cheap and bad sugar, which is too poor to make lumps. In the latter case, they are called *sugar-pieces;* but in either, all the syrup that comes from them is boiled again, either to make bastards or other pieces, according to its goodness; whereas the syrup that runs from bastards is always considered as a caput mortuum, and no efforts are made to obtain any sugar from it, but it is put into casks, and sold under the denomination of molasses. It is, therefore, worth the boiler's attention to keep all the weight of sugar possible in his bastards; and for this purpose he boils them as high as he may venture, without incurring the danger of making stopped bastards, i. e. bastards from which the molasses will not run; which may be owing either to the ill quality of the materials, or to overboiling. But as the syrup of pieces is to be boiled again, a good workman never exhausts it by overboiling. The materials of which bastards and pieces are composed, not abounding with salts like those already treated of, have not an equal disposition to concrete; and, therefore, it is found necessary to give them some aid, in order to effect the necessary granulation: this is done by taking *grain* (which we shall presently explain) into the coolers. These inferior productions are stirred, neither in the coolers nor in the moulds, any more than by a small movement round the coolers, with an iron scraper, just sufficient to incorporate the grain with the hot fluid mass.

In order to illustrate the formation of this grain, we may observe, that the strong particles of sugar, which are capable of concretion, have evidently a greater degree of density than the oily or aqueous. When the hot fluid is poured into a bastard or piece mould, these denser particles descend, and would pass into the pots if there were any passage for them; but the stopper is not taken out of the moulds of these goods until five, six, seven, or eight days after they have

have been pulled up; for they want time to harden, and cannot safely be left unstopped. Having reached the lower part of the mould, they are formed into small stony substances of the nature of candy, and when the stoppers are withdrawn, these small stones remain near the point of the mould, and form what is properly called *bastard grain*.

Bastards and pieces are usually clayed but twice, and when dry enough, are knocked out of the moulds; their wet heads being cut off into a large mould placed to receive them, and they are called *bastard-heading*, or *smear*; in another mould is preserved the grain, which usually forms a stratum about two inches broad, beginning about four inches from the point of the mould. The bastards and pieces are then put into the stove, and in five, six, or seven days, will be found dry enough; for they must not, like lumps and loaves, be rendered perfectly dry. They are then taken out and piled in a room, as near the mill as possible, and ground all together; or the brown tip is cut off, and the other two parts, called the *middle* and *face*, are ground together: or sometimes the bastard or piece is divided into three parts, which are ground separately, and sold at different prices.

We shall now close this article with a short account of the method of making over *scums*, and the application of their produce. The refiner extracts from the scum of his sugars, every particle of sugar which it is in his power to obtain; and after he has reduced the scum to such a state that it appears to be a mere earth, resembling garden mould, he sells it to a scum-boiler, who again tries it over the fire, and extracts a small quantity of sweet liquor out of it. The scum of fine treble or double loaves is often put into the pans again without any process, and mixed with raw sugar, for the production of inferior goods: but, in general, the scum of each day's work is made over in the same day after the boiling of the sugar is finished. The method is this; the panman, having put about three quarts of spice into his pan, draws lime-water until the pan be four-fifths full without the pan-brace; to this he adds about four tubs of the scum, each tub containing about three-fourths of a hundred weight. Having stirred the liquor well, he makes a moderate fire, and the scum will separate from the fluid and float upon the top of it: with a small iron scraper he prevents any foulness from adhering to the bottom of the pans; and then suffers the fire to increase, and the liquid, upon the verge of boiling, is seen through the openings of the dirty surface. Having kept it simmering for several hours, and having provided a cooler or receiver, over which is placed a strong wooden frame, and upon this a basket, to which a coarse bag, called the *scum-bag*, is fitted, he pours the contents of his pan into this basket and bag; and then the mouth of the bag is drawn up, and well twisted together, and a strong board, called a *scum-board*, is laid upon the bags, with several weights upon the board, to press down the scum. In the space of an hour, or an hour and a half, the bag should be twisted and pressed; and the liquor, which oozes plentifully through the bag, is usually taken into the pans the next morning: its thinness renders it useful in clearing the pans, and if any gross matter hath passed through the bags, it is drawn off with the rest of the scum of the sugar when cleared. The scum, as it is taken from the pan, is called *fat scum*, and the liquid matter drawn from it bears the same appellation; in contradistinction to the poor meagre liquor which is expressed from the same scum when they are made over a second time, by an operation much like the former. After pressing and draining, the exhausted remains, under the name of *rubbish scum*, are either burnt in the cockell, or delivered to the scum-boiler at a very low rate. The produce of over-made scums must be used immediately, or it must be shortened, i. e. boiled thick; otherwise it will turn sour, and do great harm; for acidity is a constant enemy and destroyer of sugar.

The liquor drawn from these scums is commonly used in bastard boiling, or in the brownest lumps. There is a large proportion of the fat scum usually left of every refining, to be made over during the bastard boiling: it is common to set by the first or grossest scum for this purpose, and to keep separate the finer and later scums, which are made over day by day in the manner already described: the liquor thus obtained from the fat scums, being full of sugar, is very useful to the bastards, fortifying the syrups, and promoting their strength and adhesion.

SACCHARUM SATURNI, the old name for the Plumbi Superacetas, or sugar of lead.

SACCHETTA, a small town of Austrian Italy, on the Mincio, near the influx of that river in the Po; 10 miles south-east of Mantua.

SACCHETTI (Franco), a poet and novelist, was born at Florence in or about the year 1335, of the noble family of the Benci. After passing his youth in commercial affairs, he rose by different gradations of office in his republic, till at length he was appointed commander of the Florentine troops in Romagna. During his travels and employments he became acquainted with several men of high rank, and with some petty sovereigns in the Italian states, with whom he held an epistolary correspondence, and who greatly esteemed him on account of his extensive knowledge and various accomplishments. He spent the latter years of his life at Florence, amusing himself with literary composition. He died some time after the year 1400, and left behind him the reputation of being one of the principal Italian poets of his time. He was author of a great number of pieces in different kinds of verse, of which there have been printed only some lines following the Bella Mano of Giusto de Conti. He also collected, from the stories which he had heard, and the adventures he had witnessed, a number of tales, or "Nouvelles," of which 258, remaining in MS. in the Laurentian library, were printed at Florence in 1725. These, though not in such high repute as those of Boccaccio, are pleasing from their natural and simple style of narration. They are reckoned as of standard authority with regard to purity of language.

SACCHI (Andrea), This celebrated artist was born at Rome, in 1594. He was the son of Benedetto, a painter of little note, by whom he was instructed in the rudiments of design; but he had afterwards the advantage of studying under Francesco Albano, of whom he was the most distinguished disciple. On leaving the school of that painter, he improved his style, by an attentive study of the works of Raffaelle, Polidoro da Caravaggio, and the antique marbles, by which means he acquired a correctness and severity of design, for which his works are remarkable. He was favoured with the protection of the Cardinal Barberini, who employed him in ornamenting his palace with several allegorical works, painted in fresco, which were greatly admired. Several of the public edifices at Rome are embellished with his works, some of which have been ranked among the most admired productions of art in that capital. Such are his celebrated picture of the death of St. Anne, in the church of S. Carlo à Cartanari; the angel appearing to St. Joseph, the principal altar-piece in S. Guiseppa a Capo le Case; and his St. Andrea, in the Quirinal. But his most distinguished performance is his famous picture of S. Romualdo, formerly in the church dedicated to that saint, now in the gallery of the Louvre. This admirable production was considered one of the four finest pictures at Rome. The composition is extremely simple; it represents the saint seated in a solitary valley of the Apennines, surrounded by some of his order, explaining to them his reasons for retiring from the world. Every thing in the picture breathes tranquillity and repose. The expression in the head of St. Romualdo is admirable, as is the attention with which the monks are listening to his discourse. The surprising effect that he has given to a group of six figures, all habited in white drapery, without the appearance of monotony, is the wonder and admiration of the artist.

The admirers of Andrea Sacchi regard him as the greatest colourist the Roman school can boast, and he ranked also among the most correct of its designers.

Though

Though profound in the theory of the art, he was slow and deliberate in his works, and he was accustomed to remark, that the fame of a painter depended more upon the quality than the quantity of his productions. To this we may attribute the paucity of his pictures, which are in general but slightly finished. His compositions are not often abundant in figures, but they are sufficiently numerous to give a just representation of his subjects. Mengs estimates his talents nearly on a level with those of Pietro da Cortona, which, whithout raising him to the elevation of the great luminaries of the art, assigns him an honourable station among its able professors. He died at Rome in 1661, aged 62. *Bryan's Dictionary of Painters.*

P. Sacchi died at Milan in 1789, aged 64. He wrote the life of Farinelli in Italian.

SACCHINI (Antonio), born near Naples in 1727, and educated in the conservatorio of St. Onofrio, under Durante, at the same time as Piccini, Traetta, and Guglielmi. A gentle, tranquil, and affectionate disposition, perhaps, rendered him too susceptible of la belle passion, which however impressed his slow movements with all that grace, tenderness and pathos, which have never been exceeded, if equalled, by any other vocal composer.

All his operas are replete with elegant airs, beautiful accompanied recitatives, and orchestral effects, without the appearance of labour or study.

Sacchini was one of the few modern masters who kept his sacred and secular style of composition separate and distinct: in his theatrical compositions to look at a score, there seemed so much simplicity, that a mere contrapuntist would have imagined him to have been a feeble harmonist; it was, seemingly, by small means that he produced the greatest effects. He interested the audience more by a happy, graceful, and touching melody, than by a laboured and extraneous modulation. His accompaniments, always brilliant and ingenious, without being loaded and confused, assist the expression of the vocal part, and are often picturesque. But his ecclesiastical compositions are not only learned, solemn, and abounding with fine effects, but clothed in the richest and most pure harmony. He remained at Rome eight years, at Venice four, where he was appointed master of the conservatorio of the Ospidaletto: and after having composed for all the great theatres in Italy and Germany with increasing success, in 1772 he came to England, and here he not only supported the high reputation he had acquired on the continent, but vanquished the natural enemies of his talents in England. His operas of the Cid and Tamerlano were equal, if not superior, to any musical dramas we have heard in any part of Europe. The airs of Milico, the first man, were wholly written in the delicate and pathetic style of that singer; as the first woman's part was in the spirited and nervous style of Girelli. And he cherished the talents of the inferior singers in so judicious a manner, that all their defects were constantly disguised or concealed. Savoi, notwithstanding his fine voice, had been worse than unnoticed before this period, for he was almost insulted; yet so excellent was his music he had to execute in Sacchini's operas, and so favourably did it call him into notice, that instead of going off the stage in silence, he was applauded and even encored, nearly as much and as frequently as the first singer. The Carrara, too, a young singer, whose voice was naturally drowsy, childish, and insipid, from the beauty of her songs was well received. Indeed, each of these dramas was so entire, so masterly, yet so new and natural, that there was nothing left for criticism to censure, but innumerable beauties to point out and admire. It is evident that this composer had a taste so exquisite, and so totally free from pedantry, that he was frequently new without effort; never thinking of himself or his fame for any particular excellence, but totally occupied with the ideas of the poet, and the propriety, consistency, and effect of the whole drama. His accompaniments, though always rich and ingenious, never call off attention from the voice, but by a constant transparency the principal melody is rendered distinguishable through all the contrivance of imitative and picturesque design in the instrument.

In the year 1770, when he saw Sacchini at Venice, he told us that he had composed near forty serious, and ten comic operas, and in 1778, upon enquiring of him to what number his dramatic works then amounted, he said to seventy-eight, of which he had forgot even the names of two. Sacchini, while he remained at Venice in the character of maestro dell' Ospidaletto conservatorio, by the number of masses and motets he had composed, manifested himself to be as able to write for the church as the stage. He remained too long in England for his fame and fortune. The first was injured by cabals, and by what ought to have increased it, the number of his works; and the second by inactivity and want of economy.

He refused several engagements which were offered him from Russia, Portugal, and even France, where it was much wished that he would exercise his talents long before his first visit thither, but his sedentary humour, and aversion to activity, would not allow him to accept of the offers that were made to him, till he was tempted by the hopes of an establishment at Paris for life. When he arrived in London, in 1772, his first opera was the "Cid," which was followed by "Tamerlano," and "Lucio Vero," a pasticcio, the same season. In 1774 and 1775, "Nitteti" and "Perseo;" in 1776 "L'Isola d'Amore;" in 1777, "Creso;" in 1778, "Erifile;" in 1779, "Enea e Lavinia," and "La Contadina in Corte," a comic opera; in 1780, "Rinaldo," and "L'Amore Soldato," another burletta; and lastly, in 1781, "Mitridate."

It is manifest in the operas that he composed for Paris, that he worked for singers of mean abilities; which, besides the airs being set to French words, prevented their circulation in the rest of Europe, which his other vocal productions in his own language had constantly done.

In the summer of 1781, he went first to Paris, where he was almost adored; but after increasing his reputation there, by new productions, he returned the following year to London, where he only augmented his debts and embarrassments, so that, in 1784, he took a final leave of his country, and settled at Paris, where he not only obtained a pension from the queen of France, but the theatrical pension, in consequence of three successful pieces. This graceful, elegant, and judicious composer died at Paris, in September, 1786, where he was honoured with a public funeral, and every mark of respect and distinction which sensibility and gratitude could bestow on an artist, though a foreigner, who had contributed so largely to their most elegant pleasures.

SACCOPHORA, in Botany, from σακκος, a bag, and φερω, to bear, a name given by Palisot Beauvois to the *Buxbaumia. De Theis.*

SACCOPHORI [Σακκοφοροι, formed of σακκος, a sack, and φερω, I bear], a sect of ancient heretics, thus called, because they always went clothed in sackcloth, and affected a great deal of austerity and penance.

We know but little of their tenets: in all probability they were the same with the Massalians.

The emperor Theodosius made a law against the Saccophori and Manichees.

SACE, a small town in the north-west of France, in Normandy, department of La Manche. Population 1600; 13 miles south-east of Avranches.

SACER, in Ichthyology, a name given by Gaza and some others to that species of the labrus, distinguished by Artedi by the name of the red forked-tailed labrus, and called by the generality of other authors the anthias piscis. See LABRUS.

SACERD'OTAL, *adj.* [*sacerdotal*, Fr. Cotgrave; *sacerdotalis*, Lat.] Priestly; belonging to the priesthood.—He fell violently upon me, without respect to my *sacerdotal* orders. *Dryden.*

SA'CHEL, *s.* [*sacculus*, Lat. The Germ. *seckel*, a little sack.] A small sack or bag.—Puckered together like a *sachell. Junius.*

SACHSA,

SACHSA, a small town of Prussian Saxony, in Thuringia; 26 miles east-by-north of Gottingen. Population 1150.

SACHSENHAUSEN. See FRANKFORT-ON-THE-MAINE.

SACHSENHEIM th e name of three villages of the west of Germany, in Baden. Great Sachsenheim has 900 inhabitants, little Sachsenheim 700, and Upper Sachsenheim 600. They are about 8 miles north-by-west of Heidelberg, and 10 east of Manheim.

SACHSENHEIM, GREAT, a small town in the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg. Population 1100; 3 miles north of Mark Groningen.—Little Sachsenheim is a village in the neighbourhood, with 900 inhabitants.

SACILE, a small but populous town of Austrian Italy, in the delegation of Udina. Its environs are very pleasant, and the wine produced in them is in high repute; 10 miles east of Ceneda, and 31 west of Udina.

SACK, *s.* [*sakk*, Goth. ꝥacc, Sax. *sac*, Fr. σακκος, Gr. *saccus*, Lat. *sacco*, Ital. and Span.]—A bag; a pouch; commonly a large bag.—Vastius caused the authors of that mutiny to be thrust into *sacks*, and in the sight of the fleet cast into the sea. *Knolles.*

SACK OF COALS contains three bushels, or one-twelfth part of a chaldron.

To SACK, *v. a.* To put in bags.

Now the great work is done, the corn is ground,
The grist is *sack'd*, and every sack well bound. *Betterton.*

[From the Spanish *saco.*] To take by storm; to pillage; to plunder.

I'll make thee stoop and bend thy knee,
Or *sack* this country with a mutiny. *Shakspeare.*

SACK, *s.* Storm of a town; pillage; plunder.

If Saturn's son bestows
The *sack* of Troy, which he by promise owes,
Then shall the conquering Greeks thy loss restore. *Dryden.*

A kind of white wine, now brought chiefly from the Canaries, of uncertain etymology. The *sack* of Shakspeare is believed to be what is now called *Sherry. Johnson.* In Minsheu's Eng. and Span. Dict. 1599, "*sacke*" is called "a wine that commeth out of Spaine," and is rendered merely "vino blanco," white wine. This Spanish wine, however, according to a citation made by Mr. Douce from a late publication of Travels, is said to owe its name to "goat-skin *sacks* in which it is carried:— a practice so common in Spain, *as to give the name of sack* to a species of white wine once highly prized in Great Britain." *Todd.*

SACK RIVER, a river of north America, which falls into the Mississippi. It is about 200 yards wide at its mouth, and bears from the Mississippi about south-west.

SA'CKBUT, *s.* [*sacabuche*, Spanish; old Fr. *sacquebutte.*]—It is usually eight feet long, without reckoning two circles in the middle of the instrument, and without being drawn out:—it serves as a bass in concerts of wind musick. *Mus. Dict.*

The trumpets, *sackbuts*, psalteries and fife,
Make the sun dance. *Shakspeare.*

SA'CKCLOTH, *s.* Cloth of which sacks are made; coarse cloth sometimes worn in mortification.—Coarse stuff made of goats' hair, of a dark colour, worn by soldiers and mariners; and used as a habit among the Hebrews in times of mourning.—Called *sackcloth*, either because sacks were made of this sort of stuff, or because haircloths were straight and close like a sack. *Calmet.*

To augment her painful penance more,
Thrice every week in ashes she did sit,
And next her wrinkled skin rough *sackcloth* wore. *Spenser.*

Thus with *sackcloth* I invest my woe,
And dust upon my clouded forehead throw. *Sandys.*

SA'CKCLOTHED, *adj.* Wearing sackcloth. *Unused.* —To be jovial, when God calls to mourning; to glut our maw, when he calls to fasting; to glitter, when he would have us *sackcloth'd* and squalid; he hates it to the death. *Bp. Hall.*

SA'CKER, *s.* One that takes a town. *Barret.*

SACKET'S HARBOUR, a post village and port of entry of the United States, in Jefferson county, New York, situated at the mouth of Black river, on Hungary bay, at the east end of Lake Ontario. It is one of the best harbours in the state, though small, and has sufficient water for large ships, being well sheltered from every wind, and nearly surrounded by high lands. A low point of land runs out from north-west, upon which is the dock-yard, with large store-houses, and all the requisite buildings belonging to such an establishment. Upon this point there is a very powerful work called Fort Tomkins, having within it a strong block-house, two stories high; on the land side it is covered by a strong picketing, in which there are embrasures; twenty guns are mounted besides two or three mortars, with a furnace for heating shot. At the bottom of the harbour is the village that contains from 60 to 70 houses, and to the southward of it a barrack capable of accommodating 2000 men, and generally used for the marines belonging to the fleet. On a point eastward of the harbour stands Fort Pike, armed with 20 guns. About 100 yards from the village is a barrack strongly built of logs capable of containing 2500 men, and making a powerful resistance. A little farther westward there is another large fort, mounting 28 guns. By the side of the wood that leads from the village to Henderson's harbour, stands Fort Virginia armed with 16 guns. Fort Chauncey, is a small circular tower, intended for musketry. In addition to these works of strength, there are several block-houses in different situations that altogether render the place very secure, and capable of resisting a powerful attack; indeed, from recent events, the Americans have attached much importance to it, and, with their accustomed celerity, have spared no exertion to render it formidable. This place is rapidly increasing in population and importance. A weekly newspaper is published here; 176 miles north-west of Albany.

SA'CKFUL, *s.* A full bag.—Wood goes about with *sackfuls* of dross, odiously misrepresenting his prince's countenance. *Swift.*

SA'CKAGE, *s.* Act of storming and plundering a place. —With as small a matter Psammeticus saved the *saccage* of of a city. *Feltham.*

SA'CKING, *s.* Act of plundering a town. *Barret.*— [ꝥæccing, Sax.] Coarse cloth, fastened to a bedstead, and supporting the bed; cloth, of which sacks are made.

SACKINGEN, a small town of the west of Germany, in Baden, on the Rhine. Population 950.—It was one of the four forest towns of Suabia; 17 miles east of Bale.

SA'CKLESS, *adj.* [ꝥacleaꝥ, Saxon, blameless, inoffensive, quiet.] A common word in the north of England for innocent; and sometimes for weak, simple.

SACKPO'SSET, *s.* A posset made of milk, sack, and some other ingredients.—Snuff the candles at supper on the table, because the burning snuff may fall into a dish of soup or *sackposset. Swift.*

SACKVILLE (Thomas), Lord Buckhurst and Earl of Dorset, an accomplished nobleman, one of the earliest cultivators of English poetry, was the son of Sir Richard Sackville, of Buckhurst, in the parish of Withiam, Sussex. According to his age stated by Dr. Abbot in his funeral sermon, he was born in 1536; but Mr. Warton affirms this date to be evidently inaccurate, and says that his birth should be placed at least six years earlier. He appears to have had a domestic education till his being entered (as is conjectured) at Hart-Hall, Oxford; whence he removed to Cambridge, at which University he took the degree of M.A. He distinguished himself at both these seminaries for his performances in Latin and English poetry, nor did he desert the muses when he removed to the Inner Temple. He studied the law so far as to be called to the bar, but without any intention of practising it, for he was born to the expectation of an ample patrimony. He was a representative in parliament for Westmoreland,

moreland, in the fourth and fifth years of Queen Mary; and about that time, in 1557, he formed the plan of a poem intended to comprehend a view of all the illustrious but unfortunate characters of English history from the conquest, by way of moral example, under the title of the "Mirrour of Magistrates." Of this work he finished a poetical preface, termed an "Induction," and one legend, on the life of Henry Stafford, Duke of Buckingham: the rest of the design was committed to other hands. In 1561, his tragedy of "Gorboduc" was exhibited in the Inner Temple hall, and afterwards before Queen Elizabeth, at Whitehall, with great applause. This piece, the poetical merits of which will be hereafter considered, was well calculated to ingratiate the writer with his sovereign, on account of the maxims of high loyalty which he put into the mouth of the good counsellor Eubulus, who condemns resistance to kings upon any account whatsoever.

Mr. Sackville married, about 1557, a lady who was his kinswoman, with whom he passed the whole of his after-life. He was a member in the two first parliaments of Elizabeth, for Sussex and for Bucks, after which he travelled abroad. The cause of his absence was probably an embarrassment in his circumstances; for he appears to have been much inclined to profusion in his youth. At the time of his father's death, in 1566, he was a prisoner in Rome, but on what account, we are not informed. He soon obtained his liberation, and on his return entered into the possession of a large inheritance. In the following year he was knighted, and raised to the peerage by the title of Baron Buckhurst. Being one of the most splendid of that order in character and accomplishments, he was selected by the Queen, in 1570, as the head of a complimentary embassy to Charles IX. of France, on account of his marriage, on which occasion he indulged his taste for magnificence to the injury of his fortune. He was afterwards joined in several important commissions; and in 1587 he was sent ambassador to the States of the United Provinces for the purpose of inquiring into their complaints against the Earl of Leicester. His report of the matter was so displeasing to that potent favourite, that he influenced the Queen, on Lord Burkhurst's return, to confine him above nine months to his house; and it was not till Leicester's death that he was restored to his liberty. "So obsequious (says his chaplain Abbot) was he to this command, that in all the time he never would endure, openly or secretly, by day or night, to see either wife or child;" but this was an age in which the greatest and proudest of the English nobility vied with each other in a romantic submission to a female sovereign. The Queen, now freed from an overruling influence, testified her returning favour to Lord Buckhurst by conferring upon him, in 1589, the Order of the Garter, and by interfering openly to procure for him, in 1591, the chancellorship of the University of Oxford, in opposition to the Earl of Essex, whom, though a new favourite, she occasionally wished to humiliate. When residing for a time at Oxford in his capacity of chancellor, the Queen honoured him with a visit of several days, and was splendidly entertained.

In 1598, Lord Buckhurst was joined with the treasurer Burleigh in negotiations for a peace with Spain; and when the States-General, taking the alarm, sent over deputies to renew their own treaty with England, he was appointed to confer with them, and signed a new treaty on terms very advantageous to his mistress. Elizabeth now thought it time to bestow upon him some substantial reward for his services; and upon the death of Burleigh, she nominated him to the vacant post of Lord High-treasurer, in 1599. In this situation he was instrumental in discovering and defeating the dangerous projects of the Earl of Essex; and at the trial of that unfortunate nobleman, he sat as high-steward, in which office he conducted himself with prudence and humanity. It appears that he did not attach himself to any of the factions by which the court was divided in that reign, but stood solely upon the good graces of his sovereign, who continued as long as she lived to display her confidence in him by employing him in the management of various important affairs. On the accession of King James his post of treasurer was confirmed to him for life; and in 1604 he was created Earl of Dorset. He attended to the business of his office and other state-affairs till his death, which happened suddenly at the council-table in April, 1608, at the age, according to Dr. Abbot, of 72, but probably nearer that of 80.

Although the Earl of Dorset scarcely ranks among the more eminent statesmen of Elizabeth's reign, yet he appears to have filled the offices entrusted to him with great credit, and for public and private worth and integrity to have been surpassed by none of his time. He was a good speaker, and a better writer, composing most of his official papers himself; for his refined taste inspired him with disgust at the barbarism of secretaries. As a poet he deserves great praise for having brought English heroic verse almost to a state of perfection, and for having given the first specimen of regular tragedy in blank verse. The "Induction" to the "Mirrour of Magistrates" contains an imaginary descent to the infernal regions, under the guidance of Sorrow, introductory to the stories afterwards told by the persons themselves whose misfortunes are the subject of the Mirrour. It is written in stanzas, of lines in heroic measure, the versification of which is for the most part as pure and regular as that of any modern, while the strength of description, and the force of imagination displayed in inventing allegorical characters, are scarcely surpassed by Spenser. His tragedy of "Gorboduc," or, as it was entitled when printed in 1571, "The Tragedie of Ferrex and Porrex," is a bloody tale from English history, composed without attention to dramatic rules, and with little interest or pathos, but with considerable force of poetical conception and moral sentiment, and in pure and perspicuous language, free from the turgidity that afterwards so much infected the English theatre. Sackville is supposed to have been assisted in this play by Thomas Norton, to whom the three first acts were ascribed; but Mr. Warton, from internal evidence, is led to doubt the fact; Norton's avowed poetry being of an inferior quality to that of Gorboduc, which is throughout uniform in style. Perhaps the planning of the acts only was his part. This tragedy has been several times printed, the last edition being undertaken by Spence, in 1736, at the suggestion of Pope, who was desirous of again bringing it into notice; but the attempt was attended with little success. This nobleman also prefixed a Latin epistle to Clarke's Latin translation of Castiglione's "Courtier," printed in 1571. *Biogr. Brit. Collins's Peerage. Warton's Hist. of Poetry.*

SACKVILLE (George Viscount), Baron Bolebrook, a remarkable character, whom we have introduced into our work, on account of his claim to the authorship of JUNIUS. He was born June 26, 1716, in the Haymarket; and received the early part of his education at Westminster-school. At this place, English history was his delight; and he passed all his examinations with credit to himself and his instructors. On entering his fourteenth year, he left the school to accompany his father, the Duke of Dorset, to Ireland, where the Duke determined on finishing the education of Lord George, at Trinity College, Dublin; where he was accordingly placed. On the 11th July, 1737, he obtained a commission; and the following year he accompanied his father to Paris, where he acquired a thorough knowledge of the French language. On the 19th July, 1740, he was appointed Lieutenant-Colonel of General Philip Bragge's regiment. In 1742, he accompanied his sovereign, George the Second, to Hanover; and on June 27th, 1743, he distinguished himself at the battle of Dettingen, where the king commanded in person; the 9th of July following, he was declared one of his majesty's aids-de-camp.

He served in the campaign of 1744, and at the battle of Fontenoy, which took place that year, was wounded in the breast by a musket-ball, and thrown upon a waggon with many others. He preserved the uniform which he wore that day, bearing on it the mark of the ball, and other holes in the skirt of the coat, perforated by bullets.

At the time of the rebellion in Scotland, in favour of the Pretender, Lord George served under the Duke of Cumberland,

land, and so far distinguished himself, that he was made Colonel of the 20th regiment. He afterwards became Member of Parliament, Lieutenant-General, and Member of the Privy Council.

He next served under Prince Ferdinand, in Germany: at this time happened the battle of Minden, which proved the overthrow of his lordship's hitherto unblemished reputation. Ferdinand sent him orders to march on a certain point: his friends say he misunderstood, his enemies that he was afraid to follow, the instructions conveyed to him. He rode to the prince for an explanation, but the important moment was lost; and, in the end, his lordship was disgraced, and dismissed his majesty's service. It is now universally agreed, that his sentence was most unjust, and that he often displayed eminent courage and conduct. In 1765, Sackville again came into office, but was expelled in 1766, on account of the new ministry refusing to act with a man disgraced by a court-martial.

Soured by this malignant attack, he retired from public life, rarely speaking or appearing in Parliament, until, in 1775, he was made Secretary of State for the Colonies. During the above interval, the Letters of Junius were written; and Mr. Coventry, in his "Critical Inquiry," has rendered it nearly certain that these letters were written by his lordship. He rests this opinion on the similarity between the hand-writing of Junius and Sackville, on the identity of their style, on the necessity of some strong stimulus to excite a man to hunt down a subject for so many years, without fame and without emolument; on the circumstance that all Sackville's foes, and particularly those who had any thing to do with the battle of Minden, are attacked by Junius; that the information of court intrigues, for which Junius is so remarkable, Sackville could easily obtain; that the little of Junius' state of life which can be gathered from his writings, tallies exactly with what is known of his lordship. We refer to the above work for the proofs of these points. Lord Sackville died August 16, 1785.

SACLACTIC ACID, a name Scheele gave to the mucous acid.

SACMARA, a considerable river of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Orenburg, in the mountains of Oural, which, flowing southwards, falls into the river of the same name. Its banks are thinly inhabited, but rich in mines of copper.

SACO, a post town and port of entry of the United States, in York county, Maine, on the north-east side of the river Saco, opposite Biddeford, with which it is connected by three bridges. It is a considerable town, favourably situated for trade and manufactures. It contains a bank and academy, and has considerable trade. The shipping belonging to this port in 1816, amounted to 4825 tons. The principal settlement is near Saco Falls, which afford excellent seats for mills and manufacturing establishments. The falls have a descent of 42 feet, and present an interesting and beautiful view. Just below the falls is a fine basin where vessels take in their eargoes; 15 miles south-west of Portland; 28 north-east of York, and 100 north-north-east of Boston.

SACO, a river of the United States, which rises west of the White Mountains, in New Hampshire, and runs south-east into the sea, below the town of Saco. It is 160 miles in length, and has falls of 72 feet in Hiram; of 20 feet in Lymington; 30 Buxton; and 42 in Saco. To the last, six miles from its mouth, it is navigables for ships. The mouth of this river lies four miles east of Cape Porpoise. There is a bar which will not allow a vessel of above 100 tons burden to pass, if fully loaded. Without the bar, and between Fletcher's Neck and the mainland, is a pool wherein vessels of any size may lie at all seasons of the year, and take in their ladings at pleasure.

SACOMBE, a parish of England, in Hertfordshire; 4 miles north-by-west of Ware.

SACRA GENTILITIA, among the Romans. Beside the public festivals observed by the whole Roman people, and beside the holidays kept on birth-days, marriages, or any other personal account, there were likewise family feasts celebrated annually by the descendants only of particular families. They thought themselves obliged to keep these with the utmost exactness and regularity, on pain of divine vengeance. Livy tells us, that a young man of the Fabian family, when the Capitol was besieged by the Gauls, made his way through the enemy's army, in order to celebrate the yearly festival of his family, to the no small astonishment both of the besiegers and besieged. *Mem. Acad. Inscript.* vol. viii. p. 310.

SACRA ISOLA, a small island at the mouth of the Tiber, near Ostia.

SA'CRAMENT, *s.* [*sacrement*, Fr. *sacrementum*, Lat.] An oath; any ceremony producing an obligation.—Here I begin the *sacrament* to all. *B. Jonson.*—An outward and visible sign of an inward and spiritual grace.—As often as we mention a *sacrament*, it is improperly understood; for in the writings of the ancient fathers, all articles which are peculiar to Christian faith, all duties of religion containing that which sense or natural reason cannot of itself discern, are most commonly named *sacraments;* our restraint of the word to some few principal divine ceremonies, importeth in every such ceremony two things, the substance of the ceremony itself, which is visible; and besides that, somewhat else more secret, in reference whereunto we conceive that ceremony to be a *sacrament*. *Hooker.*—The eucharist; the holy communion.

Ten thousand French have ta'en the *sacrament*
To rive their dangerous artillery
Upon no Christian soul but English Talbot. *Shakspeare.*

As we have ta'en the *sacrament*,
We will unite the white rose with the red. *Shakspeare.*

Before the famous battle of Cressy, he spent the greatest part of the night in prayer; and in the morning received the *sacrament*, with his son, and the chief of his officers. *Addison.*

The Protestants admit only of two; viz. baptism and the eucharist, or Lord's Supper.

The Romanists, however, call the eucharist, by way of eminence, the "Holy Sacrament." Thus, to expose the Holy Sacrament, is to lay a consecrated host on the altar to be adored. The procession of the Holy Sacrament is that wherein this host is carried about the church, or about the town.

In a like sense they say, the Feast of the Holy Sacrament; the Congregation of the Holy Sacrament.

To SA'CRAMENT, *v. a.* To bind by an oath. *Not in use.*—When desperate men have *sacramented* themselves to destroy, God can prevent and deliver. *Abp. Laud.*

SACRAMENT St. or Colonia, a city and colony which was held by the Portuguese, opposite the city of Buenos Ayres, on the shore of the river Plata. It has a tolerable port, receiving some shelter from the island of St. Gabriel; yet it is otherwise open and exposed, and has some rocks and shoals that render it necessary to have a good pilot to steer it with safety. It was founded by the Portuguese, in the year 1579, under Don Manuel de Lobo, and has occasioned many struggles between the rival nations of Spain and Portugal. It was successively wrested from its founders, restored by Charles V. to the Portuguese, resumed in 1750, by Spain, and finally, in 1778, ceded to the Spaniards, who have ever since remained in possession. Whilst in the hands of Portugal, it flourished much by the prosecution of a contraband trade with Buenos Ayres, but is now of very little comparative importance. The fortress of the island of St. Gabriel, which protects the harbour, is reckoned a strong one; 33 miles north-east from Buenos Ayres. Lat. 34. 22. S. long. 57. 52. W.

SACRAME'NTAL, *adj.* Constituting a sacrament; pertaining to a sacrament.—To make complete the outward substance of a sacrament, there is required an outward form, which form *sacramental* elements receive from *sacramental* words. *Hooker.*—The words of St. Paul are plain; and whatever interpretation can be put upon them, it can only vary the way of the *sacramental* efficacy, but it cannot evacuate the blessing. *Bp. Taylor.*

SACRAME'NTAL,

SACRAME'NTAL, *s.* That which relates to a sacrament. —These words, cup and testament, — be *sacramentals. Morton's Discharge.*—The fees of sacraments, *sacramentals,* diriges. *Wharton.*

SACRAME'NTALLY, *adv.* After the manner of a sacrament.—The law of circumcision was meant by God *sacramentally* to impress the duty of strict purity. *Hammond.*

SACRAMENTA'RIAN, *s.* One who differs in opinion, as to the sacraments, from the Romish church; a name reproachfully applied by papists to protestants, and to the former by the Lutherans.—They resolved to accuse him [Cranmer] of being the head and protector of the *sacramentarians. Tindal's Rapin.*

SACRAME'NTARY, *s.* [*sacramentarium,* low Lat.] An ancient book of prayers and directions respecting sacraments.

SACRAME'NTARY, *adj.* Of or belonging to sacramentarians.

SACRAMENTO, a military post of the Spaniards in Mexico, in the province of Cohahuila, on the shore of the river Sabinas. It contains 60 families, including 50 soldiers with their families.

SACRARIUM, among the Romans, a chapel in a private family. It differed from *lararium,* as being dedicated to some particular deity, and the lararium to the household gods in general.

SACRATIF, a cape in the south-east of Spain, on the coast of Granada. Lat. 36. 41. N. long. 3. 27. W.

SACRE, or SAKER, in Ornithology, the name of a species of falcon, called by authors FALCO SACER; which see.

SA'CRED, *adj.* [*sacré,* Fr. *sacer,* Lat.] Immediately relating to God; holy.

Wolves shall succeed for teachers, grievous wolves,
Who all the *sacred* mysteries of Heaven
To their own vile advantages shall turn. *Milton.*

O'er its eastern gate was rais'd above
A temple, *sacred to* the queen of love. *Dryden.*

Relating to religion; scriptural.—Smit with the love of *sacred* song. *Milton.*—Entitled to reverence.

Poet and saint to thee alone were giv'n,
The two most *sacred* names of earth and heav'n. *Cowley.*

Inviolable.

The honour's *sacred,* which he talks on now,
Supposing that I lackt it. *Shakspeare.*

Secrets of marriage still are *sacred* held;
Their sweet and bitter by the wise conceal'd. *Dryden.*

SA'CREDLY, *adv.* Inviolably; religiously.—When God had manifested himself in the flesh, how *sacredly* did he preserve this privilege! *South.*

SA'CREDNESS, *s.* The state of being sacred; sanctity. —In the sanctuary the cloud, and the oracular answers, were prerogatives peculiar to the *sacredness* of the place. *South.* —This insinuates the *sacredness* of power, let the administration of it be what it will. *L'Estrange.*

SACRI'FIC, *adj.* [*sacrificus,* Lat.] Employed in sacrifice.

SACRI'FICABLE, *adj.* [from *sacrificor,* Lat.] Capable of being offered in sacrifice.

SACRI'FICANT, *s.* One who offers a sacrifice.

SACRI'FICATOR, *s.* [*sacrificateur,* Fr. from *sacrificor,* Lat.] Sacrificer; offerer of sacrifice.—Not only the subject of sacrifice is questionable, but also the *sacrificator,* which the picture makes to be Jepththa. *Brown.*

SACRI'FICATORY, *adj.* [*sacrificatoire,* Fr.] Offering sacrifice. *Sherwood.*

To SA'CRIFICE, *v. a.* [*sacrifier,* Fr. *sacrifico,* Lat.] To offer to Heaven; to immolate as an atonement or propitiation: with *to.*

This blood, like *sacrificing* Abel's, cries
To me for justice. *Shakspeare.*

To destroy or give up for the sake of something else; with *to.*—The breach of this rule, To do as one would be done to, would be contrary to that interest men *sacrifice to* when they break it. *Locke.*—To destroy; to kill; to employ uselessly.

Condemn'd to *sacrifice* his childish years
To babbling ignorance, and *to* empty fears. *Prior.*

The Phœnicians are usually held to have been the first authors of sacrifices; Porphyry, indeed, attributes the invention to the Egyptians; who, he says, first offered the first-fruits of their grounds to the gods; burning them upon an altar of turf. At length they came to burn perfumes; and, at last, he says, they sacrificed animals; observing, that they first ate some herbs or fruits regularly offered on the altars. He adds, that libations were very frequent, before the sacrifice of beasts was introduced.

Ovid observes, that the very names *victim* and *hostia* import, that they were not slain till such time as victories were obtained over enemies; indeed, while men lived on herbs and pulse, it is no wonder they abstained from sacrifices of beasts; since the law of sacrifices required, that they should eat some part of them. In effect, it is supposed to be this that first introduced flesh as a food, and made man a carnivorous animal.

The truth is, in all antiquity, both sacred and profane, sacrifices were ordinarily nothing else but holy banquets.

Macrobius tells us, that the Egyptians, long accustomed to bloodless sacrifices, being at length obliged to admit the worship of Serapis and Saturn, to whom victims were to be sacrificed, would not allow their temples to be built in the cities. These victims, however, or bloody sacrifices, at length obtained, in exclusion of almost all the rest: the most usual of these among the ancients, were bulls, oxen, cows, sheep, and lambs, because these were the most ordinary food of man.

The manner of sacrificing among the ancient Hebrews is amply described in the books of Moses. That in use among the Romans is as follows. In the choice of the victim, care was taken it were without blemish or imperfection; its tail not too small at the end; the tongue not black, nor the ears cleft; and the bull, such as had never been yoked. The victim being pitched upon, they gilded his forehead and horns, especially if a bull, heifer, or cow. The head they also adorned with a woollen infula, whence hung two rows of chaplets with twisted ribbands; and on the middle of the body a kind of stole, pretty large, hung down on both sides: the lesser victims were only adorned with bundles of flowers and garlands, together with white tufts or wreaths.

The victims, thus made ready, were brought before the altar: the lesser were not led in a string, but driven to the place: the greater were conducted in a halter: if they made any struggle, or refused to go, the resistance was taken for an ill augury, and the sacrifice was often set aside. The victim, thus brought before the altar, was examined very circumspectly, to see if there were no defect in it; then the priest, being clad in his sacerdotal habit, and accompanied with the sacrificers and other attendants, and being washed and purified according to the ceremonies prescribed, began the sacrifice, with making a loud confession of his unworthiness, acknowledging himself guilty of divers sins; for which he begged pardon of the gods, hoping they would be pleased to grant his requests. The confessions were like those of the Hebrews; with this difference, that the Pagans confessed the frailty of mankind, and owned their faults; the Jews confessed chiefly the greatness of God, accompanying it with hymns and musical instruments.

The confession being finished, the priest cried aloud, *Hoc age!* i. e. compose yourselves, and mind your business; and presently an usher, holding a rod in his hand, called *commentaculum,* went through the temple, and made all those withdraw who were not initiated into the mysteries of religion, or such as were excommunicated.

Sacrifices among the Greeks were of four kinds; viz.

1. Free-will

1. Free-will offerings, or such as were paid in consequence of a vow, χαριστηρια and ευκλαια; for a victory obtained, the first-fruits offered by husbandmen for a plentiful harvest, and the like. 2. Propitiatory offerings, ιλαστικα, to avert the anger of some offended deity, and such were all sacrifices used in expiation. 3. Petitionary sacrifices, αιτητικα, for success in any enterprise. 4. Sacrifices expressly commanded by some oracle or prophet, τα απο μαντειας.

The custom of the Greeks, from whom the Romans borrowed theirs, was, that the priest coming to the altar, should ask aloud, Τις τι δε? Who is here? The people answered, Πολλοι και αγαθοι, Many good persons: then the usher went through the temple, crying, Εκας εκας εστε, βεβηλοι, that is, Out with the wicked. The Romans commonly used the words, *Nocentes, Profani, abscedite.* All those who were driven out of the temples among the Greeks, were comprehended under these general words, βεβηλοι, αμυητοι, ακαθαροι. The profane being withdrawn, they cried, *Favete linguis,* or *animis,* and *Pascite linguam,* to require silence and attention during the sacrifice.

These ceremonies ended, the chief sacrificer being sat down, and the rest of them standing, the magistrates or private person, who offered sacrifice, came before him, and presented him with the first-fruits and victim, and sometimes made a short discourse, by way of compliment, as we find Homer makes Ulysses do, when he presented the high priest with Iphigenia to be sacrificed. As any person came to present his offering, he washed his hands in a place appointed in the temple for that purpose.

Lastly, when the offering was made, the priest that officiated perfumed the victim with incense, and sprinkled it with the lustral water; and having washed his hands, and got up again to the altar, he prayed to the god to whom he presented the sacrifice, with a loud voice, that he would accept of those offerings, and be pleased with the victim he sacrificed to him for the public good, and for such and such things in particular. In the close of the offertory and prayer, made by the priest to the god, he came down the steps of the altar, and from the hand of one of his assistants, received the sacred paste, called *mola falsa,* made of barley or wheat flour, mixed with salt and water, which he threw upon the head of the victim, sprinkling a little wine upon it, which was called *immolatio.* Servius says, the priest scattered little bits of this paste upon the head of the victim, and also on the altar where the sacred fire burned, and on the knives, by way of consecration.

He then took wine in a vessel called *simpulum,* and having tasted it himself first, and made his assistants do the same, to shew that they partook of the sacrifice, he poured it between the horns of the victim, pronouncing these words of the consecration, *Mactus hoc vino inferis esto.* This done, he pulled off the hairs from between the horns, and threw them into the fire; and commanded the victimarius (who asked him, *Agon?* Shall I strike?) to knock down the victim with a blow on the head with a hammer or axe; upon which another assistant, named *popa,* presently thrust a knife into its throat; whilst a third received the blood, with which the priest sprinkled the altar.

When the victim was slain, they flayed him, if it was not a burnt-offering (for they then burned skin and all); they then took the flesh of the head, and adorning it with garlands and flowers, fastened it to the pillars of the temples, as well as the skins, as ensigns of religion; carrying them about in procession in public calamities. Not but that the priests oft wore the skins, and others went to sleep upon them in the temple of Æsculapius and Faunus, that they might receive favourable responses in their dreams, or be cured of their maladies. They then opened the victim's entrails, and after circumspectly viewing them, to draw presages therefrom, according to the art of the aruspices, they floured them with meal, and sprinkled them with wine, and made a present of them to the gods, *reddebant exta diis,* by throwing them into the fire in small bits, boiled or parboiled; and hence the entrails were called *porricæ.*

The entrails being burned, and the other ceremonies finished, they believed the gods to be satisfied; and that they could not fail to find the vows accomplished, which they expressed by the word *litare, q. a.* all is finished, and well done; whereas *non litare,* on the contrary, intimated there was something wanting to the perfection of the sacrifice, and that the gods were not appeased. The priest afterwards dismissed the people with this form, *Ilicet.*

Hence it may be observed, that the sacrifices consisted of four principal parts; the first called *libatio,* or the pouring a little wine upon the victim; the second *immolatio,* when, after they had scattered the crumbs of salted paste thereon, they killed it; the third *redditio,* when they offered the entrails to the gods; and the fourth *litatio,* when the sacrifice was perfected, and accomplished without any fault. For a more particular account of the materials and rites of sacrifice, see Potter's Archæol. Græc. tom. i. p. 200, &c.

To SA'CRIFICE, *v. n.* To make offerings; to offer sacrifice.

Some mischief is befallen
To that meek man who well had *sacrific'd.* *Milton.*

SA'CRIFICE, *s.* [*sacrifice,* Fr. *sacrificium,* Lat.] The act of offering to Heaven.

God will ordain religious rites
Of *sacrifice.* *Milton.*

The thing offered to Heaven, or immolated by an act of religion.

Go with me like good angels to my end,
And as the long divorce of steel falls on me,
Make of your prayers one sweet *sacrifice,*
And lift my soul to heav'n. *Shakspeare.*

Any thing destroyed, or quitted for the sake of something else: as, he made a *sacrifice* of his friendship to his interest. —Supposing a man to be in the talking world one-third part of the day, whoever gives another quarter of an hour's hearing, makes him a *sacrifice* of more than the four hundred thousandth part of his conversable life! *Tatler.*—Any thing destroyed.

SA'CRIFICER, *s.* One who offers sacrifice; one that immolates.—Let us be *sacrificers,* but not butchers. *Shakspeare.*

SACRIFI'CIAL, *adj.* Performing sacrifice; included in sacrifice.

Rain *sacrificial* whisp'rings in his ear;
Make sacred even his stirrup. *Shakspeare.*

SACRIFICIOS, a small and desert island of the Pacific ocean near the coast of the province of Tecoantepec, in Mexico. Lat. 15. 40. N. long. 98. 6. W.

SACRIFICIOS, an island in the Atlantic ocean, on the coast of the province and government of Vera Cruz. It is uninhabited.

SA'CRILEGE, *s.* [*sacrilege,* Fr. *sacrilegium,* Lat.] The crime of stealing or profaning by unworthy uses things belonging to the church.

Then gan a cursed hand the quiet womb
Of his great-grandmother with steel to wound,
And the hid treasures in her sacred tomb
With *sacrilege* to dig. *Spenser.*

All persons not in holy orders, who shall be indicted, whether in the same county where the fact was committed, or in a different county, of robbing any church, chapel, or other holy place, are excluded from their clergy, by 23 H. VIII. c. 1. 25 H. VIII, c. 3. 5 & 6 Ed. VI. c. 10. And all persons in general are ousted of their clergy for their felonious taking of any goods out of any parish church, or other church or chapel, by the 1 Ed. VI. c. 12. But the word *robbing* being always taken to carry with it some force, it seems no sacrilege is within these statutes, which is not accompanied with the actual breaking of a church, &c. And the statute 23 Hen. VIII. is the only statute which extends to accessaries to these robberies, except the offence amount to burglary; in which case accessaries before are ousted of clergy, by 3 & 4 W. & M. c. 9.

SACRILE'GIOUS,

SACRILE'GIOUS, *adj.* [*sacrilegus*, Lat.] Violating things sacred.

Still green with bays each ancient altar stands,
Above the reach of *sacrilegious* hands. *Pope.*

SACRILE'GIOUSLY, *adv.* With sacrilege.—When these evils befal him, his conscience tells him it was for *sacrilegiously* pillaging and invading God's house. *South.*

SACRILE'GIOUSNESS, *s.* A disposition to sacrilege. *Scott.*

SA'CRILEGIST, *s.* One who commits sacrilege.—The hand of God is still upon the posterity of Antiochus Epiphanes the *sacrilegist*. *Spelman.*

SA'CRING, *part.* [from *sacre, an obsolete verb.*] Consecrating. "*Sacring* my song to every deity." *Chapman.* It was very early applied to the little bell, used in elevating the host, and other offices of the Romish church; as in an ancient song, written about the year 1400, given in Ritson's Anc. Songs, p. 56. "Ryng the belle, that these forsaiden may come to the *sacrying*," i. e. to the elevation of the host.

I'll startle you,
Worse than the *sacring* bell. *Shakspeare.*

The *sacring* of the kings of France is the sign of their sovereign priesthood as well as kingdom, and in the right thereof they are capable of holding all vacant benefices. *Temple.*

SA'CRIST, or SA'CRISTAN, *s.* [*sacristain*, Fr.] He that has the care of the utensils or moveables of the church.—A *sacrist* or treasurer are not dignitaries in the church of common right, but only by custom. *Ayliffe.*

SA'CRISTY, *s.* [*sacristie*, Fr.] An apartment where the consecrated vessels or moveables of a church are reposited.—A third apartment should be a kind of *sacristy* for altars, idols, and sacrificing instruments. *Addison.*

SACROBOSCO (John de), an eminent mathematician in the thirteenth century, is claimed for a countryman by writers of the English, Scotch, and Irish nations. According to Leland and Pitts, he was born at Halifax, in Yorkshire, whence they derive his surname; the former rendering it in the Saxon idiom, *Haligwalde*, or *Halifax*, and the latter in English, *Holywood*. According to Stainhurst, he was a native of Holywood, near Dublin; but according to Dempster and Mackenzie, of Nithsdale, in Scotland. His English biographers state, that he appears to have received his academical education at Oxford. Mackenzie, on the contrary, informs us, that, after finishing his studies, he took holy orders, and became a canon regular of the order of St. Augustine, in the famous monastery of Holywood, in Nithsdale. They all agree, however, in asserting, that he spent the greatest part of his life at Paris; where, says Mackenzie, he was admitted a member of the university in the year 1221, under the syndics of the Scotch nation. In this seminary he distinguished himself by his proficiency in polite literature and philosophy; and more particularly, by the ardour and success with which he cultivated the mathematical sciences. Being elected professor of the mathematics, he discharged the duties of that appointment with very high reputation for many years, and was justly considered to be the ablest mathematician of his time. He died in 1256, as appears from the inscription on his monument in the cloisters belonging to that branch of the Trinitarians called Mathurins, at Paris. He was the author of a treatise "De Sphæra Mundi," which has been frequently printed, and illustrated with the commentaries of Christopher Clavius, Peter Valerian, Elias Venetus, Peter Nonius, and other learned mathematicians; "De Anni Ratione, seu de Computo Ecclesiastico," also frequently printed, both in a separate form, and with the former in an 8vo. volume; "De Algorismo," printed at Paris, in 1498, with "Comment. Petri Cirvilli Hisp.;" "De Astrolabis;" "Breviarium Juris," &c. *Hutton's Math. Dict.*

SACRO-LUMBALIS, a muscle. See ANATOMY.

SACRO-SCIATIC NERVES. See ANATOMY.

SA'CROSANCT, *adj.* [*sacrosanctus*, Lat.] Inviolable: sacred. *Unused.*—The Roman Church — makes itself so *sacrosanct* and infallible. *More.*

SACRUM, *s.* [Lat.] The rump-bone.

SACS, a tribe of Indians in North America and Louisiana, who principally reside in four villages on the Mississippi. They hunt on this river and its confluent streams, from the Illinois to the river Jowa, and on the plains west of those which border on the Missouri. They occasionally resort to agriculture for subsistence, raising in considerable quantities, corns, beans, and melons. The tribe consists of about 3000, and it is estimated that 700 fighting men can be mustered.

SACY (Louis de), an advocate and an estimable man of letters, was born at Paris, in 1654. He was brought up to the bar, at which he appeared with distinction, as well for the eloquence and soundness of his pleadings, as for the probity of his conduct, and the polish and amenity of his manners. Attached to literature by inclination, he employed his leisure in composing works, of which the first that appeared was a "Translation of Pliny's Epistles," 1699. This was very well received by the public, and obtained him a seat in the French academy, in 1701. This version, says D'Alembert, is "as agreeable to read as the original, and at the same time less fatiguing, because the translator, while he enters into all Pliny's refinement of thought, expresses it with more simplicity; so that the author's wit appears with more advantage by being freed from the studied dress which too often impairs its beauty in the Latin." M. de Sacy prefixed to his work an elegant life of Pliny the Younger, and he followed it with a translation of his "Panegyric of Trajan." The reputation and amiable qualities of this writer gave him admission into a select society of which the celebrated Marquise de Lambert was the centre, and he became her most intimate and confidential friend. It was in the bosom of this society that he composed his "Traité de l'Amitie," a work which displayed the influence of friendship upon his own pure and elegant mind, though, according to D'Alembert, it is neither sufficiently tender for the votaries of sensibility, nor profound enough for philosophers; it was dedicated to Madame de Lambert. Soon after, he published a "Traité de la Gloire; and in these compositions, as well as in the collection of his "Factums" or pleadings, which, with some other pieces, he published some time before his death, in two vols. 4to., he had obviously in view the imitation of the great Roman orator, whom, indeed, he followed with very distant steps. He could not, however, be surpassed, in the generous manner in which he exercised his profession. The president, Montesquieu, who succeeded him in the academy, said of him, "All who wanted his assistance became his friends. At the close of every day he found scarcely any other recompence than the consciousness of some additional good actions; and growing continually less rich but much more disinterested, he left to his children only the honour of having had so respectable a father." M. de Sacy died at Paris, in 1727, at the age of 73. His style as a writer is pure and elegant, his thoughts are refined, and his sentiments elevated; but he is charged with being too fond of epigrammatic turns and antitheses. *Moreri. D'Alembert.*

SACZKA, a small town of the north-east of Bohemia, in the circle of Biczow, on the Schwarzbach. Population 1100.

SAD, *adj.* [Of this word the etymology is not known. "It is probably a contraction of *sagged*, heavy, burthened, overwhelmed, from *To sag*, to load. *Johnson.*—Todd says, perhaps our earliest usage of *sad* is in the sense of settled, steady, firm. "We ben made parceneris of Christ, if netheles we holden the bigynnyng of his substaunce *sad* in to the ende." *Wicliffe.*—So Chaucer, *unsad*, for unsettled. "O stormy peple, and ever untrewe."]—Sorrowful; full of grief.

One from *sad* dismay
Recomforted, and after thoughts disturb'd,
Submitting to what seem'd remediless. *Milton.*

The hapless pair
Sat in their *sad* discourse and various plaint. *Milton.*

Habitually melancholy; heavy; gloomy; not gay; not cheerful.—It ministreth unto men, and other creatures, all celestial influences: it dissipateth those *sad* thoughts and sorrows, which the darkness both begetteth and maintaineth. *Ralegh.*—Gloomy; shewing sorrow or anxiety by outward appearance.

Earth trembled from her entrails, as again
In pangs, and Nature gave a second groan;
Sky lour'd, and, muttering thunder, some *sad* drops
Wept at completing of the mortal sin
Original. *Milton.*

Serious; not light; not volatile; grave.—The lady Katharine, a *sad* and religious woman, when Henry VIII.'s resolution of a divorce from her was first made known, said that she had not offended; but it was a judgment of God, for that her former marriage was made in blood. *Bacon.*—If it were an embassy of weight, choice was made of some *sad* person of known judgment and experience, and not of a young man, not weighed in state matters. *Bacon.*—Afflictive; calamitous.

Thoughts in my unquiet breast are risen,
Tending to some relief of our extremes,
Or end, though sharp and *sad*, yet tolerable. *Milton.*

Bad; inconvenient; vexatious; a word of burlesque complaint.—These qualifications make him a *sad* husband. *Addison.*—Dark coloured.—Scarce any tinging ingredient is of so general use as woad, or glastum; for though of itself it dye but a blue, yet it is used to prepare cloth for green, and many of the *sadder* colours, when the dyers make them last without fading. *Boyle.*—Woad or wade is used by the dyers to lay the foundation of all *sad* colours. *Mortimer.*—Heavy; weighty; ponderous. *Unused.*

With that his hand, more *sad* than lump of lead,
Uplifting high, he weened with Morddure,
His own good sword, Morddure, to cleave his head.
Spenser.

Heavy, applied to bread, as contrary to light. *Northern provincialism. Grose.*

SADAF, a name given by the Arabian writers, sometimes to the purpura, or purple fish, and sometimes to the purple fucus, with which the ancient Greek women used to stain their cheeks. This was the original of all painting, and the substance was the common purple sea-wracks. After this every thing was called fucus that was used by the women to paint their faces; and they had a fucus metallica made of white lead or ceruss: and the purple roots of alcanet, &c. were called fuci.

SADAO or SADO, a river in the west of Portugal, in Alentejo, which has its source on the mountain of Monchique, flows north the greater part of its course, and falls into a bay of the Atlantic, at St. Setubal.

SADAR, or ALSADAR, the Arabian name of the medicinal lotus, described by Dioscorides, and many others of the ancients. The fruit of this tree, called by Virgil the berries of the acanthus, is the *nabac* of the Arabian writers, though some would have it to be a kind of fig.

SADAVA, a small town in the north-east of Spain, in Arragon; 20 miles south of Sanguessa, and 47 north-west of Saragossa.

SADBERGE, or SADBERGH, a village of England, county of Durham, situated on a rivulet that runs into the Tees, near Stockton. It was formerly a county, and had its proper sheriffs, coroners, and other civil officers. Population 396; 4 miles east-north-east of Darlington.

SADDEL and SKIPNESS, form a United Parish of Scotland, situated on the east coast of the peninsula of Kintyre, about 25 miles long, and about 2 broad. Population 1985

To SA'DDEN, *v. a.* To make sad; to make sorrowful.—To make melancholy; to make gloomy.

Her gloomy presence *saddens* all the scene,
Shades every flower, and darkens every green;
Deepens the murmurs of the falling floods,
And breathes a browner horror on the woods. *Pope.*

To make dark coloured; to make heavy; to make cohesive.—The very soft water, lying long upon the bottoms of the sea or pools, doth so compress and *sadden* them by its weight. *Ray.*—Marl is binding, and *saddening* of land is the great prejudice it doth to clay lands. *Mortimer.*

To SA'DDEN, *v. n.* To become sad.—Troy *sadden'd* at the view. *Pope.*

SADDINGTON, a parish of England in Leicestershire; 6 miles north-west of market harbour.

SA'DDLE, *s.* [ræbel, ræbl, Sax.; *sadel*, Teut. Su. and Danish.] The seat which is put upon the horse for the accommodation of the rider.—His horse hipped, with an old moth-eaten *saddle*, and the stirrups of no kindred. *Shakspeare.*

The origin of the saddle is not well known. Gorop. Becanus attributes its invention to the Salii, a people among the ancient Franks; and hence, says he, came the Latin *sella*, saddle.

The Greeks, instead of saddles, used cloths or housings; and those of the lower class often rode without any. Arrian, speaking of the manner of riding among the Indians, says, that saddles were not in use among them, and that they had no bridles made after the fashion of the Greeks and Celts; but instead of them, they governed and guided their horses with a thong or strop, cut from the raw hide of a bull, which they bound across their noses. On the inside of this nose-band they fixed certain little pointed pieces of iron or brass, moderately sharp: the richer sort used ivory.

Athenæus (lib. xii. 4.) says that the Persians covered their horses with many soft and thick housings, or cloths; being more desirous of sitting at their ease, than of approving themselves dextrous and bold horsemen.

The inhabitants of Numidia, Mauritania, Nasamonia, Massilia, and other adjacent tracts of the same region, rode their horses, which were very fleet and vigorous, without a bridle or saddle; using merely a wand or switch to guide and command them.

Saddles were unknown to ancient Greece. Instead of these, certain cloths or housings were thrown upon the horse, and fastened by a girth or surcingle. Upon these the rider sat. They were known by the general name of "ephippia;" and the trappings or horse-furniture, known and used in every part of the modern world, may be supposed to owe their origin to them. They were composed of different materials, leather, cloth, and the skins of wild beasts, and sometimes adorned with gold, silver, and precious stones; the horses, besides these ornaments, being decked with bells, rich collars, and richer devices.

It is certain the ancient Romans were unacquainted with the use either of saddle or stirrups; whence Galen observes in several places, that the Roman cavalry, in his time, were subject to several diseases of the hips and legs, for want of having their feet sustained on horseback. And long before him, Hippocrates had noted, that the Scythians, who were much on horseback, were frequently troubled with defluxions in their legs, because of their hanging down.

The first time we hear of saddles among the Romans was in the year of Christ 340, when Constantius, endeavouring to deprive his brother Constantine of the empire, made head against his army, and entering the squadron where he himself was, threw him off his saddle, as we are informed by the historian Zonaras. Before this time, they made use of square pannels; such as we see in the statue of Antoninus in the Capitol.

The succeeding emperors made many regulations concerning horses, and occasionally take notice of saddles. In the Theodosian code there is a rescript, given by the emperors Valentinian, Theodosius, and Arcadius, which prescribes the exact weight of a saddle, confining it to sixty pounds, including the bridle.

The

The use of saddles, says Mr. Chambers, in his "Cyclopædia," was first established in England, by a law of Henry VII., by which the nobility were obliged to ride on saddles. But this assertion, as Mr. Berenger (Hist. and Art of Horsemanship, vol. i. p. 174.) observes, is not countenanced by any act of parliament, or proclamation. It is much later that the Irish have taken to it.

When king Richard II. went to Ireland in the year 1399, to chastise Mac-Morough for assuming the title of king of Ireland, and other crimes, Mac-Morough is said to have descended, between two woods, from a mountain, mounted upon a horse without a saddle, which, it is reported, cost him 400 cows; the method of bartering one commodity for another being then practised in that country. This horse is said to have ran as swift as any stag. Perhaps, says Berenger, the custom once in this kingdom of making horses draw by their tails may be ascribed to the same cause as that of riding without saddles—the ignorance of the age in the art of making saddles and harness.

According to Mr. John Lawrence, the English saddle has been highly improved within the last twenty or thirty years; not only in respect to symmetry, fitness, and beauty, but of ease both to the rider and the horse. But nothing has contributed so much in the modern saddle to the ease and convenience of the rider, as the forward projection of the pads, where the knees rest, and the situation of the skirts, or flaps, above and below the knee. It is true, the knees are apt to be galled in a long journey by the stirrup leathers, which are now placed without the long flap; but they may occasionally be drawn beneath it. The saddle is secured by two girths only, and those placed exactly one over the other, appearing as if single. All sorts of saddles have lately undergone much improvement, but particularly those of the military kind.

To SA'DDLE, *v. a.* [Sax. ȝaðlian.] To cover with a saddle.—I will *saddle* me an ass, that I may ride thereon. 2 *Sam.*

Rebels, by yielding, do like him, or worse,
Who *saddled* his own back to shame his horse.
Cleaveland.

To load; to burthen.

Resolv'd for sea, the slaves thy baggage pack,
Each *saddled* with his burden on his back;
Nothing retards thy voyage. *Dryden.*

SADDLE BACK, a mountain of England, in Cumberland on the east side of the vale of Lerton, 2787 feet above the level of the sea.

SADDLEBACK, a mountain of the United States in Williamstown and Adams, Massachusetts. The peaks of this mountain are in Adams; the northern one being about 24,000 feet above the valley, and the southern, or summit of the Saddle, about 3000 feet above the valley, and nearly 4000 above the sea. It is the highest land in Massachusetts.

SADDLEBACK, an island of Hudson's straits. Lat. 62. N. Long. 68. 5. W.

SA'DDLEBACKED, *adj.* Horses, *saddlebacked*, have their backs low, and a raised head and neck. *Farrier's Dict.*

SA'DDLEBOW, *s.* [ȝaðel-boȝa, Sax.] The bows of a saddle are two pieces of wood laid arch-wise, to receive the upper part of a horse's back.

Alight thy steed,
And rein his proud head to the *saddle-bow.* *Shakspeare.*

SADDLEHEAD, the north-west point of the island of Achil near the west coast of Ireland, in the county of Mayo. Lat. 54. N. long. 10. 1. W.

SADDLEHILL, a promontory on the west coast of North America. Lat. 46. 25. N. long. 124. W.

SADDLE ISLAND, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the island of Paraguay. Lat. 11. 15. N. long. 119. 28. E.

SADDLE ISLAND, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the west coast of Sumatra. Lat. 5. N. long. 97. 27. E.

SADDLE RIVER, a township of the United States, in Bergen county, New Jersey. Population 2174.

SADDLE-TOR, a hill of England, in Devonshire, near the hills between Chegford and Ashburton.

SA'DDLEMAKER, or SA'DDLER, *s.* One whose trade is to make saddles.

Sixpence that I had
To pay the *saddler* for my mistress' crupper,
The *saddler* had it. *Shakspeare.*

SADDLEWORTH, a district of England, West Riding of Yorkshire, on the borders of Lancashire and Cheshire.

SADDLEWORTH, a village of England, in the West Riding of Yorkshire, which gives name to a valley at the south-western extremity of the county, about seven miles long, and five across the broadest part. Its chapel having formerly belonged to Whalley abbey, was annexed to Rochdale. Though naturally wild, bleak, and uncultivated, a vast number of inhabitants are supported here by manufacturing industry. Very fine broad cloths are made here, and the cotton trade is also carried on to a considerable extent. Great advantage is derived from the Huddersfield canal, which passes through Saddleworth, and penetrates by a tunnel upwards of three miles in length, through the mountains of Pule, Moss, and Brunn Top.

SA'DDUCEE, *s.* [from the Hebrew word *sedec*, which signifies justice: or from a certain teacher among the Jews, called *Sadoc.* Bp. Percy.] One of the most ancient sects among the Jews: which sect, at the time of our Saviour, is reputed to have held doctrines that were thoroughly impious. For they are said to have denied the resurrection of the dead, the being of angels, and all existence of the spirits or souls of men departed. It was their opinion, that there is no spiritual being but God only; and that as to man, this world is his all. *Bp. Percy.*—The true, zealous, and hearty persecutors of Christianity at that time were the *Sadducees*, whom we may truly call the free-thinkers among the Jews. They believed neither resurrection, nor angel, nor spirit, i. e. in plain English, they were deists at least, if not atheists. *Guardian.*

Some authors ascribe the origin of this sect to one Sadoc, or Sadduc, a disciple of Antigonus Sochæus, a native of Socko, on the borders of Judea, president of the Sanhedrim, about 300 years before Christ, who frequently inculcated to his scholars, that God is to be served for his own sake, and not out of view to any reward from him in the next world, as slaves serve their masters merely for recompence. Sadoc, add they, putting a false interpretation on these words of his master, published, that there was no reward allotted to good actions done in this world.

The sect of the Sadducees long continued to flourish in Judea, and to possess great authority. Although they differed in fundamental points of faith from the rest of the nation, they were admitted, as we have hinted already, to sacred privileges and offices, and even to the highest dignity of the priesthood. Notwithstanding the enmity which subsisted between them and the Pharisees, on account of the contempt with which they treated the traditionary law, these sects frequently united in public councils, and in defence of the common cause of religion, and in their malignant opposition to our Saviour. Under the reign of Hyrcanus, who, about 130 years B. C., possessed the supreme, civil, and sacerdotal power in Judea, the Sadducees were the leading sect; for that prince, being opposed by the Pharisees in the execution of the office of high priest, treated them with great severity, and espoused the Sadducean party, requiring the whole nation, on pain of death, to profess the doctrine of this sect. After the death of Hyrcanus, the persecution of the Pharisees was for some time continued by his son, Alexander Jannæus; but Alexandra, the wife of Jannæus, who succeeded him in the government, finding that the Pharisaic sect was more popular than the Sadducean, espoused the interest

interest of the Pharisees, and restored their power and influence. The Sadducees, however, afterwards regained a considerable share of political and ecclesiastical consequence; for we find, that Caiaphas (as some have supposed), and Ananus (as we have already mentioned), who were both of this sect, possessed in succession the office of high priest. After the destruction of Jerusalem, the sect of the Sadducees fell into contempt among their countrymen, and even incurred the hatred of the Christians. The emperor Justinian issued a severe edict against them (Noell. 146.); inflicting banishment, and, in case of obstinate perseverance, even death, upon those who should teach their doctrines.

The chief heads of the Sadduccan tenets were these:—All laws and traditions, not comprehended in the written laws, are to be rejected as merely human inventions. Neither angels nor spirits have a distinct existence, separate from their corporeal vestment: the soul of man, therefore, does not remain after this life, but expires with the body. There will be no resurrection of the dead, nor any rewards or punishments after this life. Man is not subjected to irresistible fate, but has the framing of his condition chiefly in his own power; so that they attributed all things to free-will, and thus opposed the opinion of the Pharisees, who admitted a kind of destiny or fatality in all our actions. Polygamy, according to the Sadducees, ought not to be practised. It has been asserted (see Tertull. de Prescript. l. i. c. 14. Orig. cent. Cels. l. i. p. 39.), that the Sadducees only received, as of sacred authority, the five books of Moses. But the contrary clearly appears from their controversy with the Pharisees, in which the latter appeal to the prophets and other sacred writings, as well as the law, which they could not have done with any propriety or effect, if the Sadducees had not admitted their authority. To this we may add, that if this had been the case, it is very improbable that such heresy would have passed without censure.

The Sadducees are sometimes ranked with the Epicureans, but improperly; for though they agreed with them in denying the doctrine of a future state, they differed from them essentially in their ideas of God and providence. Whilst the Epicureans admitted no supreme intelligent ruler of the world, and supposed the gods wholly unconcerned in human affairs, the Sadducees acknowledged the existence of the one true God, the Jehovah of the Jews, and admitted his universal providence, only rejecting the notion of an absolute and uncontroulable influence over the volitions and actions of men: they admitted, too, the reasonableness and obligation of religious worship. Their denial of a state of future rewards and punishments may, perhaps, in part be ascribed to their believing in the homogeneous nature of man; for Josephus expressly says (De Bell. Jud. l. ii. c. 12. Ant. Jud. l. xviii. c. 2. l. xx. c. 8.), that they took away the distinct and permanent nature of the soul: ψυχῆς τε τὴν διαμονὴν ἀναιροῦσι. This was, probably, the chief ground of their opposition to Christianity, whose distinguishing doctrine is that of the resurrection from the dead. Brucker's Phil. by Enfield, vol. ii. p. 173, &c.

It is certain they denied the resurrection and the existence of angels and spirits (Matt. xxii. 23. Acts xxiii. 8.), and allowed of no happiness but what is enjoyed in this life; believing, that every thing told of the other world had been artfully invented by the Pharisees. Hence, also, they attributed all things to free-will; in which they opposed the opinion of the Pharisees, who admitted a kind of destiny, or fatality in all our actions; so that they were, upon the whole, Epicurean deists in all other respects, except that they acknowledged the world to have been created, and perhaps to be upheld and preserved, by God.

SA'DDUCISM, *s.* The tenets of the Sadducees.—Infidelity, or modern deism, is little else but revived *sadducism*, &c. *Waterland.*

SADIA, a small seaport on the western coast of Madagascar. Lat. 19. 5. S.

SADLER'S WELLS, a well-known place of entertainment in the neighbourhood of London. It derives its name from Mr. Sadler, who erected a music-house near the spot, which was much frequented, before the Reformation, on account of the famous well, to the waters of which many extraordinary cures were ascribed, and which was, therefore, deemed sacred, and called holy-well. The priests belonging to the priory of Clerkenwell used to attend there, and hence the people were led to believe, that the virtues of the water proceeded from the efficacy of their prayers.

Upon the Reformation the well was stopped up, on account of the superstitious use that was made of it; till, in 1683, Mr. Sadler found it, covered with a carved arch of stone. After his decease, one Francis Forcer, a musician, became occupier of the wells and music-house. His son succeeded him, and first exhibited in this place the diversions of rope-dancing, tumbling, &c.

SA'DLY, *adv.* Sorrowfully; mournfully.

My father is gone wild into his grave;
For in his tomb lie my affections;
And with his spirit *sadly* I survive,
To mock the expectations of the world. *Shakspeare.*

He griev'd, he wept, the sight an image brought
Of his own filial love; a *sadly* pleasing thought. *Dryden.*

Calamitously; miserably.—We may at present easily see, and one day *sadly* feel. *South.*—Gravely; seriously.

To tell thee *sadly*, shepherd, without blame
Or our neglect, we lost her as we came. *Milton.*

In a dark colour.—A gloomy obscure place, and in it only one light, which the genius of the house held, *sadly* attired. *B. Jonson.*

SA'DNESS, *s.* Sorrowfulness; mournfulness; dejection of mind.

The soul receives intelligence
By her near genius of the body's end,
And so imparts a *sadness* to the sense. *Daniel.*

Melancholy look.—What hinders, that paleness, *sadness*, and deadness may not be remedied? since God hath given to mankind not only bread to strengthen, and wine to cheer man's heart; but also oil, and other things proper, to make him a serene and cheerful countenance. *Bp. Taylor.*—Seriousness; sedate gravity. This is perhaps the oldest usage.

Mighty lord, this merry inclination
Accords not with the *sadness* of my suit. *Shakspeare.*

SADO, an island of Japan, about 90 miles in circumference, in a large bay on the northern coast of the island of Niphon. Lat. 37. 40. N. long. 138. 54. E.

SADOC, a famous Jewish doctor in the third century B. C., and principal founder of the sect who after him were called Sadducees, was the disciple of Antigonus Sochæus, president of the Sanhedrim about 260 years before the birth of our Saviour. That great doctor, offended at the corruptions of the law of Moses which began to take place soon after the termination of the prophetic age, by the introduction of the traditionary law, which chiefly respected ceremonies, fastings, and other practices distinct from the moral duties of life; and more particularly reprobating the pretensions which were made to meritorious works of supererogation, by means of which men hoped to entitle themselves to extraordinary temporal rewards; strenuously maintained and taught, that men ought to serve God, not in a servile manner, either through fear of punishment or hope of reward, but from a pure and disinterested principle of piety. This refined doctrine, which he opposed only to the expectation of temporal rewards and punishments, was misinterpreted by his followers, who extended it to the rewards and punishments of a future life. Such was the construction which was put upon it by Sadoc and Baithosus, two of his disciples, who, after his death, taught that no future state of rewards or punishments was to be expected, and, consequently, that there would be no resurrection of the dead. Hence arose, about two hundred years before Christ, the sect of the Baithosæi, or Sadducees.

Sadducees. These appellations appear at first to have been used promiscuously; but by degrees the former fell into disuse, and the sect was known only by the latter name. For the history of this sect we refer to Josephus, as quoted below, to Basnage's "History of the Jews," book ii. ch. vii. or to the "Ancient Universal History," vol. x. book ii. ch. xi. We have presented our readers, under the article SADDUCEE, with the summary of their distinguishing opinions, as it is drawn up by Enfield. *Josephi Antiq.*

On this point, however, we cannot but remark that the Sadducees do not deserve the blame with regard to their doctrines, that has been so liberally cast upon them. Their strict attention to *written* law, in contradistinction to oral tradition, is the very same tenet that, in our own time, divides the Protestant from the Catholic church. Their detestation of polygamy is sufficiently remarkable, when we consider how prevalent this vice had become in the east, and how much it may be palliated by certain parts of the Old Testament. Their disbelief of angels and other beings, destitute of a corporeal vestment, by no means denies the possible existence of such beings. The opinion that virtuous actions should not be founded on the mere *fear* of punishment hereafter, is extremely exalted. The doctrine which the Sad ducees upheld against the Pharisees, that the human mind is endowed with an uncontroulled free-will, is what every one must subscribe to who does not think virtue and vice mere words; nor indeed, excepting their malignant opposition to our Saviour, and a few exaggerated points of belief, does there seem any thing hateful in the conduct of this sect.

SADOLETO (Jacopo), a celebrated cardinal, born at Modena in 1477, was the son of Giovanni Sadoleto, an eminent jurist. He studied at Ferrara, where one of his masters was the learned Niccolo Leoniceno. Polite literature and philosophy were the favourite objects of his attention; and his father, who had designed to bring him up to his own profession, suffered him to follow his inclinations. Repairing to Rome in the time of Alexander VI., he found a munificent patron in Cardinal Oliviero Caraffa, and an excellent preceptor in Scipione Carteromaco, under whom he made a great progress in elegant literature. He distinguished himself so much by his Latin style, that Leo X., almost as soon as he was raised to the pontificate, nominated him and Bembo his secretaries. His services in this capacity were so much approved, that Leo conferred upon him the bishopric of Carpentras in 1517; and is said to have been obliged to lay his commands upon him in order to induce him to accept this promotion. The succeeding pontificate of Adrian was less favourable to Ciceronian scholars; and Sadoleto had the additional mortification of being calumniated as having falsified a brief. He therefore retired in 1523 to his see, to the great regret of all lovers of polished writing and manners in the Roman court. Clement VII. recalled him to his former post, and manifested the greatest regard for him. That pope did not, however, pay the deference to his prudent counsels which might have averted the impending dangers, of which Sadoleto was so well aware, that he obtained permission to retire to his bishopric only twenty days before the sack of Rome. In that terrible catastrophe he lost all the property which he had left in the capital, and it was the eventual cause of the dispersion of a rare and valuable library which he had collected. This was put on board a ship for France, and had arrived on the coast, when the plague breaking out among the passengers, the ship was not suffered to enter a port. The books of Sadoleto, therefore, with the rest of the cargo, were transported to some distant country, and lost to their owner. At Carpentras he employed himself in pastoral cares, and obtained no less honour as an exemplary prelate, than he had done as one of the most elegant scholars of the age. He repressed the extortion of the Jewish usurers, relieved the necessities of the poor, provided for the liberal education of the youth, and was very vigilant in preventing the spread of the new opinions in his diocese, though he always treated the persons of the reformers with lenity. He was highly esteemed by Francis I., who made great offers to draw him to his court; but he thought it his duty to obey the call of Paul III., who, in 1536, created him a member of the congregation of reform, and elevated him to the cardinalate. He gave advice freely to that pontiff, who held him in great esteem, and took him to Nice in 1558, when he had a conference with Charles V. and Francis I. It was still the Cardinal's principal desire to reside at his see, and employ himself in pastoral duties and the cultivation of letters; and he was permitted to indulge this laudable inclination till 1542, when the Pope summoned him to Rome, and appointed him his legate to the King of France, for the purpose of negotiating a peace between that monarch and the Emperor. He succeeded in disposing the mind of the French king to an accommodation, but insuperable obstacles were raised on the part of Charles. Sadoleto returned to Rome, and assisted in the frequent congregations held previously to the convocation of the council of Trent, till his death in 1547. He was interred without pomp, according to his own direction, in the church of St. Peter ad Vincula, and his funeral eulogy was pronounced by Cardinal Caraffa.

Few men of the age have left a more thoroughly estimable character than Cardinal Sadolet. His disinterestedness was shewn by his refusal of any other benefice than the humble bishopric of Carpentras, though pluralities were never more common among the dignitaries of the church. His temper was mild, with great sensibility and elevation of soul, and he united solid piety and fervent zeal, with freedom from superstition, and christian charity. His address to the senate and people of Geneva, who had begun to throw off the papal yoke, is a model of episcopal eloquence and paternal mildness. It was answered by Calvin. In his youth he obtained a high rank among those Italians who, at this period, cultivated polite literature with a success that has rendered them a kind of second classics. His prose style in Latin was formed upon an exclusive imitation of Cicero's, and his verse upon an equally close imitation of Virgil's; of both of which great authors the phraseology was freely copied by Sadolet, as well as by his contemporaries. Having a more serious turn than Bembo and some others, he never disgraced his pen by indecent levities, but always preserved a gravity becoming his station. Of his Latin poetry the most admired pieces are that entitled Curtius, and that upon the statue of Laocoon. Among his miscellaneous works in prose, his treatise "De Liberis instituendis" contains many valuable precepts and just observations on moral and literary education; and his two books "De Laudibus Philosophiæ" happily imitate not only the style, but the manner of thinking of Cicero. Some "Discourses," and 17 books of "Epistles," belong to this class of his writings. Of his various theological works the most celebrated is his "Commentary on St. Paul's Epistle to the Romans," published about 1535, and for which he had the misfortune to be involved in an ecclesiastical censure. He was supposed to have deviated from the opinions of St. Augustin respecting grace, and to have approached the heresy of the Semi-Pelagians; and through the interference of the Master of the Sacred Palace, his work underwent a prohibition. Some propositions were also selected from it by the faculty of theology at Paris, and were sent to the author for explanation. He suffered much uneasiness from these attacks; but at length, by some alterations and elucidations, accompanied with profound submission to the authority of the church, the work was declared catholic, and its perusal was permitted. Sadolet was a correspondent of most of the eminent writers and scholars of the time, among whom were Erasmus and Melanchthon. His works were published collectively at Verona, in 3 vols. 4to., 1740. *Moreri. Tiraboschi.*

SADOON, a station in Abyssinia, on the high road between Massuah and Dixan.

SADRAS, a town of the south of India, province of the Carnatic. This was formerly a village, which was purchased by the Dutch, about the middle of the 17th century, who surrounded

rounded it with a brick rampart 15 feet in height. Under their protection it became a populous place; but notwithstanding the neutrality of the Dutch, it was seized by the French while they were besieging Madras, in the year 1759. It was afterwards restored to the Hollanders; but was taken possession of by the British, in 1795. It is now much fallen to decay. At a short distance from the town are some hills, on which are situated seven Hindoo temples, held in much estimation. Lat. 12. 27. N. long. 80. 16. E.

SADSKAR, or SEGER, a district of Hadramaut, on the southern coast of Arabia.

SADUMRAH, a town of Hedsjas, in Arabia; 105 miles north-east of Ghezan.

SAEBYE, an old seaport of Denmark, in Jutland, so decayed, that its population is now only 400; 30 miles north-east of Aalborg. Lat. 57. 20. 2. N. long. 10. 33. 9. E.

SAELICES, a small town in the interior of Spain, in New Castile; 20 miles south-east of Aranjuez.

SAEMUND (Sigfusson), a celebrated Icelandic writer, according to the account given in his life by Arnas Magnæus, and prefixed to the *Edda rythmica* published by the Magnæan commission, was born in 1054, 1056, or 1057. His father Sigfus was a priest. He travelled at a very early period into foreign parts, in order to improve himself in knowledge, and for a long time none of his countrymen knew what had become of him. At length John Ogmundsen, who was afterwards Bishop of Holum, when on a tour to Rome, found him at Paris, and carried him back with him to Iceland. After his return, he entered into holy orders, and resided on his paternal estate at Odde, where he established a school. He contributed, with Bishop Gissur and Marcus Langmand, to induce the Icelanders to pay tithes to the clergy, was consulted by Bishops Thorlac and Ketel in regard to the formation of their ecclesiastical laws, and died in 1133. When Saemund was seventy years of age, he wrote a history of Norway, from the time of Harold Haarsager to that of Magnus the Good. Of this work nothing now remains but a dry catalogue of names, which was converted into something like verse by an anonymous writer, and continued down to King Sverrer, with a dedication to Saemund's grandson John Loptson, on whom high encomiums are bestowed. Saemund's fame can receive no addition from this Northern Chronicle, since it does not now exist; and his reputation can be as little benefited by the so called "Annales Odenses," or annals which take their name from the place where he resided; since Arnas Magnæus in his life of Sæmund, Halfdem Einarsen in his Historia Literaria Islandica, and Suhm in the preface to his critical history, have shewn that they do not belong to him. But Saemund is generally allowed the merit of having collected the poetical Edda, by which means he preserved these curious and valuable remains of the ancient Scandinavian mythology, poetry, and morality, from being lost. Yet though this honour is ascribed to Saemund, Arnas Magnæus, in the before mentioned biography, has placed all the circumstances relating to that subject in such a light, that it remains highly problematical whether he has the least title to it.

Brynyolf Svendsen, Bishop of Skalholt, about the year 1939, discovered the poetical Edda, thirty-five in number, and styled them, on the faith of tradition, the Edda Saemundi. After this Resenius, in 1665, published Voluspa and Havamal; a few extracts of some other poems were given in Bartholin's Antiquities, and these were the only specimens of Edda poetry with which the learned in Europe were acquainted till Thorkelin, then Saudvig, and at last the Magnæan commission, communicated to the public a great many more of them. The first volume of the edition published by the commission appeared in 1787. Among those who superintended the learned school at Odde, after Saemund's death, was his grandson, already mentioned, John Loptson, who in his time was one of the richest and most respectable men in the country. An original copy of a poem written in praise of him on parchment, and called "Flatœbogen," is still preserved in the king's library, at Copenhagen. *Aikin.*

SAENREDAM. See SAARDAM.

SAENS, St., a small town in the north of France, department of the Lower Seine, on the small river Arques, with 2400 inhabitants; 20 miles north-north-east of Rouen.

SAFAD, called by Pocock SAPHET, a village of Palestine, situated on a hill over-looking the western coast of the lake of Tiberias. It is not mentioned in our translation of the Scripture; but in the Vulgate, it is said to be the birth-place of Tobias. Pocock found on it the ruins of a very strong old castle, which appeared to have commanded the whole surrounding district, which takes its name from the place. During the crusades, this castle was in the hands of the Christians. The town was a little lower down, and was then considerable, containing seven synagogues, and a sort of university for the education of the Jewish Rabbis, some of whom came from so great a distance as Poland, to enjoy the benefits of its instruction. In 1759, however, the place was destroyed by an earthquake, and being regarded with an evil eye by the Turks, has never regained its ancient importance, and is now a poor village; 65 miles south-west of Damascus.

SAFE, *adj.* [*salvus*, Lat. *Johnson.*—The old French has also *salf*, following closely the Latin. Morin, under *sauf*, refers both *sauf* and the Latin word to the Gr. σωος, safe, Eol. σοϝος. But Mr. Horne Tooke pronounces *safe* the past participle of *save*. Our old word is *saufe*: "So that they mighten, *saufe* and sounde, the water passe." Gower, Conf. Am. *Todd.*]—Free from danger.

Our separated fortune
Shall keep us both the *safer*; where we are,
There's daggers in men's smiles. *Shakspeare.*

Free from hurt.—Put your head into the mouth of a wolf, and when you've brought it out *safe* and sound, talk of a reward. *L'Estrange.*—Conferring security.

Beyond the beating surge his course he bore,
With longing eyes observing, to survey
Some smooth ascent, or *safe* sequester'd bay. *Pope.*

No longer dangerous; deposited out of the power of doing harm. This is rather a ludicrous meaning.

Banquo's *safe.*
—— Ay, my good lord; *safe* in a ditch he lies
With twenty trenched gashes on his head,
The least a death to nature. *Shakspeare.*

SAFE, *s.* A buttery; a pantry. *Ainsworth.*—Rather, a moveable larder. *Mason.*

To SAFE, *v. a.* To render safe; to procure safety to. *Obsolete.*

My more particular,
And that which most with you should *safe* my going,
Is Fulvia's death. *Shakspeare.*

SA'FE-CONDUCT, *s.* [*sauf conduit*, Fr.] Convoy; guard through an enemy's country.—Pass; warrant to pass. —A trumpet was sent to Sir William Waller, to desire a *safe conduct* for a gentleman. *Clarendon.*

Safe-conducts are given by the prince under his great seal, and inrolled in chancery.

Passports under the king's sign manual, or licences from his ambassadors abroad, are now more usual, and are allowed to be of equal validity with letters of safe-conduct.

All safe-conducts flow from sovereign authority; but the prince may delegate to his officers the power of furnishing safe-conducts, and with this they are invested, either by an express commission, or in consequence of the nature of their functions.

SA'FEGUARD, *s.* Defence; protection; security.—We serve the living God as near as our wits can reach to the knowledge thereof, even according to his own will; and do therefore trust, that his mercy shall be our *safeguard.* *Hooker.*

If

If you do fight in *safeguard* of your wives,
Your wives shall welcome home the conquerors. *Shakspeare.*

Convoy; guard through any interdicted road, granted by the possessor.—Pass; warrant to pass.—A trumpet was sent to the Earl of Essex for a *safeguard* or pass to two lords, to deliver a message from the king to the two houses. *Clarendon.*—An outer petticoat to save women's clothes on horse-back. *Mason.*

Behind her on a pillion sat
Her frantick husband, in a broad-brim'd hat,
A mask and *safe-guard;* and had in his hand
His mad wife's distaff for a riding-wand. *Drayton.*

SAFE-GUARD, in a Law sense, signifies a protection given by the king to a person fearing the violence of some other, for seeking his right by a course of law: or more generally, a safe-guard and passport are a kind of privilege, which give persons a right to go and come safely, or a right of removing certain things in safety.

SAFE-GUARD, at Sea, denotes a rope which saves and secures any thing: for instance, that by which persons walk securely over the bolt-sprit.

SAFE-GUARD OF THE HELM, is a rope which goes through the helm, and is fastened to the futtocks of the ship.

To SA'FEGUARD, *v. a.* To guard; to protect.—Courage is the greatest security; for it does most commonly *safeguard* the man; but always rescues the condition from an intolerable evil. *Bp. Taylor.*

SA'FELY, *adv.* In a safe manner; without danger.

All keep aloof, and *safely* shout around;
But none presumes to give a nearer wound. *Dryden.*

Without hurt.—God *safely* quit her of her burthen, and with gentle travel, to the gladding of your highness with an heir. *Shakspeare.*

SA'FENESS, *s.* Exemption from danger.—If a man should forbear his food or his business; till he had certainty of the *safeness* of what he is going about, he must starve and die disputing. *South.*

SAFE-PLEDGE, *Salvus plegius*, in Law, a security given for a man's appearance on a day assigned.

SA'FETY, *s.* Freedom from danger.

To that dauntless temper of his mind,
He hath a wisdom that doth guide his valour
To act in *safety.* *Shakspeare.*

Exemption from hurt.

If her acts have been directed well,
While with her friendly clay she deign'd to dwell,
Shall she with *safety* reach her pristine seat,
Find her rest endless, and her bliss complete? *Prior.*

Preservation from hurt.

Let not my jealousies be your dishonours,
But mine own *safeties:* you may be rightly just,
Whatever I shall think. *Shakspeare*

Custody; security from escape.

Imprison him;
Deliver him to *safety*, and return. *Shakspeare.*

SAFETY-LAMP, *s.* A lamp used in coal mines; constructed so as to prevent the explosion of the fire-damp.

The dreadful effects that have resulted to miners from incautiously bringing common lights into contact with the explosive gas engendered in coal-pits, have induced several philanthropists to attempt the discovery of some instrument whereby light might be given while explosion should be prevented.

For the safety-lamp in its present commodious and almost perfect form, we are indebted to Sir H. Davy; but the *principle* on which it was constructed seems to have been discovered a short time before, by Mr. George Stephenson, a very intelligent and modest individual, at the time of the invention only a *viewer* in one of the Newcastle mines.

So early as the beginning of the year 1815, attempts had been made by different gentlemen to construct a lamp that might be carried without danger into the explosive gas. The names of Mr. Brandling and Mr. Murray, are particularly mentioned as the proposers of a method of supplying the lamp with pure air brought through flexible tubes from a distant source, and completely excluding any communication between the inside of the lamp and the gas that might surround it externally. Dr. Clanny also invented a mode of burning a candle in safety, by passing the air necessary for its combustion, by means of bellows, through a stratum of water. Neither of these plans came, however, into general use, probably on account of their complexity and expensiveness.

In this state of things, Mr. Stephenson discovered that if a lamp were placed in the most explosive mixture that could be found, and only suffered to communicate with that mixture through *capillary tubes*, no explosion would take place. He made, therefore, a lantern surrounded by glass, and only open at the top and bottom by means of capillary tubes. It was very successful.

In the month of December, in the same year, Sir Humphrey advanced a step further, by announcing that flame could not under any circumstances, (except a very high temperature), pass through capillary tubes, or even through the mere apertures of a fine wire-gauze, and he seemed to attribute this phenomenon to a cooling process taking place in the tube or aperture. Stephenson steadily pursued his principle in the construction of two other lamps, while, on the other hand, Sir H. Davy, at a later period, as we shall presently shew, returned to Stephenson's modification of the principle.

In the warmth of discussion which took place as to the respective merits of these gentlemen, the friends of Stephenson have surmised that Sir H. Davy might have received a knowledge of the principle he has so successfully applied to practice, from the persons to whom the former had communicated it. Such a communication is just possible; but is in the highest degree improbable. It is incredible that a man held in such estimation as Sir Humphrey, would risk his fame by a base attempt at purloining another man's discovery, even were his mind so little ennobled by the pursuits of science, that he would not disdain such meanness. It is also certain, that if he tried the experiments on flame, which he mentions, he could not easily avoid stumbling on the principle in question. It seems, therefore, reasonable to conclude (as it is clear that Stephenson had no means of knowing, at any stage of the discovery, Sir Humphrey's occupations), that both these men are the fortunate discoverers of the fact, that hydrogen gas will not communicate its flame through the tubes or apertures of a lantern, and that both applied the fact to practice, unconscious of each other's proceedings. We may add, that, in our opinion, Sir H. Davy's is the more complete invention of the two; but as this is a point concerning which there may be some difference of opinion, we shall presently lay an account of each kind before our readers.

With respect to *priority*, we must accord this to Mr. Stephenson's invention, and the evidence on which this opinion is founded, is of the most accurate and satisfactory kind. The coal owners who voted their thanks and presented a piece of plate to Sir H. Davy, refused the previous inquiry as to whether he were really the first inventor; but a committee of the most respectable gentlemen connected with the coal trade, having the Earl of Strathmore for president, was formed. They entered fully and patiently into every particular, with respect to dates, that could be obtained; they examined the workmen who had been present during Stephenson's experiments, and those to whom he had communicated his ideas. These all told the same story. The committee next examined the persons employed to construct his lamp, whose books of course afforded written evidence of the date of the inventions; and, lastly, asked of Mr. Stephenson an account of the steps by which he had been led

to

to his discovery. On this point his account was so clear and so consonant with the laws of human invention, that no one could refuse it the most implicit belief. The result was a perfect conviction on the minds of the gentlemen concerned, that Mr. Stephenson was the first inventor of a safety-lamp, and he accordingly received in acknowledgment thereof a piece of plate of seven or eight hundred pounds value.

It cannot be supposed that we should here enter upon the above evidence. Those who are sceptical as to the accuracy of our statement, may consult a Report upon the Claims of Mr. George Stephenson relative to the Invention of his Safety-Lamp, by the Committee appointed at a Meeting holden at Newcastle, with an Appendix, containing the Evidence. Baldwin, 1817.

We shall now proceed to lay before our readers the steps of this invention; first, as it took place with Stephenson; secondly, as it was proceeded in by Sir H. Davy.

Stephenson informs us, that about the mouth of August, 1815, he was in the habit of making experiments upon blowers; found that when blowers were lighted, and a number of lighted candles, viz. four, five, or six, held to the windward of the lighted blowers, the blowers were put out "by the burnt air (as he conceived) which was carried towards them." Mentioned this to several workmen.

Hence, he conceived, that if a lamp could be made to contain the burnt air above the flame, and to permit the fire-damp to come in below in a small quantity, to be burnt as it came in, the burnt air would prevent the passing of explosion upwards, and the velocity of the current from below would also prevent it passing downwards. In consequence, a few weeks after this idea entered his mind, he ordered a lamp furnished with air by means of a tube at its under surface, and having small perforations on its upper surface. As it was essential to his theory that the air passing out at the superior apertures should be incapable of supporting combustion, he resolved to admit through his lower tube no more air than was absolutely necessary for the combustion of the wick. For this purpose he placed a *slide* on this lower opening.

The following description of the annexed plate renders this invention very clear:—

Fig. 1.—A. B. C. D. the lamp made of tin.—G. the glass cylinder.—A. E. F. D. the top which takes off to admit the glass cylinder, and keeps it tight to the bottom B. C.—H. two tin tubes, the cavity between them for the wick; the interior one to admit the air.—I. the chamber for the oil.

Fig. 2.—K. the bottom of the lamp with the slide P. to regulate the quantity of air to be admitted.

Now this lamp was carried into several explosive mixtures, was put out and relit many times, but it did not burn very well, and was extinguished by being carried fast. At the period we are now speaking of, it must be confessed, that Stephenson had *not* discovered the fact, that explosion of hydrogen gas cannot take place through tubes of certain dimensions, under any circumstances, (if this be really the case); but that he thought this effect was produced by the current of explosive air being directed inwards from below, while it was rendered non-explosive before it passed out above.

It is remarkable that Sir H. Davy adopted this explanation so late as January, 1816, even after he had invented his wire-gauze lamp, to which, in our opinion, it is not applicable. He says, "Taking all these circumstances into account, there appears no difficulty in explaining the combustion of explosive mixtures within and not without the cylinders; for a current is established from below upwards, and the hottest part of the cylinder is where the results of combustion, the water, carbonic acid, or azote, which are not inflammable, pass out. The gas which enters is not sufficiently heated on the outside of the wire, to be exploded, and as the gases are no where confined, there can be no mechanical force pressing currents of flame towards the same point."

Mr. Stephenson's second lamp we shall pass over, and proceed to describe his third and last improvement. See figures 3 and 4 of the plate.

Fig. 3.—A. B. C. D. the lamp.—A. E. F. D. the cover for the top.—G. the tube for supplying the oil.—H. the wire to trim the wick.—I. the perforated plate covering the air chamber which surrounds the oil vessel.—K. L. apertures through which the air passes into the air chamber.—M. the tube for the wick.

Fig. 4.—N. O. P. Q. the cover to protect the glass cylinder. These figures represent the lamp at present in Killingworth Colliery.

Sir H. Davy, on the 9th of September, read to the Royal Society, a paper in which he gave the following account of the coal-damp, and of the means of preventing its dangerous explosion.

"Inflammable gas is disengaged from fresh coal, but the great sources of the fire-damp in mines are, however, what are called blowers, or fissures in the broken strata, near dykes, from which currents of fire-damp issue in considerable quantity, and sometimes for a long course of years; and the deeper the mine the more common in general is this substance."

Of six specimens collected from a blower in the Hebburn Colliery, by emptying bottles of water close to it, the purest contained $\frac{1}{15}$ only of atmospherical air, with no other contamination, and the most impure contained $\frac{5}{12}$ of atmospherical air: so that this air was probably derived from the circumambient air of the mine. The weight of the purest specimen was for 100 cubical inches 19.5 grains.

One measure of it required for its complete combustion by the electrical spark nearly two measures of oxygene, and they formed nearly one measure of carbonic acid.

Sulphur heated strongly, and repeatedly sublimed in a portion of it freed from oxygene by phosphorus, produced a considerable enlargement of its volume, sulphuretted hydrogene was formed, and charcoal precipitated; and it was found that the volume of the sulphuretted hydrogene produced, when it was absorbed by solution of potassa, was exactly double that of the fire-damp decomposed.

It did not act upon chlorine in the cold; but, when an electric spark was passed through a mixture of one part of it with two of chlorine, there was an explosion, with a diminution to less than one quarter, and much charcoal was deposited.

The analysis of other specimens of gas afforded similar results; but they contained various quantities of carbonic acid gas and azote.

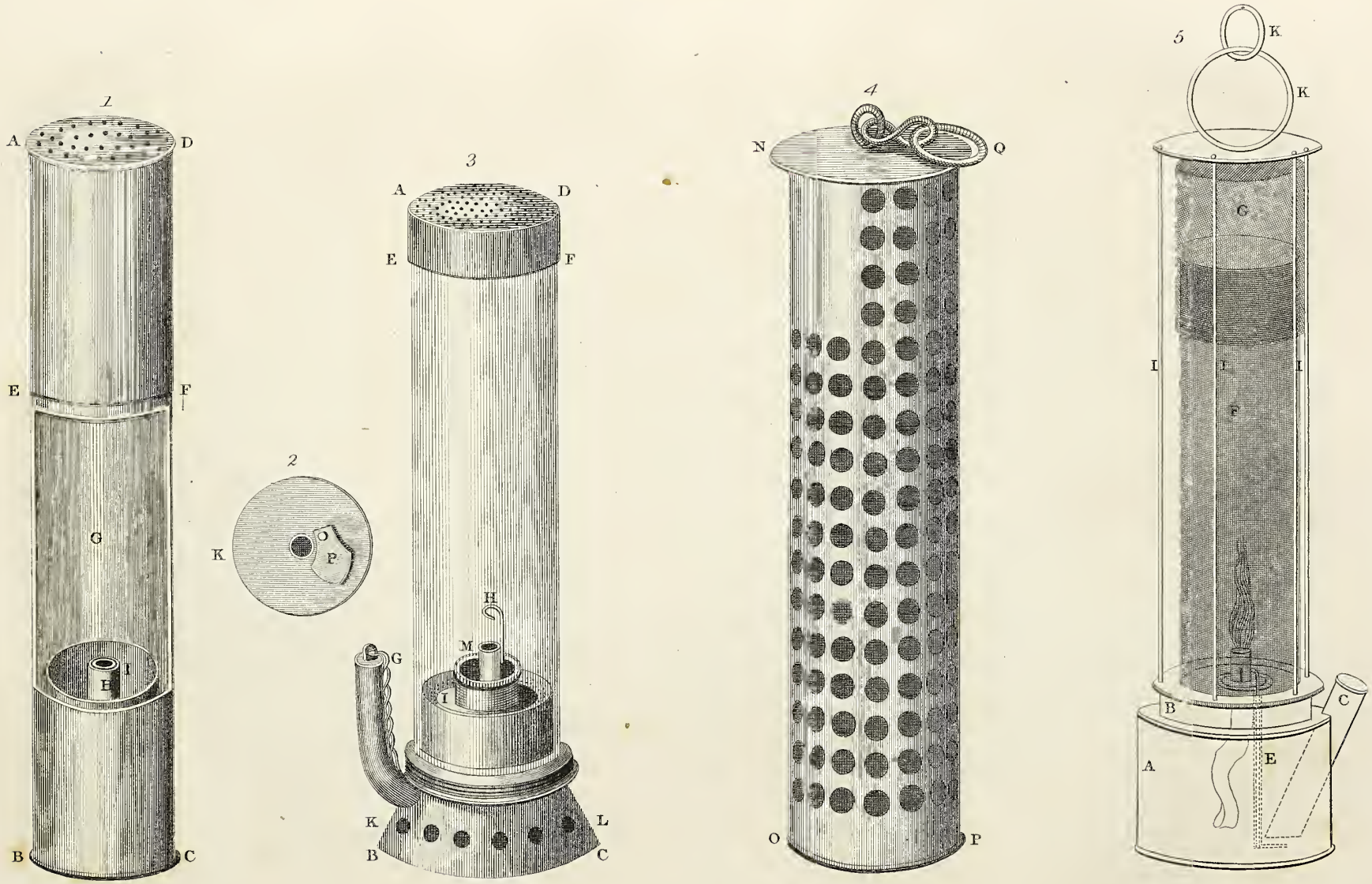
Different specimens of these gases were tried by the test of exposure to chlorine both in darkness and light: they exhibited no marks of the presence of olefiant gas or hydrogene; and the residuum produced by detonation with chlorine showed them to be free from carbonic oxide.

It is evident, then, that the fire-damp is the same substance as the inflammable gas of marshes, the exact chemical nature of which was first demonstrated by Mr. Dalton; and it consists, according to Sir H. Davy's view of definite proportions, of 4 proportions of hydrogene in weight 4, and 1 proportion of charcoal in weight 11.5.

"I made," says he, "several experiments on the combustibility and explosive nature of the fire-damp. When 1 part of fire-damp was mixed with 1 of air, they burnt by the approach of a lighted taper, but did not explode; 2 of air and 3 of air to 1 of gas produced similar results. When 4 of air and 1 of gas were exposed to a lighted candle, the mixture being in the quantity of 6 or 7 cubical inches in a narrow necked bottle, a flame descended through the mixture, but there was no noise: 1 part of gas inflamed with 6 parts of air in a similar bottle, produced a slight whistling sound: 1 part of gas with 8 parts of air, rather a louder sound: 1 part with 10, 11, 12, 13, and 14 parts, still inflamed, but the violence of combustion diminished. In 1 part of gas and 15 parts of air, the candle burnt without explosion with a greatly enlarged flame: and the effect of enlarging the flame, but in a gradually diminishing ratio, was produced as far as 30 parts of air to 1 of gas.

"The mixture which seemed to possess the greatest explosive power, was that of 7 or 8 parts of air to 1 of gas; but the

SAFETY-LAMPS.



1. 2. 3. 4. Stephenson's Lamp. 5. Davy's Lamp.

J. Pass sc.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1826.

the report produced by 50 cubical inches of this mixture was less than that produced by $\frac{1}{10}$ of the quantity of a mixture of 2 parts of atmospherical air and 1 of hydrogene.

"It was very important to ascertain the degree of heat required to explode the fire-damp mixed with its proper proportion of air. I found that a common electrical spark would not explode 5 parts of air and 1 of fire-damp, though it exploded 6 parts of air and 1 of damp: but very strong sparks from the discharge of a Leyden jar, seemed to have the same power of exploding different mixtures of the gas as the flame of the taper. Well burned charcoal, ignited to the strongest red heat, did not explode any mixture of air and of the fire-damp; and a fire made of well burned charcoal, i. e. charcoal that burned without flame, was blown up to whiteness by an explosive mixture containing the fire-damp, without producing its inflammation. An iron rod at the highest degree of red heat, and at the common degree of white heat, did not inflame explosive mixtures of the fire-damp; but, when in brilliant combustion, it produced the effect.

"In exploding mixtures of fire-damp and air in a jar connected with the atmosphere by an aperture of half an inch, and connected with a bladder by a stopcock, having an aperture of about $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch, I found that the flame passed into the atmosphere, but did not communicate through the stopcock, so as to inflame the mixture in the bladder: and in comparing the power of tubes of metal and those of glass, it appeared that the flame passed more readily through glass tubes of the same diameter: and that explosions were stopped by metallic tubes of $\frac{1}{8}$ of an inch, when they were $1\frac{1}{2}$ inch long; and this phenomenon *probably depends upon the heat lost during the explosion in contact with so great a cooling surface,* which brings the temperature of the first portions exploded below that required for the firing of the other portions. Metal is a better conductor of heat than glass; and it has been shewn, that the fire-damp requires a very strong heat for its inflammation."

The reader will observe how different this explanation of the phenomena in question appears from that which Sir Humphrey adopted at a later period, and which we have already quoted as identical with Stephenson's first opinion.

After trying to prevent the explosion of gas by means of simple tubes; and, secondly of long spiral canals, Sir Humphrey at last adopted his very perfect invention of the wire-gauze lamp.

"The invention consists in covering or surrounding the flame of a lamp or candle by a wire sieve; the coarsest that I have tried with perfect safety contained 625 apertures in a square inch, and the wire was $\frac{1}{70}$ of an inch in thickness, the finest 6,400 apertures in a square inch, and the wire was $\frac{1}{250}$ of an inch in diameter.

"When a lighted lamp or candle screwed into a ring soldered to a cylinder of wire-gauze, having no apertures, except those of the gauze or safe apertures, is introduced into the most explosive mixture of carburetted hydrogene and air, the cylinder becomes filled with a bright flame, and this flame continues to burn as long as the mixture is explosive. When the carburetted hydrogene is to the air as 1 to 12, the flame of the wick appears within the flame of the fire-damp; when the proportion is as high as 1 to 7, the flame of the wick disappears.

"When the thickest wires are used in the gauze, it becomes strongly red hot, particularly at the top, but yet no explosion takes place. The flame is brighter the larger the apertures of the gauze: and the cylinder of 625 apertures to the square inch, gives a most brilliant light in a mixture of one part of gas from the distillation of coal, and 7 parts of air; the lower part of the flame is green, the middle purple, and the upper part blue.

"I have tried cylinders of 6,400 apertures to the square inch, in mixtures of oxygene and carburetted hydrogene, and even in mixtures of oxygene and hydrogene; and though the wire became intensely red hot, yet explosions never took place: the combustion was entirely limited to the interior of the lamp.

"In all these experiments there was a noise like that produced by the burning of hydrogene gas in open tubes.

"These extraordinary and unexpected results lead to many inquiries respecting the nature and communication of flame; but my object, at present, is only to point out their application to the use of the collier.

"All that he requires to ensure security, are small wire cages to surround his candle or his lamp, which may be made for a few pence, and of which various modifications may be adopted; and the application of this discovery will not only preserve him from the fire-damp, but enable him to apply it to use, and to destroy it at the same time that it gives him an useful light."

Fig. 5 of the annexed plate represents this contrivance.—A. the cistern which contains the oil.—B. the rim in which the wire-gauze cover is fixed, and which is fastened to the cistern by a moveable screw.—C. an aperture for supplying oil, fitted with a screw or a cork, and which communicates with the bottom of the cistern by a tube.—D. the receptacle for the wick.—E. a wire for raising, lowering, or trimming it, and which passes through a safe tube.—F. the wire-gauze cylinder, which should not have less than 625 apertures to the square inch.—G. the second top $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch above the first.—H. a copper-plate, which may be in contact with the second top.—I. I. I. I. thick wires surrounding the cage to preserve it from being bent.—K. K. are rings to hold or hang it by. This lamp is only half the size and breadth of the common working lamp.

In concluding this article, we must remark, that the rationale of the important fact on the knowledge of which the safety-lamp has been constructed, is by no means clear, and is worthy of further consideration. The very ingenious explanation of Stephenson is overthrown by the experiments of Davy, by whom it is shewn that, however numerous the apertures below the flame, no explosion is communicated to the outside of the lamp, if these apertures be sufficiently small. It is, however, evident, that the combustion of the air in the lamp cannot prevent the explosion through the superior openings: since, the flame remaining the same, the air may be admitted in any quantity, the method of its admission being the only thing of consequence. Sir H. Davy's opinion, that refrigeration takes place, will only apply to metallic tubes of some length, but by no means to wire-gauze, and is contradicted by his own experiment, wherein he found that the wire-gauze might be heated to a certain degree of redness without allowing the flame to pass through it. It might be worth while to inquire whether the decomposition of light may not have some influence on the phenomenon in question.

SAFETY COVE, a harbour on the east coast of Calvert's island, in Fitzhugh's Sound. Lat. 52. 31. N. long. 232. 2. E.

SAFETY GATE, a moveable door at the bottom of a canal, generally under a bridge; so contrived, that in case of a current being formed in the canal by the breach of a bank, the door or gate will rise up, and stop the communication at that place.

SAFFELAER, a small inland town of the Netherlands in East Flanders, with 2300 inhabitants.

SAFFI, or AZAFFI, a seaport town of Morocco, capital of the province of Abda. It is supposed to be a very ancient town, and built by the Carthaginians. The town is situated between two hills, in a very hot climate, and subject to inundation. It has a very fine road, affording safe anchorage in every season, except in winter, when the winds blowing from the south and south-west, drive vessels out to sea. It was long the centre of European commerce, and the French had several factories there, where they took in great quantities of wool, wax, gum, and leather; but the emperor having founded Mogodor, gave it the monopoly of the trade with Europe, and obliged the merchants to transfer their warehouses thither. The country round consists of a dry and barren sand, and the Moors of the town are rude, unsociable, and fanatical; nor was any Christian, till lately, permitted to enter

enter on horseback. The population is stated by Mr. Jackson at 12,000. Lat. 32. 20. N. long. 9. 5. W.

SA'FFLOW, or SA'FFLOWER, *s.* A plant.—An herb they call *safflow*, or bastard saffron, dyers use for scarlet. *Mortimer.*

SA'FFRON, *s.* [*safran*, Fr.; from *saphar*, Arabick. It was yellow, according to Davies in his Welsh dictionary. *Crocus*, Lat.] A plant. *Miller.*—Grind your bole and chalk, and five or six shives of *saffron*. *Peacham.*

SA'FFRON BASTARD, *s.* A plant. See CARTHAMUS.

SAFFRON (Meadow). See COLCHICUM. Since the above article was written, the meadow saffron has come into very general use. It was for some time suspected to form the basis of Husson's famous Eau Medicinale; and when this became certainly known, many physicians experimented upon its virtues. It is now established as a very effectual cure for rheumatism, and a great palliative in gout. It is also used in conjunction with other remedies, with much success, in inflammatory diseases of the chest. It is said, in Mr. Carpenter's "Treatise on Agriculture," that this plant is sometimes eaten by cattle to their great injury. He says, "that the symptoms they undergo, are difficulty in breathing and in discharging urine, which is very high coloured, the body costive, and the excrements hard and knotty, with dimness of sight and a general loss of the use of their limbs. When the beast offers to stand he staggers, and then tumbles, and dies with a great swelling all over the body, on opening which, the lungs, are found apparently distended, and in a state of mortification." These symptoms, some of which are very different from those produced by the same cause in he human body, are to be cured by strong purgatives.

SA'FFRON, *adj.* Yellow; having the colour of saffron.

Are these your customers?
Did this companion, with the *saffron* face,
Revel and feast it at my house to-day,
Whilst upon me the guilty doors were shut? *Shakspeare.*

To SA'FFRON, *v. a.* To tinge with saffron; to gild. *Obsolete.*

In Latine I speke a wordes fewe,
To *saffron* with my predication. *Chaucer.*

SAFFRON WALDEN, a market town and parish of England, in the county of Essex, so named from the great quantities of saffron formerly cultivated in the vicinity. Its situation is peculiar, and Dr. Stukely, who conjectures it to have been a Roman station, describes it as remarkable for picturesque beauty, the town being built on the side of an eminence, which is encompassed by a semicircular valley. At the bottom of the hill stands the ruins of a castle, and on the top is the church, the bottom of which is as high as the town, and is seen over the tops of the houses. The town is irregularly built, and not paved. The church is a spacious and very elegant pile of English architecture, chiefly of the age of Henry VII. and VIII. In the reign of the latter, the east end, and part of the south side of the chancel, were built by the Lord Chancellor Audley, who is interred in the vault beneath, with several of the earls and countesses of Suffolk. Walpole terms his one of the lightest and most beautiful parish churches in England. It consists of a nave, chancel, and side aisles, with an embattled tower at the west end. Several of the windows are richly ornamented with mullions and tracery. The building was thoroughly repaired in the years 1791, 1792, and 1793, at an expense of little less than £8000, of which the late Lord Howard contributed £2000. Besides the church, here are meeting houses for Independents, Baptists, and Quakers. At the south-west end of the town are some alms-houses, founded in the reign of Edward VI.; and here is also a free-school, of ancient foundation. The keep of the ancient castle is still to be seen. This fortress was erected by Geoffrey de Mangaville, a Norman chief, who accompanied the conqueror into England, and whose services were rewarded with 118 lordships, 40 of which were in this county. The building occupied the highest part of the town, and, from the remaining fragments, appears to have been of great strength. On the green, behind the castle, is a curious work, called the Maze, supposed to have been a British cursus, or place of exercise for the soldiery. It consists of a number of concentric circles, with four outworks issuing from the four sides, all cut in the chalk. On the spot now occupied by Audley House, stood the Benedictine priory, founded in 1136 by Earl Geoffrey, and converted into an abbey in 1190. Saffron Walden carries on a considerable trade in malting, and it has a manufacture of bolting cloths, checks, and fustians. Fine yarn and sacks are also made here. The cultivation of saffron has been discontinued. The town was incorporated by Edward VI. in the year 1549. By a charter of William III., it is governed by a mayor, twelve aldermen, a recorder, town-clerk, &c. Market on Saturday. Population 3403; 27 miles north-west of Chelmsford, and 42 north-by-east of London. Lat. 52. 2 N. long. 0. 14. E.

SAFIA, a small river of Arabia, which falls into the Red Sea; 2 miles north of Tor.

SAFIEHA, a watering place in the desert of Nubia; 30 miles south-south-east of Syene.

SAFNAS, a village of Lower Egypt; 12 miles south-west of Tineh.

SAFRA, a town of Hedsjas, in Arabia; 40 miles south-south-west of Medina.

To SAG, *v. n.* [perhaps a corruption from *swag*. "To *sag* or *swag*, is to sink down by its own weight, or by an overload. See Junius's Etymologicon. It is common in Staffordshire to say, a beam in a building *sags*, or has *sagged*." Tollet, Note on Shakspeare's Macbeth. Mr. Malone says, that *sag* in Macbeth is printed erroneously for *swag*, merely from the pronunciation; as *swoop* is sometimes pronounced *soop;* and *sworn*, *sorn*. To *sag*, in Norfolk and Suffolk, is to fail, to droop: "he begins to *sag*, i. e. to decline in his health." *Pegge.*] To hang heavy; to shake so as to threaten a fall; to stagger.—His state and tottering empire *sagges*. *Miseries of Arthur.*

The mind I sway by, and the heart I bear,
Shall never *sag* with doubt, nor shake with fear. *Shakspeare.*

To SAG, *v. a.* To load; to burthen.

SAGA'CIOUS, *adj.* [*sagax*, Lat.] "Quick of scent." *Johnson.* With *of*.

So scented the grim feature, and up-turn'd
His nostrils wide into the murky air,
Sagacious of his quarry from so far. *Milton.*

Quick of thought; acute in making discoveries.—Only *sagacious* heads light on these observations, and reduce them into general propositions. *Locke.*

SAGA'CIOUSLY, *adv.* "With quick scent." *J.*—With acuteness of penetration.—Lord Coke *sagaciously* observes upon it. *Burke.*

SAGA'CIOUSNESS, *s.* The quality of being sagacious.

SAGA'CITY, *s.* [*sagacitas*, Lat.] "Quickness of scent." *J.*—Acuteness of discovery.—It requires too great a *sagacity* for vulgar minds to draw the line nicely between virtue and vice. *South.*

SAGADAHOC, a river of the United States, in Maine, which joins the Androscoggin, in Rumford.

SAGADAHOC, the name formerly applied to most of that part of Main which lies east of the Kennebeck.

SAGADENON, a name given by the ancients to what they say was the very finest kind of opobalsamum, produced in Palestine and the adjacent country.

SAGALA, a town of India, on this side of the Ganges.

SAGALESSUS, or SAGALASSUS, a considerable town of Asia Minor, south of Apamæa Cibotos; placed by Ptolemy in Lycia, by others in Pisidia, and by M. D'Anville in the interior of the limits of Phrygia. Hierocles calls it "Agalessus." According to Strabo, it was within the department of the governor established by the Romans in the kingdom of Amyntus. According to Livy, the territory of this town was fertile, and its inhabitants a brave people.

SA'GAMORE, *s.* [Among the American Indians.] A king

king or supreme ruler. *Bailey.*—The barbarous people—have their *sagamores*, and orders, and forms of government. *Bp. Hall.*—The juice of some unknown plant used in medicine.

SAGAN, the suffragan or deputy of the Jewish high priest: who, according to some, was only to officiate for him, when he was rendered incapable of attending the service through sickness, or legal uncleanness, on the day of expiation; or, according to others, who was to assist the high-priest in the care of the affairs of the temple and the service of the priests.

SAGAN, a town in Prussian Silesia, situated on the right bank of the Bober, and surrounded with a double wall. It has a Catholic college, four Catholic churches, a Lutheran church and school, a large castle, and about 4700 inhabitants. The chief manufactures are woollens and linen; 83 miles north-west of Breslau, and 80 east-north-east of Dresden. Lat. 51. 42. 12. N. long. 15. 22. 30. E.—Sagan is the chief place of a duchy which is now included in the government of Liegnitz. It has a superficial extent of 380 square miles, with a population of 37,000. It is in general level and sandy, has a number of large woods, and abounds in iron ore.

SAGANAK, a town of Independent Tartary, on the Sihon or Jaxartes. It was taken, and the greater part of the inhabitants put to death, by Zingis Khan; 90 miles west of Taraz.

SAGANAUM BAY, a bay of the United States, in Lake Huron, situated about the centre of the north-west side; 40 miles long, and from eight to twelve wide.

SAGANAUM RIVER, a river of America, which runs into the Saganaum bay. Lat. 44. N. long. 83. 35. W. Length 30 miles.

SAGANEER, a town of Hindostan, province of Ajmeer, belonging to the Rajah of Jyepoor. Lat. 26. 40. N. long. 75. 50. E.

SAGANEER, a town of Hindostan, province of Gundwaneh, belonging to the Rajah of Nagpore. Lat. 21. 34. N. long. 79. 18. E.

SAGANIAN, a river of Great Bukharia, which falls into the Oxus, at Termed. There is a town of the same name on its banks; 60 miles south-east of Samarcand.

SAGAPENUM [Σαγαπηνον, Gr.], a medicinal gum resin, whose smell comes very near that of a pine; whence its name.

It flows, by incision, from the trunk of a ferulaceous plant growing in Persia; the best is in bright transparent tears of a strong, pungent, porraceous smell: and the whiter and freer from dirt, the better. Sometimes it is found as white, both within and without as milk; though this is very rare. Dioscorides mentioned it as the juice of a ferula growing in Media. Willdenow supposes it to be the *Ferula persica.*

The sagapenum is brought directly from Alexandria; either in distinct tears, or run together into large masses; outwardly of a yellow colour, but internally somewhat paler and clear, like horn; growing soft on being handled, so as to stick to the fingers. It melts at a low heat, and burns with a crackling noise and white flame, yielding much smoke, and leaving behind a light spongy coal. It is dissolved partially by water and strong alcohol, and almost completely by proof spirit. Distilled with water it yields a little volatile oil, and impregnates the water strongly with its flavour. Its constituents appear to be gum, resin, and an essential oil, on which its virtues chiefly depend. It is sometimes supplied in the shops by the larger and darker coloured masses of bdellium. It has a strong disagreeable smell, resembling that of the leek-kind, or a mixture of galbanum with a little assa-fœtida; and a moderately hot biting taste. It is frequently prescribed, either by itself, or in conjunction with ammoniacum or galbanum, in hysteric cases, asthmas, and other irritative disorders in which assa-fœtida has been found serviceable; but its powers are much weaker. It may be taken in the form of pills, from 10 grains to half a drachm; in doses of a drachm, it opens the bowels.

SAGAPOLA, a mountain in the interior of the eastern part of Mauritania Cæsariensis, in which was the source of the river Sabus.

SAGARA, is, with the Hindoos, a personification of the sea. Sagara is made to espouse Sumati, a maid of surpassing beauty, daughter of Garuda, or Superna, the man-eagle that serves as a vehicle for Vishnu. This marriage, and its extravagant progeny, is connected, by a long allegorical chain, with the source and course of the Ganges, and is very poetically detailed in the first book of the Ramayana. Sagara is a name occurring also in historical relations, as the son of a Rajah Bahu, sovereign of Oude; but so intermingled with fable, as not to be deserving of farther notice in that light.

SAGARA, the ancient *Helicon*, a mountain of Greece, a few miles to the north of the gulf of Corinth. It is of considerable height, and its scenery is picturesque. Here may still be traced the fountains of Aganippe and Hippocrene, the stream of Permessus, and the village of Ascra, the birthplace of Hesiod, now called, like the mountain itself, Sagara. From its top may be seen a great part of Greece; in particular the plains of Lebadia, Chæronea, and Orchomenus. The village of Sagara is built in a deep dell, surrounded by lofty mountains.

SAGARA NACKEN BAY, a bay on the east coast of the island of Java. Lat. 7. 33. S. long. 109. 21. E.

SAGARAWIDA BAY, a bay on the south coast of the island of Java. Lat. 8. 15. S. long. 113. E.

SAGARD, a small town of the Prussian states, in the peninsula of Jasmund, or north point of the island of Rugen. Population 700. It is remarkable only for a medicinal spring, resorted to by numbers of invalids from the north of Germany; 22 miles north-east of Stralsund.

SAGARIS, Berezen, a river of Sarmatia, the mouth of which was in the island Leuce, the same with that of the Borysthenes.

SAGARTII, a people of Asia, in Media, east of mount Zagros (Ptol.) and reckoned by Herodotus among those of Persia.

SAGATHEE, or Sagathy *s.* A slight woollen stuff; being a kind of serge, or ratteen; sometimes mixed with a little silk. It is manufactured chiefly at Amiens; though we had it in England.

The word is formed from the French *sayette*, a diminutive of *saye, say.* (See Say). The French name *sayette* again is derived from that of the thread used herein, which is chiefly prepared and spun in Flanders, about Turcoing, &c. and called *fil de sayette.*

Making a panegyrick on pieces of *sagathy* or Scotch plaid. *Tatler.*

SAGATUK, a river of the United States, in Connecticut, which runs into Long Island Sound, between Fairfield and Norwalk, forming a bay at its mouth.

SAGAY, a small island of the Hebrides, near Harris.

SAGDA, or Psagda, the name of a stone described by Aldrovandus, which, he says, is of a green colour, and has the property of attracting wood.

Pliny and the ancients give this name to a gem of a greenish colour, very much esteemed at that time; and about the origin of which the ancients had many fabulous reports. Solinus tells us, that it is produced at the bottom of the sea, and thence rises up of itself as ships pass over the place where it is, and fixes itself to their bottoms, and that it cannot be got off again without cutting away a part of the wood. This author has generally taken his accounts of things from Pliny; though he has been at the pains to disguise them, in such a manner, that they are often unintelligible. All that Pliny says on this occasion is, that the sagda was of a green colour, and was found by the Chaldæans at the bottoms of their ships; even this, however, is not very intelligible, unless they meant that the ships which traded to the Red Sea, and lay long in the harbours, and were sometimes a-ground, picked up at their bottoms the stones which make up the shores, and some of these are of the

the jasper kind, and usually green; at this rate it could not be a stone of any great value, nor do we indeed find any where that it was, except in Solinus.

It is to be observed, that the ancients called a certain ointment by the name sagda, as well as this stone; this ointment was green, and probably the stone had its name from the resembling it in colour. This was a custom common among the writers of early times; and they have the names of *libanotis, myrrhites, stactachates,* and *eromatites,* from the resemblance which certain agates and jaspers had to the drugs, &c. in common use among them.

SAGE, *s.* [*salvia,* Lat.] A plant of which the school of Salernum thought so highly, that they left this verse:—"Cur moriatur homo cui *salvia* crescit in horto?"—By the colour, figure, taste, and smell, we have as clear ideas of *sage* and hemlock, as we have of a circle. *Locke.*—Marbled with *sage* the hard'ning cheese she press'd. *Gay.*

SAGE, *adj.* [*saggio,* Ital.] Wise; grave; prudent.

Tired limbs to rest,
O matron *sage,* quoth she, I hither came. *Spenser.*

SAGE, *s.* A philosopher; a man of gravity and wisdom.

At his birth a star proclaims him come,
And guides the eastern *sages,* who enquire
His place, to offer incense, myrrh, and gold. *Milton.*

Groves, where immortal *sages* taught,
Where heavenly visions Plato fir'd. *Pope.*

SAGE (Alain-Renè le), was born about the year 1677, at Ruys, in Brittany. He went early in life to Paris, with no other view than to gain a subsistence as a writer, and first made himself known by a version of the Greek letters of Aristænes. Having acquired a good knowledge of the Spanish language, and studied its writers with critical care, he made its novels or romances the foundation of several works of the same class, and introduced the scenery and manners of Spain into others. His most popular work, and that which is known and read in every country of Europe, is the "Aventures de Gil Blas de Santillane." The manners and characters drawn in this work are extremely lively and amusing. It contains much wholesome instruction, and displays extensive knowledge of real life, From this work, Le Sage derives his greatest fame; but his "Diable Boiteaux" is very popular, though it is rather a series of characters and stories, than a proper novel. Le Sage was author of "Nouvelles Aventures de Don Quicchotte," and a novel, entitled "Estawanille, ou le Garçon de bonne Humeur." He was also a dramatic writer, and the "Crispin rival de son Maître," and "Turcaret," are said to contain scenes worthy of Moliere. Le Sage died in 1747: he had always borne an estimable character, and was so entertaining in conversation, that he was always surrounded in coffee-houses with an audience eager to listen to his sallies and anecdotes. His works prove that he thought very freely, nevertheless he is said to have been extremely punctual in performing all the duties of religion. He wrote with facility and purity, and his Gil Blas is reckoned one of the best specimens of the French language.

SAGE (David le), a French poet, was born at Montpellier, and was author of a collection of sonnets, elegies, satires, and epigrams, called "The Follies of Le Sage." He died about the year 1650.

SAGE (John), a Scotch divine, was born in Fifeshire, in 1652. He was educated at St. Andrew's, and in 1684, was episcopally ordained. After the revolution, in 1688, he was much persecuted by the Presbyterian party. He died in 1711. He was author of an able defence of episcopacy, entitled "The Principles of the Cyprianic Age," and some other works.

SAGE-TREE, or Jerusalem Sage. See Phlomis.

SAGE-APPLES, a name given by naturalists to a sort of soft gall, or protuberance, found frequently on the leaves and stalks of sage in the eastern parts of the world, and much resembling the soft gall of the oak-leaf, called the *oak-apple.*

SAGE of Jerusalem, in Botany; see Pulmonaria.—Sage, wild, or Wood Sage; see Teucrium.—Sagé, Indian wild, a species of Lantana; which see.

SAGE-CHEESE, in Rural Economy, that sort of cheese which is made by means of an infusion of sage, so as to render it of different colours.

Cheeses of this sort are made in many different ways, being sometimes coloured all through, at other times only in layers, and occasionally in a figured manner throughout the whole, so as to have a curious appearance.

SA'GELY, *adv.* Wisely; prudently.—Sober he seemde, and very *sagely* sad. *Spenser.*—To whom our Saviour *sagely* thus replied. *Milton.*

SAGENDAGO, a head branch of Hudson's river. Its mouth is about 20 miles west of Fort Ann.

SA'GENESS, *s.* Gravity; prudence.—In all good learning, virtue, and *sageness,* they give other men example what thing they should do. *Ascham.*

SAGENITE, in Mineralogy, a name given by Saussure, to the capillary crystals of utile.

SAGGING, in Sea Language, is a term applied to the hull of a ship when the middle part of her keel and bottom are so strained by the weight of her cargo, as to arch downwards. This term is, therefore, opposed to *hogging,* which, when applied in a similar manner, means by a different sort of strain to curve or arch upwards. In seamanship, *sagging to leeward,* signifies the movement by which a ship makes considerable lee-way, or is driven far to leeward of the course on which she apparently sails. It is generally expressed of heavy sailing vessels, as opposed to keeping well to windward, or "holding a good wind."

SAGH, or Ipoly-Sagh, a small town of the north-west of Hungary, and the chief place of the palatinate of Nagy-Hont, situated on the Ipoly; 22 miles north by-west of Waitzen, and 39 north of Buda.

SAGH, a small town of the south-west of Hungary; 62 miles south of Presburg, and 22 south of Szombathely.

SAGHALIEN, called also Oku Jesso, or Upper Jesso, and by the natives Tchoka, a large island or peninsula, situated at the eastern extremity of Asia, immediately to the north of the large island of Jesso or Matsmai. It is about 450 miles in length from north to south, and from 40 to 130 in breadth from east to west. It is separated from the continent by a narrow channel, called the channel of Tartary. It has become a subject of controversy among navigators, whether this channel extends along the whole western coast, thus forming Saghalien into an island, or whether there be an isthmus connecting it with Tartary, and thus rendering it a peninsula. D'Anville, in his maps, describes it sometimes one way and sometimes the other. Perouse was the first who carefully examined this question. He entered the channel of Tartary, but was obliged, by adverse winds and other circumstances, to quit it, before examining its whole extent. On inquiring of the people at Saghalien itself, he was assured that it was an island, though separated from the continent only by a narrow strait. The people of Tartary, on the other hand, asserted that Saghalien was connected with the continent by a narrow isthmus of sand, covered with marine plants. The latter statement was favoured by the circumstance, that the depth of the water was observed constantly to diminish, and that no current was felt. Perouse, on the whole, was led to conclude that there was a strait, but so obstructed by sand and sea-weed, as to be scarcely passable. Captain Broughton, however, having penetrated twenty miles farther than La Perouse, came to a shallow bay, surrounded on every side by sands, which appeared to him to extend unbroken, so as to form a communication with the opposite continent. The same opinion was afterwards adopted by Krusenstern, the Russian navigator. In confirmation of it, he observed, that in the strait to the north of the river Saghalien, the water is rendered almost fresh by the influx of the stream. Yet some geographers

geographers are still of opinion, that all these circumstances may be accounted for, by supposing a very narrow and winding strait separating the two coasts. This is the delineation followed in the Chinese and Japanese maps, and may therefore be retained, till the contrary is fully established.

The territory of Saghalien appears to be very mountainous, particularly towards the centre. The eastern coast consists of wooded valleys and hills, behind which rise lofty mountains, covered with snow. To the south of the 51st degree, the country becomes more level, and exhibits only hills of sand. The soil is here favourable to agriculture, exhibits a vigorous vegetation, and is covered with forests of pine, oak, willow, and birch. The surrounding sea produces an extraordinary quantity of fish; while the rivers abound with trout and salmon of the very best quality. Roses, angelica, and other flowers, flourish on the hills. The eastern coast, along which Krusenstern sailed, appeared to be nearly destitute of inhabitants. The southern and western are occupied by the Ainos, of whom a description has already been given. Perouse gives a very favourable account of those with whom he had intercourse. They are friendly and affectionate towards each other; their constitution is healthy and vigorous; and they exercise with diligence the occupations of hunting and fishing. They sail in boats of willow bark, similar to those made on the neighbouring island of Jesso. The north-east coast, opposite to the mouth of the Saghalien, is occupied by a colony of Mantchou Tartars. The Japanese had formed a colony in the bay of Aniwa, at the southern extremity of the island; but it has been destroyed by the Russians, who, it is supposed, may intend to form an establishment themselves in the same quarter.

SAGHALIEN RIVER, the same with AMUR, which see.

SAGHALIEN OULA-HOTUN, a small fortified town in the country of the Mantchou Tartars, situated on the river Amur or Saghalien; 450 miles north-east of Peking.

SAGHALIEN OULA-KIAMEN, a post of Chinese Tartary; 10 miles north-north-west of Saghalien Oula-Hotun.

SAG HARBOUR, a post village and port of entry of the United States, in Suffolk county, New York, on the east end of Long Island, and on the Atlantic. This village contains about 80 houses, and a printing office. The shipping owned here in 1816 amounted to 2530 tons, employed chiefly in the whale and cod fisheries. It has a good harbour. In the year 1777, a large quantity of military stores, belonging to the British, was destroyed by the Americans, and a number of sloops and other vessels burned. Lat. 40. 57. N. long. 72. 21. W.

SAGIDA, or SAGEDA, a town of India, situated on this side of the Ganges, and the capital of the Adisathri, according to Ptolemy. It is the new SAGUR; which see.

SAGINA [from σαγμα, which is from σατλω, onero], in Botany, a genus of the class tetrandria, order tetragynia, natural order of caryophyllei or caryophylleæ.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth four-leaved: leaflets ovate, concave, spreading very much, permanent. Corolla: petals four, ovate, obtuse, shorter than the calyx, spreading. Stamina: filaments four, capillary. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germ subglobular. Styles four, awl-shaped, recurved, pubescent. Stigmas simple. Pericarp: capsule ovate, straight, one-celled, four valved. Seeds numerous, very small, fastened to the receptacle. Sagina procumbens varies with petalous and apetalous flowers. Sagina apetala never has any petals. Sagina erecta has calyx-leaves lanceolate, acuminate. Sagina Virginica differs in several marks from its congeners.—*Essential Character.* Calyx four-leaved. Petals four. Capsule one-celled, four-valved, many-seeded.

1. Sagina cerastoides, or tetrandrous pearl-wort.—Root fibrous, branched, annual. Herb bright green, many-stemmend, hirsute. Stems dichotomous, scarcely panicled. Leaves elliptic-oblong. Peduncles generally three times as long as the calyx, erect, bent back when the flowering is over, but becoming erect as the seed ripens. Calyx-leaves hirsute, acuminate. Petals four, shorter than the calyx, white. Seeds rugged on the outside. The flowers expand only in bright weather.—Native of Scotland, on sandy shores and rocks, on walls in rubbishy places; flowering in May and June.

2. Sagina procumbens, or procumbent pearl-wort.—Root fibrous, annual, or perennial. Stems numerous, in shady moist places procumbent, in dry situations upright, two or three inches in length. Leaves half an inch long, linear, deep green: root leaves in tufts. Peduncles axillary, one-flowered, nodding before the flowers open. Capsule surrounded with the permanent calyx.—Native of most parts of Europe, Siberia, and Japan, in barren pastures, on walls, &c.

3. Sagina apetala, or annual small-flowered pearl-wort.—Root annual, small and fibrous. Stems several, nearly upright, from one to three inches or more in height, filiform, jointed, clothed with short scattered hairs. Leaves opposite, linear-subulate. Peduncles slender, at first nodding, but afterwards upright. Petals white, very minute, often altogether wanting.—Besides England, it is a native of France, Italy, and Germany.

4. Sagina erecta, or upright pearl-wort.—The whole herb is smooth and glaucous. Stems two or three inches high, upright. Leaves opposite, linear-lanceolate. Peduncles solitary, purplish, one or two on a stalk. Petals white.

5. Sagina Virginica, or Virginian pearl-wort.—Stem filiform, a finger's length. Leaves opposite, awl-shaped, very small. One flower terminating, and some opposite, each on its proper peduncle. Calyx four-parted, upright. Petals four, oblong. Stamens four, the length of the calyx.—Native of Virginia.

SAGINAGA, LAKE, a small lake of North America; formed by the river which connects Lake Superior with the lake of the Woods. Its greatest length from east to west is about 14 miles, with very irregular inlets, and it is nowhere more than three miles wide.

SAGITTA, in Architecture, the name sometimes used for the key-piece of an arch.

SAGITTA, in Astronomy, the *arrow* or *dart*, a constellation of the northern hemisphere, near the Eagle. The stars in the constellation Sagitta, in Tycho's catalogue, are five, and as many in Ptolemy's and Hevelius's; in Mr. Flamsteed's catalogue they are eighteen.

SAGITTA, in Botany, signifies the top of any small twig, scyon, or graft of a tree.

SAGITTA, in Geometry, is a term which some writers use for the abscis of a curve.

SAGITTA, in Trigonometry, &c. is the same as the versed sine of any arc; and is so called by some writers, because it is like a dart, or arrow, standing on the chord of the arc.

SAGI'TTAL, *adj.* [*sagittalis*, Lat.] Belonging to an arrow.—[In Anatomy.] A suture so called from its standing between two other sutures, as an arrow between the bow and the string.

SAGITTARIA [from the form of the leaves resembling the head of an arrow], in Botany, a genus of the class monoecia, order polyandria, natural order of tripetaloideæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Male flowers many. Calyx: perianth three leaved: leaflets ovate, concave, permanent. Corolla: Petals three, roundish, blunt, flat, spreading, three times as large as the calyx. Stamina: filaments numerous (often twenty-four), awl-shaped, collected into a head. Anthers erect, the length of the calyx. Female flowers fewer, below the males. Calyx: perianth as in the male. Corolla: petals three, as in the male. Pistil: germs numerous, compressed, collected into a head, gibbous outwards, ending in very short styles. Stigmas acute, permanent. Pericarp none. Receptacle globular, collecting the seeds into a globe. Seeds numerous, oblong, compressed, girt longitudinally with a membranaceous margin, which is wide, gibbous on one side, acuminate at both ends.—*Essential Character.* Calyx three-leaved. Corolla three-petaled. Male: filaments commonly twenty-four. Female: pistil many. Seeds many, naked.

1. Sagittaria sagittifolia, or common arrow-head.—Root perennial, consisting of a tuber fixed deeply in the mud. Stem

Stem and petioles triangular, very spongy, by which they are supported in the water, in consequence of the air generated within them: they discharge a white milky juice, an uncommon circumstance in aquatic plants. Leaves all from the root: the first, which are always under water, long and linear: the succeeding leaves, which rise above the water, are arrow-shaped, entire, smooth, with parallel ribs, and a net-work of veins. Flowers three in each whorl, each having a small oval-lanceolate bracte at the base of the pedicel, embracing the stem. One or two of the lower whorls have female, the rest male flowers. Calyx of one leaf, with three divisions. Corolla white, with a purplish tinge at the claws of the petals.—Native of Europe, Siberia, China, Cochin-china, Japan and Virginia in pools, ditches and slow streams; of which it is one of the most beautiful ornaments throughout England. There are four varieties of the species.

2. Sagittaria obtusifolia, or blunt-leaved arrow-head.—Differs from the preceding in having the anterior part of the leaves twice as wide as in that.—Native of Asia.

3. Sagittaria lancifolia, or lance-leaved arrow-head.—Leaves acuminate both ways, entire, shining, coriaceous, on round and very long petioles. Spikes of flowers a foot or two longer than the leaves. Of these there are four partial ones; the middle longer than the three outer. Peduncles one-flowered, three together. Flowers twice as large as those of the common sort; with a reddish calyx, white petals, and yellow anthers. Fruit depressed.—Native of Jamaica and Cuba, in stagnant waters.

4. Sagittaria acutifolia, or sharp-leaved arrow-head.—Leaves sheathing at the base, convex outwards, sharp at the edge, gradually attenuated into a compressed cusp, without any widened leaf. Flowers resembling those of the first sort. Stamens many. Fruit a very close globe of acute seeds.—Native of Surinam, in water.

5. Sagittaria trifolia, or three-leaved arrow-head.—Leaves ternate.—Native of China.

SAGITTARIA, an island in the South Pacific ocean, discovered by Quiros in 1606, and supposed to be the same as Otaheite.

SAGITTARIUM ALEXIPHARMACUM, the name of a root cultivated with great care in Jamaica, and supposed a remedy for the wounds of poisonous arrows. The plant of which it is the root, is the *canna Indica radice alba* (Sloane's Hist. i. p. 253.); but its virtues have not yet brought it into use on this side the water.

SAGITTA'RIUS, *s.* [Lat.] The sagittary, or archer; one of the signs of the zodiac.—*Saggitarius*, the archer, hath 31 stars: touching the sign there are, among the poets, many and sundry opinions. *Moxon.*

The stars in the constellation Sagittarius, in Ptolemy's catalogue, are thirty-one; in Tycho's, fourteen; in Hevelius's, twenty-two; in the Britannic catalogue, sixty-nine.

SAGITTARIUS (Gaspard), a learned German, and writer in history and antiquities, was the son of a Lutheran minister, and was born at Lunenburg, in 1643. He studied at Lubeck and Altenburg, after which he visited several of the German universities, and travelled to Denmark. He took the degree of doctor of philosophy at Jena, and, in 1674, was made professor of history in the university of Halle, and was honoured with the office of historian to the duke of Saxony. He passed his life in the duties of his office, and in writing, and died in 1694. The most valuable of his works, of which there are 60 or 70 distinct publications, on theology, antiquities, criticism, history, biography, and topography, are "The Antiquities of the Kingdom of Thuringia:" and "A History of the Marquisses and Electors of Brandenburg."

SA'GITTARY, *s.* [*sagittarius*, Lat.] A centaur; an animal half man half horse, armed with a bow and quiver.

The dreadful *sagittary*
Appals our numbers. *Shakspeare.*

SA'GITTARY, *adj.* [*sagittarius*, Lat.] Belonging to an arrow; proper for an arrow. *Not in use.*—With such differences of reeds, vallatory, *sagittary*, scriptory, and others, they might be furnished in Judea. *Sir T. Brown.*

SAGMATOK, a town of East Greenland. Lat. 61. 18. N. long. 45. 30. W.

SAGNE, a village and commune of Switzerland, in the canton of Neufchatel. It was here that the manufacture of clocks and watches was first introduced into Switzerland: it is still carried on with great activity. Population of the two, 1300; 8 miles west-north-west of Neufchatel.

SAGNIKA, the name of a sect of Hindoo pyrolaters, whose name seems derived from Agni, the god of fire; otherwise called *Pavaka.* Sir William Jones, speaking of some reform among the ancient Persians, in the eighth or ninth century before Christ, says, that "while they rejected the complex polytheism of their predecessors, they retained the laws of Mahabad, and a superstitious veneration for the sun, the planets, and fire: thus resembling the Hindoo sects, called Sauras and Sagnikas; the second of which is very numerous at Benares, where many Agnihotras, or consecrated fires, are continually burning, and where the Sagnikas, when they enter on their sacerdotal office, kindle with two pieces of the hard wood Sami, a fire, which they keep lighted through their lives, for their nuptial ceremony, for the performance of solemn sacrifices, and the obsequies of departed ancestors, and for their own funeral pile. This remarkable rite was contiuued by Zeratusht, who reformed the old religion by the addition of genii or angels, presiding over months and days; of new ceremonies in the veneration shewn to fire; of a new work which he pretended to have received from heaven; and above all, by establishing the actual adoration of one Supreme Being." *Discourse on the Persians As. Res.* vol. ii.

SA'GO, *s.* A kind of eatable grain. *Bailey.*—Sago is not a grain by nature, but the granulated juice of an East-Indian plant. It is so prepared before exportation. *Mason.*—They recommend an attention to pectorals, such as *sago*, barley, turnips, &c. *Ld. Chesterfield.*

Sago is procured from a tree called *landan*, growing in the Moluccas. This tree is a species of the palm, which grows naturally in Japan, and upon rocky dry mountains in Malabar. Its production is an universal article of food among the inhabitants of Amboyna, Ceram, Celebes, and the surrounding islands east of Celebes, and also in Borneo. The tree propagates itself by offsets, or shoots, which for a long time appear only like bushes (about fifteen or sixteen feet in height), and which all proceed from the roots, or from the bottom of the trunk of a full-grown tree. The stem, when it begins to form itself out of the bush, shoots up as straight as an arrow, to the height of between 40 and 50 feet, without any lateral branches, like the cocoa-nut trees, forming a handsome crown at the top, which affords an agreeable shade. A grove of these trees, with their erected stems, which, when arrived at maturity, consist of nothing but a spongy and mealy substance, surrounded by a hard bark about half an inch thick, and their beautiful leafy crowns, has a very charming appearance, and forms a pleasant and cool retreat. This white, spongy, and mealy substance is the sago, which serves the natives in lieu of bread. It is said that this tree does not produce any fruit, till it has lost its strength, and is about to die, when the branches likewise appear covered with meal: it then produces at the top a bunch of small fruit, like pigeons' eggs, which are first green, and afterwards yellow: the kernel is very astringent. It delights in wet morassy situations, and will not grow except in low grounds. It does not live above 30 years. A tree is chosen, the pith of which has arrived at its full maturity, and this is perceived by its beginning to be of a yellowish-white cast just under the foliage. The stem is then cut through as close to the ground as possible, in order to lose the less of its farinaceous contents. They likewise sometimes try it by chopping a hole in the tree, out of which they take some of the pith, in order to examine whether it be sufficiently ripe; if not, they close the hole again, or else they immediately fell the tree, because if it be suffered to remain too long,

1. Sag. sagittifolia. 2. San. officinalis. 3. Sat. albidum. 4. Sat. viride.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1826.

long, and till it produces fruit, they know that the pith will turn entirely into green filaments, and yield no sago. When the tree is thus felled, it is cut through in the middle of its length into two or more pieces, and the hard bark of each piece is split asunder by the insertion of wedges; the sago then appears uncovered, just like the spongy substance in our elder-trees. They then make a certain instrument, resembling an adze, out of one of the branches of the tree they have felled, with which they loosen the sago all round from the bark, and reduce it to the appearance of saw-dust.

The whole tree being thus *poekeled* out, the raw sago is put by portions into a trough, like a canoe, and water is poured upon it, and well mixed with the sago, by which means the meal is separated from the filaments.

These filaments, which might be denominated the bran of the sago, are called *ela*, and are made use of to feed hogs, poultry, &c.

The water, thus impregnated with the sago-meal, having stood still for some time, the meal subsides, by its own weight, to the bottom; the water is then poured off, and it is a second time purified in the same manner: after this, the wet meal is laid upon flat wicker-baskets, to dry, and it is then kneaded together, and formed into little cakes of three inches long, two inches broad, and half an inch thick; finally, it is put into moulds of the same size and shape, and baked over the fire, till it is done enough, and becomes dry and hard.

The mould, or oven, for baking sago-bread is made of earthern-ware; it is generally nine inches square, and about four deep, divided into two equal parts by a partition parallel to its sides. Each of those parts is subdivided into eight or nine, about an inch broad, so that the whole contains two rows of cells, about eight or nine in a row. The oven is turned first on one side and afterwards on the other, upon the fire, and the cakes are sufficiently baked in about ten or twelve minutes.

The taste of the sago-bread does not much vary from that of the *cassava*, or *manioc*, of the West Indies; but it appeared to Mr. Wilcocke to be more nutritive; it is not unpleasant to eat, when it has been first a little soaked, and afterwards fried in butter; yet it is very difficult of digestion.

The finest part of the meal is mixed with water, and the paste is rubbed into little round grains, like small shot, and dried. This preparation is not disagreeable in soups, in lieu of Italian macaroni: the sago that is produced in Borneo is esteemed the best for this purpose.

A preparation is likewise made of this finest part of the meal, which is called *popeda*, and has much resemblance to the porridge of buckwheat-meal which is made in Holland, but is much more gelatinous. This is eaten with little sticks, which being dipped into the popeda, take with them a part of it which adheres to them; they are then dipped in broth, and, together with a little fish, constitute the best dish of the Amboynese, and even of those who are descendants of Europeans.

Besides the farinaceous part for food, the sago-tree yields other things of utility to the Indians.

The stem or bark, after the meal has been poekeled out, is made use of by the natives, to form little bridges over rivulets, or little creeks.

What are called the branches, which are channelled on the upper side, and convex on the under, serve also sometimes for the same purpose; but the chief use which the Amboynese make of them is for the walls and roofs of their houses, and for packing cases, &c. This article is called *gabbe-gabba*.

The leaves, laced together, form what is called *atap*, and serve instead of tiles for covering of houses, and to preserve things from the rain: but roofs of atap must be renewed every six or seven years.

The sago-tree has, like all the trees of the palm kind, a cabbage, which is eaten by the natives, though it is not so good or wholesome as that of the *aneebong*, or proper cabbage palm. When a sago-tree has been felled, the *ela*, or refuse, is frequently left in the woods, and the wild hogs fatten upon it; a kind of mushrooms, which are much esteemed by the natives, grow upon the heaps of ela. The sago-tree is even of benefit after it has been deprived of its pith, and left to rot where it was felled; for when rotten, a sort of very fat white worms called *sago-worms*, with brown heads, are found in it, which the Indians roast, and think a great delicacy. A computation has been made by Forrest of how many persons may live on an acre planted with sago-trees. A sago-tree he allows to take up 100 square feet; now the contents of an acre are 43,500 square feet, which allows 435 trees to grow within that space; but supposing only 300, and that, one with another, they give 300 weight of flour, then three trees, or 900 weight, would maintain one man for a year, and an acre to be cut down would maintain 100 men for the same time; now, as sago-trees are seven years a-growing, 100 divided by seven, will allow fourteen men to be maintained for a year on the produce of one-seventh part of an acre, immediately, or on the produce of a whole acre, progressively cut, one-seventh part at a time, allowing fresh trees to sprout up. By Dr. Forster's computation, ten or twelve persons live eight months upon the produce of an acre planted with bread-fruit trees, at Otaheite.

The small grains are the sago of the shops. This substance, commonly recommended as a restorative in phthises and emaciations, and for restraining fluxes, appears to be a light, moderately nutritious demulcent food; in which view it is by some directed as a proper aliment for young children, in preference to the more tenacious and less digestible preparations of wheat-flour.

M. Parmentier has proposed to make sago out of potatoes; in consequence of his idea that all feculæ are absolutely identical, and that this principle is one and the same in nature. For this purpose he proposes to add a spoonful of the fecula of potatoes gradually to a chopin, or half a pint, of hot water or milk, to be kept stirring over a gentle fire for half an hour. Sugar may be added, with aromatics or spices, such as cinnamon, lemon-peel, saffron, orange-flower water, rose water, &c. The sago of potatoes may likewise be prepared with veal-broth, chicken broth, or common broth. The preparation may be varied in a thousand ways, and it forms a very nourishing and wholesome food.

SAGOCHLAMYS, among the Romans, a sort of garment that partly resembled the sagum, and partly the chlamys.

SAGONA, a small town situated on a bay of the same name, on the west coast of Corsica, between Calvi and Ajaccio. Though now in ruins, it was formerly a considerable place, and the see of a bishop, who still takes his title from it, but resides at Vico. In April 1811, two French frigates and a large merchantman, all laden with ship timber, though lying under the protection of a tower and battery, were here attacked and destroyed by two British frigates and a sloop of war.

SAGOR, or Ganga Sagor, an island of Bengal, situated at the entrance and eastern side of the Hoogly, or Bhagurutty river. It is eight miles in length by four in breadth, and is detached from the mainland by a creek, the north end of which is dry at low water. It is remarkable that the spring tides rise here four fathoms, which, if it should ever be inhabited, will give it a great advantage, for repairing of ships, &c. At present the only buildings at this place are a Hindoo temple, and a large reservoir for containing rain water, there being no springs of fresh water on the island, which has been evidently formed by the sand and mud brought down by the river. Sagor island has been from time immemorial a celebrated place of Hindoo pilgrimage, being situated at the junction of the Bhagurutty river, the most sacred branch of the Ganges, with the ocean. Till very recently, many persons annually devoted themselves, and sacrificed their children at this place, to the sharks and alligators; but measures have been taken by government to put

put an end to this inhuman practice. The island is not inhabited, but the Brahmins repair at the appointed season to the temple, and are followed by the pilgrims. A society in Calcutta has lately taken a lease of this island from the East India Company, and has engaged to clear and bring it into a state of cultivation in a few years. This step will be attended with great advantages, as all large vessels are obliged to take in the latter part of their cargoes at this place, and the anchorage is much healthier here than in the river. This measure was proposed during Mr. Hastings' government, but the British were not then sufficiently masters of the sea, to render it a prudential scheme; and whether it may prove so now is a little hypothetical. Its south point is in Lat. 21. 34. N. long. 88. 20. E.

SAGOUIN, in Zoology, the name of a very beautiful small species of monkey, described by Clusius, and seeming the same with the cagui minor of Marcgrave, and the simia jacchus of Linnæus.

Clusius says it is of the size of a squirrel, and has the look of a lion about the head, and that it is a very tender and delicate little animal, and impatient of the slightest injury.

SAGREDO (Giovanni), a noble Venetian, and a writer of history. He was procurator of St. Mark, and in the year 1675 was elected doge; but finding the election not agreeable to the people, he voluntarily resigned his office. He was employed as ambassador to various courts, and in 1691 was appointed proveditor-general of the Levant seas. Sagredo published at Venice, in 1677, a history of the Ottoman empire, under the title "Memorie Istoriche de' Monarchi Ottomani," beginning with the year 1300, and coming down to 1644. It is written with conciseness, after the manner of Tacitus, is interspersed with political reflections; and bears the character of impartiality and accuracy. It has been translated into the French language, in 6 vols. 12mo. Sagredo wrote a continuation of his work, relating chiefly to the war in Candia, which has not been published.

SAGREE, in Ichthyology. See Galeus Spinax.

SAGRES, a petty town of Portugal, at the southern extremity of the province of Algarva, a little to the east of Cape St. Vincent. It has a harbour, where prince Henry, the great promoter of maritime discovery in Portugal, in the 15th century, used to pass a great part of his time; 17 miles west-south-west of Lagos, and 116 south of Lisbon. Lat. 37. 0. N. long. 9. 0. W.

SAGRUJE, a town of Great Bukharia; 15 miles north-east of Samarcand.

SAGRUS, Sagro, in Ancient Geography, a river of Italy, in Samnium, the source of which was in the mountains of the Marsi.

SAGUA ISLANDS, a cluster of small islands in the Spanish Main, near the coast of America, about 15 miles from the isthmus of Darien. Lat. 9. 18. N. long. 78. 4. W.

SAGUANA, a bay in the north-east corner of the gulf of Mexico, on the coast of Florida, having numerous isles on both sides; Cayos del Pagoi on the south-east, and Farellon de Pagoi on the north-westward.

SAGUARIPA, a small river of Brazil, in the province of Todos Santos, which runs east, and enters the sea.—Also the name of a settlement of Mexico, in the province of Hiaqui.

SAGUENAY, a large river of Canada, which, after a course of about 100 miles, flows into the river St. Lawrence, on the west bank, at the town and harbour of Tadousac. It draws its source from Lake St. John, a collection of waters of considerable expanse, lying in 48. 20. of north latitude, and 72. 30. of west longitude, receiving many large rivers that flow from the north and north-west, from an immense distance in the interior, of which the Pickouagamis, the Sable river, and the Pariboaca, are the principal ones. The banks of this river throughout its course are very rocky, and immensely high, varying from one hundred and seventy even to three hundred and forty yards above the stream. Its current is broad, deep, and uncommonly vehement. In some places, where precipices intervene, there are falls from fifty to sixty feet in height, down which the whole volume of the stream rushes with indescribable fury and tremendous noise. The general breadth of the river is from two miles and a half to three miles, but at its mouth this distance is contracted to about one mile. The depth of this enormous stream is also extraordinary. At its discharge, attempts have been made to find the bottom with five hundred fathoms of line, but without effect. About two miles higher up, it has been repeatedly sounded from one hundred and thirty to one hundred and forty fathoms; and from sixty to seventy miles from the St. Lawrence, its depth is found from fifty to sixty fathoms. The course of the river, notwithstanding its magnitude, is very sinuous, owing to many projecting points from each shore. The tide runs about seventy miles up it, and on account of the obstructions occasioned by the numerous promontories, the ebb is much later than in the St. Lawrence; in consequence of which at low water in the latter, the force of the descending stream of the Saguenay is felt for several miles. Just within the mouth of the river, opposite to Pointe aux Allouettes, is the harbour of Tadousac, which is very well sheltered by the surrounding high lands, and has good anchorage for a great number of vessels of large size, where they may lie in perfect safety. On the northern shore of the St. Lawrence, and at many places on the Saguenay, there are stations for trading with the Indians in peltry, and for carrying on the whale, seal, porpoise, and salmon fishery.

SAGUENAY RIVER, Little, a river of Labrador, which runs southward, and empties into the St. Lawrence a short way eastward of the Seven Isles, and westward of Bason river. Lat. 50. 18. N. long. 65. 0. W.

SAGUERE, a village of the kingdom of Hoval, in Western Africa; 40 miles south-west of Ender.

SAGULUM, among the Romans, a little or short sagum.

SAGUM, a military garment worn by the Greeks, Romans, and Gauls, in manner of a cloak or cassock; covering the shoulders or back as low as the hips; where it was fastened to the cuirass.

It was usually made of coarse wool, and square. They had one for the winter, and another lighter for summer.

SAGUNTUS, or Saguntum, (Morviedro), a very ancient town of Hispania Citerior, south-east of Edeta, three miles from the sea. By those who ascend to fabulous times, the origin of this town is ascribed to Hercules. According to Strabo, it was founded by the Zacythians; and it is said that the Rutuli sent hither a colony from the town of Ardea. At length it became one of the most considerable towns in Spain. It acquired, says Livy, immense riches, partly from its commerce both by land and sea, and partly from its just laws and excellent police. Saguntum was under the protection of the Romans, if not numbered amongst its allies; and by a treaty made between these people and the Carthaginians, these latter were allowed to carry their arms as far as the Iberus: this city was excepted. In the year of Rome 528, Hannibal commenced his hostilities by the siege of Saguntum; and when the assailed could no longer defend themselves, the principal inhabitants precipitated themselves, with their most precious effects, into a kind of funeral pile, prepared and set on fire for this purpose; upon which the surviving Saguntines were massacred in the most cruel manner. The city, thus reduced to the most deplorable state of distress, remained under the dominion of the Carthaginians; till in the year of Rome 538, Scipio, having humbled the power of Carthage in Spain, in process of time recovered Saguntum, and made it, as Pliny says, a new city. By the Romans it was treated with every kind of distinction; but at some period, not ascertained by historians, it was reduced to ruins. Its long resistance to the power of Hannibal is recorded on many medals, which bear the inscription of "invicta." Polybius relates that near this city was a temple of Venus, in which Cnæus and Publius Scipio encamped in their march against the Carthaginians.

SAGUR, a town of Hindostan, and capital of a district of the same name, province of Malwah, belonging to the Mahrattas. It is situated near the Bunnass river. Lat. 23. 45. N. long. 78. 53. E.

SAGUS,

SAGUS, [a name adopted by Clusius, Rumphius, Gærtner, and others, from the Malay *Sagu*], in Botany, a genus of the class monoecia, order hexandria, natural order palmæ.—*Essential Character.* Male, Calyx of three leaves. Corolla none. Filaments dilated.—Female, Calyx of three leaves; two of which are cloven. Corolla none. Style very short. Stigma simple. Nut clothed with scales, imbricated backwards. Seed solitary.

1. Sagus ruffia.—Branches of the flower-stalk annulated.—Native of Madagascar. A palm fifty or sixty feet high, with pinnate leaves.

2. Sagus rumphii.—Branches of the flower-stalk even and smooth.—Native of the Molucca isles. Leaves pinnate.

So much uncertainty attends the history of these plants in all botanical writers, that we must content ourselves with the above mere references to them, till we can procure more clear information. The genus is, no doubt, as Gærtner remarks, very nearly akin to Calamus, and appears to be one of those palms which bear a sort of Sago.

SAGWIRE, a liquor drawn in the East India islands of Amboyna, Ceram, &c., from a tree of the palm kind; of the same nature as the toddy, or palm-wine. When it first issues from the tree, it is clear, and looks like pure water. Its taste is sweet, but refreshing. By degrees it becomes acidulated, and at last quite sour, which, nevertheless, may be prevented by preparing it with a certain bitter wood, or the roots of a tree, called the "sossot" tree, which occasion a fermentation in the sagwire, and in about eight hours make it fit for keeping. It is thus preserved good for a long time. Although it loses its pleasant taste, and becomes thickish, appearing like orgeade or almond-milk, it is esteemed more wholesome, and has an inebriating quality. It is afterwards kept in bottles.

The tree which yields this liquor has a faded appearance, with many yellow dead leaves, which resemble those of the sago-tree. One of these leaves, or rather branches, is cut off, and the sagwire trickles out of it by drops, which are received in a bamboo, hung under it for that purpose; and when this is full, the contents are drawn off by a tap at the bottom. This operation is called "tyffering." *Stavorinus's Voyages.*

SAGY, a small town in the east of France, department of the Saone and Loire, on the Vaillere. Population 2100; 30 miles north-east of Macon.

SA'GY, *adj.* [*saugé*, Fr.] Full of sage; seasoned with sage. *Cotgrave and Sherwood.*

SAHAB, a village of Khusistan, in Persia; 60 miles south of Suster.

SAHABAD, a town of Hindostan, province of Ajmeer, tributary to the Mahrattas. Lat. 25. 26. N. long. 77. 10. E.

SAHADEVA, in Hindoo Romance, is one of the five sons of Pandu, the heroes of the fine poem the Mahabarat. This poem has been thought an allegorical contest between man's virtues and vices; the former personified in the five sons, or Pancha Pandu. To these five Pandus it is usual to attribute any stupendous structure whose origin is lost in antiquity; such as the excavations of Elephants, Elora, &c. Sahadeva is generally said to be a personification of temperance, being a twin brother of Chastity.

SAHAGUN, a small town in the north-west of Spain, in the province of Leon, on the river Cea, which falls into the Esla. It has 4000 inhabitants, is defended by a castle, and has an ancient and magnificent abbey of the order of St. Benedict; 50 miles south-east of Leon.

SAHALEEL, a village of Tunis, supposed by Dr. Shaw, to be the ancient *Ruspina.*

SAHAM TONY, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 2 miles north-west of Watton. Population 771.

SAHAN, a mountainous district of Arabia, to the north of Yemen.

SAHAR, a mountain of Korassan, in Persia; 20 miles south-south-east of Mesched.

SAHARA, or ZAHARA, (which in Arabic signifies the DESERT), an immense track of territory in Northern and Central Africa, interposed between the states of Barbary and Soudan, or the countries watered by the Niger. It presents, almost throughout, the spectacle of a naked burning plain of sand, destitute alike of water or vegetation, and altogether unfit for the support of human life. In its greatest length it stretches nearly across the whole of Africa, from the Atlantic to the Nile, forming a space of forty-five degrees of longitude, or about 3000 miles. Its breadth from Barbary to Soudan is not so great, and may be estimated at 15 degrees, or 1000 miles. It forms thus by much the most extensive desert to be found in any part of the world. On the northern side, the transition from the cultivated land is gradual, and often insensible. The mountains of Atlas, and the ranges connected with them, send to the southward numerous rivers, which render the country fertile in dates, and capable even of producing some grain. As these rivers, however, are either absorbed in the sands, or received into lakes, total sterility begins its empire. A great part of the surface consists of a dead level, stretching on every side like the ocean, and over which the eye roves without any object to arrest or bound its view. That part over which Brisson passed was covered with small stones, sharp as flints. The earth beneath the feet resounded dull and hollow, and the small stones pricked him like sparks of fire. The reflection of the rays of the sun from the sand was scorching; the atmosphere was loaded with a red vapour, and the country appeared as if filled with flaming volcanoes. Neither birds nor insects could be seen in the air. The profound silence was frightful. If a gentle breeze ever arose, it produced extreme langour, chopping of the lips, burning heat of the skin, with small smarting pimples. In other places, the surface is diversified by ravines, rocks, and eminences, so covered with shrubs as to assume, at a distance, the appearance of an extensive forest. These, however, on approaching, are found to be mere stumps without branches, encircled with thorns. Other parts of the desert are composed of moving sand, which, being piled up in hillocks, cannot be passed without the most severe labour. These, when blown by the wind, sometimes produce the most terrible effects, and whole caravans have been found buried beneath them. Brown, however, doubts whether these moving showers ever proceed in such masses as of themselves to produce this tremendous effect. He is rather inclined to suppose that the caravan has perished from some other cause, and, being gradually covered by particles of sand, which are continually floating through the atmosphere, has been supposed to have been buried under them.

This vast track of waste does not present an aspect quite uniform, but is diversified by oases or islands, where the supply of water admits of a certain degree of verdure and cultivation, and affords support to a certain number of inhabitants. In the eastern part of the desert, these oases are so extensive, as to form species of little kingdoms, of which the most remarkable are Fezzan, Asben, and Agades. In other parts, particularly the western, these, like Gadamis, Souat or Touat, Taudeny, &c., consist merely of one or more detached villages, serving as emporia for the trade carried on by the caravans. Sometimes they afford merely springs for the refreshment of travellers, but too small a supply of food to admit of settled habitations. These tracks are inhabited by Nomadic Arabs, roving from spot to spot, as they exhaust that previously occupied. The most remarkable are the Monselemines, who inhabit the frontier of Morocco, the Woled D'leim, and Woled Abbusebah, who dwell in the interior of the desert, and the Mongearts and Trasarts, who occupy the southern border, approaching to the Senegal. The Monselemines are the most populous and wealthy of these tribes. Their soil admits of considerable culture, and yields grain, oil, and wine. Their numbers are continually recruited by fugitives from the tyranny of the government of Morocco. The ground is in common, and every one reaps that which he has laboured. When the harvest is over, they set fire to the long stubble, and abandon the field for two or three years. The corn is deposited in magazines, which are large holes in the earth, formed like the

the frustum of a cone, the insides of which are hardened by burning wood in them, before the half winnowed corn be deposited. When filled, they are covered with planks, over which is placed a layer of earth, level with the soil, to prevent it from being discovered by their enemies. During the intervals between seed and harvest, they wander in all directions with their cattle, taking with them only necessaries, and having recourse to the magazines for a supply. Their villages are built in the Moorish manner, and situated on the declivity of hills. The inhabitants sleep on mats upon the floors of their apartments, and make use of linen; but the inhabitants of the country sleep upon terraces in the open air. The pastoral families practice hospitality, and charge nothing for the entertainment of the traveller.

The Woled D'leim, and Woled Abbusebah, inhabit a more dreary region, and are considerably ruder in their manners. They have no distinct boundaries, and change their habitations as the desert affords pasturage and water. They are tall, handsome, and vigorous. Their hair is bristled, and their nails, which they often use in battle, as long as claws. Large hanging ears, and a long beard, give them a stern ferocious air. The Woled D'leim are particularly fierce and arrogaut, though soon discouraged by obstinate resistance, especially when they have not a decided superiority of numbers. They lodge by families, in tents of thick cloth, spun and woven by the women, from camels' hair. The furniture consists of two large leathern sacks, in which they keep old clothes and pieces of old iron, three or four goat skins for holding milk and water, two large stones for grinding their barley, a smaller one for driving the pins of their tents, an ozier matting serving for a bed, a thick carpet for a covering, a small kettle, and some wooden dishes, with packsaddles for their camels. The person who, besides these articles, possesses a few horses, camels, sheep, and goats, is reckoned wealthy. The only endemic diseases to which they are subject, are cholic and sore eyes. The first is caused by the verdigris with which their kettles, being neither tinned nor washed, are entirely crusted over, nor is its virulence abated by the quanity of milk which they use: the latter arises from the reflection of light from the burning sands of the desert. When they chance to reside long in one place, they sometimes plough the moistened spots, and carelessly sprinkle seed over them. Good crops are thus often produced; but they cut them down raw, and roast the grain over hot cinders. Treachery and perfidy appear innate vices with the Arabs; assassinations are frequent; no man trusts to another's promise, yet there are no written agreements, and the poignard cancels all bonds and obligations. They delight in recounting their deeds to each other; but this is often accompanied by charges of falsehood, followed by the drawing of deadly weapons. The rites of hospitality, however are practised by these tribes, in their utmost extent. The Arab who, in the field, is a rapacious plunderer, becomes liberal and generous as soon as he enters his tent. War is only a species of predatory attack, in which victory is decided at the first shock. The Arab is devoid of sanguinary courage; he attacks only to plunder, and never puts booty in competition with life. At the end of the battle, each party makes graves for the slain, inclosing the tomb with mounds of stones. The women never assume the name of the husband, nor eat with him at meals. They are faithful to the marriage vow, and divorce can take place only upon the decree of the old men. Arab opulence is displayed in female ornaments; the ears, arms, and legs, being generally adorned with rings of gold and silver. An Arab beauty must be very fat, must have long limbs, and large teeth projecting out of the mouth. At the birth of a son, every woman, to testify her joy, blackens her face for forty days. A mother treats her son, almost as soon as he can walk, with the same respect as her husband, she prepares his food, serves him, and eats when he has finished his repast. These Arabs, more rude and ferocious than those bordering on Morocco, are also more confined and illiberal in their ideas. The Mongaarts and Trasarts, who border upon the Senegal, particularly the latter, are more numerous and powerful than the tribes occupying the interior of the desert. Park conceives the latter to be, in these respects, on a footing with the people of Ludamar and Gedumah.

The only impulse by which civilized nations are led to traverse these vast and dreary wilds, is that of commerce. That active principle has overcome barriers which nature seemed to have destined to be for ever insurmountable. Valuable means have been afforded by the introduction of that most useful animal the camel, emphatically termed the ship of the desert, who, by his patience of hunger and fatigue, by the provision which nature has made for enabling him to carry water, and by the structure of his hoof, smoothly gliding over the level sand, seems to have been expressly designed as an instrument for effecting a communication across these immense wastes. The trade is carried on by merchants, inured from their infancy to that train of hardships and difficulty which attend these formidable journies. For the sake of mutual aid and defence, as well as to enliven the dreariness of the route, they proceed in caravans, or large bodies, sometimes amounting to the number of 2000. Their food consists of the milk of the camel, with barley-meal or Indian corn, and a few dates; though the more opulent carry dried flesh and coffee. Water is conveyed in goat skins covered with tar, to prevent evaporation, though this precaution does not fully produce the desired effect. At each of the oases, or spots affording water, which occur at distant intervals along the sandy waste, they stop for a few days to take in a supply. The greatest evil which they have to fear is when, in consequence of a peculiarly dry season, one of these springs happens to fail. Thus in 1798, a caravan from Morocco, consisting of 2000 men, with 1800 camels, entirely perished. These caravans take their departure from every part of Northern Africa; but the three grand points of rendezvous are Cairo, Mourzouk, and the southern frontier of Morocco. Cairo sends three great caravans into the interior: one to Sennaar, partly along the Nile, but chiefly across the deserts on either side; another proceeds to Darfur, through an extensive desert, by the great Oasis, Sheb, and Selyme. It sends one almost to Mourzouk, which communicates with those dispatched thence into the countries on the Niger. Mourzouk sends two great caravans, one to Bornou, and one to Cassina. It holds intercourse also with Tombuctoo, though on a much smaller scale. The chief communication with that celebrated emporium is maintained by the caravans from Morocco, which are the most numerous of all, though they have to cross the broadest and most desolate part of the desert. By these different caravans are conveyed from Northern Africa, salt, cloths, and European goods of every description; while gold, ivory, and slaves, to a very great amount, are received in return.

The coast of Sahara, extending along the desert, is for the most part rocky, dangerous and destitute of harbours Hence a considerable number of European vessels suffer shipwreck, and are cast ashore, when the crews suffer the most dreadful fate. They are not only stripped of all their property, but reduced to a state of bondage, where they experience every outrage which can be prompted by the union of avarice and bigotry. Their only hope of relief is from being carried over the desert to be sold in Morocco, when the humanity of the European merchants there settled, often affords them the means of redemption.

SAHARUNPORE, an extensive and valuable district of Hindostan, province of Delhi, situated principally between the rivers Jumna and Ganges, and about the 31st degree of northern latitude. The soil of this district is extremely fertile, being well watered by innumerable streams from the hills. It produces all kinds of grain, sugar, indigo, cotton and tobacco. For the greater part of the year the climate is very fine; during the months of April and May the hot winds blow with great violence. This district being situated in the vicinity of Delhi, was always, during the Mahometan governments, held as a jagier by some favourite of the court; but from the same cause it was frequently ravaged and laid waste by contending armies; about the middle of the last

last century it was made over to Nijeeb Khan, an Afghan chief, who brought it into a high state of cultivation, and was succeeded by his son, Zabita Khan, during whose government, viz., in the year 1772, Saharunpore was invaded and laid waste by the Mahrattas. In the year 1785 he was suceeded by his son the execrable Ghoolam Kadir, who rebelled against his sovereign, the aged Shah Alum, took him prisoner, and with his own hands eradicated the eyes of the monarch; in retaliation for which, he was put to death a few years afterwards by the Mahratta chief Mahdagee Sindia, who took possession of the district. The successful issue of the war of 1803 against the Mahrattas, enabled the British to become masters of this valuable district, and it was immediately placed under the superintendence of a civil establishment of a judge, collector, &c., and has since been divided into two collectorships. Its chief towns are Saharunpore, Merat, Sakertol, and a celebrated fortress called Ghose Ghur.

SAHARUNPORE, the capital of the above mentioned district, and now the residence of the judge, collector, &c. of the northern division of the district. It is an open town, and suffered much from the Mahrattas, but is now recovering. It is situated a short distance east of the river Jumna. Lat. 30. 15. N. long. 77. 23. E.

SAHARUNPORE, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi, belonging also to the British. Lat. 30. 0. N. long. 77. 16. E.

SAHAY, a village of the west of Bohemia, in the circle of Pilsen, the scene of an engagement between the French and Austrians, in 1742.

SAHEC, a village of Farsistan, in Persia; 105 miles east of Schiras.

SAHET, a village of Upper Egypt, on the Nile, forming the port of Badjoura and Farshout.

SAHLAYDUN, a town of the Birman empire, province of Pegu. It is situated on the western bank of the Irrawuddy river, and carries on a considerable trade of teak timber with Rangoon. It has also a land communication with the sea coast of Arracan. Lat. 18. 35. N. long. 94. 40. E.

SAHLITE, in Mineralogy, a mineral which derives its name from Sahlbergh, in Sweden. Its colour is a pale greenish-grey; it occurs both crystallized and massive. The form of the crystals is an eight-sided prism, with dihedral summits, resembling that of pyroxene, with which mineral it is classed by Haüy. It differs from that species of pyroxene denominated augite in colour; it scratches glass, and is infusible. The constituent parts, according to Vauquelin, are, silex, 53; lime, 20; magnesia, 19; alumine, 3; oxyd of iron and manganese, 4.

SAHWOTTY, a town of the Birman empire, situated on the western bank of the Irrawuddy river. Lat. 19. 41. N. long. 94. 50. E.

SAI, in Zoology, a name given to the capuchin monkey. See Simia Capucinia.

SAI, a large town of Bambarra, in Central Africa. It is well fortified by strong walls, mounted with towers, which completely command the town, and have the appearance of a regular fortification. It is surrounded with two deep trenches, at 200 yards distance from the walls. These fortifications were built to punish the town for the non-obedience of the dooty to a tyrannical order of the king. That prince laid siege to Sai, and the dooty being obliged to surrender, was put to death, and the inhabitants carried away and sold as slaves; 26 miles south-west of Sego.

SAIANKS. See Sayanks.

SAIBGUNGE, a town of Hindostan province of Bengal, district of Rungpore. Lat. 26. 15. N. long 88. 48. E.

SAIBUSCH. See Zywie.

SAIC, one of the many names given by the ancients to quicksilver.

SAICK, *s.* [*saica*, Ital.] A Turkish vessel proper for the carriage of merchandize. *Bailey.*

It has square sails on the middle mast; without either mizen, top-gallant, or shrouds; only a main-mast, with a main-top-mast, both very high: with a bolt-sprit, and a little mizen-mast.

The height of the main-mast makes the saicks visible at a great distance; their make renders it impossible for them to go with a side wind; but when they have the wind before them, nothing can outstrip them. The generality of them carry no guns.

SAID, *preterit.* and *part. pass.* of *say.* Aforesaid.—King John succeeded his *said* brother in the kingdom of England and dutchy of Normandy. *Hale.*—Declared; shewed.

SAID, or Sahid, a name applied to Upper Egypt, comprehending the territory extending along the Nile, from the vicinity of Cairo, to the frontier of Nubia. It consists throughout of a plain only a few miles broad, inclosed between the chains of mountains which extend parallel to both banks of the Nile. This valley is extremely fertile, particularly in grain. It appears to have been anciently much more populous than it is now, and to have contained immense cities, the remains of which still present the most immense and extraordinary architectural antiquities in the world. The most remarkable are those found at Edfu, Dendera, and on the site of Thebes.

SAIDA, or Seida, a sea-port town of Syria, built on the site of the ancient Sidon. This is celebrated as the most ancient of the Phenician cities, preceding even Tyre, by whose splendour it was, however, eclipsed. It is mentioned by Jacob, in his prophetic speech concerning the country which his sons were to inhabit; and it is stated as a place of refuge for some of the kings, who were driven out of Joshua. In sacred writ, Tyre and Sidon are frequently mentioned; and they were known, not only as the two principal towns of Phenicia, but as among the most flourishing and commercial in the ancient world. Sidon was also enriched by an extensive manufacture of glass. During the middle ages, it was occupied by the French, who were at considerable pains in repairing it. Although now much decayed from its ancient greatness, it retains still some importance as the port of Damascus. It is situated in a plain, extending only two miles inward from the sea, when it rises into mountains, incapable of cultivation; so that trade must at all times have been the sole source of its prosperity. The town itself is built on the north side of a hill, and extends 600 paces along the sea. Like other Turkish towns, it is dirty, ill built, and full of modern ruins. The ground in the neighbourhood, however, is laid out in orchards and gardens, which appear very beautiful at a distance. The magnificent harbour, composed of vast moles stretching out into the sea, is now entirely destroyed. Its final ruin is said to have been effected by Feckerdine, emir of the Druses, when he established an independent power, with the view of preventing the grand seignior from landing a maritime force here to act against him. The huge stones of which the mole was built, may still be seen, being capable of filling its whole thickness: some of them are twelve feet long, eleven broad, and five deep, on the north-west part of the town, on a point stretching out into the sea. It is supposed to have been built by Lewis IX., but contains on the top a work of an older date. On the opposite side of the town is a modern fort, built by Degnizlu, but consisting merely of a large tower, incapable of resisting any serious attack. The road is formed by a shoal running opposite to the castle, and leaving a space between, in which vessels may ride, though not in perfect safety. The trade of Saida is still considerable, as being the emporium, not only of Damascus, but of the surrounding country. The French, the only European nation here settled, have a consul, and five or six commercial houses. The exports consist of corn, silk, raw and spun cotton, particularly the last, which forms the principal trade of the inhabitants. Saida was once the seat of a pachalic, but is now included in that of Damascus. The population is reckoned at 7000 or 8000. Lat. 33. 25. N., long. 35.14. E.

SAIDOU, a small river in the desert part of Syria, which falls into the Euphrates, near Rabba.

SAIGA,

SAIGA, in Zoology, a species of antelope, the characters of which are, that the horns are pale and almost transparent, distant at the bases, and bent in form of a lyre, having each three curvatures; the nose very cartilaginous, much arched, thick, and seeming to be truncated at the end. This is the Scythian antelope of several writers, the Tartarian goat, the beardless ibex, the colus or the suhac of other writers. It inhabits Poland, Moldavia, the Carpathian mountains, Caucasus, about the Caspian and Euxine seas, near lake Aral, in the Altaic chain, and generally from the Danube to the Irtisch, not farther north than about the 55th degree of latitude. The animals of this species dwell mostly in open deserts, abounding with salt springs, and feed much on saline, acrid, and aromatic vegetables. In autumn, they collect in large herds, and migrate regularly into the southern deserts; in spring they return northwards, and separate into smaller divisions. They are very shy and timid, very swift, but soon fatigued; their voice resembles the bleating of sheep; their sense of smelling is quick, so that the hunters are obliged to approach them against the wind; and when feeding or resting, the herd is guarded by sentinels; in summer their sight is weak. When taken young they are easily tamed, and are very docile; but the old ones are so obstinate, that when taken, they refuse nourishment. The saiga is about the size of a fallow deer, being about four feet long, having six fore-teeth in each jaw. The fur in summer is very short, of a grey colour, mixed with yellow, and darker on the legs below the knees; the space about the cheeks is whitish; the forehead and crown of the head hoary, and covered with long hairs; the under side of the neck and body white, the knees having bushes or tufts of hair. The tail four inches long, naked below, covered above with upright hairs, and tufted at the end: in winter the fur becomes long, rough and hoary; the head is large, the horns eleven inches long, and in a great part of their length surrounded with rings, but the extremities smooth. The female has no horns, and her fur is softer than that of the male: the rutting season is in November, when the males will fight boldly in defence of their mates; and before the middle of May, the females produce mostly one at a birth. These animals are hunted with guns, dogs, and even eagles, for the sake of their horns and skins: the flesh is scarcely eatable, till it becomes cold after being dressed, owing to a rank or balsamic taste, acquired from the nature of their food. Sometimes this animal is found with three horns, and rarely with only one. The horns are very various, but may be always distinguished by their pale colour and semi-transparency; most other antelopes having black opaque horns.

SAIGHTON, or SAUGHTON-ON-THE-HILL, a township of England, in Cheshire; 5 miles south-east of Chester.

SAIGNER, in Fortification, a French term, signifying to empty or drain.

Hence *saigner la fosse*, is to empty or drain the water out of the moat, by conveyances under ground; that it may be passed over the more easily; by laying hurdles of rushes on the mud remaining.

SAIGNON, a small town in the south of France, department of the Vaucluse, with a population of 1000; 32 miles east of Avignon.

SAI-ID, a village of Yemen, in Arabia; 8 miles east of Beil-el-Fakih.

SAIL, *s.* [ræɡl, Sax.; *seyhel, seyl*, Dutch.] The expanded sheet which catches the wind, and carries on the vessel on the water.—He came too late; the ship was under *sail*. *Shakspeare*.—[In poetry.] Wings.

He, cutting way
With his broad *sails*, about him soared round;
At last, low stooping with unwieldy sway,
Snatch'd up both horse and man. *Spenser.*

A ship; a vessel.

A *sail* arriv'd
From Pompey's son, who through the realms of Spain
Calls out for vengeance on his father's death. *Addison.*

Sail is a collective word, denoting a number of ships.

So by a roaring tempest on the flood,
A whole armado of collected *sail*
Is scatter'd. *Shakspeare.*

A feigned tear destroys us, against whom
Tydides nor Achilles could prevail,
Nor ten years conflict, nor a thousand *sail*. *Denham.*

To strike SAIL. To lower the sail.—Fearing lest they should fall into the quicksands, they *strake sail*, and so were driven. *Acts*.—A proverbial phrase for abating of pomp or superiority.

Margaret
Must *strike* her *sail*, and learn a while to serve
Where kings command. *Shakspeare.*

Although the form of sails is extremely different, they are either quadrilateral or triangular. In all quadrangular sails, the upper edge is called the head; the sides or skirts are called leeches; and the bottom or lower edge is termed the foot. If the head is parallel to the foot, the two lower corners are denominated clues, and the upper corners earings. Such are the courses, or lower sails, except the mizen-course, the topsails, which are next in order above the courses, and the topgallant-sails, which are expanded above the topsails, and the royals above them. These are all spread at the head to their respective yards. The studding-sails are extended by yards and booms. Quadrangular sails have their heads not parallel to the foot, as the mizen-course, driver, and boom-main-sails. The inner corner at the head is in these called the nock, the outer, the peek; the inner corner at the foot is termed the tack, and the outer the clue. The head is spread by a gaff, and the fore-leech is bent to the mast by hoops, or lacings.

Triangular sails are the stay-sails, and the jib; they are extended upon the stays between the masts with hanks. The upper corner is called the head, the foremost corner the tack, and the after corner the clue. When spread to a yard, they are called latteen-sails, and if to a mast, shoulder-of-mutton-sails; in all which cases the foremost leech or edge is attached to its respective stay, yard, or mast, throughout its whole length.

All sails derive their name from the mast, yard, boom, or stay, upon which they are extended or bent. See the article SHIP.

To SAIL, *v. n.* To be moved by the wind with sails.—I shall not mention any thing of the *sailing* waggons. *Mortimer*.—To pass by sea.—When *sailing* was now dangerous, Paul admonished them. *Acts*.—To swim.

To which the stores of Crœsus, in the scale,
Would look like little dolphins, when they *sail*
In the vast shadow of the British whale. *Dryden.*

To pass smoothly along.

Speak again, bright angel! for thou art
As glorious to this sight, being o'er my head,
As is a winged messenger from heaven,
When he bestrides the lazy-pacing clouds,
And *sails* upon the bosom of the air. *Shakspeare.*

To SAIL, *v. a.* To pass by means of sails.—A thousand ships were mann'd to *sail* the sea. *Dryden*.—To fly through.

Sublime she *sails*
Th' aerial space, and mounts the winged gales. *Pope.*

SAIL ROCK, a rock in the Pacific ocean, near the coast of Chili; 4 miles north of St. Ambrose.

SAIL-BROAD, *adj.* Broad as a sail.

At last his *sail-broad* vans
He spreads for flight. *Milton.*

SAI'LABLE, *adj.* Navigable; passable by shipping. *Cotgrave and Sherwood.*

SAI'LER, *s.* A ship: as, she is a good *sailer*, a fine *sailer*.

SAILING. See NAVIGATION.

SAILING COVE, is on the south side of the island of Newfoundland, in the great bay wherein is situated the bay of Trepassi. It is 6 miles north of Cape Pine.

SAILLANS, a small town in the south-west of France, in Dauphiny, department of the Drome, on the Riouset. Population 1500. It has manufactures of silk and cotton; 9 miles south-west of Die, and 7 east of Crest.

SAI'LOR, *s.* A seaman; one who practices or understands navigation.

Batter'd by his lee they lay;
The passing winds through their torn canvass play,
And flagging sails on heartless *sailors* fall. *Dryden.*

SAI'LY, *adj.* Like a sail.

The Muse her former course doth seriously pursue,
From Penmen's craggy height to try her *saily* wings.
Drayton.

SAI'LYARD, *s.* The pole on which the sail is extended.

With glance so swift the subtle lightning past
As split the *sailyards.* *Dryden.*

SAIM, *s.* Lard. It still denotes this in the northern counties, and in Scotland: as, swine's *saim.* *Dr. Johnson.* —It is nothing more than the broad pronunciation of the common word *seam.* [ȝeme, Sax. *saim,* Welsh.] See SEAM.

SAIMA, a very large lake, or rather a succession of lakes, in European Russia, in the government of Finland, to the north of Wilmanstrand, said to be 250 miles in length. It is of very irregular form, and its breadth very various. It contains a great number of islands, but they consist chiefly of granite, and are in general uninhabited. The lake of Lapwesi is only a part of that of Saima.

SAIN. Used for *they say. Obsolete.*—Itself mov'd, as wizards *saine. Spenser.*—Said. *Obsolete.*—Some obscure precedence, that hath tofore been *sain. Shakspeare.*

SAIN, a small island on the west coast of France, at the south point of the bay of Brest; 3 miles west of Quimper.

SAINCTES (Claude de), a learned French prelate, was born in the province of Perche, in the year 1525. At the age of 15, he was admitted a canon-regular, in the Abbey of St. Cheron, near Chartres, where his love of study recommended him to the patronage of the Cardinal de Lorrain, who placed him in the college of Navarre, at Paris. In this seminary he went through several courses of study with considerable applause, and very much distinguished himself as a disputant. Having entered into priest's orders, and taken his degree of doctor of divinity, he was presented to the benefice of Belville-de-Comte, in the diocese of Chartres, and in 1561, he was made principal of the college of Boissy, at Paris. He was now, by the recommendation of his patron, employed by Queen Catharine de Medicis, as a champion for the Catholic cause, in the famous conference of Poissy. He acquitted himself so well on this occasion, that he was selected by King Charles IX. to be one of the twelve doctors who were sent to attend the council of Trent. The services which he rendered the Catholic cause against the Protestants, were considered as so very meritorious, that in 1575, King Henry III. made him bishop of Evreux. His zeal against the hereties was equalled by the fury with which he supported the interests of the *league,* whose forces he introduced into his episcopal city. Being afterwards taken prisoner by the troops of Henry IV., his papers were examined, and among them was found an argument to justify the assassination of Henry III., for which he was tried and capitally condemned; but the sentence of death was commuted to perpetual imprisonment. He died in the castle of Crevecœur, in 1591, at about the age of 66 years. He was author of many works, but the most considerable was a treatise, written in the Latin language, "On the Eucharist;" and an edition of a curious collection, entitled, "Liturgiæ sive Missæ Sanctorum Patrum; Jacobi Apostoli, et fratis Domini, Basilii magni, Johannis Chrysostomi." A list of all the works of this author may be found in Dupin.

SAI'NFOIN, or SAI'NTFOIN, *s.* [*sainfoin,* Fr. By some explained *holy* or *wholesome* hay, saint foin; by others from the Lat. *sanum fœnum,* sound hay.] A kind of herb. See HEDYSARUM onobrychis.

SAINS, a large village in the north-east of France, department of the Aisne, with 2100 inhabitants, and considerable iron works; 7 miles west of Vervins.

SAINT, a small river of Wales, in Caernarvonshire, which runs into the Menai strait, near Caernarvon.

SAINT, *s.* [*sanctus,* Lat.] A person eminent for piety and virtue.

Then thus I cloath my naked villainy
With old odd ends, stol'n forth of holy writ,
And seem a *saint,* when I most play the devil. *Shakspeare.*

One of the points in which the Roman Catholics and Protestants differ is, that the former address, invoke, and supplicate saints, &c. to intercede for them; whereas the latter hold it sufficient to propose their good examples for our imitation.

Cardinal Bellarmine, and other popish writers, have pleaded, that by praying to the saints, they only intend to express a desire of their intercession, and that their invocation of the saints terminates ultimately in God. Accordingly they have distinguished two sorts of worship, one called *latria,* appropriate to God, and another *dulia,* which being of an inferior nature, is paid to angels and saints. However, many of their own writers have exploded this distinction, and others have owned that it is unscriptural. There is another sort of worship, which is of a higher degree than that paid to saints in common, and which is peculiar to the Virgin Mary: this they call *hyperdulia.*

After all, those who read their books of devotion, their hours, their offices, their rosaries, their breviaries, and their missals, find many direct addresses to the saints, which are very different from those prayers whose object is merely to supplicate their intercession. Beside, the council of Trent, sess. 25. directs to apply to the saints for their help and assistance, as well as their prayers; and condemns all who think that it is not good and profitable to offer prayers to saints, as chargeable with impious sentiments. And the creed of pope Pius IV. expressly insists upon it as an article of faith, that the saints, reigning together with Christ, are to be invocated. As to the antiquity of this practice, the council of Trent, sess. 25. speaks of it as the usage of the Apostolic and Catholic church from the beginning of Christianity. As to the doctrine of the intercession of saints and angels, there is not the least intimation of it in the writings of the two first centuries; though it must be allowed to have been introduced in the next century, and that Origen and Cyprian expressly favour this superstition. The worship of saints and angels is of a much later date; especially as a standing generally received doctrine of the church. For though Athanasius was for worshipping the saints, yet Cyril, who lived in the next century, says, we neither call the holy martyrs gods, nor are we used to worship them. St. Austin affirms, that neither saints nor angels will be worshipped. Archbishop Usher says, that as to the first four hundred years after Christ, for nine parts of that time, not one true testimony can be produced out of any father in favour of this doctine; and cardinal Perron, Richelieu, and other learned writers among the Romanists, own that the invocation of saints was not practised for the three first centuries. The first symptoms of this worship did not appear till towards the end of the fourth century, and it seems to have sprung out of the regard which the Christians at that time manifested to the memory of the martyrs. They frequented their tombs, and erected altars there, praying to God, and engaging themselves to a strict imitation of the virtues and piety of the departed martyrs; by degress this veneration degenerated into praises and eulogiums of the saints themselves, in which they used some apostrophes and rhetorical addresses; whence proceeded a superstitious regard to them, and at length, a direct invocation and worship of them. Nor does it appear, that any public prayers to

to saints were established till A. D. 788, by the second council of Nice; and this council was condemned by another held at Francfort, A. D. 794; and the invocation of saints was likewise condemned by a former council held at Constantinople, A. D. 755, consisting of three hundred and eighty-eight bishops. In the seventh century, Gregory expressly says, that angels refused to be worshipped since the appearance of Christ.

In order to convey some idea of the extravagance to which veneration for reputed saints hath arrived in the Romish church, we shall only mention one instance out of many that might be alleged. It is well known that there were three altars in the cathedral church of Canterbury; one erected to the honour of Christ, another to the Virgin Mary, and a third to St. Thomas à Becket; and the offerings at his shrine amounted to about 1000*l.*, when those to the Virgin did not amount to 5*l.*, and those to Christ were nothing. And Rapin informs us, that in one year, viz. A. D. 1420, there were no less than fifty thousand foreigners who came in pilgrimage to pay their homage at this tomb.

The number of saints, allowed as such, in the Romish church, is prodigious. Father Papebroche reckons seventeen or eighteen hundred to have died on the first of June, only. Indeed the crowd of saints, with which their martyrologies are stocked, is scandalous, even to the more sober of their own communion. Father Mabillon, in an express dissertation on the worship of unknown saints, observes, that honours are given to saints, who, perhaps, were not Christians, and whose very names were never known. Hence, being under a necessity of giving them names, they are therefore called *baptised* saints. He adds, that they every day beseech saints to intercede for them with God, when it is much doubted whether they themselves be in heaven.

Father Papebroche and his associates were a long time employed in writing the lives and acts of the saints; they ranged them each on the day of the year in which they died. For the first six months they published twenty-four volumes in folio; and since Papebroche's death, in 1714, his successors have published several more.

To SAINT, *v. a.* To number among saints; to reckon among saints by a public decree; to canonize.

Thy place is here; sad sister; come away:
Once, like thyself, I trembled, wept, and pray'd;
Love's victim then, though now a *sainted* maid. *Pope.*

To SAINT, *v. n.* To act with a show of piety.

Whether the charmer sinner it, or *saint* it,
If folly grows romantick, I must paint it. *Pope.*

SAINT ANDREW'S CROSS. See ASCURUM.

SAINT ANTONIO, an island off the western coast of Africa, forming the most northerly of the group of the Cape de Verd Islands. It is about nine leagues long and four broad. Some of its mountains are very lofty, and one of them has been said scarcely to yield to the peak of Teneriffe. The numerous streams which descend from them, and water the valleys, render the island very fit for various species of culture, and it yields plentifully maize, plantains, potatoes, melons, oranges, &c. Indigo and cotton are cultivated with success, and the woods contain many of those trees which yield the gum dragon. Its animal productions are also valuable, particularly cows, wild goats, asses, and hogs. The inhabitants are stated at about 2500. They consist partly of Portuguese, who are very dark in colour, but are said to be a good humoured and sociable race. Four-fifths of the inhabitants, however, consist of slaves, brought from the neighbouring coast of Africa. The island contains only one sea-port, with a road, the ground of which is said to be indifferent. It contains about 500 people, and is a very good place for obtaining provisions. The north-west point is in lat. 17. 10. N., long. 25. 3. W.

SAINT-AULAIRE (Francis-Joseph de Beaufoil Marquis de), a French writer of celebrity, was born at Limousin, and bore arms in his youth, but afterwards, being easy in his circumstances, he quitted that profession, and devoted himself to literary pursuits. He is most known as an author by his poetry, which is written in imitation of Anacreon. He was admitted a member of the French academy in the year 1706, and died at Paris, in 1742, at the great age of 98.

SAINT BARNABY'S THISTLE. See CENTAUREA.

SAINT CUTHBERT'S BEADS, an English name for the trochitæ and entrochi, found in great abundance in the clay of Yorkshire, and some other counties with us. They are truly the remains of parts of the arms of the *stella arborescens*, or branching star-fish; but have been so far mistaken by authors, as to be supposed a sort of rock-plants, or the parts of some unknown vegetable petrified.

SAINT DAVID, the tutelary Saint of Wales. St. David's day is on the 1st of March. For a full account of the celebration of this day, as well as for a notice of this Saint's life and actions, see MARCH.

ST. DENIS, a town of the island of Bourbon, and residence of the governor. It is built of wood, the streets unpaved, resembling a road, and full of loose stones. The houses are ill provided with furniture, which is very dear. The town is divided into the high and low quarters, the former inhabited by the rich, the latter by the poor. It is the only spot on the island where a landing is possible, which is effected by a drawbridge projecting more than 80 feet over the sea, and fastened by iron chains. Here small vessels may unload from Mauritius, through the medium of which all the distant trade of Bourbon must be carried on. Lat. 21. 50. S., long. 55. 20. E.

SAINT EVREMOND (Charles de Marquetel de Saint Denis Seigneur de), a man of letters of temporary celebrity, was born of a noble family near Coutances, in Normandy, in 1613. He studied the law at Paris, but quitted that pursuit to enter into the army, and served as a captain of infantry at the siege of Arras, in 1640. By his courage and agreeable manners he ingratiated himself with the Prince of Condé, who made him a lieutenant of his guards, and he fought under him at Friburg and Nordlingen, at the latter of which he received a considerable wound. Having, however, imprudently exercised his talent for raillery at the expense of that prince, he lost his favour, and was deprived of his commission. He afterwards served in Catalonia, where he was made Marechal de camp. The friendship of M. Foucquet was of service to him in his domestic affairs; but his propensity to sarcasm drew upon him the displeasure of Cardinal Mazarin, and cost him three months' imprisonment in the Bastille. In the war of the Fronde he attached himself to the royal party, and obtained promotion and a pension. A letter which he wrote to Marshal Crequi, censuring the peace of the Pyrenees, embroiled him with the ministry, and an order was issued for committing him again to the Bastille; but being apprized of it in time, he took refuge in England. He was well received at the gay court of Charles II. and passed all the remainder of his life in this country; for the solicitations of his friends for his recall were fruitless, till he thought it too late to change his abode. The Duchess of Mazarin, who had quarrelled with her husband, having quitted the court of France and finally settled in England, St. Evremond was one of the men of letters who formed a circle about her, and she was his particular patroness. He passed here a long epicurean kind of life, enjoying the pleasures of society, and of the table, to which he was much addicted, fond of the company of young people, and retaining his vivacity to a very late period. Though by no means a rigid moralist, he had the qualities of a man of honour, and was humane and generous. He continued to profess the Roman Catholic religion, but in his last illness declined the visits of priests. He died in 1703, at the age of 80, and was interred in Westminster abbey, where a monument was erected to his memory.

Saint Evremond was the author of a variety of works, which were much read a century ago. His prose writings are political, philosophical, and miscellaneous, and, without much

much depth or erudition, display good sense and penetration. The style is lively, but sometimes obscure and affected. His comedies are insipid, and his poetry consists of mere *vers de societe*, which would have been little noticed had they not been first handed about in manuscript among persons of fashion. His works were published collectively at London, in 3 vols. 4to., 1705, and at Paris, in 10 vols. 12mo., 1740, and in 12 vols, 12mo., 1753. *Moreri. Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

SAINT-FOIX (Germain-François Poulain de), a French dramatic and miscellaneous writer, was born of noble parents at Rennes, in 1698. He was brought up to the military service, and entered early into the Mousquetaires, whence he removed to the cavalry. He had previously, however, imbibed a taste for letters, and especially for the theatre; and whilst yet a mere youth he composed two or three light pieces which were represented with success. When war with the emperor broke out in 1733, Saint-Foix went with his regiment to Italy, where he was aide-de-camp to Marshal Broglio, and acquitted himself of that office with reputation. He solicited a troop in the cavalry, as due to his services; and not being able to obtain it, at the conclusion of the war he left the army in disgust, and purchased a post of master of the waters and forests. This he exercised from 1736 to 1740, when he finally fixed his residence in the capital.

Saint-Foix possessed in a high degree that fiery and headstrong disposition which is reckoned national to the Bretons, and he became involved in several quarrels which terminated in duels. He was impatient of contradiction, and therefore not very fit for the society of men of letters, who were in his time not a little tenacious of their own opinions, and prone to dispute those of others. He was, however, upright and generous, and a modest estimater of his own talents; and he passed through his literary career with success and credit. The petulance of his temper scarcely appeared in his writings, which are in general elegant, delicate, and agreeable. From 1740 to 1761 he produced twenty comedies, which were all successful on the stage. Their character is peculiar: they turn for the most part upon the passion of love in a young and ingenuous mind, ignorant of the nature of this affection. They are natural and easy, but without much strength or variety of painting. The most applauded were "Les Graces," "L'Oracle," and "Le Sylph et les Hommes." Of his other writings were "Lettres Turques," a kind of imitation of the Lettres Persanes of Montesquieu, but much inferior in merit; "Essais Historiques sur Paris," an amusing mixture of manners and antiquities; and "Histoire de l'Ordre du Saint-Esprit," consisting of biographical anecdotes of the knights of the Holy-Ghost: this last work he composed in his quality of historiographer of the royal orders, a post conferred upon him in his old age. He died at Paris in 1776 at the age of 74. *Necrologe Fr. Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

SAINT-GELAIS (Octavian de), an early French writer, was born of a noble family at Cognac, in 1466. He studied at Paris, and entered into the ecclesiastical order, but devoted himself more to poetry and gallantry than to the duties of his profession. Through the favour of King Charles VIII., however, he was nominated by Pope Alexander VI. to the bishopric of Angoulême in 1494; and in 1497 he went to reside in his diocese, where he died in 1502. He was the author of various works in verse and prose, of which the most valuable were his French translations of Virgil's Æneid and Ovid's Epistles. A translation of Terence's Comedies has also been attributed to him, but upon dubious authority. It is a remarkable trait of the times, that his full title, as the Reverend Father in God, Bishop of Angoulême, is prefixed to some of his amorous publications. *Moreri. Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

SAINT-GELAIS (Melin de), a French poet, said to have been natural son of the preceding, was born in 1491. He studied at Poitiers and Padua, and obtained so much reputation by his Latin verses, that he was called the French Ovid. Francis I. conferred upon him the abbey of Reclus, and Henry II. made him his almoner and librarian. He was jealous of the rising fame of Ronsard, and is said purposely to have read a poem of his before the king so ill as to disgust him with it. The two poets, however, afterwards became good friends. Saint-Gelais died at Paris in 1559. He is said to have been the first introducer of the sonnet into French poetry, from the Italian; from which language also he translated the tragedy of Sophonisba. He excelled in epigram, and was much given to raillery, which gave rise to a kind of proverb, "Beware the pincers of Saint-Gelais." His poems have been several times printed: the last edition was that of Paris, in 1719. *Moreri. Nouv. Dict. Hist.*

ST. GEORGE, a small island forming part of the group of the Azores, near the western coast of Africa. It forms a long narrow ridge, about 10 leagues in length, and two in breadth, the sea being visible on both sides from its high grounds. The best anchorage is at Porto de las Velas, on the beach of which stands a neat little town, adorned with churches and convents. There is a good deal of cultivation on this island; but in 1808, it was ravaged by a terrible volcano, which, but for a sudden change of course, would have destroyed the town of Ursula. It ruined several hundreds of the best acres, covering them with lava, scoriæ, and ashes, besides killing numerous herds of cattle. Since this time, the island has retained a gloomy aspect, though the attachment of the inhabitants to their native spot, has been sufficient to prevent any extensive emigration. Lat. 38. 39. N. long. 28. W.

SAINT-GERMAIN (Robert), Count de, was born in Franche-Compte, in the year 1708. He was educated among the Jesuits, but upon his leaving their seminary he entered into the military service of his country, and became distinguished in the wars of 1741 and 1757. At length, disgusted with the treatment which he received from his superiors, he entered into the Danish service, and was made a field-marshal. Having lost the greater part of his property by the bankruptcy of a house at Hamburgh, he retired to a small estate in Alsace, but after the accession of Lewis XVI., he was drawn again into public life, and was made minister of war. He died in 1778, having just finished "Memoirs of Himself," which were printed in the following year.

ST. JAGO, an island near the coast of Africa, the largest of the group of the Cape de Verd islands. It is about sixty miles in circumference, mountainous, but fertile and well cultivated; so that, according to Captain Porter, it affords grain sufficient to be an object of exportation to Madeira and the Canaries. It yields also sugar, indigo, coffee of superior quality, orchilla wood for dyeing, and most kinds of tropical fruits, as oranges, guavas, cocoa-nuts, limes, plantains, pine apples, tamarinds, and a species of apple called custard apple. Vegetables are rather scarce, particularly in dry seasons; yet a few cabbages, yams, pumpkins, and sweet potatoes, are always to be procured. Cotton is produced in great plenty, and manufactured throughout the island, particularly into a species of shawl, remarkably neat, which is made almost in every family; and there is a considerable exportation of it to the continent of Africa. Cattle, particularly bullocks and mules, are also very plentiful; and the chief trade of the island consists in supplying vessels with these and other articles of provision. The Portuguese government, however, has vested in a company the exclusive privilege of selling cattle to ships, and European goods to the inhabitants. A number of mules of an excellent breed, are sent to the West Indies. The original Portuguese inhabitants consisted chiefly of convicts, who, intermarrying with the negro population, are now scarcely to be distinguished from them. The only inhabitants who can at all be classed as white, are a few priests and officers of government. The lower orders have the character of being thievish and profligate.

ST. JAGO, or Ribeira Grande, a town of St. Jago, formerly the capital, and containing the residence of the governor; but since this, as well as the trade, has been transferred to Porto Praya, St. Jago has lost its former importance. It contains indeed a large church, and a convent with twenty-four

four Portuguese monks. A castle commands the town, which some time ago contained a few good houses, built of a kind of Portland stone; but both castle and town are now in a state of ruin, and present nothing but the greatest decay. Scarcely is an European to be seen in either; 7 miles south-west of Porto Praya.

SAINT-JOHN (Henry, Lord Viscount Bolingbroke), a nobleman of great celebrity as well in the literary as the political world, was born in 1672 at Battersea, in Surrey. His father was Sir Henry St. John, of the ancient family of that name. His mother was a daughter and co-heiress of Robert Rich, Earl of Warwick. His early education seems to have been chiefly under the direction of his grandfather and grandmother, the latter of whom was daughter of St. John, Chief Justice under the republic, and was attached to the Presbyterian sect; but the impression he received from that circumstance was a rooted aversion to a party whose austerity was very uncongenial to his disposition. At a proper age he was sent to Eton School, and thence transferred to Christ-church College, in Oxford, and at both of these seminaries he gave indications of extraordinary talents, though impeded in their exertions by a predominant love of pleasure. He appeared in the world with the advantages of a pleasing and dignified aspect, a graceful person, a winning address, a sparkling vivacity of manner and conversation, accompanied with singular acuteness and penetration, and uncommon powers of memory. For some years, however, he principally distinguished himself in the societies of the gay and dissolute, though there was no period in which he did not devote some hours to the acquisition of knowledge and cultivation of literature. He was the friend and protector of Dryden in his declining years, and prefixed a copy of encomiastic verses to his translation of Virgil, printed in 1697.

About the close of that century, Mr. St. John married the daughter and co-heiress of Sir Henry Winchescomb, of Berkshire; and in 1700, he entered the House of Commons, as representative for Wotton-Basset, a family borough. He joined the tory party, and attached himself to Harley (afterwards Earl of Oxford), who in this parliament was chosen Speaker. His abilities appeared so conspicuous, that in 1704 he was made Secretary at War, which post he held during the most triumphant period of the Duke of Marlborough's successes. When Harley was deprived of the seals in 1707, St. John resigned his post; and upon the restoration of the former to power in 1710, St. John was appointed Secretary of State. About this time he wrote a letter in the periodical tory paper called the Examiner, which gained him great fame as a party writer. He sat in the new parliament as knight for the county of Berks, and on him devolved a great part of the burthen of negotiating and defending the treaty of Utrecht. His services were rewarded by being created, in 1712, Baron St. John and Viscount Bolingbroke; but considering the difficulties of the times, he himself represents this elevation as being "dragged into the House of Lords in such a manner as to make his promotion a punishment, not a reward, as he was there left to defend the treaties alone." At this time, ambition and conscious abilities appear to have rendered him dissatisfied with holding a subaltern station under Harley, to whom he was, in fact, much superior in point of talents; and animosities began to prevail between these two statesmen, which terminated, on Bolingbroke's side, in thorough aversion. "I abhorred (says he) Oxford to that degree, that I could not bear to be joined with him in any case." *(Letter to Sir W. Wyndham.)* Soon after the accession of George I. the seals of office were taken from him, and his papers were secured. Conceiving that these measures were preparatory to his impeachment, he withdrew privately to France in March, 1715. Application was immediately made to him on the part of the Pretender to engage in his service; but this for the present he declined, and withdrew into Dauphiné. At length, an emissary having been sent over to him from the Jacobite party in England, he accepted the seals of secretary of state to the Pretender, with which he returned to Paris. That in this step he was principally moved by resentment and disappointed ambition cannot be doubted, when it is considered that he had no hereditary prejudices in favour of the exiled family, and that, according to his own assertion, he had formerly promoted the succession of the house of Hanover. A bill of attainder against him soon followed, founded upon six articles of impeachment sent up from the Commons, chiefly relative to his conduct in the treaty of Utrecht. In the meantime he presently found cause to repent of his new engagement, since nothing could be worse planned or more weakly conducted than the attempt then made to restore the Stuarts, and his good sense and education led him to be equally ashamed of his Prince and his associates in office. The return of the Pretender from Scotland was soon followed by the discharge of Bolingbroke from his post of secretary, and that, by articles of impeachment; so that he had the singular fortune of having been in the same office under a real and a mock sovereign, and having been dismissed in both instances with the same tokens of displeasure.

It was now Lord Bolingbroke's great object to obtain a restoration to his own country; and, through the mediation of the Earl of Stair, the English ambassador at Paris, he procured a promise of pardon from the king under certain conditions. Philosophy having at this time superseded politics in his mind, he wrote "Reflections upon Exile," a work in which he endeavoured to suggest topics of consolation to himself upon the ground of unmerited sufferings. He also vindicated himself from the charges brought against him by the Pretender's adherents; and he drew up a "Letter to Sir William Wyndham," in which he defended his whole conduct with respect to the tory party, and gave so striking a picture of the absurdity of the Jacobite counsels abroad, and of the bigotry of their Prince, as might have had a great effect in detaching the respectable English tories from that cause. This letter was not printed till after his death. Having become a widower, he married for his second wife the Marchioness de Villette, a niece of Madame Maintenon, a lady of great merit, with whom he enjoyed every domestic satisfaction. He remained in France till 1723, when, having obtained from his Majesty a full pardon, he returned to England. Two years afterwards, an act of parliament restored him to his family inheritance, which by his attainder he had forfeited; and he then purchased an estate at Dawley, near Uxbridge, where he occupied himself in rural cares and amusements, like a man cured of ambition and all worldly passions. One of Pope's letters to Swift gives a pleasing picture of their noble friend in his retirement; and he himself thus addresses the Dean: "I am in my farm, and here I shoot strong and tenacious roots: I have caught hold of the earth, to use the gardener's phrase; and neither my enemies nor my friends will find it an easy matter to transplant me again." But in this, Lord Bolingbroke either deceived himself or wished to deceive others; for pride and disappointment still rankled in his breast. He had not been able to procure a restoration to his seat in the House of Lords; and conceiving the minister, Walpole, to have been the cause of this mortification, he disclaimed all past obligations to him, and entered into a career of active opposition as a writer. In various papers in the Craftsman, as well as in separate pamphlets, he attacked the ministry with great boldness and vigour, interposing, however, speculations upon philosophical and metaphysical subjects. This political warfare he carried on for ten years, when, disagreeing with Pulteney and other oppositionists, whom he charged, justly enough, with private views, he again, in 1735, withdrew to France. Having, now, as it appears, really given up any expectation of once more acting a part on the theatre of public affairs, he devoted his time and pen to general topics, and drew up "Letters on the Study and Use of History," a "Letter on the true Use of Retirement and Study," and other works of a speculative kind. His father, who had been created Viscount St. John during his son's exile, dying in 1742, he returned and settled at the family seat at Battersea, where he passed the remainder of his life in dignified retirement, still occupied with undimi-

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nished powers, in what he, doubtless, thought useful instruction to his countrymen and mankind. His last work published during his life, was "Letters on the Spirit of Patriotism, and the Idea of a Patriot King," 1749; at which period, the prospect of the succession of a prince indebted to no party for his crown, seemed to him a proper opportunity to inculcate the royal lesson of governing upon pure patriotic principles. He died at Battersea, in November, 1751, at the age of 79, and was interred in the church of that place. His second wife died some years before him, and he had no issue by either marriage.

The political character of Lord Bolingbroke is sufficiently elucidated by the history of his life. It was manifestly that of a confident and ambitious man, who could ill brook a superior, and was little scrupulous in the pursuit of power, or the gratification of resentment. As a conspicuous figure in the literary annals of his time, he demands a more particular consideration. It is agreed that among the prose writers of his age (indeed, of any age of English literature), scarcely any one can be found who has united more excellences of style; his elegance, perspicuity, and strength, being accompanied with that graceful ease which is rarely to be met with in those who have not been conversant with business and the world. When he appears as the correspondent of Swift and Pope, amidst a constellation of wits, he is distinguished by a polished freedom and air of good company, which constitute the perfection of epistolary writing; and in his more elaborate compositions, he is equally free from the marks of effort or constraint. "Whatever subjects (says Lord Chesterfield) he either speaks or writes upon, he adorns with the most splendid eloquence; not a studied or laboured eloquence, but a flowing happiness of diction, which is become so habitual to him, that even his most familiar conversations would bear the press without the least correction as to method or style." With respect to the matter of his writings, those on political subjects are in great measure of temporary interest, and tinged with his own particular views; but the Letters on History, and those on Patriotism, are of more general import. In the opinion of some critics, however, they are rather superficial and declamatory, than solid and profound. As a philosophical moralist, his sentiments are displayed with great brilliancy in Pope's "Essay on Man," of which celebrated poem the plan and design are avowedly his, and some of the finest illustrations, which are most admired in their poetical dress, have been found sketched by him in prose. To Pope he was, indeed, for many years, the "guide, philosopher, and friend," the object of his highest admiration and warmest attachment: nor is there a more finished passage in all that poet's works, than the encomiastic address to this nobleman, which concludes the Essay. Bolingbroke, however, was more directly exhibited to the public in the characters of an ethical and theological writer, in his posthumous works. By his will he had left all his manuscripts to David Mallet, who, in 1753 and 1754, published "The Works of the late Right Hon. Henry St. John Viscount Bolingbroke, complete in 5 vols. 4to." Of these volumes, a considerable part was occupied by "Letters or Essays, addressed to Alexander Pope, Esq., on Religion and Philosophy." In them he appeared as a declared theist and oppugner of divine revelation; and in so formidable a light were his attacks upon the religion of his country viewed, that the grand jury of Westminster made a formal presentment of them as tending "to the subversion of religion, government, and morality." It is not necessary here to enter into a particular survey of his opinions and reasonings, upon topics on which he is judged to have entered with more confidence than his extent of learning would warrant. He is charged, indeed, with being at least as dogmatical as those whose systems he attempts to overthrow; and, although in his censures of the abuse of authority in matters of religion and philosophy, and his exposures of ecclesiastical frauds and usurpations, he speaks the sentiments of many rational friends of revelation; the arrogance of his tone, and the unmeasured reproaches which he casts upon divines of all denominations, cannot but offend every candid reader. His writings met with more effectual and appropriate refutation than the presentment of a grand jury; and their effects on the public opinion seem to have been much less than either the friends or the enemies of revealed religion expected. *Biogr. Britan. Monthl. Rev.*

SAINT JOHN'S BREAD. See CERATONIA.

SAINT JOHN'S WORT. See HYPERICUM.

ST. JOSEPH, a fort built by the French, in the country of Gallam, on the upper part of the Senegal, with the view of carrying on their trade in gold and slaves with Bambouk, Bambarra, and other countries in the interior. It has always, however, been maintained with difficulty, on account of the hostility of the natives; and in the course of the late war with Great Britain, the French were obliged to abandon all their settlements in this part of Africa. Since the peace, they have been making efforts to re-establish them; but these have been considerably delayed by the disasters attending the first expedition sent out in the Medusa frigate.

SAINT-LAMBERT (Charles Francis de), was born at Nancy, in 1717, and became distinguished in the republic of letters: he was admitted a member of the French academy, and afterwards of the National Institute. He died in 1802. His principal works are, "The Feats of Love," a comedy; "Essay on Luxury;" "The Four Parts of the Day;" "The Seasons," which, it is said, Voltaire preferred to the works of Thomson on the same subject; and "Oriental Tales."

ST. LOUIS, a town built by the French, at the mouth of the Senegal, with the view of carrying on their trade upon that river, and with the interior of Africa. See SENEGAL.

ST. LUCIA, one of the smaller Cape de Verd Islands, situated between St. Nicholas and St. Antonio. It is about 24 miles in length, and 5 in breadth, rugged and mountainous. It contains no inhabitants, but is filled with bullocks, goats, and asses, which the inhabitants of the neighbouring islands join in hunting. It contains two good bays, but the channel between it and St. Vincent, is rocky and dangerous.

ST. MARY, a small island, one the Azores. It does not, like the rest, contain any volcanic remains, though it bears traces of the action of an earthquake. The soil is a loose and friable clay, extremely fitted for the culture of wheat, which is exported to St. Michael's, to the annual amount of about 1500 tons. The island contains also a species of earth fit for pottery. Nearly the whole is the property of a single convent. Lat. 37. N. long. 25. 6. W.

ST. MATTHEW, a small island in the Atlantic ocean, at a considerable distance from the coast of Africa, and about 300 miles due north from that of Ascension. It was discovered in the year 1516, by the Portuguese, who formed a settlement upon it, which is used by vessels for the purpose of obtaining refreshments. Lat. 1. 45. S. long. 13. W.

ST. MAWES, a small borough town of England, in the county of Cornwall, situate on a neck of land, on the east side of the entrance into Falmouth harbour. It is chiefly inhabited by persons concerned in the fishery. It is governed by a portreeve, who is complimented with the title of mayor, and it sends two members to Parliament. The privilege of sending members was conferred in the 5th year of the reign of Elizabeth, and the right of election is vested in the mayor and resident burgesses, who at present amount to about 20. The town is of very remote origin, and is supposed to have existed prior to the days of Christianity. An ancient chapel was formerly in the town, but that was demolished, and a new one erected at the expense of the late marquis of Buckingham, whose family possesses the chief influence and property in the borough. St. Mawes' castle is nearly opposite that of Pendennis, which forms the chief defence of Falmouth harbour, but it is much inferior to that building, both in size and in point of situation; the works being completely commanded by a hill, which rises immediately behind them. St. Mawes was built in the reign of Henry VIII., and in time of war has been regularly fortified and garrisoned. It has still an open battery in front. There is

is nothing important connected with its history. St. Mawes has a small market on Friday; 2½ miles east-north-east of Falmouth.

ST. MICHAEL'S, an island of the Atlantic, the largest of the group called the Azores. It is nearly 100 English miles in circumference, and contains one city, five principal towns, 54 parishes, and about 90,000 inhabitants. It is covered with mountains of various forms, and some of stupendous magnitude, produced apparently by volcanic eruptions. The more perfect are of conical form; but others are broken into precipices and crags of the most various shapes. The volcanoes, however, of which this island bears so many vestiges, are no longer in action, and the inhabitants have for a century past enjoyed undisturbed tranquillity. The only traces of them are those which break out occasionally from the bosom of the sea, producing small islands or rocks. The interior of the island presents many striking phenomena. In a beautiful valley inclosed by lofty mountains, are the Furnas, or warm baths, which, for their medicinal qualities, are a good deal resorted to by the inhabitants of the towns. In their vicinity is a remarkable phenomenon called the whirlpool, formed by a muddy lavatic substance, which rises in the centre of a clear stream, and whirling round with a quick rotatory motion, makes a vortex of such power, that it defies the resistance of any animal that falls within its action. This valley is also traversed by a stream called the Red River, which issues from a mountain composed almost entirely of iron, with the ores of which the stream is so deeply impregnated, as to give it a deep red colour, communicated to all the stones over which it flows. In another part of the island are situated the Caldeiras, or boiling springs. The country round them forms a dreary waste of volcanic sand, without shade or shelter, intersected by deep ravines and yawning craters, whence suffocating vapours issue. The Caldeiras consist of vast quantities of boiling water, rising from springs of various diameters, to a height nowhere exceeding twelve feet. The air is strongly impregnated with sulphur, and the surrounding atmosphere receives the burning vapour in the form of clouds, which exhibit a variety of eccentric figures and brilliant tints. The water is so hot as to boil an egg in two minutes; but it impregnates all vegetables with the sulphurous acid it contains, and thereby renders them unfit for food. The principal Caldeira makes a grand appearance; the water is thrown out from several hundred valves, and rises and falls as if ejected through the spiracles of so many whales. At a small distance from the Caldeiras is the muddy crater, being a vast cavern filled with mineral and metallic substances, which are in a continual state of ebullition, and make a noise mightier than the waves of the sea. Here also are a number of hot and cold springs in the immediate vicinity of each other.

The soil of St. Michael's is of two descriptions; and that of the valleys and level tracks, which are naturally fertile, and well watered, yields abundant crops of wheat, maize, and beans. The other soil consists of lava, the greater part of which is hard and barren; but the crevices and softened parts are fit for vine and orange trees, which succeed extremely, and yield a greater return than any other produce. The oranges of St. Michael's are particularly esteemed. The inhabitants are compelled by law to confine their trade to Lisbon; but since the emigration of the court to South America, this regulation has not been rigidly enforced; and they maintain a considerable intercourse with England, Russia, America, &c. From England they are entirely supplied with woollens, hardware, earthenware, and various other necessaries; sending in exchange about 70 vessels annually laden with fruit. To Portugal are sent corn, pulse, poultry, cattle, and vegetables, which are paid for in tobacco, sugar, coffee, trinkets, dispensations, indulgences, images and relics. From America they receive boards, staves, lumber, rice, fish, pitch, tar, iron in pots and bars, and a variety of Indian goods, which are paid for in wines. The intercourse with Russia is similar to that with America, but on a more contracted scale. A ready money trade is carried on with vessels, which resort to the island for refreshment, and are furnished with cattle and provisions, both excellent, and with wine. The whole trade of the island is carried on from Ponta del Gada, where there is a mole for the protection of small vessels; but those of burden are obliged to ride in an open roadstead, where it is often difficult to keep their station.

ST. NICHOLAS, one of the Cape de Verd Islands, near the coast of Africa. It is about ten miles long, and three broad. It is high, rugged and mountainous; but in the interior of the island are some fertile valleys, which yield abundantly all the products of this climate. The inhabitants amount to about 6000. There are two good bays, one on the south-west, and the other on the north-west side of the island. The first is called Preguica bay, and is about seven miles from the east end. At this place there is good landing; and plenty of water may be had from a pond supplied by the mountains, but no other refreshments. The other bay is four leagues from the south-west end, and called St. George's Bay. Here, and nowhere else on the island, cattle, poultry, fruit, and every article of refreshment, except good water, may be procured.

ST. PATRICK; the tutelary Saint of Ireland. In the article MARCH, on the 17th of which month St. Patrick's Day falls, we have mentioned the few particulars that are known concerning him.

ST. PETER and ST. PAUL, a sea-port village, situated in the bay of Awatska, on the south-eastern coast of Kamtschatka, where there is a harbour, which, though small, is described by Captain King, as one of the most commodious he ever saw. Lat. 54. N. long. 158. 43. E.

SAINT-PIERRE (Charles-Irenée Castel de), a meritorious but singular writer on moral and political subjects, was born in 1658, of a noble family, at Saint-Pierre, in Normandy. He studied in the college of Caen, where he contracted au intimacy with the geometrician Variguon, whom he took with him to Paris, settling upon him an annuity out of his own moderate patrimony. Saint-Pierre was brought up to the church, and by his family interest, obtained the place of first almoner to Madame, and an abbacy. No man, however, was less of a courtier, or more moderate in his views of advancement; and his great passion was to instruct and improve mankind by his writings. These were exclusively of the useful kind, and wholly destitute of eloquence and amenity; yet his speculations on philosophical grammar, opened to him the doors of the French academy, in 1695. He acquired a fund of political knowledge, which caused the Cardinal de Polignac to carry him with him to the conferences for the peace of Utrecht. The work of peace-making was one, indeed, in which he could participate with peculiar pleasure, for he was the determined enemy of war; and one of his favourite projects was the establishment of a kind of European diet which should ensure a perpetual peace. This plan he sent to Cardinal Fleury, who, though a pacific minister, was sufficiently aware of its practical difficulties, and told the author that he had forgotten one preliminary article, which was, the delegation of a company of missionaries, to dispose the hearts of the princes of Europe to submit to such a diet. Saint-Pierre was by character a projector, but all his schemes were turned to the promotion of the public good, though sometimes in whimsical instances. Thus he proposed plans of rendering useful, sermons, dukes and peers, bad books, romances, and catechisms. In all his works, however, he shows himself the foe of tyranny, intolerance, and oppression of every kind, and pleads the cause of the people with an energy and freedom that are highly honourable to his patriotism. He was one of the few in his time who saw clearly into the mischiefs of the splendid profusions and brilliant conquests of Louis XIV., and the only one who dared openly to express his sentiments. After the death of that monarch, he published a work, in which he treated his memory with so little respect, that the French Academy, which for so many years had been employed in heaping incense upon Louis, on the motion

motion of Polignac, excluded the author from his seat, Fontenelle alone giving a vote in his favour. The Regent would not suffer his place to be occupied by another, but his exclusion continued for life a signal example of the degradation sustained by letters from subserviency to a court! The Abbé also gave offence by writing against the celibacy of the clergy; but as he had established a character for free speaking, no particular notice was taken of this deviation from orthodoxy. He was highly respectable in private life; modest, unassuming, thoroughly upright and philanthropical in the truest sense. He even introduced into the French language the word *bienfaisance*, and his life was spent in practising its duties. He adopted several orphans, whom he educated to useful trades, not dependant on fashion; as he was of opinion, that in the progressive amelioration of mankind (in which he was a believer), every thing which had not utility for its basis would be obliterated. Being free from vanity, he was not mortified with the neglect and criticism his works experienced, as he hoped that his ideas would in the end make an impression, and effect was all he looked to. He did not shine in society, yet occasionally he said things that were remembered. His works, which amount to from 25 to 30 volumes, were little read when new, and are now so much forgotten, that it is not worth while to transcribe their titles. They contain (says D'Alembert,) ideas sometimes singular, sometimes impracticable, sometimes trifling; and truths which, though not common at the time he wrote, are now become trite. One of the most important of his writings was a "Memorial on the Establishment of a proportional Taille," which greatly contributed to alleviate the tyranny of arbitrary taxation in France.

This truly worthy man died with perfect tranquillity in 1743, at the age of 85, esteemed by all the liberal, but still the object of courtly and ecclesiastical rancour. The bishop of Mirepoix, preceptor to the royal children, obtained a prohibition to his successor in the academy, from paying the usual tribute of praise to a deceased member; but such a slight can only injure the memory of him who offered it. *Moreri. D'Alembert Eloges, Academ.*

SAINT-REAL (Cæsar Vichard de), a miscellaneous French writer, who flourished in the seventeenth century, was the son of a counsellor of the senate at Chamberry. He came at an early age to Paris, where he was well received. He lived for a time with the historian Varillas, who accused him of secreting some of his papers. In 1675, he went again to Chamberry, where he attached himself to the duchess of Mazarin, whom he accompanied to England. Upon his return to his own country, he went to Paris, and passed many years as a man of letters, under the character of an abbé, without any particular title or benefice. He died at Chamberry, in 1692. His works involved him in many literary disputes; he was extremely sensible to criticism, and was violent in controversy. But in other respects he was an estimable character. As a writer, the Abbé Saint-Real had a lively imagination, and a variety of knowledge. The best known of his works are his "Histories of the Conspiracies of Venice, and of Don Carlos, Son of Phillip II.," both of them interesting pieces. The first has been made the ground work of Otway's "Venice Preserved." The best edition of the works of Saint-Real is that of the Abbé Perau, in 8 vols. 12mo. 1757.

SAINT-SIMON (Louis de Rovroi, Duke of), a French nobleman, the son of a duke of the same title, was born in 1675. He entered the army while he was very young, and saw a good deal of service between 1692 and 1697, but he was better adapted to civil employment, and was appointed, in 1721, ambassador extraordinary to the court of Spain, for the purpose of soliciting the Infanta in marriage for Louis XV. He was confidential adviser to the regent duke of Orleans, who is said to have benefitted very much by his counsels, when he had resolution to follow them. Wearied, probably, with the routine of a court, he retired to his estate, where he maintained the character of an austere religionist; and so completely did he separate himself from the world, that he was almost forgotten before he died. Having seen much of the society and manners of a court during the reign of Louis XIV. and the regency, he had imbibed a very bad opinion of mankind. He was, however, a man of strict honour and integrity, and, when in active life, never failed to speak his mind freely. He composed "Memoirs of the Reign of Louis XIV. and the Régency," which have been published since his death. They are said to consist of a variety of anecdotes, interspersed with portraits drawn with a strong but dark pencil, and to make a valuable addition to the secret history and biography of those times. His style possesses much energy, but it is incorrect, and often obscure. The most complete edition was printed at Strasburg, in 13 vols. 8vo. 1791.

ST. THOME, a town of the south of India, province of the Carnatic. It is situated close to the sea side, which here forms a bay and stands in a fine plain, abounding with cocoanut trees. Except the church, it is nearly a heap of ruins, inhabited chiefly by Indian, Portuguese, and a few Hindoo weavers. This town arose on the ruins of an ancient Hindoo city called Maliapurum, which the Portuguese took possession of at an early period of their conquests, sometime about the year 1545, and made it the capital of their settlements on the Coromandel coast. It was fortified with a brick wall, and bastions at the angels, and had seven gates. It had several churches, the principal of which now standing was dedicated to St. Thomas, the apostle, whose tomb is said to be on a hill called St. Thomas's Mount, at a few miles distance. It was taken by the French, in 1672, and given up by them two years afterwards to the Dutch, but in 1749 was taken by the British: as it is only four miles south of Madras, all the principal inhabitants have emigrated to that place. Lat. 13. 1. N. long. 80. 22. E.

ST. THOME MOUNT, a hill situated 9 miles from Madras, at which there is a handsome cantonment for several regiments; and it is connected with Madras by a fine road, on each side of which are a number of handsome country houses. This place was of great consequence during the war with Hyder Aly.

SAINTBURY, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 2½ miles west of Chipping Camden.

SAINTE MARTHE (Gaucher de, or Scevole), was born in 1536, at Poitou, of a family distinguished for its talents, a considerable share of which he inherited. From early youth, he cultivated literature with great success; became a perfect master of the learned languages, and exercised himself in poetry and oratory. He soon shewed that he was not less qualified for business than for study, and was occupied in several important duties and high offices under Henry III. and Henry IV.; which have been thus enumerated: his courage and loyalty were conspicuous at the assembly of the States, at Blois, in 1588: he was intendant of the finances in the army of Brittany, in 1593; and in 1594, he brought Poitou to submit to the authority of Henry IV., whose interests he also defended with vigour in the assembly of the Notables at Rouen, in 1597. He was president and treasurer of France in the generality of Poitou; and after a life honourably spent in the service of his country and of letters, he died in 1623, at the great age of 87, having obtained the epithet of "father of his native city," which he had saved from ruin in the civil wars. As an author, the chief works of Scevole de Sainte Marthe, are a collection of eulogies, entitled "Gallorum doctrina illustrium qui sua patrumque memoria florure, Elogia:" and Latin poems, consisting of "Pœdotrophia, seu de Puerorum Educatione," a didactic poem in three books, lyrics, elegies, epigrams, &c. He had a son, Abel, who was also a Latin poet, and his compositions are joined to those of his father in a collection printed at Paris, in 4to., in 1632. He had likewise two other sons, twins, named Gaucher, and Louis de, who were remarkable for their great resemblance to one another in body, mind, and studies. Both were king's counsellors, and royal historiographers; and they wrote in concert, works which have rendered their names worthy a place in the annals of literature. These are "L'Histoire Généalogique de la Maison de France," 2 vols. fol. 1628 and 1647: "Gallia Christiana," being

being a history of the Gallican church, published in 1666, 4 vols. fol.: "L'Histoire Généalogique de la Maison de Beavau." Gaucher was lord of Merè-sur Indre; he died at Paris, in 1640. Louis died in 1656. They were both interred in one tomb.

SAINTE PALAYE (Jean-Baptiste de la Curne de), was born at Auxerre, in 1697. Of his early life we have no account; but as he advanced in years, he devoted himself to researches into the language and antiquities of his country. On account of his labours in this department of literature, he was admitted a member of the French academy, and that of Inscriptions. In all his labours he was assisted by a twin brother, who lived with him, and was his inseparable associate in his studies, and even in his amusements. Sainte Palaye died in 1781. He is chiefly known as an author by "Mémoires sur l'Ancienne Chevalerie," 3 vols. 12mo.; in which he paints in very lively colours, the manners and customs of that institution. After his decease, the Abbé Millot drew up, from his papers, "L'Histoire des Troubadours," in 3 vols. 12mo.

SAI'NTED, *adj.* Holy; pious; virtuous.

Thy royal father
Was a most *sainted* king: the queen that bore thee,
Oftner upon her knees than on her feet,
Died every day she liv'd. *Shakspeare.*

Holy; sacred.

I hold you as a thing enskied and *sainted*,
By your renouncement an immortal spirit,
And to be talk'd with in sincerity
As with a saint. *Shakspeare.*

The crown virtue gives,
After this mortal change, to her true servants,
Amongst the enthron'd gods on *sainted* seats. *Milton.*

SAINTES, a considerable town in the south-west of France, in the department of the Lower Charente, pleasantly situated on a rising ground near the Charente. It is a very ancient place, and was, in the time of the Romans, one of the chief cities of Aquitaine. It was subsequently the capital of the province of Saintonge. Without having the same relative importance, it has probably an equal population, for it reckoned 10,300 inhabitants. Its aspect from a distance is impressive, but its streets are narrow and winding, and its houses ill built, but it contains several interesting remains of its former grandeur, such as a Roman amphitheatre, an aqueduct, and a triumphal arch of white marble on the bridge across the Charente. So lately as 1815 and 1816, several other antiquities of less importance were discovered. Here is likewise an ancient cathedral, said to have been built by Charlemange, and a college which formerly belonged to the Jesuits; 42 miles south-east of La Rochelle, and 84 north of Bordeaux. Lat. 45. 44. 46. N. long. 0. 37. 30. W.

SAI'NTESS, *s.* A female saint.—Some of your *saintesses* have gowns and kirtles made of such dames' refuses. *Sheldon.*

SAI'NTLIKE, *adj.* Suiting a saint; becoming a saint.

If still thou do'st retain
The same ill habits, the same follies too,
Gloss'd over only with a *saintlike* show,
Still thou art bound to vice. *Dryden.*

Resembling a saint.—The king, in whose time it passed, whom Catholicks count a *saintlike* and immaculate prince, was taken away in the flower of his age. *Bacon.*

SAI'NTLY, *adv.* Like a saint; becoming a saint.

I mention still
Him whom thy wrongs, with *saintly* patience borne,
Made famous, in a land and times obscure. *Milton.*

SAINTONGE, the former name of a province in the west of France, lying along the Atlantic, to the north of Guienne. The climate is mild, and the country fertile in corn, wine, and fruit. The chief manufactures are bay-salt along the coast, and brandy in the interior. This province is watered by the rivers Boutonne and Charente, which divide it into South and North, or Upper and Lower. The capital is, or rather was, Saintes. By the present division of France, Saintonge forms the greatest part of the department of the Lower Charente, and part of that of the Charente.

SAINTS, L'ILE DES SAINTS, a small island on the west coast of France, between the island of Ushant and the province of Brittany.

SAI'NTSBELL, *s.* The small bell in many churches, so called, because formerly it was "rung out when the priest came to those words of the mass, *Sanctus, Sanctus, Sanctus, Dominus Deus Saboath*, that all persons, who were absent, might fall on their knees in reverence of the holy office which was then going on in the church. It was usually placed where it might be heard farthest, in a lantern at the springing of the steeple, or in a turret at an angle of the tower; and sometimes for the convenience of its being more readily and exactly rung, within a pediment, or arcade, between the church and the chancel: the rope, in this situation, falling down into the choir, not far from the altar." *Warton.*—The little bell, which now rings, immediately before the service begins, is corruptly called, in many places, *sancebell*, or *sauncebell*.

The ruin'd house, where holy things were said,
Whose free-stone walls the thatched roof upbraid,
Whose shrill *saints-bell* hangs on his lovery. *Bp. Hall.*

At the west end, coeval with the body, into which it opens, is a large square tower, containing three large bells, with a sanctus-bell, or *saints-bell*. *Warton.*

SAI'NTSEEMING, *adj.* Having the appearance of a saint.—A *saint-seeming* and bible-bearing hypocritical puritan. *Montagu.*

SAI'NTSHIP, *s.* The character or qualities of a saint.

The devil was piqu'd such *saintship* to behold,
And long'd to tempt him. *Pope.*

SAIOTES, a small and poor nation of the Samoyed race, who inhabit the mountains of Saiany beyond the confines of Asiatic Russia, though a few of them pay tribute to that empire.

SAIPOOR, or SHAHIPORE, a town of Hindostan, province of Gundwaneh, belonging to an independent Hindoo chief. Lat. 24. 2. N. long. 82. 50. E.

SAIS, in Ancient Geography, a town of Lower Egypt, in the Saitic nome, of which it was the capital. Strabo says, that it had a temple consecrated to the worship of Minerva. It was situated between the Canopic canal and the Sebennytic, and gave the name Saitic to one of the mouths of the Nile.

SAISAR, a village of Irak, in Persia; 75 miles north-west of Hamadan.

SAISSAC, a large village in the south of France, department of the Aude, on the Bernasson. Population 1600; 12 miles north-west of Carcassone.

SAISSANDIN, a village of Satadoo, in Western Africa.

SAJO, a river of the north of Hungary, which rises above Redowa, in the county of Gomer, and falls into the Hernat, near Miskoles.

SAIVA, the designation of a very extensive sect of Hindoos, who worship Siva, the personification of the destroying, or rather changing form of the deity. The term comprehends, indeed, several sects, being rather generally descriptive of all those who, in any form or character, adore exclusively or principally the destructive member of the triad; in contradistinction to those who, under the like general name of Vaishnava, similarly worship Vishnu the preserver, under any of his forms or characters.

In the Prabod'h Chandroyana, a name meaning Rise of the Moon of Intellect, a very curious Sanscrit drama, translated by P. Taylor, of Bombay, a Saiva is introduced, who thus describes himself: "My necklace and ornaments are of human bones. I dwell amongst the ashes of the dead, and eat my food in human skulls. Hearken to our rites:

we

we drink out of the skulls of Brahmans; our sacrificial fires are fed with the brains and lungs of men, mixed up with their flesh; and human victims, covered with the fresh blood gushing from the dreadful wound in their throats, are the offerings by which we appease the terrible god." By the terrible god is of course meant Siva, whose name in this character is Bhairava, or Vairava, the tremendous.

SAK, a small lake of the south of European Russia, in the government of Taurida; 20 miles west-by-north of Simferopol.

SAKAN, a small river of Persia, which falls into the Persian gulf, near Bender, Rigk.

SAKARA, a village of Upper Egypt, about 20 miles above Cairo, on the opposite side of the river. It is distinguished by containing in its vicinity several pyramids as lofty as any in Egypt, though not so remarkable in their structure, nor so carefully explored, as those of Gize. See PYRAMIDS.

SAKARIA. See SIKARIA.

SAKE, *s.* [rac, Saxon; *saeke*, Dutch.] Final cause; end; purpose.

Thou neither do'st persuade me to seek wealth
For empire's *sake*, nor empire to affect
For glory's *sake*. *Milton.*

Account; regard to any person or thing.—Would I were young for your *sake*, mistress Anne. *Shakspeare.*

The general so likes your musick, that he desires you, for love's *sake*, to make no more noise with it. *Shakspeare.*

SA'KER, *s.* [*Saker* originally signifies an hawk, the pieces of artillery being often denominated from birds of prey. *Dr. Johnson.*—Fr. *sacre*, "the hawke, and the artillery so called." *Cotgrave.*—Hisp. *sacre*, "accipiter, sic fortè dictus vel ab Icel. *sacker*, acquisitor, aut etiam à Goth. *saka*, vulnerare, nocere." *Serenius.*]—A hawk, of the falcon kind.—They cast off haukes, called *sakers*, to the kytes. *Hall.*—A piece of artillery.

The cannon, blunderbuss, and *saker*,
He was th' inventor of, and maker. *Hudibras.*

There were three species of Sakers; *extraordinary*, *ordinary*, and *least sized*.

The SAKER *extraordinary*, was about four inches diameter at the bore, 1800 pounds weight, ten feet long; its load five pounds, shot three inches and a half diameter, and something more than seven pounds and a quarter weight; its level range was estimated at 163 paces.

The *Ordinary Saker*, was a size less, three inches three qaruters bore, nine feet long, 1500 weight; its charge, four pounds of powder; bullet's diameter, three inches and a half; weight, six pounds; its level range was 160 paces.

The *Saker of the least size*, was three inches and a half diameter at the bore, 1400 pounds weight, eight feet long, its load near three pounds and a half; shot four pounds three quarters weight, and three inches and a quarter diameter.

SAC'KERET, *s.* The male of a saker-hawk. This kind of hawk is esteemed next after the falcon and gryfalcon. *Bailey.*

SAKERTOL, a town and fortress of Hindostan, province of Delhi, and district of Saharunpore. It was strongly fortified by the Nabob Nijeeb Khan, but was taken by the Mahrattas in 1772. It stands near the western bank of the Ganges. Lat. 29. 25. N. long. 77. E.

SAKI, in Mythology, a name of Indrani, the consort or sakts of Indra, the Hindoo regent of the firmanent.

SAKIEH, a village of Irak Arabi; 80 miles north-west of Bassorah.

SAKIT, a village of Upper Egypt, on the western side of the Nile; 8 miles north-east of Ashmunein.

SAKKAR, a district of Hindostan, province of Bejapore, belonging to the Nizam. It is situated between the rivers Beemah and Krishna, about the 17th degree of northern latitude, and is extremely fertile. By the Mahometans it is called Nusseritabad, or Territory of Victory.

SAKKAR, the capital of the abovementioned district, situated on the north side of the river Beemah, and the residence of the Nizam's collector. Lat. 17. 4. N. long. 76. 38. E.

SAKMARA. See SACMARA.

SAKRA, in Mythology, a name of the Hindoo regent of the firmanent, of whom an account will be found under his more common appellation of INDRA. See also VAMANAVATARA.

SAKRADAWENDRA, is the name of one of the Ceylonese deities, who commands and governs all the rest, and formerly answered the prayers of his worshippers; but, according to the fabulous account which is given of him, the golden chair on which he sat, and the foot of which was made of wax, that was softened by their prayers and tears, and sunk downwards, so that he could take notice of their requests and relieve them, being disposed of among the poor, they no longer derive any benefit from him, or pay him any reverence. Phil. Trans. abr. vol. v. part ii. p. 182.

SAKRIPA, in Mythology, a name of the Indian deity Boodh, or Budha. One of his leading tenets was the sin of depriving any animal of life: hence, and from the general tenderness and humanity of his doctrines, contrasted with the practises of some sects of Hindoos of that time, Boodha obtained the appellation of *Sakripa*, or *benevolent;* also that of *Sadayr-hridaya*, or *tender-hearted*.

SAKTA, the designation of a sect of Hindoos, who worship exclusively the female principle of nature, typified in Parvati, as the sakti or active energy of Siva.

SAKTI, a name given, by Hindoo mythologists, to the consorts of their male divinities. It must be recollected that their system has personified the abstract and attractive powers of the deity, and has popularly ascribed sexes to those mythological personages. The sakti, or energy, of an attribute of God is female, and is fabled as the consort of that personified attribute. The most obvious attributes of the deity, those of creation, preservation, and destruction, personified, form the trimutri, or triad, of Brahma, Vishnu, and Siva. Their saktis, or active energies, are Saraswati, Lakshmi, and Parvati. Not only are the great powers so accommodated; the inferior deities in their own persons, and the avataras or terrestrial incarnations of the superior, are likewise mated in fable, and have their will executed by active helpmates; each of whom, "with the same form, the same decoration, and the same vehicle," as is expressed in one of the Puranas, exactly resembles the deity whose partner she is; from whose bodies, indeed, as Eve from Adam's, they are in some theogonies stated to have proceeded, and whose powers and attributes they are armed with.

SAKYA, a name of the Hindoo deity Budha, or Boodh. The term is said to mean a wise man,—a philosopher.

SAL, [Lat.] The old scientific term for salt. It is now nearly obsolete. Before the change in chemical nomenclature, there were the following terms:—SAL Ammoniac, now muriate of ammonia; SAL Ægypti, or Sal Aquinum, now carbonate of soda; SAL Catharticus Amarus, now sulphate of magnesia, or Epsom salts; SAL Catharticus Glauberi, now sulphate of soda, or Glauber's salts; SAL Communis, now muriate of soda, or common salt; SAL de Duobus, now sulphate of potash; SAL Decrepitatum, now muriate of soda; SAL Diureticus, now acetate of potash; SAL Enixum, now super-sulphate of potash; SAL Jamblici, an old compound of several salts and simples; SAL Lucidum, used by some, for the present nitrate of potash; by others, for sulphate of soda; SAL Marinus, now muriate of soda; SAL Marinus Regeneratus, muriate of potash; SAL Martis, now sulphate of iron; SAL Mirabile, now sulphate of soda; SAL Nitricum, or Sal Petræ, now nitrate of potash; SAL Polychrest, now sulphate of potash; SAL Prunellæ, i. e. nitrate of potash deprived of its water of crystallization;

SAL Rupellensis, now tartrate of potash; SAL Volatile, now carbonate of ammonia.

SAL was also used by Pliny, to signify a defect or flaw, which took off very much from the value of the gem. Martial having occasion to mention this sort of blemish in crystal, calls it *nitrum* instead of *sal*.

"Et turbata levi questus crystallina nitro."

The critics have sometimes changed this word *nitro*, to *vitro*, and others have made the confusion yet greater, by supposing that the poet did not mean rock crystal, but crystalline glass; but these are all errors. It is plain, by what Pliny and others have said on the same subject, that the author means here the same that others do by the word Sal. This was a dusky and dusty foulness, seemingly composed of a quantity of saline particles, shooting into their forms within the body of the crystal. The gems in general were subject to this blemish; and we find, in particular, that the emerald was frequently debased by it.

It is found at this time, indeed, that the crystal is much more subject to it than any of the gems; but as the Romans called all the green crystals found in the copper mines of Cyprus by the name of emeralds, it is easy to conceive, that the emerald, as they understood the word, must be frequently subject to it. The poets using the word *nitrum* instead of *sal*, is not wonderful; for the Greeks called common salt *halonitrum*, so that the words seem almost synonymous.

SAL, or SALA, a neat but small town of Sweden, in the government of Westeras. It contains 2100 inhabitants, and has in its neighbourhood a silver mine, first wrought in the year 1188. It produced, during the 14th century, an annual value of 6000*l.*; at present the produce is only 4000*l.* a year, and barely defrays the expense of working; 32 miles west of Upsal. Lat. 59. 55. 10. N. long. 16. 32. 45. E.

SAL, an island forming part of the group of the Cape de Verd Islands, about 16 miles long, and 6 or 7 broad. It is dry, barren, and has now been deserted by all its inhabitants. It contains several high mountains, particularly one resembling a sugar loaf, which may be seen to a considerable distance at sea. The salt, from which it derives its name, is formed in natural ponds among the rocks, into which the sea water flows, and is evaporated. The north west part is in Lat. 16. 50. N. long. 22. 55. W.

SAL, a village of Nedsjed, in Arabia; 20 miles north-east of Jemama.

SAL, some islands in the gulf of California, with the additional title of Si Puedes. They are various, and the largest are Las Animas, San Lorenzo, San Estevan, and San Augustin. They are situate in the interior of the gulf, and form a chain from the coast as far as New Spain, leaving only some very narrow channels, of difficult entrance for vessels.

SAL, some isles or shoals of rock near the north coast of the island of Cuba.

SAL, a river of Chili, which flows down the Andes, and running west through the desert track of Atacama, enters the Pacific ocean.

SAL, a river of Peru, in the province of Castro-Virreyna, which enters the Tsuchaca.

SAL, LAKE, a lake of North America. Lat. 50. 25. N. long. 91. 30. W.

SAL, POINT, a high steep rocky cliff on the coast of New Albion, projecting from a low shore. Lat. 34. 57. N. long. 239. 43½. E.

SAL, PUNTA DEL, a cape on the north coast of the island of Cuba. Lat. 21. 10. N. long 78. 6. W.

SALA (Angelo), a physician of the 17th century, distinguished himself as one of the first who pursued medical chemistry in a useful and rational manner. He was a native of Vicenza, and practised in his profession at various places. In 1609, he appears to have resided at Winterthur in Switzerland. He was afterwards at the Hague, and at Hamburgh, and finally settled at Gustrow, as physician to the Duke of Mecklenburgh, in which situation he was living in 1639. His works were published collectively at Frankfort, 4to., 1647, 1680, 1712, and at Rouen, 4to., 1650. Several of them relate to the analysis and preparation of medicines of the vegetable kingdom, in which he employed much experimental skill: of these are his "Essentiarum Vegetabilium anatome;" "Saccharologia;" "Tartaralogia;" and "Opiologia," the latter of which has been translated into French and English. *Halleri Bibl. Bot. Tiraboschi.*

SALA, a city described by the Arabian geographers, as situated on the eastern part of the Niger, immediately opposite to Tocrur, between Ghana and the modern site of Tombuctoo. It is mentioned as opulent and commercial in the twelfth century, but no modern notices have been received of its existence.

SALA, a village of Diarbekir in Asiatic Turkey.

SALA, LA, a small town of Piedmont, near the road leading over the lesser St. Bernard. Population 900; 11 miles west of Aosta.

SALA, or SALATO, a small town of the continental Sardinian states, in Montserrat, not far from Casale.

SALA, a domain in Lombardy, with a magnificent castle; 8 miles from Padua.

SALA, a town of Italy, in the west of the kingdom of Naples, in the Principato Citra, not far from a river of the same name. It is an inland town, has a population of 5500, and stands on the great road leading southward from Salerno; 18 miles north of Policastro.

SALA, a river of Buenos Ayres, which runs north-north-east, and enters the Parana.

SALA DI GIOL, a small town of Italy, in the west of the kingdom of Naples, in the Principato Citra. Population only 1400; 24 miles west-by-north of Policastro.

SALABAMABY, a river of North America, which falls into the Tombigbee.

SALACIA [derivation unknown: though some have deduced it from the proximity of the anthers to the stigma which must facilitate impregnation; and others suppose, that Linnæus intended to dedicate this genus to Salacia, the spouse of Neptune], in Botany, a genus of the class gynandria, order triandria.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, five-parted, very short, spreading: segments ovate, acute, permanent. Corolla: petals five, roundish, sessile. Stamina: filaments none. Anthers three, twin, divaricate at the base, placed on the apex of the germ. Pistil: germ roundish, larger than the calyx. Style very short, between the anthers. Stigma simple. Pericarp: berry one-celled, three-seeded. Seeds roundish, even.—By the character, this genus is near allied to Stilago, but it is of a different habit. Stilago is referred to Antidesma. Jussieu thinks that Salacia may possibly be dioecous.—*Essential Character.* Monogynous or one-styled. Calyx five-parted. Corolla five-petalled. Anthers placed on the apex of the germ.

1. Salacia Chinensis.—Stem shrubby. Branches angular, even, divaricating very much, thickish at the base. Leaves petioled, remote, oval, like those of the plum, sharpish, even. Flowers many from each germ, on one flowered peduncles shorter than the petiole.—Native of China.

2. Salacia Cochin-chinensis.—Stem almost upright, six feet high, with many twisted branches. Leaves ovate, sub-acuminate, smooth, petioled. Flowers of a reddish yellow colour, small. Berry roundish, unequal, reddish, middle-sized, eatable. Calyx inferior, coloured. Petals concave, spreading, longer than the calyx. Filaments none. Anthers roundish, two-lobed, distant. Germ round-flatted. Style none. Stigma a very small point.—Native of Cochin-china, among bushes.

SALACIA, a name of a genus of insects, reduced by Linnæus to a species under the name ASCIDIA MENTULA; which see.

SALA'CIOUS. *adj.* [*salax*, Lat. *salace*, Fr.] Lustful; lecherous.

One more *salacious*, rich and old,
Out-bids, and buys her. *Dryden.*

SALA'CIOUSLY,

SALA'CIOUSLY, *adv.* Lecherously; lustfully.

SALA'CITY, *s.* [*salacitas*, Lat. from *salacious*.] Lust; lechery.—Immoderate *salacity* and excess of venery, is supposed to shorten the lives of cocks. *Brown.*

SA'LAD, *s.* [*salaet*, Germ.] Food of raw herbs. It has been always pronounced familiarly *sallet*.—I climbed into this garden to pick a *salad*, which is not amiss to cool a man's stomach. *Shakspeare.*—Leaves eaten raw, are termed *salad:* if boiled, they become potherbs: and some of those plants which are potherbs in one family, are *salad* in another. *Watts.*

SALADA, a bay and river on the coast of the Pacific ocean, in the province of Copiapo, and kingdom of Chili. Lat. 25. 40. S.

SALADA, a small island in the West Indies. Lat. 10. 58. N. long. 64. 13. W.

SALADIA BAY, a bay on the east coast of Dominica; 1 mile south of Pagua point.

SALADILLO, a river in the province and government of Buenos Ayres, which rises in vast plains in the interior, and running to the south-east, falls into the sea near the mouth of the river Plata, on the southern side. The Saladillo runs very low for the greatest part of the year. At a place called Callighon, twenty miles from its mouth, where it is very broad, it scarcely reaches the ancles; and at its mouth it would be impossible for the smallest boat, if laden, to enter. Yet, in the beginning of October, it swells prodigiously, rises above its banks, and is, in the place just mentioned, nearly nine feet deep. The flood generally lasts two or three months. There are many trees on its banks.

SALADILLO, a river of the province of Buenos Ayres, and a branch of the river Salado.

SALADILLO, a river of South America, in the province of Tucuman, which runs east, and enters the Tercero.

SALADIN. See SALAHEDDIN.

SALADINE, a tax imposed in England and France, in the year 1188, by Pope Innocent III., to raise a fund for the croisade undertaken by Richard I. of England, and Philip Augustus of France, against Saladin, sultan of Egypt, then going to besiege Jerusalem.

The Saladine tax was thus laid: that every person who did not enter himself a croisader, was obliged to pay a tenth of his yearly revenue, and of the value of all his moveables, except his wearing apparel, books, and arms.

The Carthusians, Bernardines, and some other religious persons, were exempted from the Saladine.

Gibbon remarks that, when the necessity for this tax no longer existed, the church still clung to it as too lucrative to be abandoned; and thus arose the tything of ecclesiastical benefices for the benefit of the pope or other sovereigns.

SALADO, a river of Peru, which falls into the Pacific ocean, Lat. 22. 27. S.

SALADO, an abundant river of South America, in the province of Tucuman, which has its rise from many streams flowing down the western declivity of the Andes, in Lat. 24. S. This river derives its name from the salt with which its waters are impregnated, although this quality is general to the rivers that pass through Tucuman, from the Cordilleras of Atacama and Copiapo. The Salado is called, in the early part of its course, the Rio del Pasage; and is so rapid, as to render its navigation very dangerous. On arriving at the place where the town of Estero formerly stood, it changes its name into that of Rio de Valbuena; and from its source to this place, which is about one hundred and twenty miles, its waters are tinged of a blood colour, which disappears, by degrees, as it receives those of other rivers. This colour is attributed to the soil of the valley of Calchaqui, through which it flows. It is not called the Salado till it reaches the latitude of San Jago del Estero. Its general direction is south-east; but before it joins the Parana, it runs a more southerly course for some distance. It is at Santa Fe, in Lat. 31. 40. S. that it mixes with the main river.

SALADO, a river of Chili, which flows down the Cordillera, near the confines of Peru. Its waters are so salt that they are not drinkable. Lat. 26. 20. S.

SALADO, a river of Mexico, which enters the Gila.

SALADO, a river of Peru, in the province of Atacama, which runs west, and enters the Pacific ocean.

SALADO, a river of Peru, in the province of Chichas and Tarija, which runs east, and enters the Pilcomayo.

SALADO, a small river of Paraguay, which enters the Paraguay, opposite the city of Ascension.

SALADO, a river of the island of St. Domingo, which runs north-north-east, and enters the sea in the bay of Borroderos.

SALADO, a river of St. Domingo, which runs south, and enters the sea.

SALADO, a river of St. Domingo, near the north coast, which is small, and enters the sea in the bay of Barbacoa.

SALADO, a river of St. Domingo, which enters the sea on the south coast.

SALADO, a small river of Martinique, which enters the sea with a north-east course.

SALADO DE ARJONA, and SALADO DE PORCUNNA, two rivers in the south of Spain, one of which falls into the bay of Cadiz, and the other into the Xenil, between Granada and Ecija.

SALAGNAC, a petty place in the central part of France, department of the Upper Vienne, on the Briance. Population 700.

SALAGOSA, a small town of the south of France, department of the Eastern Pyrenees, arrondissement of Prades.

SALAGRAMA, a stone found in a river of Nepaul, and considered by many sects of Hindoos as very sacred and mystical. It is an essential article in several of the superstitious rites and ceremonies of the Brahmans: it is used in propitiatory oblations to Vishnu, as well as in funeral and other ceremonies. Many stones, especially those of a conical form, are deemed mystically sacred to Siva; but the salagrama seems consecrated peculiarly to Vishnu.

Mr. Colebroke informs us (As. Res. vol. vii.), that the salagrams are found in part of the Gandaki river, within the limits of Nepaul. They are black, mostly round, and are commonly perforated in one or more places by worms, or, as the Hindoos believe, by Vishnu in the shape of a reptile. According to the number of perforations, and of spiral curves in each, the stone is supposed to contain Vishnu in various characters. For example, such a stone, perforated in one place only with four spiral curves in the perforation, and with marks fancied to resemble a cow's foot, and a wreath of flowers, contains Vishnu and his consort Lakshmi, in that form or combination called Lakshmi-Narayana, a form in which they are commonly seen in images of a diminutive size, sitting on the knee of Vishnu or Narayana. The salagrama is found not to be calcareous; it strikes fire on steel, and scarcely at all effervesces with acids.

SALAGUA, a port on the west coast of Mexico, which has two good harbours, Las Calletas, or the Creeks, where many ships may ride. Between Saluga and the White Rock is the port of St. Tioga. Lat. 19. 4. N.

SALAHEDDIN YUSEF EBN AYUB (usually called Saladin), a celebrated Sultan of Egypt and Syria, was born A. D. 1137, in the castle of Tecrit, of which his father, a Curd soldier of fortune, was governor. In his youth he served under his father and his uncle Shiracouh, the latter of whom he was chosen, in 1168, to succeed in the command of the Caliph's armies. Before this time he had been much addicted to wine and gaming; but he now entirely reformed his conduct, and thenceforth rigorously observed the precepts of the Koran. Looking to Noureddin as the source of his authority, he followed his intentions in repressing the sect of Ali. In 1171, by his order he put an end to the dynasty of the Fatimite caliphs in Egypt. The death of Adhed happening at the same time, Saladin took possession of his treasures, and though nominally holding the country under the Caliph of Bagdat, and in subordination to Noureddin, he resolved to make himself independent of both. To this end, he ingratiated himself with the Egyptians by a mild and prudent government; and in order to wean them from the doctrine of Ali, he established colleges

or academies, in which the principles of the Sunnite theology were taught. Though he occasionally assisted Noureddin in his enterprizes against the Christians, he incurred the suspicion of that prince, who marched to the borders of Egypt with a large army, in order to compel him to submission. A temporary accommodation, however, prevented hostilities between them; and the death of Noureddin, in 1174, removed the greatest obstacle to Saladin's ambitious projects. Though he acknowledged Al-Malek, the minor son of Noureddin, as the lawful heir to that prince, he took measures to seize his dominions, first under the pretence of protection, and then openly for himself. He reduced Damascus and several other places in Syria, and besieged Al-Malek in Aleppo, but without effect. He also endeavoured to expel the Franks from the maritime parts of Palestine, but was entirely defeated at Ascalon, with the destruction of almost his whole army. Al-Malek died in 1181; and Saladin, in 1183, became master of Aleppo by capitulation, so that he was now in full possession of Syria as well as of Egypt, to both which provinces his title as Sultan had been confirmed by the Caliph Nasser. The great object both of his religious zeal and his politics was now to expel the Christians from Palestine, and recover the city of Jerusalem. His ardour was further inflamed by the desire of vengeance. Arnaud de Chatillon, one of the Frank lords settled in that country, had not only committed great ravages on the Arabian border, but had attacked a caravan of pilgrims going to Mecca, massacreing a number of them, and carrying the rest into captivity. As this act of hostility was an infraction of a convention between Saladin and the Christians, by which pilgrims were to pass unmolested, he vowed revenge upon the perpetrator. This threat he was enabled to make good by his victory in the famous battle on the plain of Tiberias, in 1187, when Guy of Lusignan, the King of Jerusalem, together with Chatillon, the masters of the Templars and Hospitallers, and a number of knights, were made prisoners. The masters and knights were immediately massacred before the Sultan's tent, being regarded by him as professed assassins. Lusignan and Chatillon were brought into the tent, and the Sultan drank to the former and then presented the cup to him. Lusignan, after quenching his thirst, would have passed the cup to Chatillon; but the Sultan interposed. "The person and dignity of a king," said he, "are sacred; but this impious robber must instantly acknowledge the prophet whom he has blasphemed, or meet the death which he has so often deserved." The warrior disdained the proffered terms of mercy: Saladin struck him on the head with his scimitar, which was a signal for his guard to finish that which he had begun, and Chatillon was immediately dispatched. Lusignan was sent to Damascus, and was speedily ransomed.

From all the cities, both of the sea-coast and the inland country, the garrisons had been drawn away for the fatal field. Tyre and Tripoli alone could escape the rapid inroad of Saladin; and three months after the battle of Tiberias, he appeared in arms before the gates of Jerusalem. For a time he peremptorily refused all offers of capitulation, and expressed a determination to take it by storm. At length, however, the preparations for a vigorous defence on the part of the besieged induced the Sultan to listen to terms, and it was agreed that the Christian inhabitants should evacuate the city, with liberty to carry off their effects, and that the Franks should pay a certain ransom per head, or remain slaves to the conqueror. Saladin entered the holy capital in great triumph, and fairly executed the conditions of the treaty. He thence proceeded to lay siege to Tyre, but the destruction of his fleet by the Franks rendered the attempt abortive. The intelligence of the loss of Jerusalem excited equal grief and consternation among the Christian powers, and the Emperor Frederick Barbarossa, the Kings of France and England, with several other princes, took the cross, and prepared armaments for the relief of the Holy Land. The particulars of their exploits, and of the brave resistance of Salaheddin, may be found in the article CROISADES.

This great prince died at Damascus, at the age of 56, and the loss of their hero plunged his subjects of Syria and Egypt into deep mourning. He was, indeed, one of the most conspicuous characters of that period, and in many respects showed himself worthy of his high fortune. Though chargeable in the outset of life with unjustifiable methods of obtaining power, but which may be partially excused from the consideration that he only usurped from usurpers, he employed his power with great regard to the good of his subjects, whose burthens he lightened, whilst he benefited them by a great number of useful works and establishments. In his private expenses he was extremely moderate, being addicted to no luxurious indulgence, and affecting simplicity and frugality in his appearance and mode of living. At the same time he was magnificent in his donations, and was so little of a miser, that the whole contents of his treasury at his death were one gold coin and a few silver drachms. In religion, he seems to have been fanatic and intolerant. The only study which he encouraged was the orthodox theology of his sect, and he looked with contempt or aversion upon polite literature and profane science. He was devoutly patient of injuries, and, for an eastern monarch, could not be called sanguinary. He was faithful to his engagements, and administered justice with diligence and impartiality. By his virtues he obtained the esteem even of his enemies; and indeed the moral comparison between him and most of the heroes of the crusade, is much in his favour. Saladin left a family of seventeen sons and one daughter, and was the founder of the dynasty of Ayoubites. *Mod. Univers. Hist. Gibbon.*

SALAHIAH, a fortress on the eastern frontier of Egypt, forming the key of the route from that country into Syria. It was first built by Saladin, and contains now about 6000 inhabitants.

SALAIBSKOIE, a fortress of Asiatic Russia, in the province of Tomsk, built at the junction of the small river Salaiba with the Bia. It is surrounded by immense forests, traversed by a savage race called the Coumandins.

SALIGNAC, a small town in the south-west of France, departments of the Dordogne. Population 2100; 32 miles south-east of Perigueux.

SALAKA, a harbour of Nubia, on the western coast of the Red Sea. Lat. 20. 42. N. long. 37. 5. E.

SALA'M, *s.* [Persian.] A compliment of ceremony or respect. The word is now well known in the East Indies.—Our ambassador, — after reciprocal *sallams*, returned to his lodging. *Sir T. Herbert.*

SALAMANCA, a province in the west of Spain, forming the south part of the kingdom of Leon, and bordering on Portugal. It lies between 5. and 7. of west long., and 40. and 41. of north lat.; has a superficial extent of 1500 square miles, with 210,000 inhabitants. It consists partly of a dead flat, destitute of trees, and deficient in water; partly of lofty mountains, particularly in the south, where are found the Sierras, or mountain rangers of Francia, Bejar, Gredos, Gata, and Puerto del Pico. It is watered by the Douro, the Agueda, the Yeltes, the Tormes and the Alagon, and contains a small lake called Gredos. The climate is in general dry and hot, rain seldom falling during the summer months. The mountains are rich in minerals. The more favourable exposures produce vines, and those fruits which require a warm climate. The wool of this province is good, and the best pastures are allotted to the Merino sheep. The contraband trade carried on with Portugal is very considerable.

SALAMANCA, an ancient city in the north-west of Spain, situated on the ascent of three hills, with the river Tormes flowing at their base. The environs are pleasant, and afford, along with the numerous spires of the city, a great relief to the eye of the traveller who has approached it by a monotonous country. The town is surrounded by a wall, has thirteen gates, several squares and fountains, and a number of massy buildings; but the streets are all on uneven ground, and the indolence of the Spaniards prevents them from turning this position to advantage, by conducting streams of water from the upper to the lower parts of the town. The principal square is extensive, with piazzas all round. The houses are uniform, and of a good height, with balconies in front; and one of the sides of the square is occupied by the town

town-house. The other public buildings are the cathedral, the university, the churches, and the convents. The cathedral is a majestic Gothic edifice, entered by a fine gate, and admired in the interior for the boldness of the vaults, and the finish of the sculpture. The bishop's see at Salamanca is of very remote date; and the town was always a great resort of clergy. The churches, great and small, are in number 25, the monasteries 20, and the convents 11.

The university of Salamanca was founded in 1239, and had long a considerable reputation, though the number of students, whether Spaniards or foreigners, is absurdly exaggerated in the history of the 14th and 15th centuries. The buildings are extensive, and the number of professorial chairs is fully sixty; but that of students does not at present exceed 300 or 400, and never appears to have been more than twice that number. The subjects taught are, as in other universities, theology, law, medicine, classics, mathematics, and philosophy. At the head of the establishment is a rector, invested with great privileges. The buildings appended to the university consist of 25 colleges, as they are termed, with accommodation each for 30 students, and of four colleges for young men of family. The academical dress is a black cassock, like that of a Catholic priest.

The population of Salamanca, at present only 13,600, is supposed to be considerably below its amount in former ages. Here are several vestiges of antiquity, in particular a Roman road leading southward to Merida, and a Roman bridge over the Tormes, of 27 arches, and about 500 feet in length. The banks of that river, and the country to the west of Salamanca, were the scene of a memorable engagement between the British, under Lord Wellington, and the French, under Marmont, in 1812. Lord Wellington had been for some time obliged to retreat, but watched anxiously an opportunity when some mistaken manœuvre on the part of the enemy, from over confidence or otherwise, should afford him a favourable occasion for fighting. This at last occurred on the 22d of July, when the French, eager to prevent the farther retreat of the British in the direction of Portugal, advanced their left wing, and enabled the British troops, who marched promptly to the attack, to gain a decided advantage over their too extended line. This having taken place in the afternoon and evening, the battle did not afford many prisoners, but the pursuit of the cavalry the next morning, produced the surrender of a large body, and the French army was obliged to retreat beyond Burgos. Salamanca is 153 miles west-north-west of Madrid. Lat. 41. 21. N. long. 5. 10. W.

SALAMANCA, a pretty little town of Mexico, in the intendancy of Guanaxuato. It is situated in a gently rising plain, at the height of 7075 feet above the level of the sea. It is about 70 miles north-north-west of Valladolid, and 150 north-west of Mexico.

SALAMANCA, formerly a city of South America, in the kingdom of New Granada, and province of Santa Martha, of which nothing now remains but a small village.

SALAMANCA, a town of Mexico, in the province of Tlascala.

SALAMANCA DE BALCALAR, a city of the province of Yucatan, in New Spain. It is small, but handsome, and well built; situate on the east of the isthmus, which joins the peninsula of Yucatan with the continent. It has 120 houses, and a small fort with a strong garrison. But its territory is extremely low, and always inundated. Its climate is accordingly unhealthy, and liable, in an extreme degree, to the insufferable plague of mosquitoes; 160 miles south of Merida. Lat. 18. 53. N. long. 88. 50. W.

SA'LAMANDER, *s.* [*salamandra*, Lat.] An animal supposed to live in the fire, and imagined to be very poisonous. Ambrose Paré has a picture of the salamander, with a receipt for her bite; but there is no such creature, the name being now given to a poor harmless lizard.—The *salamander* liveth in the fire, and hath force to extinguish it. *Bacon.*

SAL'AMANDER'S HAIR, or SALAMANDER'S WOOL, *s.* A kind of asbestos, or mineral flax.—There may be such candles as are made of *salamander's wool*, being a kind of mineral, which whiteneth in the burning, and consumeth not. *Bacon.*

SALMA'NDRINE, *adj.* Resembling a salamander.—Laying it into a pan of burning coals, we observed a certain *salamandrine* quality, that made it capable of living in the midst of fire, without being consumed or singed. *Spectator.*

SALAMANDRINO, a name given by the Italians to a species of salmon.

SALAMANIE, or CALEMUT, a river of North America, in the Indiana territory, which runs into the Wabash; 12 miles east of Eel town.

SALAMANIE, a flute in use among the Turcoman shepherds in Arabia. It is entirely open, and without any reed, so that to wind it is no easy matter. This is the favourite instrument of the Merlavi dervises, who, as they use music in their acts of religious worship, are the best musicians in the East, and excel especially in playing on the flute. It is made either of a reed, or of a piece of fine wood.

SALAMANQUILLA, a small island of the Atlantic Ocean, near the coast of the province and government of Carthagena.

SALAMBRIA, the ancient *Peneus*, a considerable river in the north of Greece, in Thessaly, which rises in the Pindus chain, passes between the mountains of Olympus and Ossa, and discharges itself into the gulf of Salonica, through the well known vale of Tempe; 25 miles east-by-north of Larissa.

SALAME, a small island at the entrance of the Persian gulf, near Cape Mussendoon. Lat. 26. 20. N. long. 56. 48. E.

SALAMGA, the name given by the people of the Philippine islands to a species of sea-swallow. This is the bird, whose nests are so famous as an ingredient in soups.

SALAMI, a town of Nedsjed, in Arabia; 20 miles south-east of Tima.

SALAMIA DE LA SERENA, a town in the south-west of Spain, province of Estremadura. This town was anciently called ILIPA, and several remaining vestiges indicate its having been a place of importance in the times of antiquity; 27 miles north-east of Llerena.

SALAMIEH, a town of Nedsjed, in Arabia; 25 miles east of Hamah.

SALAMINE, a small island in the Saronic gulf, which formerly made a part of the territory of Attica. It anciently bore the name of Cycria, after Cychræus, the name of its first king, and that of Pityussa, from the quantity of pines which were found there. Strabo gives it the appellation of Scirias, after that of an ancient hero. The name of Salamine was derived from Salamis, who, according to Greek authors, was the daughter of Asopus, king of Bœotia, transported to this island by Neptune, by whom she became the mother of Cychræus. It has in succession two towns, called Salamis, one towards the south, opposite to Egina, and the other towards Attica. This latter, or New Salamis, became very populous, and was governed by its own laws until the time of Augustus. Some authors say, that this island was anciently peopled by Ionians, and afterwards by colonies from different parts of Greece. After Cychræus above-mentioned, reigned Teucer, and after him Telamon, whose son, Ajax, conducted the ships of Salamine to the war of Troy. One of the successors of Teucer ceded this island to the Athenians; from them it was taken by the Megarians, and again recaptured by the Athenians, at the request of Solon. When the kings of Macedon humbled the power of the Athenians, they lost, among other islands under their dominion, this island of Salamine, which revolted under the reign of Cassander; but this enterprise terminated unfortunately; for the Athenians, being more powerful than they were supposed to be, suppressed this revolt, and drove from the island all who possessed any kind of property, and placed a colony of Athenians in their room. Sylla declared the island of Salamine free, and it enjoyed this privilege until the reign of Vespasian, who reckoned it among the Roman provinces.

Salamine is famous for a naval battle fought in the year 479 B. C. in the strait formed between the island and the continent.

SALAMIS, a famous town of the island of Cyprus. According to Scylax, this town had a secure port, proper for the shelter of ships in the winter. It was ruined by an earthquake, which caused the sea to overflow it: but it was again re-established in the 4th century. Here was a temple dedicated to Venus. When it was re-established in the 4th century, it took the name of Constantia; and though it was depopulated about the end of the 7th century, the name of Constanza was annexed to its ruins. St. Paul came to Salamis with St. Barnabas, A. D. 44, and there converted Sergius Paulus.

SALAMPSII, a people of Africa, in Mauritania Cæsariensis, in the vicinity of the Machuri, and east of the Baniuri. *Ptol.*

SALAMUN, a village of Lower Egypt, on the western branch of the Nile; 4 miles south of Shabur.

SALANA, a small river in the south part of the kingdom of Naples, in Calabria Ultra, which falls into the Faro di Messina.

SALANBUIGH, a town of Cochin-china, on the river Catang. Lat. 15. N. long. 108. 30. E.

SALANCHE, a small town of the Sardinian states, in Savoy, province of Faucigny, situated on an eminence on the Arve. It has 1400 inhabitants, and is 28 miles south-east of Geneva. Near this is the cataract, called Pissevache.

SALANDRA, or SALANDRELLA, a small river in the south of the kingdom of Naples. It falls into the gulf of Taranto.

SALANGARI, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the west coast of Gilolo. Lat. 2. 15. N. long. 127. 31. E.

SALANIEH, a village of Lower Egypt; 1 mile west of Damietta.

SALANKEMEN, a small and ill built town of the Austrian states, in Sclavonia, opposite to the influx of the Theyss into the Danube. The Austrians, under prince Louis, of Baden, defeated the Turks here, in 1691; and again, under prince Eugene, in 1716; 20 miles east-south-east of Peter-Wardein, and 18 north-west of Belgrade. Lat. 45. 10. N. long. 20. 30. E.

SALANKEN, CAPE, a cape on the south coast of the island of Celebes, in Bony Bay. Lat. 4. 15. S. long. 120. 48. E.

SALANO, a small but neat town of Austrian Illyria, in Friuli, on the Isonzo; 2 miles north-north-east of Goritz.

SALAPHITANUM OPPIDUM, in Ancient Geography, a town in the interior of Africa, which was subject to the Romans, according to Pliny, who reckons it in the number of the thirty towns which were indulged with the liberty of choosing their own magistrates.

SALAPIA, SALPE, a town of Italy, in Apulia, towards the south coast, near the sea, in a marshy situation, which rendered it very insalubrious. Some pretend that it was founded by Diomedes. It was a post of consequence, which was eagerly contended for by the Romans and Carthagians during the second Punic war.

SALAQUICHE, a river of South America, in the New Kingdom of Granada, and province of Choco, which rises in the mountains, and falls into the gulf of Darrien, at the mouth of the river Atrato.

SALAR, in Ichthyology, a name given by some authors to the trout. Others apply the name to a young salmon, while very small.

SA'LARY, *s.* [*salaire*, Fr. *salarium*, Lat. *Salarium*, or *salary*, is derived from *sal. Arbuthnot.*—*Sal*, i. e. *salt*, was a part of the pay of the Roman soldiers. *Malone.*]—Stated hire; annual or periodical payment.—This is hire and *salary*, not revenge. *Shakspeare.*

SALASSA, a small town of the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont, province of Ivrea, situated between the Orco and the Vana, with 1200 inhabitants.

SALASSES, the name given to the loftiest mountains in the centre of the island of Bourbon. They are supposed to be upwards of 9000 feet high, and contain a volcano in their north-west part.

SALASSI, in Ancient Geography, a people of Gallia Transpadana, more northerly than the Taurini, in a fine valley watered by the Duria Major. In the year of Rome 610, a difference took place between the Salassi and some of their neighbours. Appius Claudius Pulcher, to whom was assigned the department of Gaul, took occasion to war against them: he lost the first battle, but gained the second, and subjected the country to the dominion of the Romans. On occasion of a second revolt in 728, Augustus sent against them Terentius Varro Murena, who terminated the war in a single campaign: and, under a pretext of levying contributions, he distributed his troops through the whole country. Strabo says, that the Salassi, to the number of about 40,000, were forcibly dispossessed and carried away by the Romans; 36,000 were sold as slaves; and 4000 were incorporated with the Pretorian cohorts.

SALAT, a river in the south of France, department of the Ariegge. It falls into the Garonne, near Martory.

SALATAN, CAPE, a cape on the south coast of Borneo. Lat. 4. 10. S. long. 114. E.

SALATHOS, a people of Africa, in Interior Libya, who inhabited the territory between Mount Mandre and Sagapola. *Ptol.*—Also, a river of Africa, in the environs of Mount Mandre.

SALAU, a large village in the south of France, department of the Arriege, arrondissement of Girons. It lies at the foot of the Pyrenees, and has in the neighbourhood lead mines and marble quarries. Population 1100.

SALAURIS, a town of Hispania, situated on the coast, between Mount Sellius and the town of Tarracone, among sandy desarts.

SALAWAY, POINT, a cape on the east coast of the island of Gilolo. Lat. 1. 24. N. long. 128. 51. E.

SALAYASIR, in Natural History, the name by which the people of the Philippine islands call that small species of duck, which is so common thereabouts. This is an inhabitant of their lakes and marshes, and is a perfect duck, and very beautifully coloured, but does not exceed the bigness of a man's fist.

SALBRIS, a small town near the central part of France, department of the Loire and Cher, on the river Saudre, with 1300 inhabitants; 12 miles north-east of Romorantin, and 30 east-south-east of Blois.

SALBURG, a town of Saxony, in the country of Reussen, on the Saal. In the year 1640, this town was burned by the Swedes; 20 miles south-south-west of Gera, and 40 south-east of Erfurt. Lat. 50. 27. N. long. 11. 50. E.

SALBUTIQUI, a river of South America, in the province of Nicaragua, which runs south, and enters the Pacific ocean to the west of the town of San Miguel.

SALCES, a village in the south of France, department of the Eastern Pyrenees, now known only by its salt springs, but said to have been formerly a considerable town. There is here a fortress of the same name, and the remains of the ancient town of Salsulæ. Population 700; 9 miles north of Perpignan.

SALCITO, a small town in the north of the kingdom of Naples, in the province of Molise, with 2000 inhabitants.

SALCOMBE, REGIS, a parish of England, in Devonshire, near the channel between Brunscomb and Sidmouth, about a mile east of the latter.

SALCOTT, a parish of England, in Essex; 8½ miles south-west of Colchester.

SALDANA, a rapid river of the New Kingdom of Granada, in the province of Popayan, which runs north-east, and after being joined by various tributary streams, enters the Magdalena on the west shore. It is dangerous to ford, from the strength of its currents.

SALDANHA BAY, a bay of the Atlantic, on the southern coast of Africa, to the northward of the Cape of Good Hope.

Hope. It forms the most secure and convenient harbour in Southern Africa, and is capable of containing several large fleets. Unfortunately the coast is entirely destitute of water. Lat. 32. 54. S. long. 17. 60. E.

SALDANNA, a town of the north-west of Spain, in the province of Leon, on the river Carrion. Population 4000; 46 miles east of Leon, and 38 north-by-west of Palencia. Flax is raised in large quantities in the environs.

SALE (George), a learned English Oriental scholar and various writer in the 18th century, was one of those valuable members of the republic of letters, concerning whom it is greatly to be regretted that scarcely any notices have been transmitted to posterity. At least, if any particular information concerning him is still in existence, it has escaped our researches. He was a married man, and had a son, who was educated at New-college in the University of Oxford, of which he became fellow, and afterwards was elected to a fellowship in Winchester College. Our author was one of the founders and first committee of a society for *the encouragement of learning*, established in 1736, of which several noblemen, and some of the most eminent literary characters of the age were members.

Mr. Sale was one of the authors of the great "General Dictionary," and had a considerable share in that translation of the works of Bayle, which is incorporated with it. From a paper in the hand-writing of Mr. Swinton, one of the principal writers of the "Universal History," it appears that Mr. Sale contributed to that work the cosmogony, and a small part of the history immediately following the same. The most important of his productions, however, is "The Koran, commonly called the Alcoran of Mohammed, translated into English immediately from the original Arabic; with explanatory Notes, taken from the most approved Commentators. To which is prefixed a Preliminary Discourse," 1734, 4to. This is a literal, and at the same time elegant, version of the sacred code of those numerous nations who follow the prophet of Mecca, enriched with notes abounding in entertainment as well as information. The preliminary discourse, which would prove an useful and interesting publication in a separate volume, is divided into eight sections, of which the following are the subjects: 1. Of the Arabs before Mohammed; or, as they express it, in the *Time of Ignorance;* their History, Religion, Learning, and Customs. 2. Of the State of Christianity, particularly of the Eastern Churches, and of Judaism at the Time of Mohammed's Appearance: and of the Methods taken by him for establishing his Religion, and the Circumstances which concurred thereto. 3. Of the Koran itself, the Peculiarities of that Book; the Manner of its being written and published, and the general Design of it. 4. Of the Doctrines and positive Precepts of the Koran, which relate to Faith and religious Duties. 5. Of certain negative Precepts in the Koran. 6. Of the Institutions of the Koran in Civil Affairs. 7. Of the Months commanded by the Koran to be kept sacred; and of the setting apart of Friday for the especial Service of God. 8. Of the principal Sects among the Mahommedans; and of those who have pretended to prophecy among the Arabs, in or since the Time of Mohammed. *Gentleman's Mag.* for 1736 *and* 1781. *Murphy's Life of Johnson.*

SALE, *s.* [Icel. *sal,* venditio; M. Goth. *saljan,* Sax. ȳllan, dare, tradere; Icel. *selia,* transmittere, vendere. *Serenius.*] The act of selling.—Vent; power of selling; market. —Nothing doth more enrich any country than many towns; for the countrymen will be more industrious in tillage and rearing of all husbandry commodities, knowing that they shall have ready *sale* for them at those towns. *Spenser.*—A public and proclaimed exposition of goods to the market; auction. Those that won the plate, and those thus sold, ought to be marked, so as they may never return to the race, or to the *sale.* *Temple.*—State of being venal; price.—The other is not a thing for *sale,* and only the gift of the gods. *Shakspeare.*—It seems in Spenser to signify a wicker basket; perhaps from *sallow,* in which fish are caught.

To make baskets of bulrushes was my wont;
Who to entrap the fish in winding *sale*
Was better seen? *Spenser.*

SALE, or SALL, a parish of England, in Norfolk; two miles from Reepham.

SALE, a township of England, in Cheshire; 6½ miles west-by-north of Stockport. Population 901.

SALE, a small river of Guadaloupe, which runs south-west into the sea.

SA'LEABLE, *adj.* Vendible; fit for sale; marketable.—I can impute this general enlargement of *saleable* things to no cause sooner than the Cornishman's want of vent and money. *Carew.*—This vent is made quicker or slower, as greater or less quantity of any *saleable* commodity are removed out of the course of trade. *Locke.*

SA'LEABLENESS, *s.* The state of being saleable.

SA'LEABLY, *adv.* In a saleable manner.

SALEBRO'SITY, *s.* [*salebrosus,* Lat.] A rugged path. —Nature rises to sovereignty, and there is a blaze of honour gilding the briers, and inciting the mind; yet it is not without its thorns and *salebrosity.* *Feltham.*

SA'LEBROUS, *adj.* [*salebrosus,* Lat.] Rough; uneven; rugged.

We now again proceed
Thorough a vale that's *salebrous* indeed;
——————— bruising our flesh and bones;
To thrust betwixt massy and pointed stones. *Cotton.*

SALEBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire, near Alford.

SALECK, a village of the west of Germany, in Franconia; 1 mile south-west of Hammelburg.

SALECTO, a small sea-port of Tunis, in Africa, the *Sullecti* of the middle ages, and where there are the remains of a large castle, anciently called Turris Hannibalis; 90 miles from Tunis.

SALEFUR, an old name for SAFFRON.

SALEHURST, a parish of England, in Sussex; 1 mile north-east of Robert's Bridge. Population 1653.

SALEM, a district of the south of India, province of the Carnatic, forming part of the Barramaul district. It is very fertile and productive. Its principal town is Salem.

SALEM, the capital of the above mentioned district. It was taken by the British in 1768, but was afterwards relinquished; and at the peace of Seringapatam, in 1792, it was transferred, with the district, to the British, and is now the residence of the judge, collector, &c. Lat. 11. 44. N. long. 78. 18. E.

SALEM, a village of Kerman, in Persia; 115 miles north-east of Kerman.

SALEM, a sea-port town of the United States, and capital of Essex county, Massachusetts. It is chiefly built on a tongue of land, formed by two inlets from the sea, called North and South rivers; over the former of which is a bridge, upwards of 1500 feet long, connecting Salem with Beverly, and the latter forms the harbour. The harbour has good anchorage, but the water is so shallow, that vessels drawing more than 12 or 14 feet, must unload, in part, at a distance from the wharfs. The situation of Salem is low, but pleasant and healthy. It is well built, and with regard to population, wealth, and commerce, is the second town in New-England. It contains a court-house, a jail, an alms-house, a market-house, three banks, four insurance-offices, a custom-house, a grammar-school, an orphan asylum, a bank for savings, a museum, an athenæum containing upwards of 5000 volumes well selected, and 11 houses of public worship, six for Congregationalists, two for Baptists, one for Episcopalians, one for Friends, and one for Universalists. It has numerous public and private schools, which are well supported. None of the public buildings are remarkably splendid. The court-house, the market-house, the alms-house, the custom-house, and the grammar-school house, all of brick, and the jail of stone, are spacious, handsome, and commodious. The churches are large, neat, and

and convenient. Three of them are furnished with organs, and six with steeples or cupolas. The private houses have generally the appearance of neatness, convenience, and comfort; and many of them indicate taste and opulence. The town was formerly built almost entirely of wood, but a large proportion of the houses erected within the last 20 years are of brick.

The appearance of Salem is very irregular, the streets having been laid out with little regard to symmetry or beauty. In the northern part of the town there is an elegant common, containing about ten acres, surrounded by a handsome public walk, which is planted with rows of trees. On a peninsula below the town there are two forts, Fort Pickering and Fort Lee, and on Baker's island there is a light-house. Salem is, next to Plymouth, the oldest town in the state, and was settled in 1626. The inhabitants are chiefly employed in trade and navigation. The shipping belonging to this port, in 1816, amounted to 34,454 tons. The East India trade has, for several years, been carried on here with great spirit and advantage, and it is to this branch of commerce that the town is indebted for a great part of its wealth. The number of vessels employed at present in this trade amounts to 53, carrying 14,272 tons. A society composed of persons who have sailed round the Cape of Good Hope, or Cape Horn, styled the East India Marine Society, was incorporated in 1801; the object of which is to afford relief to indigent members or their families, to promote the knowledge of navigation and trade to the East Indies, and to increase the museum. The museum belongs to this society, and is a very extensive and interesting cabinet of curiosities collected from all parts of the world, and is visited free of expense. Population 12,613; 14 miles north-north-east of Boston, 4½ north-west of Marblehead, and 24 south of Newbury Port. Lat. 52. 34. N. long. 70. 54. W.

SALEM, a township of the United States, in Orleans county, Vermont, at the south end of Lake Memphremagog. Population 58.

SALEM, a township of the United States, in Rockingham county, New Hampshire; 35 miles north of Boston. Population 1179.

SALEM, a township of the United States, in Washington county, New York. The courts for the county are held alternately here and at Sandy Hill. Here is a handsome village, situated on an extensive plain, containing a court-house, a jail, an academy, and two churches. Two weekly newspapers are published here. Population 2833; 46 miles north-east of Albany.

SALEM, a county of the United States, in New-Jersey, bounded north by Gloucester county, east by Cumberland county, south-west and west by the Delaware. Population 12,761.

SALEM, a post-town of the United States, in Salem county, New Jersey, situated on Salem creek; 3½ miles from Delaware bay. It contains about 200 houses, mostly of brick, a court-house, a jail, a market-house, an academy, and four houses of public worship; one for Episcopalians, one for Baptists, one for Friends, and one for Methodists.

SALEM, a township of the United States, in Wayne county, Pennsylvania. Population 261.

SALEM, a township of the United States, in Luzerne county, Pennsylvania. Population 530.

SALEM, a township of the United States, in Westmoreland county, Pennsylvania. Population 1518.

SALEM, a township of the United States, in Mercer county, Pennsylvania. Population 407.

SALEM, a township of the United States, in Botetourt county, Virginia; 190 miles west-by-south of Richmond.

SALEM, a township of the United States, in Fauquier county, Virginia.

SALEM, a township of the United States, in Salem county, South Carolina.

SALEM, a township of the United States, in Columbiana county, Ohio; 9 miles north-north-west of Lisbon. Population 889.

SALEM, a township of the United States, in Livingston county, Kentucky.

SALEM, a township of the United States, in Belmont county, Ohio. Population 376.

SALEM, a township of the United States, in Champaign county, Ohio. Population 460.

SALEM, a township of the United States, in Tuscarawas county, Ohio, on the Muskingum. Population 442.

SALEM, a township of the United States, in Jefferson county, Ohio. Population 912.

SALEM, a township of the United States, in Washington county, Ohio. Population 248.

SALEM, a township of the United States, in Ashtabula county, Ohio, in the north-east corner of the state, where are iron-works.

SALEM, a post township of the United States, and capital of Washington county, Indiana; 24 miles north-west of Jeffersonville.

SALEM, a post township of the United States, in Stokes county, North Carolina, watered by a small branch of the Yadkin. It is a handsome Moravian town, built of brick, and chiefly on one street about a mile and a half long, paved and planted with rows of trees on each side. It contains a church, and has manufactures of potters' ware, saddlery, gloves, hosiery, &c. Here is an excellent Moravian academy for females, under the direction of a preceptor and 12 matrons. There are belonging to the institution four brick buildings, four stories high, situated on a square in the centre of the town, planted with trees, and intersected with fine gravel walks; 34 miles north-east of Salisbury, and 100 west of Raleigh.

SALEM, a county of the United States, in South Carolina.

SALEM, New, a township of the United States, in Huron county, Ohio, on the river Huron.

SALEM, New, a township of the United States, in New London county, Connecticut.

SALEM, New, a post township of the United States, in Jefferson county, Ohio.

SALEM, New, a township of the United States, in Franklin county, Massachusetts. Here is a respectable academy. Population 1204: 80 miles west of Boston.

SALEM, North, a township of the United States, in West Chester county, New York. Here is an academy. Population 2167: 53 miles north-north-east of New York.

SALEM, South, a township of the United States, in West Chester county, New York. Population 1556: 50 miles north-north-east of New York.

SALEM, West, a township of the United States, in Mercer county, Pennsylvania. Population 660.

SALEM CROSS ROADS, a post village of the United States, in Westmoreland county, Pennsylvania.

SALEMI, an inland town of the west of Sicily, delightfully situated, nearly half way between the seas on the north and south sides of the island, on the great road leading southward from Castello Mare. It contains a population of upwards of 8000, and has a number of churches and convents, but is in other respects a poor and backward place. It is supposed to occupy the site of the ancient Halicia; 38 miles south-west of Palermo.

SALEMIA, a town of Nedsjed, in Arabia; 40 miles north of Jemama.

SALEMIA, a town of Syria, in the pachalic of Tripoli, on the borders of the desert; 100 miles south-south-east of Aleppo.

SALENÆ, of Ptolemy, a town of the isle of Albion, in the country of the Cattivellauni, probably situated at Salúdy, in Bedfordshire, where several Roman antiquities have been found.

SALENCHES. See Salanche.

SALENGORE, a district or kingdom, extending a considerable space along the western coast of the Malay peninsula. It is governed by a Mahometan prince, who bears the title of Rajah. This being a genuine Malay state, the language is

is spoken in its greatest purity. The rajah, as usual in Malay principalities, monopolises the greater part of the trade, and is thus induced to afford protection to vessels coming up the river of Salengore; so that their only danger is while lying in the roads, where they are constantly exposed to the attack of pirates. There are several rivers traversing the territory, and falling into the straits of Malacca; particularly one called Burnam, from which a great number of long rattans are brought. The only one, however, frequented by Europeans, is the river of Salengore itself, a short distance up which is the residence of the rajah. The merchant first waits on the shabundar, who introduces him to the sovereign, with whom his bargain is to be struck. The commodities fitted for exportation here, are tin, rattans, gold dust, elephants' teeth, dragon's blood, camphire, with some pepper, and other spices. These are given in exchange for opium, piece goods, gunpowder, cutlery, steel, copper, iron, and some woollens. The Chinese and the Birgis of Celebes carry on a good deal of trade at this port; but it is not advisable for the European merchant to enter into any dealings with them, this being considered by the king as an invasion of his monopoly, and resented accordingly. The customs are 2 in 30 *ad valorem*; and considerable presents are expected. Lat. 3. 20. N. long. 101. 18. E.

SALENTIA, or SALLENTIÆ, a town of Magna Grecia, in the country of the Messapians. *Steph. Byz.*

SALENTINA REGIO, a country of Magna Grecia, in which was the promontory called Japygium, and that called Salentinum promontorium, which terminated the peninsula of Japygiæ; now called Cape St. Marie de Leuca. The inhabitants of this country were called Salentini. *Ptolemy.*

SALEP, *s.* [Turkish.] The root of some species of orchis. The orchis mascula of Linnæus is most valued, although the roots of some of the palmated sorts, particularly of the orchis latifolia, are found to answer almost equally well. For its mode of preparation, &c., see the article ORCHIS.

SALER MOLER, a considerable fortress of Hindostan, province of Khandeish. It was one of the numerous strongholds of the Mahratta chief Sevagee; but was taken after his death by the armies of Aurungzebe, in or about the year 1689. It stands some miles south of the river Tapty, amongst a range of lofty hills. Lat. 20. 40. N. long. 74. 15. E.

SALERNES, a town in the south-east of France, in the department of the Var, on the Braqueseno, with 2300 inhabitants; 10 miles west of Draguignan. Lat. 43. 35. N. long. 6. 10. E.

SALERNO, a city of Italy, in the west of the kingdom of Naples, situated in a small plain, surrounded with a fine range of cultivated hills. It is the capital of the province of Principato Citra, and has a population of 10,000. Though delightfully situated, the town itself is not agreeable: the streets are paved with lava, but they are narrow and irregular, and have a gloomy appearance, from the height of the houses. Salerno is an ancient city, and has in front of the cathedral 28 ancient granite columns, with Corinthian capitals, of good workmanship; but the church itself, though constructed of valuable materials, is a tasteless edifice. The town contains a number of other churches and convents. It is a sea-port, and gives name to the neighbouring gulf. Its harbour is good, and was much frequented before Naples engrossed the trade of those parts. It is protected against the wind and waves by a mole, and defended by a strong castle. Salerno is the see of an archbishop, and has a university, formerly of some note; its medical school is still in repute; 28 miles east-south-east of Naples. Lat. 40. 40. N. long. 14. 35. E.

SALERNUM, SALERNO, in Ancient Geography, a town of Italy, south-east of Neapolis, at the bottom of a small gulf. in the territory of the Picentini. It was situated on an eminence, at a small distance from the sea; and the Romans, in fortifying it against the Picentini, extended it to the coast, Under the consulate of P. Cornelius, Scipio Africanus, and Sempronius Longus, in 559, the Romans sent hither a colony. When the Normans, in the 11th century, obtained possession of this town, it had the title of a principality; and in the 13th century, the emperor Frederic founded an university, which was the first Christian university established in Europe.

The principal writer of note, who flourished at the college of Salernum, was Constantine, the Africau, a native of Carthage, who had spent thirty years at Babylon and Bagdad, and had become fully acquainted with the Oriental languages and learning. He wrote many books, which he affirmed were in a great measure original; but which were, in fact, mere compilations and plagiarisms, especially his work entitled "Loci communes," which is an entire transcription from Haly Abbas, whose name he has not mentioned. Constantine, however, held a high reputation; was a great promoter of medical knowledge; and, by his influence and interest with Robert, Duke of Normandy, the son of our William the Conqueror, obtained great patronage for the school. This duke, on his return from the crusade, remained some time in Apulia, and consulted the physicians of Salernum, respecting a wound in his arm, which had become fistulous, in consequence, it was supposed, of having been inflicted by a poisoned arrow. They recommended suction of the wound; but the duke would not admit of it, lest the person who did it might be poisoned. But his wife, Sybil, a noble and accomplished lady, whom he had married in Sicily, taking the opportunity in the night, frequently sucked the sore, and it healed. About this time, namely in the year 1100, the Schola Salerhitana was compiled, which, from its high origin, made a great noise both then and in succeeding ages. It has been maintained, by a French writer, Andry, in the Journal des Savans, that this work was composed by Tusa and Rebecca Guerna, two celebrated ladies, who distinguished themselves by several writings. It is not generally believed, however, to be the work of an old woman, but is ascribed to John Milan, and was dedicated, in the name of the whole college, to Duke Robert, in honour of whom a chapter was added, on the cure of fistulous sores. This work was written in Leonine verses, in compliment also, it is supposed, to the same noble patron; as this sort of poetry was in great request among the Romans. The work contains an account of the six non-naturals, with a series of rules for the preservation of health. It had the honour of being commented upon by Arnaldus de Villa Nova; and of being imitated by Ægidius, an Athenian, and a Benedictine monk, about the end of the twelfth century, in a work on the virtues of medicine, of urine, and the pulse, in Latin hexameter verses, though without much regard to the quantity of the syllables.

The school of Salernum continued to flourish for many ages. The historian Oadericus Vitalis, who died in 1141, affirms that, in his time, this college was renowned over all the world for its excellent skill in physic; and Benjamin, of Tudela, a Jew, on his return from his travels over the greatest part of the then known world, about 1165, commends it as the best seminary of medicine among the sons of Edom; for so he calls the western Christians. The study of medicine was greatly patronized in this city by several royal personages; especially Duke Roger, the first king of both the Sicilies, in 1130, and by his successors William the first and second, who followed his example. It had also some great privileges conferred upon it, about the year 1225, by the emperor Frederic II., particularly an exclusive power, (together with the college of Naples), of granting degrees and licenses to practice. The emperor was, in fact, a great judge as well as patron of learning, and was the principal promoter, at this time, of the translation of the works of the Arabians into Latin. Indeed, not only the original Arabians were translated, but their translations also of the writings of the Greek authors were put into that language; a circumstance which, though it contributed partly perhaps to the neglect in which the Greek originals remained for some centuries, yet it prevented probably the Greek copies from being ultimately lost, (as Dr. Freind has observed,) by directing the attention of the learned to them.

SALERS, a small inland town in the south of France, in the department of the Cantal. Population 1200; 9 miles south-east of Mauriac.

SALES, a town in the south of France, in Languedoc, department of the Aude; 9 miles west of Castelnaudary. Population 1000.

SALESBURY (William), a Welsh grammarian, who flourished at the beginning of the 17th century, was bred to the law. He assisted bishop Davies in translating the New Testament into the Welsh language, which was printed in 1620. He is known as the author of "A Welsh Dictionary;" "A Treatise on Rhetoric;" "Poems," &c.

SALESBURY, a village of England, in Hertfordshire, north-east of Sherly.

SALESBURY, a village of England, in Lancashire; 5 miles north of Blackburn.

SALES-CURAN, or SALLES-CURAN, a town of France, in the department of the Aveiron, and chief place of a canton, in the district of Milhau; 11 miles south-east of Rodez or Rodés. The place contains 1164, and the canton 3886 inhabitants, on a territory of 210 kiliometres, in eight communes.

SA'LESMAN, *s.* One who sells clothes ready made.

Poets make characters, as *salesmen* cloaths;
We take no measure of your fops and beaus. *Swift.*

SALET, or SALLET. *s.* [Nicod derives the word from *sila*, which had the same signification among the Latins; others from *saladinus*, alleging that it was borrowed from the Orientals; others from the Italian *celeta*, as if the head were hid by it; others from the Spanish *celada*, a little cask, &c.; others from the French *salade*, and this from the Teutonic *schaole*, or the German *schale*.] A light covering or armour for the head, anciently worn by the light horse; only differing from the casque in that it had no crest, and was little more than a bare cap. It sometimes had a visor, and was sometimes without it.

SA'LEWORK, *s.* Work for sale; work carelessly done.

I see no more in you than in the ordinary
Of Nature's *salework*. *Shakspeare.*

SALEYER, or SALAYR, an island in the Eastern seas, situated off the southern extremity of the island of Celebes. It may be estimated to be about 40 miles in length, and nearly 8 in breadth. There are many smaller islets, which lie round it, and are dependant on it. This island is mountainous and woody. It produces abundance of millet, which is carefully cultivated by the natives, as it forms their chief subsistence. There also is plenty of cotton, from which coarse cloth is manufactured. The natives of Saleyer are more civilized than most of the inhabitants of the eastern islands: their houses are good, and in travelling they are carried in bamboo chairs over the hills, but have horses for use in the plains. Saleyer was formerly ceded by the Macassars, to the king of Ternate, from whom it was wrested by the Dutch. In 1775 it was governed by 14 regents, who resorted once a year to Macassar, with two hundred and fifty or three hundred of their countrymen, to perform the customary duties of vassalage, and set forth their complaints. The inhabitants are estimated at about 60,000; they are reckoned to be pusillanimous and servile, quarrelsome and perverse. Lat. 5. 45. S. long. 120. 55. E.

SALEZ, or SULETZ, a large village in the north of Switzerland, in the canton of St. Gall, on the Rhine. It has two yearly fairs, and some trade in linen; 4 miles east of Sax.

SALFORD, a village of England, in Somerset, situated on the Avon, between Bath and Bristol.

SALFORD, a parish of England, in Bedfordshire; 4½ miles north-by-west of Woburn.

SALFORD, a township of England, in Lancashire, containing 19,114 inhabitants, who are chiefly employed in the trades and manufactures peculiar to Manchester, to which it adjoins.

SALFORD, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 3 miles west-north-west of Chipping Norton.

SALFORD ABBOTS, or LITTLE, a village of England in Warwickshire; 5 miles south-south-west of Alcester.

SALFORD PRIORS, or GREAT, a parish of England, in Warwickshire; 4½ miles south-by-west of Alcester. Population 817.

SALFORD, UPPER, a township of the United States, in Montgomery county, Pennsylvania. Population 838.

SALFORD, LOWER, a township of the United States, in Montgomery county, Pennsylvania.. Population 558.

SALGA, in Ancient Geography, a town of Africa, in Mauritania. *Steph. Byz.*

SALGADO, a river of Brazil, on the coast of Pernambuco, navigable only for small boats.

SALGANEA, or SALGANEUS, in Ancient Geography, a town of Greece, in Bœotia, at the passage of the Euripus to the isle of Eubœa.

SALHI, a village of Upper Egypt, on the right bank of the Nile; 3 miles north-east of Atfieh.

SALI, in Ancient Geography, a people of European Sarmatia, north of the Agathyrsi. *Ptolemy.*

SALI, or SALICO, the same as PORTUDAL; which see.

SALIÆ, in Antiquity, Roman virgins, dressed after the manner of the Salii, who assisted the pontiff in sacrificing. *Pitisc. in voc.*

SALIAN, or SALLIAN, was born at Avignon, in the year 1557. He entered the society of the Jesuits at the age of 21, and was soon appointed to teach the principles of polite literature at different seminaries, in the province of Lyons. After this he was chosen to the office of rector of the college of Besançon. The remainder of his life he spent at Paris. He died in 1640, at the age of 83. He is known as a considerable author, and among his works are the following: "Annales Ecclesiastici Veteris Testamenti, ab Orbe condito usque ad Christi Domini Mortem," in 6 vols. folio; an "Epitome" of the preceding work; "Enchiridion Chronologicum sacræ et profanæ Historiæ."

SALIANAH, a town of Northern Hindostan, province of Nepaul. It is governed by a native chief, who is tributary to the rajah. Lat. 29. 2. N. long. 81. 37. E.

SA'LIANT, *adj.* [French.] In heraldry, denotes a lion in a leaping posture, and standing so that his right foot is in the dexter point, and his hinder left foot in the sinister base point of the escutcheon, by which it is distinguished from rampant. *Harris.*—*Saliant*, in heraldry, is when the lion is sporting himself. *Peacham.*

SALIBABO, an island in the Eastern seas, to the southward of Tulour, from which it is divided by a narrow strait, about one mile wide. It is not above 8 or 10 miles in circumference, and is admirably cultivated. It contains 12 villages, the united population of which may be estimated at about 3000. It abounds in potatoes, rice, goats, hogs, &c. The inhabitants are of the Malay colour, with long hair, and have for arms lances, swords, targets, and daggers. They are much oppressed by their kolanos, or chiefs, and sold as slaves for trifling offences. The inhabitants of Salibabo island are very frequently at war with those of Kabruang, distant five or six miles. They barter provisions with such ships as pass, for coarse calicoes, red handkerchiefs, coarse cutlery, &c. They manufacture a coarse kind of cloth, from the wild plantain tree called *abaka*, the fruit of which is bitter, and full of black seeds. Plenty of hogs are on the island. There is a very good harbour on the east coast. Lat. 4. N. long. 128. 9. E.

SALIC, or SALIQUE, in Law, *Lex Salica*, an ancient and fundamental law of the kingdom of France, usually supposed to have been made by Pharamond, or at least by Clovis, in virtue of which males only are to inherit.

Some, as Postellus, will have it to have been called Salic, q. d. *Gallic*, because peculiar to the Gauls. Cenal takes the reason to be, that the law was only ordained for the royal *salles*, or palaces. Fer. Montanus insists, it was because Pharamond was at first called *Salicus;* others, with the abbot of Usperg, derive its name from *Salogast*, Pharamond's principal minister; and others, from the frequent repetition

repetition of the words *Si aliqua*, at the beginning of the articles. The most probable opinion is that which derives the word from the ancient Franks, who were called *Sali*, *Salici*, and *Salingi*, on account of the Sala, a river of ancient Germany. Bouteroue gives another plausible origin of the word: he says it comes from the word *salich*, which, in the old Teutonic language, signified salutary; and that the French in this law imitated the policy of the ancient Romans, who made salutary laws, which the magistrates were to have before them when they administered justice. This he confirms from a curious figure taken out of the Notitia Imperii, where the book is represented covered with gold, with this inscription, *Leges salutares*.

Du Haillan, after a critical examination of the Salic law, declares it to have been an expedient of Philip the Long, in 1316, for the exclusion of the daughter of Louis Hutin from inheriting the crown. Father Daniel, on the other hand, maintains, that it is quoted by authors much more ancient than Philip the Long; and that Clovis is the real author of it. The opinion of Du Haillan has been confuted by Messrs. Vertot and de Foncemange, in the Mem. de l'Acad. des Inscript. tom. ii. p. 603, &c., and tom. viii. p. 490, &c., who trace the existence of the Salic laws to the kings of the first and second race. The style which is scarcely intelligible, and which is in a Latinized dialect, is a mark of its antiquity.

After the Franks had quitted their country, says Montesquieu, they made a compilement of the Salic laws, with the assistance of the sages of their own nation. According to M. Leibnitz, in his Treatise of the Origin of the Franks, the Salic law was made before the reign of Clovis; but it could not be before the Franks had quitted Germany, for they did not at that time understand the Latin tongue.

Before the election of the Merovingian kings, the most powerful tribe or nation of the Franks appointed four venerable chieftains to compose the Salic laws; and their labours were examined and approved in three successive assemblies of the people. After the baptism of Clovis, he reformed several articles that were incompatible with Christianity. The Salic law was again amended by his sons; and at length, under the reign of Dagobert, the code was revised and promulgated in its actual force, 100 years after the establishment of the French monarchy. Within the same period, the customs of the Ripuarians were transcribed and published; and Charlemagne himself, the legislator of his age and country, had accurately studied the two national laws, which still prevailed among the Franks: the former, or Salic law, extended from the Carbonarian forest to the Loire; and the latter, or Ripuarian, might be obeyed from the same forest to the Rhine.

Latin appears to have been the original language of the Salic law. It was probably composed in the beginning of the fifth century, before the era (A.D. 421.) of the real or fabulous Pharamond.

The tribe of the Ripuarian Franks having joined itself, under Clovis, to that of the Salians, it preserved its own customs; and Theodoric, king of Austrasia, ordered them to be reduced to writing. He collected likewise the customs of those Bavarians and Germans who were dependant on his kingdom. The Thuringian code was given by the same Theodoric, for the Thuringians were his subjects. As the Frisians were subdued by Charles Martel and Pepin, their law cannot be prior to those princes. Charlemagne, the first that reduced the Saxons, gave them the law still extant. As soon as the Visigoths, the Burgundians, and the Lombards, had founded their respective kingdoms, they reduced their laws to writing, not with a view of obliging the vanquished nations to conform to their customs, but with a design of regulating their own conduct by them. In the Salic and Ripuarian laws, as well as in those of the Alemans, Bavarians, Thuringians, and Frisians, there is an admirable simplicity: they breathe an originial rusticity, and a spirit which no other spirit had weakened. They received but very few alterations, because all those people, except the Franks, remained in Germany; and even the Franks themselves laid there the foundation of a great part of their empire, so that they had none but German laws. The same observation is not applicable to the laws of the Visigoths, of the Lombards, and Burgundians; their character altered considerably, from the great change which happened in the character of those people, who had settled in their new habitations. The kings of the first race struck out of the Salic and Ripuarian laws whatever was absolutely inconsistent with Christianity, but left the chief part untouched; but this cannot be said of the laws of the Visigoths, which were new-moulded by their kings, and by the clergy. The laws of the Burgundians, and especially those of the Visigoths, admitted of corporal punishments; whereas these were not tolerated by the Salic and Ripuarian laws. They preserved their character much better. The bishops had an immense authority at the court of the Visigoth kings. All the maxims, principles, and views of the inquisition, afterwards established, are owing to the code of the Visigoths, and the monks only copied against the Jews the laws formerly enacted by bishops. The laws of the Burgundians and Visigoths were impartial; but this was not the case with the Salic law, for it established between the Franks and Romans the most mortifying distinctions. When a Frank, a barbarian, or one living under the Salic law, happened to be killed, a composition of 200 sols was to be paid to his relations; only 100 upon the killing of a Roman professor, and no more than 42 for a Roman tributary. The composition for the murder of one of the king's vassals, if a Frank, was 600 sols; of a Roman, though the king's guest, only 300. Moreover, if a number of people assembled together to assault a Frank in his house, and he happened to be killed, the Salic law ordained a composition of 600 sols; but if a Roman, or a freedman was assaulted, only half that composition. By the same law, if a Roman put a Frank in irons, he was liable to a composition of 30 sols; but if a Frank had thus used a Roman, he paid only 15. A Frank stripped by a Roman was entitled to a composition of 62½ sols, and a Roman stripped by a Frank received only 30.

The country at this day called France was, under the first race, governed by the Roman law, or the Theodosian code, and by the different laws of the barbarians who settled in these parts. In the country of the domain of the Franks, the Salic law was established for the Franks, and the Theodosian code for the Romans. If it be asked, how comes it to pass that the Salic laws gained almost a general authority in the country of the Franks, and the Roman law gradually declined; while in the jurisdiction of the Visigoths, the Roman law spread itself, and obtained at last a general sway?—Baron Montesquieu replies, that the Roman law came to be disused among the Franks, on account of the great advantages accruing from being a Frank, a barbarian, or a person living under the Salic law; every one, in that case, readily quitting the Roman to live under the Salic law. The clergy alone retained it, because a change could be of no advantage to them. The Roman law inflicted no hardships upon them, and in other respects it was most proper for them, as it was the work of Christian emperors. On the other hand, in the patrimony of the Visigoths, as the Visigoth law gave no civil advantages to the Visigoth, over the Romans, the latter had no temptation to discontinue living under their own law, in order to live under another. They retained, therefore, their own laws, without adopting those of the Visigoths. In Burgundy the Roman law was continued, in order to regulate the disputes of Romans among themselves. The latter had no inducement to quit their own law, as in the country of the Franks; and the rather as the Salic law was not established in Burgundy. The Roman and Gothic laws continued likewise in the country of the establishment of the Goths, where the Salic law was never received. The Salic, the Ripuarian, Burgundian, and Visigoth laws, came by degrees to be disused among the French, because, when fiefs became hereditary, and arrière-fiefs were extended, many usages were introduced, to which these laws were no longer applicable; and

and as France found itself divided into a number of petty lordships, which acknowledged rather a feudal than a political dependence, it was very difficult for only one law to be authorised. Accordingly the Salic, Burgundian, and Visigoth laws were extremely neglected at the end of the second race, and at the beginning of the third they were scarcely ever mentioned.

The Salic law, or that of the Salian Franks, differed in several respects from that of the Ripuarian Franks, and other barbarous nations. The Salic law did not allow of the custom of negative proofs; that is, if a person brought a demand or charge against another, he was obliged by the Salic law to prove it, and it was not sufficient for the accused to deny it; and this is agreeable to the laws of almost all the nations in the universe. In one case, however, this kind of proof was allowed; but even then they were not admitted alone, and without the concurrence of positive proofs. The plaintiff caused witnesses to be heard, in order to ground his action; the defendant also produced witnesses on his side; and the judge was to come at the truth by comparing these testimonies. The Salic law did not admit of the trial by combat; though it had been received by the laws of the Ripuarians, and of almost all the barbarous nations. The Salic law allowed of the ordeal or trial by boiling water, and as it was excessively cruel, the law found an expedient to soften its rigour; for it permitted the person, who had been summoned to this trial, to ransom his hand, with the consent of the adverse party. The decline and disuse of the Salic and Roman laws were partly, if not principally, owing to their not admitting judicial combats. That particular passage of the Salic law, which is commonly distinguished by the terms "the Salic law," has not any particular regard to the crown of France: it only imports, in the general, that, with regard to Salic land, no part of the inheritance shall fall to any female, but the whole to the male sex. "De terra Salica nulla portio hæreditatis mulieri veniat; sed ad virilem sexum tota terræ hæreditas perveniat." So that it is a popular error to suppose, that the Salic law was established purely on account of the succession of the crown; since it extends to private persons as much as those of the royal family.

Part of it seems to have been borrowed by our Henry I. ni compiling his laws, cap. 89. "Qui hoc fecerit, secundum legem Salicam moriatur."

By Salic lands, or inheritances, were anciently denoted all lands, by whatever tenure held, whether noble or base, from the succession to which women were excluded by the Salic law; for they were by it admitted to inherit nothing but moveables and purchases, whenever there were any males. Indieed, M. Fenelon observes, that "there were originally Salic lands, distinguished from all others, and destined for the military people of the nation; and to these the law was originally intended to be confined."

When the Franks lived in Germany, their wealth consisted of slaves, flocks, horses, arms, &c.; the house, and the small portion of land adjoining to it, were naturally given to the male children who were to dwell there. But afterwards, when the Franks had by conquest acquired large divisions of land, they thought it hard that the daughters and their children should be incapable of enjoying any part of them. They introduced a custom of permitting the father to recall his daughter, and her children. They silenced the law; and it appears that these recalls were frequent, since they were entered in the formularies.

The Salic law had not in view a preference of one sex to the other, much less had it a regard to the perpetuity of a family, a name, or the succession of land. These things did not enter into the heads of the Germans; it was purely a law of economy, which gave the house, and the land dependent on the house, to the males who should dwell in it, and to whom it consequently was of most service.

In proof of this we need only transcribe the title of the allodial lands of the Salic law:—

"1. If a man dies without issue, his father or mother shall succeed him. 2. If he has neither father nor mother, his brother or sister shall succeed him. 3. If he has neither brother nor sister, the sister of his mother shall succeed him. 4. If his mother has no sister, the sister of his father shall succeed him. 5. If his father has no sister, the nearest relation by the male shall succeed. 6. Not any part of the Salic land shall pass to the females; but it shall belong to the males, that is, the male children shall succeed their father."

It is plain that the first five articles relate to the inheritance of a man who dies without issue; and the sixth to the succession of him who has children.

When a man dies without children, the law ordains that neither of the two sexes shall have the preference to the other, except in certain cases. In the two first degrees of succession, the advantages of the males and females were the same; in the third and fourth, the females had the preference, and the males in the fifth.

The Salic law enjoins, that after the father's sister, the succession should be held by the nearest male relation; but if this relation was beyond the fifth degree, he should not inherit. Thus a woman of the sixth degree, might inherit to the prejudice of a male of the sixth: and this may be seen in the law of the Ripuarian Franks, (a faithful interpretation of the Salic law,) under the title of allodial lands, where it follows step by step the Salic law on the same subject.

If the father left issue, the Salic law would have the daughters excluded from the inheritance of the Salic land, and that it should belong to the male children.

It would be easy, says Montesquieu, to prove that the Salic law did not absolutely exclude the daughters from the possesion of the Salic land, but only in the case where they were excluded by their brothers. This appears from the Salic law itself; which, after having said that the women shall possess none of the Salic land, but only the males, interprets and restrains itself, by adding, "that is, the son shall succeed to the inheritance of the father."

After what has been said, one would not imagine that the perpetual succession of the males to the crown of France should have taken its rise from the Salic law. And yet this is a point indubitably certain. Montesquieu proves it from the several codes of the barbarous nations. The Salic law and the law of the Burgundians refused the daughters the right of succeeding to the land in conjunction with their brothers; neither did they succeed to the crown. The law of the Visigoths, on the contrary, permitted the daughters to inherit the land with the brothers; and the women were capable of inheriting the crown. Amongst these people the regulation of the civil law had an effect on the political.

This was not the only case in which the political law of the Franks gave way to the civil. By the Salic law all the brothers succeeded equally to the land, and this was also decreed by a law of the Burgundians. Thus in the kingdom of the Franks, and in that of the Burgundians, all the brothers succeeded to the crown; if we except a few murders and usurpations which took place amongst the Burgundians. *Spirit of Laws*, vols. i. and ii.

SALICARIA, in Botany, so called by Tournefort, from salix, a willow, because the most common species grows in willow-beds, or osier-holts, and sometimes bears the name of Willow-herb. See LYTHRUM.

SALICARIA, in Ornithology. See MOTACILLA SALICARIA.

SALICARIÆ, in Botany, a natural order of plants, the 91st in Jussieu's system, the 9th of his 14th class. The name of this order alludes to Lythrum Salicaria, one of the best known of the plants it contains, and the characters given by Jussieu are as follows:—

Calyx tubular, or pitcher-shaped. Petals definite, inserted into the top of the calyx, alternately with its segments; sometimes wanting. Stamens definite, (indefinite in Lagerstroemia and Munchausia), either the same number with the petals, or twice as many, inserted into the middle of the calyx;

SALICORNIA SALSOLA AND SAMOLUS.

1 2. *Salicornia herbacea.* 3 4. *Salsola hirsuta.* 5. *Samolus Valerandi.*

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1826.

calyx; anthers small. Germen simple superior; style one; stigma often capitate. Capsule encompassed with the calyx, of one or many cells, with numerous seeds, inserted into a central receptacle. Corculum destitute of albumen. Stem shrubby or herbaceous. Leaves opposite or alternate. Flowers axillary or terminal.

Section 1. Flowers polypetalous.—This consists of Lagerstroemia; Munchausia, justly suspected to be its congener; Pemphis of Forster, reduced by the younger Linnæus to Lythrum; Ginoria of Jacquin and Linnæus; Grislea; Lawsonia; Crehea of Aublet and Schreber; Lythrum; with Acisanthera, Parsonsia, and Cuphea of Browne, the former referred by Linnæus to Rhexia, the two latter to Lythrum.

Section 2. Flowers often apetalous. Isnardia; Ammannia; Glaux; and Peplis.—The order in question differs in several respects from some that agree with it in the insertion of its stamens and petals; as from Jussieu's Onagræ, and Myrti, in having a superior germen. Some of the Melastomæ come nearer to it in this respect; but have a different and peculiar structure of anthers. Jussieu doubts whether the genera constituting his second section might not be removed to the Portulaceæ.

SALICASTRUM, a name by which Pliny, and some other botanical authors, have called the solanum lignosum, the woody nightshade, or bitter sweet. Ger. Emac. Ind. 2.

SALICETO (Guglielmo de), a physician and surgeon of the 13th century, was a native of Placentia, and in holy orders. He appears to have resided for some time at Bologna, and finally to have received a public salary from Verona, where he died about 1277. This person was a learned and able practitioner for the time, and left writings which, for a long time, were regarded as of high authority, though composed in the barbarous style of the age. He copies much from Albucasis and others of his predecessors, yet has many things which appear the result of his own experience. Some of his chirurgical observations are valuable, but he is charged with having relied too much upon ointments and plaisters, and other topical applications. It is remarkable that he makes the distinction between the nerves destined to the voluntary, and to the vital or involuntary motions. He wrote both on medicine and on surgery. The first work, entitled "Summa Conservationis et Curationis" was first printed at Venice in 1489, folio. His "Chirurgia," a more noted work, has frequently been edited, and has been translated into French. *Friend Hist. Phys. Halleri Bibl. Chirurg. Eloy.*

SALICETTO, a small town in the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont, situated on a rising ground, near the Bormida. Population 3000; 16 miles east of Mondovi.

SALICHA, a name given by some of the old writers to cinnamon. Avicenna and Serapion use it for the bark we call cassia lignea, and the Greeks hylocasia, when stripped clean from the wood.

SALICI, a small town of Austrian Italy, in the Trevisan, on the river Livenza; 22 miles east-north-east of Treviso.

SALICINEA, a name used by Gessner, and some other authors, for the nardus celtica, or Celtic spikenard.

SALICORNIA [from *sal*, salt, and *cornu*, a horn], in Botany, a genus of the class monandria, order monogynia, natural order of holoraceæ, atriplices *(Juss)*.—Generic Character. Calyx four cornered, truncate, ventricose, permanent. Corolla none: Stamina: filaments one, (or two) simple, longer than the calyx. Anther oblong, twin, erect. Pistil: germ ovate-oblong. Style simple, under the stamen. Stigma bifid. Pericarp none. Calyx ventricose, inflated. Seed single.—*Essential Character.* Calyx ventricose, entire. Petals one. Stamina one or two. Seed one covered by the calyx.

1. Salicornia herbacea, herbaceous marsh sampire, or jointed glasswort.—Root fibrous, small, annual or biennial. Stem for the most part upright, subdivided at the base, branched at top: branches opposite, upright, very succulent, leaflets, joints flatted, widening at the end, emarginate. Spikes opposite, with one at the end larger than the rest, peduncled, round, gradually attenuated towards the top, sharpish, jointed. Flowers opposite, near together, mostly three on each side in the clefts of the joint. It has four varieties.—This plant is common on the coast of Europe, Asia, Africa, and America, where the shore is flat and oozy.

2. Salicornia perennans, or perennial jointed glasswort.—Herbaceous, patulous, joints compressed at the top emarginate-bifid, spikes axillary in threes peduncled, scales, acute, root perennial.—Native of Siberia, by the Jaik in dryish marshes.

3. Salicornia fruticosa, shrubby marsh sampire, or jointed glasswort.—Root woody, perennial. Stem suffruticose, ascending, very much branched; branches and branchlets opposite and less fleshy. Spikes sessile, altogether cylindric, blunt, many flowered, with very short joints.—Native of Europe and Africa, in the same situation. In England found near the Isle of Sheppy; and on the shore all the way from Weymouth turnpike to Rhodipole.

4. Salicornia strobilacea.—Stem prostrate shrubby, joints truncate alternately spike-bearing, spikes naked very short opposite.—Native of the Caspian sea.

5. Salicornia Virginica, or Virginian jointed glasswort.—Herbaceous erect, branches quite simple, undivided, terminated by a long jointed spike. It is distinct from the first species, which is also found in Virginia.

6. Salicornia Arabica, or Arabian jointed glasswort.—Joints obtuse thickened at the base, spikes ovate.—A shrub, with alternate divided branches. Leaves fleshy, blunt, covering the branchlets, opening on one side alternately.—Native of Arabia, and Barbary.

7. Salicornia foliata, or leafy jointed glasswort.—Leaves linear alternate embracing and decurrent.—A shrub, with alternate almost simple branches.—Native of Siberia.

8. Salicornia amplexicaulis, or clasping-leaved jointed glasswort.—Stem decumbent, frutescent at the base, a hand or little more in height, very much branched: branches from all the axils of the leaves, alternate, spreading, an inch and half long, two together very near each other. Leaves small, alternate, beneath convex, above flattish; on the younger branches imbricate.—Native of the kingdom of Tunis.

9. Salicornia Caspica, or Caspian jointed glasswort.—Joints cylindric, spikes filiform.—In muddy lands by the Caspian sea, and in Media.

SA'LIENT, *adj.* [*saliens*, Lat.] Leaping; bounding; moving by leaps.—The legs of both sides moving together, as frogs, and *salient* animals, is properly called leaping. *Brown.*—Beating; panting.

A *salient* point, so first is call'd the heart,
By turns dilated, and by turns comprest,
Expels and entertains the purple guest. *Blackmore.*

Springing or shooting with a quick motion.

Who best can send on high
The *saliant* spout, far streaming to the sky. *Pope.*

SALIGNAC, a small town in the south-west of France, in the department of the Dordogne. Population 1200; 8 miles north-east of Sarlat, and 33 south-east of Perigueux.

SA'LIGOT, *s.* [*saligot*, Fr. *Cotgrave.*] Water-thistle. See TRIBULUS AQUATICUS.

SALII, priests of Mars, of whom there were twelve instituted by Numa, for preserving the brazen shield which was said to have fallen down from heaven, in the eighth year of the reign of Numa, for the relief and safety of Rome, against a raging pestilence; and also those other eleven shields made so much to resemble this, that they could not be distinguished from one another. These priests wore painted parti-coloured garments, and high bonnets, with a steel cuirass on the breast.

They had their name Salii from *saltare*, to dance; because, after assisting at sacrifices, they went dancing about the streets with ancilia, or bucklers, in the left hand, and a rod in their right, striking musically on one another's bucklers with their rods, and singing hymns in honour of the gods. Their great feast was kept in the month of March, when they carried their sacred charge about the city. They also carried about the ancilia whenever a just war had been proclaimed by order of the senate against any state or people, supposing that by this means they secured the patronage and succour of Mars.

Mars. There were two companies or colleges of the Salii; the ancient, established by Numa, called Palatina; the latter, by Tullus Hostilius, called Collini and Agonales. Though Servius tells us there were two kinds instituted by Numa, the Collini and Quirinales; and two others, by Tullus, the Pavorii and Palorii.

In singing, they used a peculiar ancient song, called *Saliare Carmen;* and after the ceremony they were entertained with a feast; whence *Saliares Epulæ*, and *Saliares Dapes*, passed into a proverb for good eating.

Their chief, called *præsul*, and *magister Saliorum*, was one of their number. It was he that led the band, and began the dance; the rest imitating all his steps and motions. The whole company was called *Collegium Saliorum*.

Sext. Pompeius makes mention of *Salian maids, virgines Saliares*, hired for the purpose, and joined with the Salii, wearing a kind of military garb, called *paludamentum*, with high round bonnets like the Salii, and like them performing sacrifices with the pontifices in the palaces of kings.

SALIM, a river of Asiatic Russia, which falls into the Obi; 60 miles west of Sourgout.

SALIMBENI (Ventura), was born at Sienna, in 1557, and was instructed in the art of painting by his father Archangelo Salimbeni, a painter of considerable note in that city. He afterwards travelled through various parts of Italy to cultivate and improve his talents, by the study which the works of other and greater masters afforded him; and particularly attached himself to the Lombard school. At Rome he applied his time to the study of the antique, and perfected himself in design to a considerable degree of excellence.

He had a ready invention, with much elegance and taste, but lacked expression. His colouring is agreeable and harmonious, and he had considerable skill in the management of the chiaro-scuro. The principal testimonies of his art are preserved at Rome, Florence, Genoa, and his native city of Sienna; and his smaller works are not uncommon in this country. At Wilton, is one of much value, representing the descent of the Holy Ghost. This master is generally known in Italy under the name of Bevilagna; the cardinal Bonifacio Bevilagna, who was his patron, having given it to him. He died in 1613, aged 56.

SALINA, or SALINI, anciently *Didyma*, one of the Lipari islands, in the Tuscan sea, belonging to Naples. Though only 15 miles in circuit, it is, next to Lipari, the largest of the group. Like the rest of these islands, it is volcanic, but fertile and populous. Its products are olive-oil, wine, and fruit. It takes its name from a lake, or shallow maritime inlet, on its south-east coast, in which large quantities of salt are made by evaporation; 25 miles north-by-west of cape Bianco, in Sicily.

SALINA, a post township and village of the United States, in Onondaga county, New York. Onondaga lake, and the principal salt springs and salt works of the state, are in this town. In 1810, these works produced 435,840 bushels of salt. The village contained in 1812, 90 dwelling-houses, and about 80 houses for the manufacture of salt; 36 miles south-south-east of Oswego, and 130 west of Albany. Population 1257.—The village of Liverpool, which had in 1812 about 80 houses, is 3 miles north of the village of Salina.

SALINA, a township of the United States, in Randolph county, Illinois.

SALINA, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Tunja. It is also the name of another settlement in Quito.

SALINA, a large lake of the island of St. Christopher, in the West Indies.

SALINA, a large lake of the island of Martinique.—It is also the name of two other lakes in Guadaloupe, and one in St. Domingo: also of another in the province and government of Buenos Ayres.

SALINA, a bay of Peru, on the coast of the province of Chancay.

SALINA, a point of land on the south coast of the island of St. Domingo, between the bay of Ocoa and the point of Nizao.

SALINA, a point of land on the north coast of the island of St. Domingo, with the surname of Pequena.

SALINAS (Francis), a native of Burgos, in Spain, was blind from his infancy, having, as he says, sucked in that calamity with the infected milk of his nurse. His parents, soon perceiving that the study of music might be pursued by him in spite of this misfortune, had him taught very early to sing, and play upon the organ. It was by mere accident that he acquired any knowledge in the learned languages; for while he was a boy, a young woman, celebrated for her knowledge in the Latin tongue, and who was going to take the veil, having a great desire to learn to play on the organ, came to his father's house, and, in return for the lessons which she received from Salinas in music, taught him Latin. He was afterwards introduced in the king's palace to Peter Sarmentus, archbishop of Compostella, who received and treated him very kindly, and who being soon after created a cardinal, carried Salinas with him to Rome. Here he had not only an opportunity of conversing with the learned, but of consulting ancient manuscripts, particularly those on music, in the Greek language, which have been since published by Meibomius and Dr. Wallis. In these studies he spent thirty years; when the death of his patrons, cardinal Carpensis, cardinal Burgos, and the viceroy of Naples, by whom, he says, he was more beloved than enriched, determined him to return to Spain, to pass the remainder of his days in humble obscurity: but, on his arrival at Salamanca, he was appointed public professor of music, and read lectures in that university both on the theory and practice of the art. However, by his long study of Boethius, as well as the ancient Greek theorists, his doctrines seem to have been chiefly speculative, and confined to calculations of ratios, divisions of the monochord, systems of temperament, and the musical pedantry of the times, without bestowing a thought upon harmony, modulation, or even melody; except such as the ecclesiastical modes and species of octave supplied.

However, the treatise upon music written by Salinas is not only scarce, but, on many accounts, valuable; as it is written with clearness by a practical musician, who satisfactorily explains several parts of ancient music, which, though of little use to the modern, will at least gratify the curious; and though he treats of sects and subtilties, concerning which the present students, either in the theory or practice of the art, are not much interested; yet this work entitled "Francisci Salinæ Burgensis, abbatis Sancti Pancratii de Rocca Scalegna in regno Neapolitano, et in academia Salmanticensi Musicæ professoris, de Musica libri septem, in quibus ejus doctrinæ veritas tam quæ ad Harmoniam, quàm quæ ad Rhythmum pertinet, juxta sensus ac rationis indicium ostenditur, et demonstratur. Salamanticæ, 1577," is the completest work on ancient music in existence.

SALINAS, a small town of the north-east of Spain, in Guipuscoa; 18 miles north-east of Vittoria, and 32 south-south-west of St. Sebastian. Here is a very rich salt spring.

SALINAS, a cape on the south coast of the island of Majorca. Lat. 39. 16. N. long 3. 0. E.

SALINAS, a settlement of Peru, in the province of Santa Cruz de la Sierra. Lat. 18. 0. S.—There are several other missionary settlements of the same name in South America, mostly inconsiderable.

SALINAS, a river of the province of Venezuela, in the New Kingdom of Granada, which runs south, and enters the Gamalotal.

SALINAS, a point of land on the coast of the Pacific ocean, and in the province of Choco, to the north of Cape Corientes.

SALINAS, a point on the south-west coast of the island of St. Christopher.—2d. A point on the south-west coast of the island of Martinique.—3d. A point on the coast of the province of Pava, in Brazil.—4th. A point in the kingdom of Quito, and province of Guayaquil, being the extremity of the west coast of the island of Puna.

SALINAS, a bay on the south-west coast of the island of Martinique.

SALINAS BAY,

SALINAS BAY, a bay on the coast of Peru; 60 miles north of Callao. Lat. 11. 12. S.

SALINAS BAY, a large bay of the Pacific ocean, on the coast of Costa Rica. Lat. 10. N. long. 85. 36. W.

SALINAS BAY, a bay on the coast of Brazil. Vessels come here for salt. Salinas Shoals lie to the north. Lat. 5. S. long. 36. W.

SALINAS, Cape, a cape on the north coast of South America. Lat. 10. 40. N. long. 62. 16. W.

SALINAS, Cape, or de Salines. See Salines, Point de.

SALINA'TION, *s.* [*salinator*, Lat. a salt-maker.] Act of washing with salt liquor. *A bad word.*—We read in Plutarch, that Phillippus Libertus washed the body of Pompey with salt water, which perhaps might be either because it was more abstersive, or that it helped to prevent putrefaction; and it is not improbable the Egyptians might have been accustomed to wash the body with the same pickle they used in *salination*, — in order to preserving and embalming it. *Greenhill.*

SALINE, a parish of Scotland, in the western extremity of Fife; about 7 miles long from east to west, and 6 broad at the middle. Population 1072.

SALINE, a village in the above parish, lying on the road from Dunferline to Auchterarder. It contains 200 inhabitants.

SALINE, a township of the United States, in Gallia county, Ohio. Population 262.

SALINE, a river of the United States, in Illinois, which flows into the Ohio; 26 miles below the Wabash. It is navigable for boats 30 miles. The United States have extensive salt-works on this river, 20 miles from its mouth by the river, but only 10 in a right line. Between 200,000 and 300,000 bushels of salt are annually made at these works. It is sold at the works for from 50 to 100 cents. a bushel. They are 12 miles west of Shawneetown.

SALINE, a river of the United States, in the north-west point of the state of Louisiana, which flows south, and unites with Black Lake river; 8 miles north-east of Natchitoches. There are salt works on this river, about 25 miles north-north-east of Natchitoches.

SALINE, a river of the United States, in the Missouri territory, which runs into the Ouachitta or Washita. Lat. 33. 10. N.

SALINE, or Salt, a river of the United States, in Louisiana, which runs into the Missouri; 173 miles west of the Mississippi.

SALINE RIVER, a river of the United States, in Louisiana, which falls into the Republican fork, one of the tributary streams of the Kanses river, and so designated by Captain Pike, who explored this part of the country in 1806, on account of the saltness of its water, which was so great, that it salted sufficiently the meat which was boiled in it.

SALI'NE, or Sali'nous, *adj.* [*salinus*, Lat.] Consisting of salt; constituting salt.—We do not easily ascribe their induration to cold; but rather unto *salinous* spirits and concretive juices. *Brown.*—As the substance of coagulations is not merely *saline*, nothing dissolves them but what penetrates and relaxes at the same time. *Arbuthnot.*

SALINE-EARTHS, such earths as have a mixture of salt in their composition. This embraces nearly all earths.

SALINE-MIXTURE, a mixture used in medicine; so called, because it is made with the salt called tartrite of soda.

SALINELLO, a small river in the north of the kingdom of Naples, in the Abruzzo Ultra. It falls into the gulph of Venice.

SALINES, a village of the United States, in the Missouri territory, on the west bank of the Mississippi; 4 miles below St. Genevieve. It is noted for salt-works.

SALINES, Point de, or Point Salinas, a cape on the south coast of Hispaniola. Lat. 18. 8. N. long. 71. 48. W.

SALING, Great, a parish of England, in Essex; 4½ miles north-west of Braintree.

SALINO, a river in the north of the kingdom of Naples, in the Abruzzio Ultra. It falls into the gulf of Venice.

SALINS, a considerable town in the east of France, in the department of the Jura, on the small river Furieuse. It is tolerably well built, and fortified and defended by two forts. Its population amounts to 8200. The culture of the vine is carried on in the vicinity, and a traffic takes place in the town, in wine and brandy; but the principal article of export is salt, obtained by boiling from the brine springs, from which the town takes its name. These works are extensive, and engage the attention of most travellers. The Abbé d'Olivet, a well known critic and grammarian, was a native of this place; 22 miles south of Besançon. Lat. 46. 57. N. long. 5. 56. E.

SALIQUE. See Salic.

SALISBURIA [a name adopted by Sir J. Smith in commemoration of one Salisbury], in Botany, a genus of the class monoecia, order polyandria.—Generic Character. Male flowers. Calyx: ament naked, filiform. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments many. Anthers incumbent, deltoid; cells connected only at the top. Female flowers solitary. Calyx: perianth four-cleft, permanent. Corolla: none. Pistil: pericarp, drupe superior, globular. Seed. Nut triangular: nucleus oval, narrowed at the base.—*Essential Character.* Male ament. Anthers incumbent, deltoid. Female solitary. Calyx four cleft. Drupe, with a triangular shell.

1. Salisburia adiantifolia.—This large and not inelegant tree is cultivated in China and Japan. It has been long (upwards of eighty years) admired for its handsome fan-shaped leaves, cloven about half way from their summit; but they can by no means be termed two-lobed, that denomination requiring that the segments should be rounded. These leaves are also irregularly notched like those of the Zamiæ, thickened at the margin, smooth, striated on each side with numerous parallel nerves.

The fruit is a pale-brown drupe, of a globular form; the flesh or pulp hard and thick; the shell is thin, bony, oval, triangular, smooth, sharp at the top and one-celled; the seed or kernel solitary, filling the shell, having two coats, brown and membranous, one adhering to the shell, the other to the seed; albumen greenish-white, of the same form with the seed, like that of the almond; embryo yellow, inserted into the base of the albumen, straight, picotyledonous. The fruit is not produced till the tree arrives at a considerable age.

SALISBURY, or New Sarum, an ancient city of England, in the hundred of Underditch, and county of Wilts, is situated near the river Avon, at the distance of 83 miles west-south-west from London. It is divided, with respect to jurisdiction, and also by an inclosure wall, into two distinct portions; the City, properly so called, and the Liberty of the Close; the latter of which comprehends the cathedral, and buildings attached to it, and is subject exclusively to the authority of the bishop, and the dean and canons. The city is governed by a mayor and corporation, and comprises three parishes, viz., St. Edmund's, St. Martin's, and St. Thomas's.

Salisbury is one of the few cities or towns of ancient times, whose origin is precisely defined by authentic records. Indeed, we question if there is another city in Europe, the early history of which is so free from doubt and uncertainty. The nucleus, from whose attraction it sprung into existence, was its cathedral, which was founded in 1220, in consequence of a bull from pope Honorius to bishop Richard Poore, authorizing him to remove the seat of his diocese from Old Sarum, where the former cathedral church stood. The reasons assigned for this change were the lofty, exposed, and inconvenient position of the ancient city, and the circumstance of its being a fortified post, garrisoned by military tenants, who not only frequently insulted the clergy in the exercise of their worship, but levied upon them contributions and exactions. The same causes had previously operated to induce many of the citizens to build in the valley; so that no sooner was the new cathedral begun, than the anxiety to free themselves from the tyrannic controul of

of the soldiery occasioned a rapid and general removal. To this disposition, as might be supposed, the bishop gave all the facility and encouragement in his power. He obtained from king Henry III. a charter constituting the new establishment a free city, and conferring upon the inhabitants the same privileges and immunities which the ancient city of Winchester enjoyed. This deed bears date at Westminster, the 30th of January, in the 11th year of that monarch's reign; and among other rights therein granted to the bishop, it empowers him to surround the city and close with ditches, and to alter and repair the roads and bridges leading to it; as also to levy tallage, as often as the reigning monarch should tallage his dominions. These respective privileges were confirmed by king Edward I. in the 13th year of his reign; but in the thirty-third year of the same king, a violent dispute arose between the bishop and the citizens, relative to the payment of some aid demanded by the former. Both parties appealed to the king in council, who, after a full hearing, decided against the citizens, whereupon they delivered up their charters, and thus degraded Salisbury from the rank of a city. After the lapse of a year, however, the inhabitants, perceiving that ruin and dispersion would result from longer opposition, solicited the bishop to come to an agreement with them, which he accordingly did, and afterwards joined them in soliciting the restoration of their ancient charters, and the re-establishment of their pristine rights. This request the king was prevailed upon to grant; and an amicable adjustment of all differences consequently took place. It was not, however, of very long duration, for in the reign of Richard II., when the doctrines of Wickliffe began to be propagated in England, the bishop, having in vain applied to the mayor and commonalty to suppress some meetings of the Lollards, instituted an action against them, in which it was decided that they should aid the bishop's officers in the execution of the episcopal decrees. From this period open hostility between the citizens and the ecclesiastical community ceased; but as their respective rights were still undefined, James I. granted to the inhabitants a new charter, confirming all their former privileges, and regulating the duties and powers of the cathedral officers. This charter was renewed by queen Anne, with some additional clauses relative to the election and province of the deputy recorder; and under this the city is now governed. The corporation consists of fifty-six members, viz., a mayor, recorder, and his deputy, twenty-four aldermen, and thirty assistants. The mayor is elected annually from among the aldermen or assistants, and is sworn into office by the bishop in his court; or, in his absence, by the recorder in council. The other officers of the corporation are a chamberlain, town-clerk, three serjeants-at-mace, two beadles, four constables, and thirteen sub-constables. There is besides an honorary officer established by custom, called the high steward, who is always a nobleman or gentleman of property and influence in the county. The present high steward is the Earl of Pembroke, who has a splendid seat at Wilton, about three miles westward from the city. The recordership is also a dignified office, and is now held by the Earl of Radnor.

Salisbury was first represented in Parliament in the twenty-third year of the reign of Edward I., when it was summoned to send two burgesses to assist in the national councils, and has done so regularly ever since. The members are elected by the corporation, one from among the citizens, and the other through the influence of the Bouverie family. The mayor makes the returns under the great seal of the city. The chief manufactures of Salisbury are cutlery goods, flannels, and fancy woollens. Markets are held here twice a-week, on Tuesdays and Saturdays, for various articles of merchandize and all sorts of provisions; and there are fairs on the Tuesday after the 6th of January, Tuesday after the 25th of March, Whit-Monday, second Tuesday in September, second Tuesday after 10th of October, and Tuesday before Christmas day. Leland informs us that in his time the market of Salisbury was "well served of flesch, but far better of fisch, for a great (part) of the principal fisch that is taken from Tamar to Hampton resortith to this toun." This statement appears singular, considering the inland position of Salisbury; but as it is corroborated in several old writings, there is no reason to doubt its truth.

The ground upon which the city of Salisbury stands, from its situation in a broad vale, near the junction of three rivers, possesses many advantages for the site of a populous town. The soil is a fine black mould, lying on a substratum of gravel, which forms a dry and firm foundation for buildings; while the numerous artificial streams that flow through almost every street are at once highly beneficial to health and cleanliness, and are calculated to facilitate many processes of manufacturing industry. These streams are supplied by means of sluices from the river Avon; and as the principal streets lie at right angles, they not unfrequently flow across each other. From this peculiarity of being watered by so many rivulets, Salisbury most probably possesses more bridges than any city in Europe, not even Venice excepted. Of the two divisions called the close and the city, the first, which is appropriated to, and occupied by, the cathedral, the bishop's palace, the deanery, prebendal houses, and some handsome private dwellings, holden chiefly under the bishop and chapter, comprises an area of about half a mile square; while the connected part of the city extends above three-quarters of a mile from north to south, and, including the street of Fisherton, nearly as much from east to west. This portion has five different streets running in the former direction, and the same number in the latter, all at right angles with each other; so that the spaces between them are nearly regular and uniform. Each space constitutes a square, and is occupied by a series of houses, abutting on the streets, the middle area being appropriated to gardens, yards, &c. By this arrangement, there are scarcely any alleys or narrow lanes, which, in large towns and cities, are commonly the receptacles of filth, and consequently pernicious to health. Most of the houses are constructed of brick; but there are a few also built of timber, which are in general very irregular, both as to size and shape. The public buildings may be divided into classes, as they are respectively situated in the close and in the city. Those within the close are the cathedral, the bishop's palace, and the college of matrons.

History and Description of the Cathedral.—The cathedral, as already stated, was begun to be built by bishop Richard Poore, under the authority of pope Honorius, and with the consent of king Henry III., who was invited, together with all the chief nobility and ecclesiastics of the kingdom, to attend the ceremony of its foundation. A great number of dignified persons, and a vast concourse of the inferior orders of society, were present at the solemn spectacle, which took place on the 28th of April, in the year 1220. William de Wanda, who was precentor of Salisbury cathedral at the time of its translation, and afterwards dean, has left a manuscript account of the early events relating to this church, and from which the following particulars are derived. The ceremony began by the performance of divine service, after which the bishop and the other clergy of the church, walked in procession to the scite of the intended new structure, where a sermon was addressed to the people, exhorting them to contribute towards its erection. Then the first stone was laid by the bishop for pope Honorius; the second for the archbishop of Canterbury; and the third for himself; the fourth was laid by William Longspee, earl of Sarum; and the fifth by his countess Ela, a lady of distinguished piety. After her, certain noblemen added each a stone, and were followed in the same act by the dean and canons, and many others. Several of the absent nobility also, on their return from attending the king in Wales, came to Salisbury, and laid a stone, binding themselves to advance specific sums of money annually for seven years, upon similar terms to those which the dean and chapter had previously agreed to with respect to their own advances.

The cathedral having been thus commenced under favour-

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able auspices, the building of it proceeded with such rapidity, that in less than five years a portion of it was ready for the celebration of divine service. Three altars were, in consequence, consecrated on the vigil of St. Michael, in the year 1225; one to the honour of the Holy Trinity and All-Saints; a second to St. Peter and the Apostles; and a third to St. Stephen, and the rest of the martyrs. On this occasion, many valuable donations were offered on the altars; among the rest, a text of the bible, set with precious stones, and the relics of many saints, which appears to have been preserved here till the period of the Reformation, as it is mentioned in the inventory made by the commissioners of Henry VIII. In 1226, William Longspee, earl of Sarum, having died, was buried in the new cathedral, having been the first person who was so honoured: and in the same year the bodies and tombs of three bishops, St. Osmund, Roger, and Josceline, were removed hither from the church at Old Sarum. Soon after this event, bishop Poore was translated, by a papal bull, to the see of Durham, when Robert Bingham was elected his successor, and was consecrated at Wilton, in 1229. Like the illustrious founder, he prosecuted the building of the cathedral with great ardour; but though he sat eighteen years, it was far from being finished at the time of his death, which happened in 1246. William of York, who next obtained the prelacy, rendered himself extremely unpopular by reviving the vexations of attending the lords' courts. He died in 1256, and was succeeded by Egidius, or Giles de Bridport, in whose time the great work of the cathedral was brought to a close, as far, at least, as was at first intended; for the spire, which was subsequently erected, is said to have been an after-thought, and to have formed no part of the original design. Bishop Godwin states, that it was dedicated by Boniface, archbishop of Canterbury, Sept. 30, 1258, in the presence of king Henry III.; but Wanda says, that the king could not attend, being engaged at Shrewsbury. The cost of the erection of the whole edifice, as appeared from an account then delivered to the king, was 40,000 marks.

Bishop Bridport had scarcely survived four years after the completion of the cathedral, when he died, and left the vacant see to Walter de la Wyle, who founded the college of St. Edmund's in this city. He died, Jan. 3d, 1270, and was succeeded by Robert de Wikhampton, the dean, whose election was violently opposed by archbishop Kilwardy; but he was nevertheless finally compelled to consecrate him, in 1274. This prelate died in 1284, when Walter Scammel was chosen bishop, but did not enjoy his dignity above two years. His successor was Henry de Braundston, who lived only a few months after his election. He was succeeded by Laurence de Hawkburn, who likewise died before he was confirmed; his nomination having been disputed by William de la Corner, his successor. This prelate was consecrated May 14th, 1289, and, dying in 1291, had, for his successor, Nicholas Longspee, son of William Longspee, earl of Sarum, and his countess Ela. Previous to his elevation to the see, he held the office of treasurer of the cathedral; and having been far advanced in life, he sat only six years, during which period nothing remarkable occurred. He died in 1297, when Simon de Gandavo, or Gaunt, was consecrated bishop, and enjoyed the prelacy till his death, in 1315. This bishop empowered the mayor and citizens of Salisbury, to fortify the city with a wall and ditch. His successor was Roger de Mortival, dean of Lincoln and chancellor of Oxford, who died in 1329, and was succeeded by Robert Wyvil, whom Walsingham characterises as one of the most deformed, ugly, and illiterate men of his age. He instituted, in 1355, a suit against William de Montecute, earl of Sarum, claiming the castle of Old Sarum, as the inheritance of the bishops of Salisbury, in right of bishop Roger, from whom he alleged it had been unjustly wrested by king Stephen. So difficult of determination did this point appear, that the judges left it to be decided by single combat; but the king interposed his authority, and the matter was compromised by the surrender of the castle for the sum of 2500 marks. Wyvil also recovered for his church Beerewood and Sherborne castles, the latter of which had been constructed by bishop Roger, and had shared the fate of the fortress of Old Sarum. This prelate died in 1375, when Ralph Erghum was consecrated bishop, by the nomination of the pope, in opposition to John de Wormenshall, who had been elected by the canons, and had received the approbation of the king. He sat twelve years, after which he was translated to the see of Bath and Wells, by a papal bull. On his removal, John Waltham, or Waltan, master of the rolls, and keeper of the privy seal to king Richard II. succeeded, and continued in the enjoyment of all his dignities till his death, in 1395. Richard Metford was the next prelate of his see, having been translated hither from Chichester in the same year. He died in 1407, when Nicholas Bubwith obtained the see, but was soon afterwards removed to the bishopric of Bath and Wells, and invested with the dignity of treasurer of England. Upon this event, Robert Hallam was advanced to the vacant prelacy; but in less than two years afterwards, he was nominated to the dignity of a cardinal, and deputed to assist at the council of Pisa, convened in 1413. He was likewise present at the council of Constance, in 1417, and died in the month of September in that year. His successor in the see of Salisbury, was John Chandler, the dean, who presided ten years, and was followed by Robert Neville, founder of the monastery of Sunning, in Berkshire. He was removed to the see of Durham, in 1427, and William Aiscough, or Hacliff, succeeded to the bishopric of Salisbury. This prelate fell a victim to the barbarity of his own tenants, who, taking part in Jack Cade's rebellion, stoned him to death, and pillaged his palace at Eddington, on the 29th of June, 1450. Richard Beauchamp next obtained the see, having been translated hither from that of Hereford, by a papal bull. Godwin affirms, that this bishop was the first chancellor of the Garter; but Dr. Milner, in his "History of Winchester," with more probability, claims that honour for William de Eddington, one of the bishops of that diocese. Beauchamp built a chapel on the south side of the Lady chapel, in Salisbury cathedral. His death happened in 1481, when Lionel Woodville succeeded, but scarcely survived his elevation four years. He was son to Richard Woodville, earl Rivers, and brother to Elizabeth, consort of Edward IV. On his death, in 1484, Thomas Langton, bishop of St. David's, was translated to Salisbury, and presided nine years, and at length was removed to the bishopric of Winchester. His successor was John Blythe, who received consecration in 1493, and was appointed chancellor of Oxford the year following. He died in 1499, leaving the vacant see to Henry Deane, bishop of Bangor, who, about a year afterwards, was nominated Lord Chancellor of England, and Archbishop of Canterbury. These preferments were bestowed upon him by king Henry VII., whose interest he had materially promoted in his capacity of Chancellor of Ireland, by crushing the rebellion of Perkin Warbeck. He departed this life, in 1502, when Edmund Audley was preferred to the see of Sarum. This prelate founded and built an elegant chapel, or chantry, in his cathedral, and erected a stone pulpit in the church of St. Mary, in Salisbury. His death happened in 1524, and made way for Cardinal Laurence Campeggio, the pope's legate in England, whither he had been dispatched from Rome to induce king Henry VIII. to join the confederation of Christian princes against the Turks. He afterwards was again sent to this country to sit as judge with Cardinal Wolsey, on the question of the king's divorce from Catharine of Arragon; which proved the occasion of his being deprived of his see of Salisbury by the king, who conferred it on Nicholas Shaxton, in 1535. The latter, however, did not long enjoy it, having been ejected for non-conformity, in 1539, when John Salcot, or Capon, was translated to this bishopric from Bangor, and held it till his death, in 1557. His successor was John Peto, who was appointed by pope Paul IV., in opposition to Cardinal Pole, the favourite of Queen Mary. Her majesty, irritated at this measure, not only refused Peto possession of his bishopric, but banished him from her dominions, and he

he died in exile. John Jewel next obtained this prelacy. He was a man of great talents and erudition, and strenuously advocated the cause of Protestantism, in the tenets of which he had been educated. He terminated his mortal existence at Monkton-Farley, in Wiltshire, on the 22d of September, 1571, and gave place to Edmund Guest, or Gheast, who presided seven years, and was a great benefactor to the cathedral library. His death occurred in 1578, and, in the same year, John Piers was translated hither from Rochester. He held this see ten years, and was then preferred to the archbishopric of York, in 1589, from which time the prelacy remained vacant for three years, when John Caldwell obtained it. This prelate is remarkable for having been the first married bishop of Sarum. He sat five years, and was succeeded, after a lapse of two years, by Henry Cotton, who died in 1615, and made way for Richard Abbot, a celebrated lecturer in support of the royal authority, in opposition to Bellarmine and Suarez. This bishop died in 1617, and had for his successor, Martin Fotherby, D.D., who being far advanced in age, scarcely held the see a complete year, before his death. A similar fate happened to his successor, Robert Tounson, who was succeeded by John Davenant, his brother-in-law, a prelate of great abilities, and an adept in controversial argumentation. He died in 1641, when Brian Duppa, tutor to prince Charles, was elevated to the see. After the death of king Charles I. he resided privately at Richmond, till the Restoration, an event which again put him in possession of his bishopric; but he died in less than two years afterwards. His successor was Henry Henchman, a strenuous supporter of the Stuart cause, who presided three years, and was then advanced to the see of London. During his prelacy, considerable alterations were made in the form and decorations of the choir. John Earle next held this bishopric, a man highly extolled by his contemporaries for his learning and wit. He was author of "Microcosmography, or a Piece of the World displayed," which has lately been republished, with notes and an appendix, by Philip Bliss, Fellow of St. John's College, Oxford. Earle died at Oxford, in 1665, and was succeeded by Edward Hyde, a native of Salisbury, who scarcely survived two years. The next bishop was the celebrated Seth Ward, by whom the cathedral and bishop's palace were materially repaired, and through whose influence the chancellorship of the Garter was made hereditary in the bishops of Salisbury. In his time, the spire of the cathedral was struck by lightning, and apprehensions being entertained of its stability, on account of its remarkable declension from the perpendicular, Sir Christopher Wren was engaged by the bishop to survey the whole structure, and draw up a report on the state of its architecture. This prelate further founded the College of Matrons, situated in the Close, and likewise engaged in a warm controversy with dean Pierce, respecting the right of bestowing prebends. His death occurred in 1689, when Gilbert Burnet, equally celebrated for his political conduct and his historical writings, obtained the vacant see, and held it till 1715. The succeeding bishop was William Talbot, whose death, in 1730, made room for Richard Willis, then bishop of Gloucester. The latter died in 1734, and in the same year, the far-famed Benjamin Hoadley, bishop of Bangor, one of the most distinguished polemical writers of his own, or perhaps any other age, was consecrated Bishop of Salisbury. The Bangorian controversy is familiar to every ecclesiastical reader. He presided at Salisbury twelve years before his removal to Winchester, at which time Thomas Sherlock was installed in his place, and likewise attracted notice by his controversial writings. His successors were John Gilbert, afterwards Archbishop of York; John Thomas, who was translated to Winchester; Robert Drummond, who was promoted to York; a second John Thomas, who died here in 1766; John Hume, who died in 1782; and the Hon. Shute Barrington, Bishop of Durham, during whose prelacy extensive improvements were executed in the internal arrangement and ornaments of the cathedral, and also in the bishop's palace and gardens. On his removal, John Douglas, D.D., the able detector of Lauder's forgeries against Milton, was nominated to the bishopric, which he held till 1805, when he died, and was succeeded by John Fisher, D.D. and F.S.A., preceptor to the Princess Charlotte of Wales.

The cathedral of Salisbury is admitted by all, who are capable of appreciating architectural merit, to be one of the most interesting ecclesiastical edifices in Europe, combining the qualities of simplicity and harmony of design, with beauty of proportion and chasteness of decoration. In its parts, it displays the utmost lightness and elegance, and, as a whole, is grand and impressive, without being gloomy. Though slight variations of style are perceptible in some of its members, particularly in the west front, tower and spire, these nevertheless harmonize so well with the general character of the building, that even were record wanting to authenticate the fact, the intelligent artist would immediately recognize it as the work of one period, and the result of a determinate and settled plan. The church consists of a nave, with two lateral aisles; a bold and lofty porch, projecting on the north side, near the west end; a large transept, with an eastern aisle; a choir, with lateral aisles, and a second, or small transept, with an aisle; a chapel at the east end, with an intermediate vestibule or double aisle terminating the choir; and a lofty tower and spire, which rise from the intersection of the great transept. To the south of the church are appended the cloister, chapter-house, consistory-court, and vestry. Such are the chief portions, or features, of this edifice, but it will be proper to describe some parts more particularly. The west front is separated into five compartments, longitudinally, and several irregular parts horizontally. Four large buttresses, ornamented with niches, statues, &c., project from the elevation. In the central compartment, at the bottom, between two of the buttresses, is a portico, consisting of three arches, one of which faces the chief entrance, and communicates with the nave of the church; over this is a series of arcades with acute canopies, and above them a large window, formed by a lofty pointed arch in the centre, and a smaller one on each side. The upper division, or pediment, displays two windows, with two lights in each, also three circular windows or pannels. To the right and left of the centre portico, is another similar one, but smaller, and over each are five different compartments of windows, blank arches, &c. Both angles of this front are supported by square turrets, having their exteriors covered with columns, canopies, tracery, and pedestals; and their interiors occupied by stair-cases, surmounted by a central spire, and four corner pinnacles. Each transept is divided, in elevation, into four compartments, with acute pediments in the centre, and pinnacles at the angles. A series of double windows are continued all round the aisles, while the upper division or portion over the roof of the aisles is lighted by a continued series of windows, of three openings to each. The tower above the roof of the church consists of two divisions, variously decorated with pilasters, canopies, &c., and crowned with four octangular crocketted pinnacles from the centre, between which rises the spire, whose summit is 404 feet above the level of the ground. The style of architecture, in this member of the church, is more elaborate than in most of its other parts, and hence it is generally thought to have been executed at a somewhat later period. That a structure so lofty, and so light and tapering in its construction, as this spire, should have swerved 22⅜ inches from the perpendicular, in the course of five centuries, is not surprising; but when the narrowness of its base is considered, it seems astonishing that it has stood for so many ages. The fact of its having done so, is a conclusive proof of the talents of the architect, and the skill of the mason, as well as of the excellence of the materials which compose it. To raise such a mass of stone, was at once an arduous and dangerous experiment, and demanded the highest application of science in its design, and the greatest energy and courage in its execution.

The cloisters and chapter-house, as before noticed, are situated on the south side of the church. The former are covered with a lofty vaulted ceiling, and are separated from the

the square area in the centre by a series of unglazed windows. On the eastern side a vestibule forms a communication with the chapter-house, which is a lofty, light, and elegant piece of architecture, of an octagonal form, and supported in the centre by a small clustered column. A stone seat surrounds the interior; and at the east end, facing the entrance, is a second seat, raised above the former. A series of arcades, with columns and arches, extend round the lower part, between the seat and the sills of the windows. Over these arches are several specimens of ancient sculpture, in bold basso and alto-relievo, representing various incidents mentioned in the sacred writings. The interior of the church also contains many subjects entitled to notice and description. At its western extremity is a lofty window, filled with stained glass, the work of William Egginton, who executed it at the expense of William Benson Earle, Esq. Two windows at the east end of the church are likewise filled with stained glass; one from a design by Sir Joshua Reynolds, and the other from a picture by Mortimer. The former represents the Resurrection, and the latter a group of figures raising the brazen serpent. The stalls, bishop's throne, organ-screen and organ, are all of modern date, and all betray marks of their origin. Parts of the organ-screen are, however, extremely beautiful, as are also two other screens, which have been placed under the north and south arches of the tower, in order to strengthen and support them. The monuments are too numerous to admit of separate description. We shall only therefore mention the names of the principal persons to whom they belong, or who are known to have been buried here. The bishops who have monuments are, Herman, Josceline, Poore, Roger, Walter-de-la-Wyle, Osmund, Hyde, Thomas, Hume, Davenant, Capon, Ward, York, Audley, Bingham, Wyckampton, Roger de Mortival, Wyvil, Gheast, Jewel, and Mitford; but several others of them were undoubtedly interred in the church. The other distinguished characters whose ashes repose here, are Thomas, Baron Wyndham, of Finglass, in Ireland; William Longspee, Earl of Sarum; Robert, Lord Hungerford; one of the Lords Stourton; Lord Cheney; Sir Walter Hungerford; Lord Chief Justice Hyde; Sir Thomas Gorges, of Longford Castle; Edward, Earl of Hertford; John, Duke of Somerset; Elizabeth, Duchess of Somerset; James Touchet, Lord Audley; James Harris, Esq., author of Hermes; Henry, Earl of Pembroke, and numerous members of the same illustrious family. Here is besides a monument of a choral bishop. It consists of a slab of stone, supporting the effigy of a boy habited in episcopal robes, with a mitre on his head and a crosier in his hand. At his feet is a figure of a dragon, with his head reflext to his tail. This monument, having been concealed by seats, lay undiscovered, as was supposed, for several centuries, and when brought to light, in 1680, excited much speculation relative to its actual intention. The first person who gave a satisfactory solution of the difficulty, was the Rev. John Gregory, chaplain to Bishop Duppa. This gentleman, after much laborious research into the ancient archives of the church, discovered a remarkable custom, practised in early times, of electing annually, from among the children of the choir, a chorister bishop, whose authority lasted from the day of St. Nicholas to Innocents' day at night. This boy-bishop not only bore the name and held all the state, but likewise exercised some of the most important functions of the episcopal office; and in the event of his death during his prelacy, was buried with all the honour and pomp becoming his high station.

The different members belonging to the cathedral are a bishop, a dean, a chancellor, three archdeacons, a sub-dean, a sub-chanter, forty-five prebendaries, four vicars and petty canons, six singing men, eight choristers, and an organist, besides sextons, vergers, and other inferior officers. The dean, together with six residentiary canons, who are chosen from among the dignitaries and prebendaries, constitute the chapter, and have the superintendance and management of all affairs connected with the church. In ancient times the bishops of Salisbury held the dignity of precentors to the Archbishop of Canterbury; and since the reign of Charles II. they have been hereditary Chancellors of the Garter. The diocese over which they preside contains the whole of Wiltshire, with the exception of two parishes, Kingswood and Whitesbury; and all Berkshire, except the parish of Chilton, and the chapelry of Little Faringdon, in Langford parish, comprehending in all 544 parishes, of which 109 are impropriations. The archdeaconries are those of Salisbury, Wiltshire, and Berkshire; the first comprising the deaneries of Salisbury, Amesbury, Chalk, Wilton, Wyly, and Pottern; the second, with the rectory of Minety, those of Avebury, Cricklade, Malmesbury, and Marlborough; and the third, those of Abingdon, Newbury, Reading, and Wallingford, with the annexed rectory of North Moreton.—See History and Antiquities of the Cathedral Church of Salisbury, illustrated with engravings, by J. Britton, F.S.A., 4to., 1815. Historical Account of the Episcopal See of Salisbury, by William Dodsworth, 4to., 1815.

The *Bishop's Palace*, which stands at a short distance from the south-east corner of the cathedral, is a large irregular structure, evidently the work of different and distant periods. Indeed we believe scarcely a bishop has possessed the see for any length of time, who has not made alterations in, and enlargements to, this building. The late Bishop Barrington added some parts to it, and also effected considerable improvements in the garden. Dr. Fisher also paid particular attention to the latter; and under his lordship's tasteful direction, much improvement as to picturesque effect has been produced. In the palace are several portraits of bishops, the oldest of which is that of Bishop Duppa, and the latest that of the present prelate.

The *College of Matrons*, situated near the entrance into the Close from the High-street, was erected by Bishop Ward, who settled upon it an endowment yielding 200*l.* per annum, but that sum has since been greatly increased by the rise in the value of property, and also by various additional benefactions. This college is appropriated for the reception of ten widows of clergymen of the established church, who have each an allowance of money, and is under the patronage of the Bishop, Dean, and Chapter, who elect alternately in the event of a vacancy.

Public Buildings in the City.—Among the principal are the new council-house, the parish churches, the infirmary, and the county gaol. The new council-house stands at the south-east corner of the market-place, on the scite of an older building appropriated to the same purposes, which was destroyed by fire in 1780. It was erected between the years 1788 and 1795, under the authority of an act of parliament, and at the sole expense of the Earl of Radnor, to whose munificence and public spirit Salisbury is indebted for several other valuable improvements. This structure is of brick, but the angles of each front are ornamented with rustic work in stone. The principal front faces the north, where the ascent to the door is by a semicircular flight of steps, beneath a recessed portico, supported by four Doric columns, with an inscribed entablature above, in commemoration of the founder and donor. All the apartments are on one floor, and consist of a council-room, two court-rooms, a grand jury-room, rooms for the different officers of the corporation, a waiting-room, and a vestibule. The courts of law occupy the left, and the council the right wing.

The parish churches are three in number; St. Martin's, St. Thomas's, and St. Edmund's. St. Martin's church stands upon an eminence at the east end of the city, and is said by Leland to have been erected in place of a more ancient edifice, which was situated at Harnham; but the author of the "Antiquitates Sarisburienses," contends, that the church of St. Martin has always stood on the same scite. The present building consists of a nave, two aisles, and a chancel, with a tower at the west end, and contains a few monuments, but none of them are of any note. The church of St. Thomas, situated near the centre of the city, is said to have been erected by Bishop Bingham, about the year 1240, and to have been dedicated by him to Thomas à Becket, in honour of the martyrdom of that bold and zealous advocate for ecclesiastical

ecclesiastical supremacy. This statement, however, we presume, must allude to some building anterior to the present, as its style bespeaks it to be of much later date than the early part of the thirteenth century. It is a large structure, consisting of a spacious nave, with two side aisles, three chancels, a vestry-room, and a tower at its south-western angle. In this church the mayor and other officers of the corporation have pews appropriated to them. Here are several large and curious monuments in honour of the Eyre family; also a plain altar-tomb, without either date or inscription, but which is attributed to the Duke of Buckingham, who was beheaded by king Richard III., in this city. The last-mentioned church, St. Edmund's, standing at the northern extremity of the city, was formerly collegiate, and was founded by Walter-de-la-Wyle, Bishop of Salisbury in the year 1268; but the present building is of much later erection, as appears from the style of its architecture. One of the windows was formerly filled with stained glass, representing a series of scripture stories. This was destroyed by Henry Sherfield, Esq., recorder of the city, for which act he was summoned by the bishop before the Star-Chamber, in 1632, and adjudged to pay a fine of 500*l.* The principal monuments in this church commemorate the ancestors and family connexions of Penruddock Wyndham, Esq., a gentleman who has evinced a great predilection for topographical and antiquarian studies, and who has a large mansion adjoining the church.

The *Infirmary* stands near Fisherton bridge, and is a large brick building, more remarkable for commodious internal arrangement than for external elegance of appearance. This establishment was indebted for its origin to the benevolence of Lord Feversham, who bequeathed the sum of 500*l.* to the first charity of the kind which should be established within the county of Wilts. It is supported by benefactions, subscriptions, legacies, and other charitable donations, the amount of which, from the commencement of the charity in 1766 to the year 1803, is stated in the report then made, at 44,608*l.* 4*s.* 11¼*d.*

The *County Gaol* stands near the Infirmary, and, like it, is destitute of architectural interest. The same remark is equally applicable to the Assembly and Concert rooms, the Theatre, and the Grammar-school. The last, however, is a very flourishing establishment of royal foundation, and can boast of many names among its pupils, who have been highly distinguished as political and literary characters. One of these was the celebrated Mr. Addison, who was a native of this county. The other charity schools here are Godolphin's school, endowed for the maintenance and education of eight orphan young ladies; and the Bishop's school, in which twenty boys and girls are cloathed and educated. There is also a Sunday school in each parish; and the city abounds with private seminaries of great respectability.

Monastic Institutions, Hospitals, &c.—In Catholic times Salisbury appears to have contained a great variety of religious establishments of a monastic and collegiate description, though none of them attained any very high degree of distinction or opulence, except the college of St. Edmund, before mentioned. We shall notice the others, therefore, as briefly as possible. Near the south-east entrance into the Close, stood a convent of Franciscan or Grey-friars, which William of Worcester states to have been founded by bishop Poore, in the year 1227; but in the Collectanea of Leland, its origin is ascribed to a citizen named Pude, and a hint is given of its removal from some former situation, probably Old Sarum. In this priory Radulphus Monthermer, earl of Gloucester, was buried in the year 1325. The Dominican or Black-friars, had a house in Fisherton, which, according to Speed, was erected and endowed by king Edward I. and archbishop Kilwardy, about the year 1276; but Godwin says it was the work of the latter only. Mary, countess of Norfolk, instituted in this convent a chantry of six priests, dedicated to Our Lady, St. Ann, and All Saints; all vestiges of which are now effaced. St. Nicholas' hospital stood near Harnham bridge. It was founded by bishop Richard Poore for a master, eight poor women, and four poor men, but seems to have been chiefly carried on and endowed by his successor, bishop Bingham. At the time of the dissolution, this hospital was among the few which were fortunate enough to escape the rapacity and reforming zeal of king Henry VIII.; but queen Elizabeth granted it away to patentees, from whom it was purchased by the then earl of Pembroke, who prevailed upon king James to restore it. During the commonwealth, the whole of its revenues were conveyed by Oliver Cromwell to the corporation of Salisbury, but part of them was afterwards restored, and the establishment still continues to maintain a master and twelve poor persons, six women, and as many men. Near this hospital stand the ruins of the college of Vaux, or Vaulx, which owed its origin to bishop Egidius, in the year 1260, for the reception of students; but its prosperity was of very short duration, and at the Reformation it had sunk into a sort of appendage to the hospital of St. Nicholas, both being, as at present, under one warden, who still enjoys the accommodation and revenues annexed to the wardenship of the ancient college. In Castle-street may be still seen the remains of an hospital dedicated to St. John; and mention is made in the Magna Britannia, and by Speed and Dugdale, of an hospital in honour of St. Michael, and a college dedicated to St. Edith; but their existence is questioned, upon good grounds, by bishop Tanner. The other hospitals in Salisbury are, Trinity hospital, which maintains twelve poor persons; Bricket's hospital, for six poor widows; Eyre's hospital for the accommodation of six men and their wives; Bleckydon's hospital, for six poor women; Taylor's hospital, for six men; and Froud's hospital, which receives six men, and as many women. Besides these charities, there are in this city various alm-houses, erected and endowed for the use of the poor. In Culver-street are six tenements, said to be the gift of bishop Poore; in St. Ann's-street three houses, the legacy of Mr. Sutton; in Bedmin street twenty houses, a donation by Mrs. Marks; and in Castle-street fifteen tenements given by William Hussey, Esq., when one of the city representatives.

The *Bridges*, the only public objects which remain to be noticed, are Fisherton bridge, Crane bridge, and Harnham bridge. The two first are stone structures, of six arches each, and serve to connect the city with the suburb of Fisherton. Harnham bridge, on the other hand, unites Salisbury with the suburb of East Harnham, which some writers assert to have been a considerable village before the foundation of the new city. This bridge is of ancient erection, consisting of ten arches, and is commonly ascribed to bishop Bingham. It is divided into two parts by a small islet, where formerly stood a chapel, in which three chaplains were appointed to say mass, and to receive the contributions of passengers towards defraying the expense of repairs.

Historical Events.—Having thus furnished an account and description of Salisbury in its municipal and ecclesiastical character, we shall now briefly notice those events that have occurred here, which properly belong to general history. A parliament, or national council, was summoned to meet in this city by king Edward I., to consult on the measures best calculated to recover the English dominions in Gascoigne, which had been seized by Phillip of France. In that assembly the lay nobles only were present, the clergy being then suspended from the exercise of their civil privileges, for having refused some previous aid demanded by the king, who had besides confiscated their estates, hoping thereby to intimidate the lay barons. In this hope, however, he was disappointed. His demands at Salisbury were opposed with firmness; and when the king threatened punishment, nearly forty of them threw off their allegiance, and marched out of the city at the head of their armed followers. A second parliament was held here in 1328, to enquire into the state of the kingdom, then groaning under the odious tyranny of queen Isabel and earl Mortimer. That nobleman, aware of the intention of the earl of Lancaster to move his impeachment, procured an order under the great seal, that none of the nobles should appear armed in the assembly. This step occasioned most of the lay barons to absent themselves, fearing some evil design, and in this they were not mistaken; for

for scarcely had those who met, chiefly clergy, began their deliberations, when Mortimer broke in upon them with an armed force, and threatened them with death, if they presumed to pass a single resolution contrary to his pleasure. This violent conduct afterwards formed one of the articles of impeachment against him, when he was brought to trial by command of the king in 1330. The next event of historical importance which occurred here, was the execution of Henry Stafford, duke of Buckingham, by whose influence and exertions Richard III. was advanced to the throne, though he subsequently thought proper to raise the standard of rebellion against his master. In the 17th century, when civil war desolated the kingdom, Salisbury was frequently laid under contribution by both parties; but no event of particular import happened in this city till towards the close of Cromwell's government. At the time, however, of the premeditated revolt, in 1655, it is remarkable as having been the only place in England which became the scene of active operations in favour of the house of Stuart. Penruddock, Grove, Jones, and several other gentlemen of Wiltshire, marched into the city with a squadron of 200 horse, and seizing the sheriff and judges, then present at the assizes, proclaimed Charles II. king. Clarendon affirms that if this troop had been supported by a simultaneous movement of their associates in other parts of England, the restoration of that monarch would most likely have been effected by force of arms, and not, as afterwards happened, by the decision of parliament, and the influence of general Monk.

Eminent Natives.—Salisbury has given birth to many persons of distinction, among whom are the following:—Walter Winterburn, Cardinal of St. Sabin; William Horman, author of several works in prose and verse: John Thornborough, bishop of Worcester; George Coryat, a Latin poet, and a topographer; Michael Maschiart, an able civilian and poet; Sir Toby Mathews, a celebrated Jesuit and politician; Dr. Thomas Bennet, a distinguished divine and writer; Thomas Chubb, and John Edes, also noted controversialists; John Greenhill, an eminent portrait painter; Richard Hayter, a theological author; William and Henry Lawes, both famous musicians and composers; Dr. Harris, an eminent historian and biographer; James Harris, the renowned author of Hermes, and of other philosophical and philological works; John Tobin, author of the Curfew and the Honey Moon; and the late John Feltham, author of a Tour through the Isle of Man, and several other volumes.

In the vicinity of Salisbury are many objects worthy of detailed description, but our limits restrain us from more than a cursory mention of them. About two miles south-east from the city is Clarendon park, anciently a royal forest and the scite of a palace, commonly called King John's Palace, from a tradition that it was erected by that monarch. It is certain, however, that a royal residence existed here before his time, as Henry II. is mentioned by the old writers as having frequently held his court at Clarendon. In 1164 that monarch convened a great council here, in which those laws limiting the ecclesiastical authority were passed, which are still called "The Constitutions of Clarendon." Richard I. occasionally visited this retreat during the short period of his reign which was spent in England. His brother and successor, king John, is said to have been much attached to this place, and it is not unlikely that the considerable additions he made to the palace, gave rise to the tradition of his having been its founder. But it was in the reign of Henry III. that Clarendon attained the zenith of its glory. Its buildings were much enlarged and improved by that prince, who besides held his court oftener, and with greater splendour here, than any of his predecessors. Edward II. summoned a parliament to meet here in 1317; but the dissention which then prevailed between the king and his barons, prevented it assembling. During this prince's reign, Clarendon was disafforested; at least it was then first denominated the Park of Clarendon. In 1357, when the plague raged in London, and in many of the principal towns in England, Edward III. and his two royal prisoners, the kings of France and Scotland, passed the summer months at this palace. From that period no mention is made of Clarendon till the reign of Edward VI., when the whole domain was granted to William Herbert, earl of Pembroke, for his own and his son's life. While the latter held it, we are informed by Nichols, in his "Progresses of Queen Elizabeth," that her majesty was entertained at the Lodge, and enjoyed the pleasure of hunting in the park. After this event, another chasm occurs in the history of this place; but in 1665 we find it mentioned as granted to George Monk, duke of Albermarle, by king Charles II. At that time the superficial contents of the whole park or domain were estimated at 4300 acres. Monk bequeathed it to his cousin Granville, earl of Bath, from whose heirs it was purchased by Benjamin Bathurst, Esq., ancestor to the present proprietor, Frederick Hervey Bathurst, Esq., whose seat, called Clarendon Lodge, stands about a mile from the palace. This once magnificent edifice, now completely in ruins, occupied an eminence overlooking a narrow vale on its north-western side; and seems, from the extent of its present remains, to have covered a large space of ground. One lofty wall, which appears to have been the end wall of some large room, is the only part of the structure standing; but numerous foundations of other walls may yet be traced. The whole is surrounded by a large fosse and vallum, which incloses between sixty and seventy acres.

Chlorus's camp, or Figbury-Ring, is situated to the north of Clarendon park, on a hill near the Roman road from Old Sarum to Winchester. This entrenchment is circular in its form, and is environed by a double ditch and rampart. The principal entrance opens towards the east, and is defended by two small outworks. The country situated to the north and north-east of this encampment is intersected in various directions by banks and ditches, some of which seem to form inclosures, while others run out in irregular lines, without any apparent connection with each other. Several groups of barrows are seen near these ditches, and at one point are some appearances indicating the scite of a British village.

Ivy church, situated on the south-east side of Clarendon, was formerly the scite of a priory dedicated to the Blessed Virgin. This house was founded and endowed by king Henry II. for four canons, and subsequently rose to opulence and distinction by the munificence of his successors. The monks here were the spiritual attendants at the royal chapel in Clarendon palace. Ivy church now forms part of the manor of Alderbury, or Oldbury, the property of lord Radnor. Eastward from it stands the village of Farley, the birthplace of the celebrated Sir Stephen Fox, ancestor to the present Earl of Ilchester and Lord Holland.

Longford castle, the seat and property of the Earl of Radnor, is situated about three miles to the south-east of Salisbury, on the banks of the river Avon, which flows through the park in a clear, rapid, and broad stream. The house was erected in 1591, by Sir Thomas Gorges and his lady, on the scite of a more ancient mansion, said to have been built by Walter Walerm, lord of Longford, in the reign of Richard I. It is a triangular structure, in imitation of the noted Catholic Monogram of the Trinity, with a court in the centre, and a round tower at each angle. The external walls are composed of stone and flint; and the principal front was formerly adorned with a great profusion of architectural ornaments, all in stone; such as columns, pilasters, sculptured friezes, balustrades, caryatides, &c. This curious building was formerly surrounded by a deep moat, and from the views of it, drawn by Thacker, the grounds appear to have been bedecked with fish-ponds, parterres, clipt hedges, and terraces. All these, however, have long been swept away, and the castle itself is destined to be demolished, and a much larger edifice raised in its stead. This mansion contains a very extensive and valuable collection of pictures, many of them by the first masters. Here is also a steel chair, remarkable for the great labour and ingenuity displayed in its execution. It was made by Thomas Rukers, at the city of Ausgburg, in the year 1575, and consists of more than 130 compartments, occupied by groups of figures, representing a series

series of events in the annals of the Roman empire, from the landing of Æneas in Italy to the reign of Rodolphus II. Population returns in 1811, 8243; houses 1575; being an increase since 1801, of 575 inhabitants, and 41 houses; in 1821 the population amounted to 8763; houses to 1680. Markets on Tuesday and Saturday; 21 miles north-east of Southampton, and 83 west-by-south of London. Lat. 51. 4. N. long. 1. 47. W.

SALISBURY, a post township of the United States, in Litchfield county, Connecticut, in the north-west corner of the state; 24 miles north-west of Litchfield.

SALISBURY, a township of the United States, in Herkimer county, New York, on the St. Lawrence. Population 1252.

SALISBURY, a post village of the United States, in Blooming Grove, Orange county, New York.

SALISBURY, a township of the United States, in Lancaster county, Pennsylvania. Population 1841.

SALISBURY, a post village of the United States, in Somerset county, Pennsylvania. Population 40.

SALISBURY, a township of the United States, in Northampton county, Pennsylvania, on the Leigh. Population 933.

SALISBURY, a post town and port of entry of the United States, in Somerset county, Maryland, between the two principal branches of the Wicomico. It contains an Episcopal church, a methodist meeting-house, and about 100 houses, and has considerable trade in lumber; 15 miles east-south-east of Vienna.

SALISBURY, a post town of the United States, and capital of Rowan county, North Carolina. It contains a court-house, a jail, a bank, an academy, and a church. It is a flourishing town, and is situated in a very fertile country. Near this town there is a remarkable wall of stone, laid in cement, plastered on both sides, from 12 to 14 feet in height and 22 inches thick. The length of what has been discovered is about 300 feet. The top of the wall approaches within one foot of the surface of the ground. When built, by whom, and for what purpose, is unknown. A similar wall has, within a few years been discovered, about six miles from the first, from four to five feet high, and seven inches thick. Population 600; 34 miles south-west of Salem.

SALISBURY, a township of the United States, in Gallia county, Ohio, on the Ohio. Population 460; 17 miles above Gallipolis.

SALISBURY, a post township of the United States, in Addison county, Vermont; 44 miles south-west of Montpelier. Population 700. It has a manufactory of glass.

SALISBURY, a post township of the United States, in Hillsborough county, New Hampshire, on the west side of the Merrimack; 14 miles north-north-west of Concord, and 77 north-north-west of Boston. Population 1913.

SALISBURY, a post township of the United States, in Essex county, Massachusetts, on the north bank of the Merrimack. It contains two parishes, and has a pleasant and considerable village, on the north bank of the Merrimack, below the junction of Puwow river. Considerable business is done at this village in ship-building, and here is some trade in the fisheries. Population 2047; 36 miles north-east of Boston.

SALISBURY CRAIG, a remarkable rock lying on the east side of the city of Edinburgh, being part of the hill of Arthur's Seat. It is noted chiefly for its steep precipitous front of solid rock, which it presents on the west side towards the city, in the form of an amphitheatre, the summit of which is 550 feet in height.

SALISBURY PLAIN, an extensive track of open country in England, in the county of Wilts, situated near Salisbury, and extending 25 miles east of Winchester, and 28 west of Weymouth, being in some places from 35 to 40 miles in breadth. That part which lies near the city is a chalky down like East Kent. The other parts are noted for feeding numerous and extensive flocks of sheep. By feeding the sheep on the land after it is turned up with the plough, it becomes fertile, and bears very good wheat and other grain. In this plain is the famous monument of Stonehenge, and also traces of many old Roman and British camps. Stonehenge consists of four ranges of enormous stones, placed one within the other, the two outermost being circular, and the inner oval. Some of the stones are reckoned to weigh 30 or 40 tons. See STONEHENGE.

SALISBURY, POINT, a cape on the west coast of North America, at which Stephens's passage divides into two channels. Lat. 58. 11. N. long. 226. 3. E.

SALISBURY, POINT, a cape on the coast of Massachusetts, at the entrance of the Merrimack river, near Newbury Port.

SALI'VA, *s.* [Latin.] Every thing that is spit up; but it more strictly signifies that juice which is separated by the glands of the mouth.—Not meeting with disturbance from the *saliva*, I the sooner extirpated them. *Wiseman.*

SALI'VAL, or SA'LIVARY, *adj.* [from *saliva*, Latin.] Relating to spittle.—The woodpecker, and other birds that prey upon flies, which they catch with their tongue, in the room of the said glands have a couple of bags filled with a viscous humour, which, by small canals, like the *salival*, being brought into their mouths, they dip their tongues herein, and so with the help of this natural birdlime attack the prey. *Grew.*

SALIVARY FISTULÆ. See SURGERY.

SALIVAS, a numerous nation of Indians in the New Kingdom of Granada, and province of San Juan de los Llanos, between the rivers Meta and Casanare.

To SA'LIVATE, *v. a.* [from *saliva*, Lat.] To purge by the salival glands.—She was prepossessed with the scandal of *salivating*, and went out of town. *Wiseman.*

SALIVA'TION, *s.* A method of cure much practised of late in venereal, scrophulous, and other obstinate cases, by promoting a secretion of spittle. *Quincy*—Holding of ill-tasted things in the mouth will make a small *salivation*. *Grew.*

SALI'VOUS, *adj.* Consisting of spittle; having the nature of spittle.—There happeneth an elongation of the uvula, through the abundance of *salivous* humour flowing upon it. *Wiseman.*

SALIX [a *saliendo;* from the quickness of its growth. Gr. Ιτεα, παρα το ιεναι; on the same account], in Botany, a genus of the class dioecia, order diandria, natural order of amentaceæ.—Generic Character. Male. Calyx: ament oblong, imbricate every way (constructed of an involucre from the bud), consisting of scales one-flowered, oblong, flat, spreading. Corolla: petals none. Nectary a gland cylindric, very small, truncate, melliferous, in the centre of the flower. Stamina: filaments two, straight, filiform, longer than the calyx. Anthers twin, four-celled. Female. Calyx: ament and scales as in the male. Corolla none. Pistil: germ ovate, attenuated into a style scarcely distinct, a little longer than the scales of the calyx. Stigmas two, bifid, erect. Pericarp: capsule ovate-subulate, one-celled, two-valved: valves revolute. Seeds numerous, ovate, very small, crowned with a simple hirsute pappus or down. In some species, the male flowers have three or five stamens of unequal length; three have them monadelphous, another as in the class syngenesia. Salix hermaphroditica is the only species known to us which has hermaphrodite two-stamened flowers. Salix purpurea and helix have only one stamen to the flowers.—*Essential Character.* Calyx ament composed of scales. Corolla none. Male nectary a melliferous gland. Female style bifid. Capsule one-celled, two-valved. Seeds downy.

1.—Leaves smooth serrate.

1. Salix hermaphroditica, or hermaphrodite willow.—Leaves serrate smooth, flowers hermaphrodite two-stamened.—This agrees with Salix pentandra in its smooth leaves, bluntly serrate with glands, convolute, commonly six from each bud, yellowish; and in having villose aments of the same size and habit.—It does not seem to be known out of Sweden.

2. Salix triandra, or long-leaved three stamened willow.—Three-stamened, leaves linear-oblong serrate smooth, germs

germs pedicelled.—This is naturally a tree thirty feet or more in height, but being one of the best osiers for the use of basket-makers, is generally cut and kept low. The bark of the stem and branches peels off spontaneously, almost like that of the plane-tree. The branches are upright, long, slender, pliable and tough, though somewhat brittle at their insertion; their bark is brownish and smooth. Stipules ovate, veiny, but often wanting. Catkins at the ends of small leafy young branches, erect, yellowish, with blunt downy scales. Stamens generally three to each scale, very rarely (in the same catkin) only two. Germ ovate, pointed, warty. Stigmas short, spreading, notched. Capsule very smooth, green. —Native of many parts of Europe; as Britain, Germany, Switzerland, France, Flanders, Carniola, Piedmont, &c.; common also in Siberia.

3. Salix pentandra, or bay-leaved willow.—Five stamened.—The sweet or bay-leaved willow is sufficiently well known by its broad odoriferous leaves, the serratures of which exude a copious yellow resin, and its numerous stamens, commonly about five to each flower.

It frequently grows to a tree ten or twelve feet high, with a trunk as large as a man's thigh: the twigs are of a reddish colour, tinged with yellow: the leaves are stiff, shining smooth on both sides, finely serrate with close numerous cartilaginous teeth; when full grown, they are about three inches long, and an inch and a half wide: each scale in the male catkin has usually five stamens, but often six, and sometimes seven. These catkins are very sweet-scented.—Native of several parts of Europe, as Britain, Switzerland, Dauphiné, Piedmont; also of Siberia.

Much used in Yorkshire for making the larger sort of baskets; the branches are cut to make springles; the leaves afford a yellow dye; the wood crackles greatly in the fire. The down of the seeds, mixed with a third part of cotton, has been proved to be a very good substitute for cotton itself, and has been used for stuffing cushions, wicks for candles, &c.

4. Salix phylicifolia, or tea-leaved willow.—A shrub, with smooth slender spreading branches. Leaves alternate, petioled, lanceolate; the margin a little more thickened than ordinary; all the leaves are either perfectly smooth in every part, or a little sprinkled with minute hairs; dark green above, glaucous and reticulated with veins beneath. Foot-stalks slender, smooth. Stipules crescent-shaped, mostly serrate, various in size.—Native of Lapland, and the northern parts of Sweden.

5. Salix nigricans, or dark broad-leaved willow.—The trunk scarcely rises to the height or form of a tree. The branches are upright, round, rather brittle, smooth. Leaves two or three inches long, acute, a little rounded at the base, crenate, but more slightly in the female plant; dark green and very smooth above; glaucous, veiny, rarely a little hairy beneath. Foot-stalks very broad at their base. Catkins from an inch to an inch and half long, thickish, with obovate brown hairy scales.—Native of Lapland; and found at Wrongay fen, Norfolk, and in osier grounds in other places.

6. Salix laurina, or shining dark-green willow.—Leaves elliptic, acute, toothlet-serrate smoothish glaucous underneath, germs pedicelled lanceolate silky.—Very nearly related to the last, but certainly a distinct species But the germ is shorter, and less tapering.—Found in osier-holts and marshes; flowering in April and May.

7. Salix petiolaris, or dark long-leaved willow.—Leaves lanceolate serrate smooth glaucous underneath, germs pedicelled ovate silky, stigmas sessile two-lobed.—The footstalks are peculiarly long, linear, and slender, silky on the upper side. Female catkins scarcely an inch long, with black, hairy, obovate, often notched scales. Germs on long foot-stalks, small ovate, silky. It flowers in April.

8. Salix Japonica, or Japan willow.—Leaves serrate smooth lanceolate glaucous underneath, the younger ones villose.—This is a middle-sized tree, with round flexuose upright cinereous smooth divided branches. Flowers from the same bud with the leaves.—Native of Japan, and flowering there in March.

9. Salix vitellina, or yellow willow.—The yellow willow is a middle-sized tree, much branched at the top: branches upright. Bark gray, chopped, cinnamon-coloured within, bitter and astringent. The female trees, when left to themselves, have pendant branches, but when lopped, are stiff and straight. Male catkins at first upright, then turned down; nectaries two. Stamens two. Female catkins from two to three inches in length. Leaves alternate, slightly serrate, with a yellowish midrib; they are about three inches long and one inch broad, but always broader in the female treee. Stipules none. The male tree is generally smaller and less common than the female.—Native of the more temperate parts of Europe. Common in England, but doubtful whether it be indigenous.

The shoots are used by basket-makers. The wood is white and very tough. The cotton will make ordinary paper, and may serve some of the purposes of genuine cotton. The bark may be used in dyeing, and medicinally in agues. It is common all over Russia, and is used for Palms at Easter in the Greek churches.

10. Salix amygdalina, or broad-leaved three-stamened willow.—Three-stamened, leaves ovate oblique serrate smooth, germs pedicelled, stipules very large.—This never rises into a tree. The bark is deciduous, as in Salix triandra, which, added to the traindrous flowers, perhaps led to the suspicion that there existed no specific difference between the two species: the leaves, however, will sufficiently serve to discriminate them. Those of Salix amygdalina are shorter, of a broadish ovate figure rounded at the base, by no means linear; they are moreover oblique, the width of the two sides being unequal.—Native of several parts of Europe, in osier-holts and marshes.

11. Salix hastata, or halbert-leaved willow.—Leaves serrate smooth subovate acute sessile, stipules subcordate.—Native of Lapland, Westrobothnia, Germany, Switzerland, Russia and Siberia.

12. Salix Ægyptiaca, or Egyptian willow.—This tree grows to a considerable height. Leaves oblong, very large, hoary beneath, crenate about the edges.—Native of Egypt, and of Barbary near La Calle.

13. Salix fragilis, or crack willow.—Leaves serrate smooth ovate lanceolate, petioles tooth-glandular.—This is one of the largest trees of the genus. The branches break off easily at the shoot of the preceding year. The catkins have two or three fugacious leaves at the base of the peduncle. Though the branches are brittle on the tree, yet they are pliant when it is young, or kept down for osiers; and the male flowers have sometimes three stamens.—Native of the greater part of Europe, especially the northern parts of Russia to the limits of Caucasus.

14. Salix Babylonica, or weeping willow.—This tree is remarkable and generally esteemed for its long slender pendulous branches, which give it a peculiar character, and render it a beautiful object on the margin of streams or pools. Leaves minutely and sharply serrate, smooth on both sides, glaucous underneath, with the midrib whitish; on short petioles. Stipules, when present, roundish or semilunar and very small; but more frequently wanting, and then in their stead a glandular dot on each side. Catkins axillary, small, oblong: in the male the filaments longer than the scale, with two ovate erect glands fastened to the base: the female, on two leaved peduncles scarcely longer than half an inch.—Native of the Levant.

15. Salix purpurea, or bitter purple willow.—One-stamened, leaves obovate-lanceolate serrate smooth, stigmas very short ovate subsessile.—A bushy shrub three or four feet high, with long slender tough purple shining branches. The male catkins are very slender, scarcely an inch long, nearly sessile, consisting of many thickset flowers, the uppermost of which expand first. Scales black at the tip, hairy. Nectary a solitary gland opposite to each scale. Female catkins exactly like the male in size and form.

The

The present species is particularly distinguished by the length, as well as delicate slenderness of its twigs, and its sub-glaucous spurge-like leaves, but above all, by their extreme bitterness when chewed. The leaves vary greatly both in size and breadth, and still more in their notchings. The stalks also vary much in colour, being sometimes almost yellow. The leaves on the summits of the twigs are sometimes found towards the end of August of a brilliant red colour. The tops of the branches are found expanded into little squamous heads (as in the alba and others), somewhat resembling roses; this is the work of an insect. The anthers, before they open, are of a bright orange colour.—Native of many parts of Europe. It grows sparingly in the neighbourhood of London, commonly in hedges, sometimes in osier-grounds, where it is introduced accidentally: in some parts of the north of England, there is no willow more common.

The extreme bitterness of the leaves and twigs, renders it very valuable for many purposes. When used as a band or withe, it is never eaten by vermin; nor, when formed into a hedge, is it browsed on by cattle; even insects prey on it much less readily than on the other species.

16. Salix helix, or rose willow.—One-stamened, leaves lanceolate acuminate serrulate smooth, style elongated filiform, stigmas linear.—This rises to the height of nine or ten feet, and is a small slender tree.

The rose-like excrescences are more common at the end of the branches in this species; whence its name of rose-willow.—Native of several parts of Europe, in osier-holts and marshes: flowering in March and April.

17. Salix fissa, or basket osier.—This is a shrub four or five feet high, with upright flexible and very tough branches, of a yellowish ash-colour, often purplish. Leaves alternate, on footstalks, two or three inches long, minutely toothed or somewhat serrate, principally towards the top; smooth on both sides except when very young; dark green above, glaucous beneath. Stipules none. Catkins on short stalks, cylindrical, first red, then yellow, flowering first at the top, The two stamens are united from the base about half way to the top. Anthers two-lobed, yellow. Germ ovate, acute, hairy. Style short. Stigmas oblong, undivided.—Native of some parts of Europe on the sandy banks of rivers, flowering in April, and ripening the seed in May. With us it is cultivated in the fens, and preferred to all other willows or osiers for basket-work.

18. Salix rubra, or red osier.—The branches of this shrub are very long, slender, tough. Stipules, if present, linear-lanceolate, a little toothed; but generally wanting. The female catkins differ but little from the preceding, except in having thicker almost ovate stigmas. This species appears to be little known, though among the most valuable as an osier.—Native of England and France in osier-holts, but less common; it flowers in April and May.

19. Salix croweana, or broad-leaved monadelphous willow.—Monadelphous, leaves elliptic, subserrate, very smooth, glaucous underneath.—This scarcely rises to the height of a tree. Branches short and spreading, rather brittle, clothed with a shining yellowish or purplish bark. Leaves on footstalks, obovate, somewhat pointed, scarcely an inch and a half long, slightly serrate, bright green and shining above, glaucous and veiny beneath. Catkins nearly sessile, of a short somewhat ovate form. Scales obovate, black, very hairy. Stamens pale lemon coloured, longish, their filaments united from the base to a greater or less distance, sometimes almost to the top. Anthers reddish.—Native of Norfolk. It flowers in April and May.

20. Salix myrsinites, or wortle-leaved willow.—A shrub with a smooth bark of a dark brown or blackish colour, and diffused but upright branches. Leaves during the flowering ovate or obovate, smooth on both sides, thin and nearly transparent, finely and acutely toothed, on short stiff leaf-stalks: afterwards an inch broad, and more than an inch long, both sides of the same colour, serrate all round, pointed at the end. Male catkins crowded, oblong or ovate-oblong, from an inch to an inch and half in length, stamens two: nectary one. Female catkins shorter than the other when in flower, ovate-oblong. Capsule on a pedicel, very smooth. —Native of the mountains of Scotland, Lapland, Norway, Germany, Switzerland, Dauphiné and Italy.

21. Salix arbuscula.—Scarcely a foot high, growing in form of a little tree. Stems slender, filiform, branched, reddish. Leaves lanceolate, acuminate at both ends, on very thin loose petioles, serrate on both sides with notches so small as to be scarcely visible. Stipules none. In cultivation it grows to the height of a man, and has thicker leaves.—Native of Lapland.

22. Salix herbacea, or herbaceous willow.—Leaves serrate smooth orbicular.—This, though named herbacea, is not properly an herbaceous plant, but truly a shrub or tree, and the smallest yet known; being only from one to three inches in height. The bark is ash-coloured or brown. Branches irregular, knotty, scarcely an inch in length, striking root, having seldom more than three leaves.—Native of many parts of Europe, on high mountains. In the northern counties of England, Scotland and Wales: flowering in June and July.

23. Salix retuse, or blunt-leaved willow.—About the size of the preceding. The leaves have parallel veins. Leaves very smooth and shining, elliptic, the younger and lower ones perfectly round, on the longer branches lanceolate, serrate. Catkins constantly smooth, with large ovate blunt smooth scales, and two long stamens; they have few flowers, and on the highest Alps occur with one flower only.—Native of Dauphiné, Switzerland, Austria, and Italy.

24. Salix decipiens.—Leaves serrate smooth lanceolate petioled, the lower ones smaller obovate reflex.—This is a tree or shrub with abundance of diffused scattered branches, brittle especially at the joints: bark shining green or yellow, somewhat cinereous. Male catkins two to five, scattered, alternate. Stamens two, seldom three. Nectaries two. Female catkins also scattered, more numerous than the males, alternate, erect, cylindrical.—Native of Europe, on the banks of rivers: flowering in May. The capsules ripen in June.

25. Salix arbutifolia, or arbutus-leaved willow.—Leaves obovate acute serrate smooth.—Branches upright, annual shoots short, alternate, very leafy. It is a low shrub found about the lake Baikal, and in all the east of Siberia to Kamtschatka.

26. Salix divaricata, or straddling-branched willow.—Trunk the thickness of the human finger or thumb, very much and forkedly branched from the very bottom: branches very short, rigid, pressed close to the ground, brownish yellow. Leaves at the ends of the branches, in some lanceolate, almost entire; in others ovate-lanceolate, largely toothed with blunt and somewhat waved serratures. Female aments among the leaves, subsessile, leafless, scarcely an inch long, clustered, having a thick close down.—Found on Sochondo, one of the loftiest mountains of Dauria, spreading itself on the granite rocks.

27. Salix rhamnifolia, or buckthorn-leaved willow.—Leaves ovate obtuse serrate smooth glaucous underneath.—Twigs scarcely a foot long, bay-coloured, and branched a little.—Found in the sub-alpine marshes of Siberia from Obo to Baikal.

28. Salix berberifolia, or barberry-leaved willow.—Leaves sessile ovate tooth-serrate veined shining.—This is a little shrub, spreading over rocks that are covered with moss, about the size of Arbutus Alpina, with a trunk at most the size of the little finger, with a yellowish and somewhat jointed bark, more rugged on the trunk; with shortish branches crowded and twisted together. Male catkins among the old leaves, from the terminating buds, the length of the leaf, thin, with distant villose scales, two or three-stamened. Female catkins shorter than the leaf with few, biggish, clustered capsules.—Native of Russia, in watery places throughout the temperate and southern parts to the limits of Caucasus.

II.—Leaves

SALIX.

1. S. herbacea. 2. S. reticulata. 3. 4. S. arenaria. 5. 6. S. caprea.

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Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1825.

II.—Leaves smooth, quite entire.

29. Salix reticulata, round-leaved or net-work willow.—Leaves quite entire, smooth, ovate obtuse.—This is a shrub, with the branches not much more than a finger's length, and prostrate. Stipules none. Male catkin mostly terminating, rather woolly, an inch long; stamens two; nectary double. Female catkin terminating, cylindrical, rather longer than the male.—Native of high mountains in many parts of Europe. Northern counties of England, Wales and Scotland: flowering in May.

30. Salix myrtilloides, or bilberry-leaved willow.—Leaves entire, smooth, ovate acute.—A small shrub, scarcely a foot high, having the stature and appearance of Vaccinium uliginosum. The upper branches are purplish or flesh-coloured. Stipules none. Germs pedicelled, smooth. Flowers yellow, from the same bud with the leaves. Fruit commonly purplish, with the base brown.—Native of Sweden and Iceland, Switzerland, the South of France, Ingria and Siberia.

31. Salix integra.—Leaves entire, smooth, linear, oblong obtuse.—Stems round, long, cinereous, smooth. Flowers from the same buds with the leaves.—Native of Japan.

32. Salix glauca, or glaucous-leaved willow.—Leaves quite entire, very finely villose underneath, ovate-oblong.—This is a shrub from two to three feet in height. Stems red, smooth. Stipules none. Male catkin ovate, so woolly that none of the scales are visible. Peduncle leafy. Wool longer at the base of the petioles.—Native of the mountains of Lapland, the Alps and Pyrenees.

33. Salix Caspica, or Caspian willow.—This is a slender shrub, often the height of a man, and seldom exceeding. Twigs slender, pliant, yellow, very smooth and shining. Leaves stiff, without stipules, very narrow and sharp, glaucous beneath. Female catkins below the leaves naked, scarcely longer than an inch, upright, with the scales not very close. In the slenderness of the twigs it almost emulates the weeping willow.—Native of Russia.

III.—Leaves quite entire, villose.

34. Salix aurita, or round-eared willow.—Leaves quite entire, villose on both sides, obovate appendicled.—This shrub grows up to be a small tree, about the height of a man. Bark grayish, smooth, entire. Branches numerous, spreading, smooth, tough, blackish or brownish. Stipules (or auricles) two, at the base of each leaf-stalk, kidney-shaped scalloped and toothed. Male catkins upright, ovate; stamens two; nectary single. Female catkins, ovate-oblong or cylindrical. It sometimes flowers a second time in the autumn.—Native of Europe, particularly the northern parts, in woods and marshes: flowering in May.

35. Salix lanata, or woolly-leaved willow.—The branches are covered all over with a white pubescence. Leaves subovate or roundish, entire, downy with a long and loose wool, especially when young, so close that the veins are not visible. Stipules none. Two catkins generally come out at the ends of the twigs of the foregoing year; and the capsules are smooth.

This is a dwarf tree, a span high, from a trunk scarcely as thick as the human finger, branching very much and diffused: branches sub-fastigiate, with a brown bark; the extreme ones covered with a silky down.—Native of the mountains of Lapland, &c.

36. Salix lapponicum, or Lapland willow.—This approaches so near to Salix arenaria, that perhaps it is only a variety; differing from it in having the upper surface of the leaves more villose, the leaves themselves longer and waved.—Native of Lapland, where it abounds in all the valleys of the high mountains.

37. Salix arenaria, or sand willow.—Leaves entire, ovate acute, sub-villose above, tomentose underneath.—A shrub the height of a man. Stems upright, little branched, cinereous or red. Catkins both male and female ovate, very frequent from the leaf-buds.—Native of Scotland, on the sea shores, among blowing sand.

38. Salix incubacea, or trailing willow.—Leaves quite entire, lanceolate, underneath villose, shining; stipules ovate, acute.—Native of Sweden.

39. Salix repens, or creeping dwarf willow.—Leaves quite entire, lanceolate, somewhat downy on both sides; stem decumbent, creeping; style simple, stigma in four nearly equal segments; capsules smooth.—The true creeping willow has a very strong woody root, dark brown or black, throwing out many prostrate or widely spreading stems, of which the flowering branches are generally erect.—Native of many parts of Europe.

40. Salix fusca, or brown dwarf willow.—This is a very low shrub, for the most part procumbent, and creeping. Leaves very small, alternate, blunt, smooth and dark green above, beneath glaucous with a few silky-white hairs. Bud one-valved, two-parted. Flowers peduncled, at the end of the branchlets of the year preceding; they are very many, with brown scales, and yellow filaments and anthers. The catkins have no leaves, and commonly turn black.—Native of several parts of Europe. In Britain, by Landown castle, between Southampton and Winchester, between Kilnsay and Arncliff, in Yorkshire, and in Scotland.

41. Salix rosmarinifolia, or rosemary-leaved willow.—Leaves linear, acute, beneath shining, silky, villose. Stipules none.—Native of Sweden, Switzerland, Russia, &c.

42. Salix Gmelini, or Gmelin's willow.—Leaves elliptic-lanceolate entire, silky underneath.—Stipules none on adult plants. Catkins among the leaf-buds, sessile, naked: males an inch long.—Native of Dauria.

43. Salix serotina, or late willow.—Leaves oblong acute, quite entire silky, stipules lanceolate deciduous.—This shrub the height of a fathom in the water, but in a drier situation it becomes a tree, with a trunk the size of the human arm. Shoots thick, rather brittle, stiff and upright, of a greenish gray colour. Catkins from the lateral buds, on a peduncle with a few small leaves on it: males an inch and half long, hirsute, with close scales, and very long stamens; females shorter.—Native of Russia.

44. Salix Arctica, or Arctic willow.—Leaves quite entire, obovate-rounded, villose underneath.—This is a small tree, almost like Salix fusca, with a trunk the thickness of a swan's quill, lying on the ground, with a few thickish straddling branches a finger's length, quite from the bottom, the bark of which is of a yellowish bay colour. Stipules none. It grows within the Arctic Circle, by the Icy Sea.

IV.—Leaves sub-serrate, villose.

45. Salix Sibirica, or Siberian willow.—Leaves ovate, lanceolate subserrate tomentose stiffish, stipules ovate somewhat toothed.—Twigs yellow, straight, branched, rodlike; the younger ones hoary with nap, frequently all over. On the banks of rivers it grows like a tree a fathom high or more, with very smooth leaves and very branching twigs of a full yellow and as it were polished.—Native of the farther Siberia by the sub-alpine streams of the Jenisea.

46. Salix caprea, or round-leaved sallow.—Leaves ovate, wrinkled, tomentose underneath, waved, toothletted above.—This not unfrequently becomes a large tree. Branches when young palish, downy. The lower buds produce leaves, the upper ones catkins, not leafy. Bark ash-coloured, cracks very fine. The bark is used in dyeing leather by the Laplanders; and the best gloves are prepared with it in Scania. The wood is soft, light and flexible, fit for several uses of the turner.

47. Salix acuminata, or long-leaved sallow.—Leaves ovate-oblong tomentose underneath, the upper ones entire, the lower crenate.—This is a shrub six feet high, often resembling a small tree; bark smooth, ash-coloured; branches numerous, upright but diffused. Stipules kidney-shaped, waved and toothed at the edge, seldom found on the upper leaves. Male catkins ovate or ovate oblong. Female catkins the size and shape of the other, but on longer peduncles.—Native of several parts of Europe, flowering in March and April: the capsules ripen in May.

48. Salix pedicellata, or stalk-capsuled sallow.—Leaves lanceolate

lanceolate, wrinkled, tomentose underneath, capsules pedicelled smooth.—This is allied to caprea.—Native of the kingdom of Tunis.

49. Salix tristis, or narrow-leaved American willow.—Not stipuled, leaves linear-lanceolate, petioled, wrinkled, tomentose underneath.—Native of Pennsylvania. It flowers in April.

50. Salix viminalis, or osier.—Not stipuled, leaves lanceolate-linear, very long, almost entire, flat, silky underneath. —The osier is a very tall, slender, obsequious quick-growing shrub. Frequently arborescent. Bark grayish, smooth, with here and there a crack. Branches very long, straight, slender, tough. Male catkins oblong, from an inch to an inch and a half in length, on very short peduncles: stamens two: nectary one. Female catkins cylindrical of the same length with the male, half an inch broad. The leaves being silvery underneath; the nectary in the male flower being long and slender; and the style in the female flower being very long, are sufficient marks to distinguish this and its varieties from the other species.—Native of most parts of Europe, in moist boggy land, woods and hedges. Much cultivated in osier-holts, for making hoops and the larger sorts of baskets, hampers, cradles, bird-cages, &c. It is planted to prevent the banks of rivers from being washed away by the force of the current, and it forms a hedge very useful in keeping off winds. —Putcheons and weels for catching eels are made of the twigs. Innumerable varieties are cultivated in the osier-grounds for the basket-makers; and the same frequently under different names in different places; so that it would be difficult and of little use to enumerate them.

51. Salix cinerea, or cinereous leaved sallow.—Leaves sub-serrate, oblong-ovate, sub-villose underneath, stipules half-cordate.—In woods more than six and sometimes near twelve feet high: in exposed boggy ground it spreads more, but does not rise so high. Catkins brownish, placed below the leaves, on a peduncle with a few small spear-shaped leaflets.

About Palm Sunday, the children, in many parts of our island, gather the flowering branches, calling them Palms.—Native of Europe in moist woods and hedges, not in a dry soil. It flowers in April.

52. Salix alba, or white willow.—Leaves lanceolate acuminate serrate, pubescent on both sides, the lowest serratures glandular.—The common or white willow, when suffered to grow without lopping, becomes a large and lofty tree. It is quick of growth, and when lopped soon decays. The trunk is straight with a gray rough bark full of cracks. Branches numerous, upright but diffused, gray or brownish green, the upper ones often dusky red. Male catkins cylindrical, blunt, from an inch and a half to two inches in length; stamens two; nectaries two, one before the stamens obcordate, the other behind them oblong. Female catkins slender, cylindrical, two inches long.—Native of Europe. It flowers in April and May, and the capsules ripen in June. It loves a moist and open situation. The wood is white, light and tough. The bark will tan leather, and dye yarn of a cinnamon colour. The inner bark has afforded a miserable substitute for bread to the necessitous inhabitants of Kamtschatka. The wood is used for poles, stakes, hoops, &c. Cattle will feed on the leaves. The Arabs distil their celebrated Calaf water from the catkins of any species in which they are fragrant. They use this water as a cooling beverage, or as a febrifuge.

53 Salix tetrasperma, or four-seeded willow.—Leaves broad-lanceolate acuminate serrulate, smooth above, whitish below.—Trunk erect but short, as thick as a man's body; with a large and very branching head; the branchlets are rod-like. Male catkin filiform; its peduncle often leaf-bearing, issuing from the dry smooth brown involucre-like scales of the bud. Female catkins shorter than the male.

This is the only species of willow yet found in India. It is a middle-sized tree, growing on the banks of rivulets and in moist places far among the mountains. It flowers in the cold season.

Propagation and Culture.—All the sorts of willows may be easily propagated by planting cuttings or sets, either in the spring or autumn, which readily take root, and are of a quick growth. Care must be taken to keep them clear from weeds the two first seasons, by which time they will have acquired so much strength, as to overpower and keep down the weeds; they will also require some trimming in winter to take off any lateral shoots, which, if suffered to grow, would retard their upright progress.

There are great tracts of land in England fit for this purpose, which at present produce little to the owners, and might, by planting of these trees, turn to good account. The larger wood, if sound, is commonly sold to turners for many kinds of light ware.

The sallows are commonly planted in cuttings made from strong shoots of the former year, about three feet long; these are commonly thrust down two feet deep into the ground, and are one foot above it. The cuttings should be placed about five feet row from row, and two feet asunder in the rows.

The best season for planting osier-grounds is February; for if they are planted sooner, they are apt to peel, if it proves a hard frost, which greatly injures them. These plants are always cut every year, and, if the soil be good, they will produce a great crop, so that the yearly produce of one acre has been sold for fifteen pounds, but ten pounds is a common price; so that it is great pity these plants are not more cultivated, especially upon moist boggy soils, upon which few other things will thrive.

In order to raise a bed of oziers, the ground being properly dug over or ploughed, cuttings must be procured; they should be two feet and a half long, a foot and a half to be thrust into the ground, and the other foot to remain for the stool: put them in at two feet distance every way. The first summer the weeds must be kept under, and the next the tallest must be cut down. In three years the sets should all be cut down to the first-planted head. There will then be a regular quantity of proper stools for an annual crop of twigs, which will be worth five or six pounds an acre for the basket-maker.

In osier-holts they commonly mix with the true osier, the sallow, the long-shooting green willow, the crane willow, the golden willow, the silver willow, the welsh wicker, &c., for different purposes of the basket-maker.

The osier, in low moist situations, may be cultivated, on a small scale at least, with great advantage to every farm, for binders, thatching rods, hurdles, edders, stakes, rake and scythe-handles, &c., and for poles and rails of almost any length.

Nothing answers better against brooks, where the water and bank are not a complete fence of themselves, than the net-work fence of willows or sallows, provided it can be kept from cattle till it has sufficiently established itself.

Truncheons of live willow make excellent posts in new inclosures, as they will often take root and grow, and therefore will not rot, nor be subject to the depredations of wood-stealers.

SALKELD, Great, a parish of England, in Cumberland, on the banks of the river Edon; 5½ miles north-east of Penrith.

SALKELD, Little, a hamlet of England, half a mile from Great Salkeld. On the summit of a hill in the neighbourhood, there is a circle of stones, 77 in number, each of them 10 feet high; and before them, at the entrance, stands a single one 15 feet high. They are thought to have been a Druidical work, and are called by the country people, Long Meg and her Daughters. Within the circle are two heaps of stones, under which dead bodies are supposed to be buried.

SALLAD. See Sallet.

SALLAND, an inland district of the Netherlands, forming the south-west part of the province of Overyssel. It contains several towns and villages, among which are Deventer, Campen, Zwolle, &c.

SALLE, La, a town in the south of France, in Languedoc, department of the Gard. It has manufactures of woollen

len cloth and leather. Population 2000; 6 miles north-west of St. Hippolyte, and 12 west of Alais.

SALLE, a small town in the north-west of France, department of the Maine and Loire, with 1100 inhabitants.

SALLEE, a large sea-port on the western coast of Morocco, situated in the province of Benihassen, at the mouth of a river of the same name, formed by the union of two smaller streams, the Buregreb and the Gueroo. It was formerly the great hold of Moorish piracy, and immense depredations were committed from it upon European commerce. These seem now confined to the smaller Barbary states, but Sallee still retains the traces of its ancient pursuit, in an immense and dreary dungeon, formed under ground, for the reception of unfortunate captives. The river formerly admitted large vessels; but sand has accumulated to such a degree, that a vessel of 150 tons lately struck, and the accumulation still continues. Sallee is a walled town, and has a battery of 24 pieces of cannon, which commands the road, and a redoubt that defends the entrance of the river. The road can be frequented with safety only in summer, from the beginning of April to the end of September; for the gales which in winter blow frequently from the south-south-west, make it no longer safe; vessels are then liable to be driven out to sea; while the shifting of the sands at the bar obstructs the communication with the town. On the opposite side of the river stands Rabat, called often New Sallee, and which is properly to be considered as another quarter of the same town. It has been chiefly frequented by Europeans, and contained once numerous factories belonging to them. In fact, the best anchorage is to be found on this side of the river, where the vessel should be moored between the tower of the mosque, and that called Hassen. Of late, however, the difficulty of navigating the river, the obstacles arising from the arbitrary power of the sovereign, and the disposition and prejudices of the Moors, have disgusted the Europeans. Yet Rabat is the best situated of any place upon this coast, for carrying on the intercourse with Europe, being that where the commodities of wool, leather, and wax, may be most abundantly procured, and whence imported articles may be most conveniently distributed through the empire. The preference of the emperors, however, for Mogodor, enforced by their absolute power, has prevailed against these natural advantages. There are some docks for building ships at Sallee and Rabat; but the difficulty of navigating the channel, and the probability of the sand continuing to accumulate, give room to predict, that in a short time only boats will be able to ascend the river. Near its mouth, below Rabat, are the remains of a very large and strong castle, built in the twelfth century, by Jacob Almansor, but entirely demolished by the late emperor, who preserved only some magazines, remarkable for their strength and solidity. Lat. 34. 3. N. long. 6. 40. W.

SALLEE, a town of Hindostan, province of Gujerat, situated on the north side of the Mahy river, subject to the British. Lat. 22. 27. N. long. 73. 20. E.

SALLEEOLAKIT, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the south-west coast of Mindanao. Lat. 6. 42. N. long. 121. 25. E.

SALLENGZE (Albert Henry de), an ingenious writer, was born at the Hague in 1794. He was educated at Leyden, after which he became an advocate. He died in 1723. He wrote the "History of Montmaur," in two vols. 12mo.; Memoirs of Literature," two vols.; "Novus Thesaurus Antiquitatum Romanorum," three vols. fol.; and "An Essay on the History of the United Provinces."

SALLENT, a small town in the north-east of Spain, in Arragon, on the river Llobregat.

SALLES-CURAN, a town in the south of France, department of the Aveyron. Population 1200; 14 miles south-east of Rhodez.

SA'LLET. See SALET.—But for a *sallet* my brainpan had been cleft with a brown bill. *Shakspeare.*

SA'LLET, or SA'LLETING, *s.* [corrupted by pronunciation from *salad.*] I tried upon *sallet* oil. *Boyle.*—Sow some early *salleting*. *Mortimer.*

SALLIAN, a city of Schirvan, in Persia, situated on the Caspian, at the mouth of the Cyrus or Kur. It is inhabited chiefly by Russians, who carry on a most extensive fishery of sturgeon, which is found in vast abundance in the neighbouring sea; 90 miles south of Schamachi.

SA'LLIANCE, *s.* The act of issuing forth; sally. *A word very elegant, but out of use.*

Now mote I weet,
Sir Guyon, why with so fierce *salliaunce*
And fell intent, ye did at earst me meet. *Spenser.*

SALLIEZ, a town in the south of France, in the department of the Lower Pyrenees. It is an inland town, and the chief place of a canton, but remarkable for little, except two springs in the neighbourhood, from which salt is made in large quantities. Population 6400; 9 miles west-by-south of Orthez.

SALLO (Denys de), lord of La Coudraye, a man of letters, and the founder of modern periodical criticism, was born at Paris, in 1626, of a noble family, originally from Poitou. He was educated to the law, and was admitted a counsellor of the parliament of Paris, in 1652. He had a great passion for reading, especially on curious and uncommon subjects, in proof of which the following facts have been adduced. When cardinal Chigi was legate in France, and doubts had arisen concerning his right of precedence, M. Sallo drew up a treatise "De Legatis." The court being afterwards in doubt whether Maria-Theresa ought to be denominated of Austria or Spain, he was applied to on the occasion, and wrote a learned tract "On Names." He composed another "On Seals," and other similar pieces, which have not been made public. In 1664 he projected the "Journal des Savans," which he began to publish under the name of Sieur d'Hedouville. He had several coadjutors in this work, and it began in a free style of criticism, which excited the loud complaints of some celebrated authors, who, by an undue influence, caused the work to be suppressed after the appearance of the 13th number. Sallo then transferred the editorship to the abbé Gallois, who contented himself with extracts of books, without venturing upon any opinions of their merits. It afterwards passed into the hands of the abbé de la Roque, and the president Cousin, and was finally committed to a body of men of letters, appointed by the chancellor. It was the forerunner, or indeed the parent, of all the literary journals which have since appeared in Italy, Germany, Holland, and England, which, with all their defects, have certainly contributed much to the diffusion of knowledge and just principles of taste. Sallo died at Paris, in 1669, at the age of forty-three.

SA'LLOW, *s.* [*saule*, Fr. ralh, Sax. *salix*, Lat.] A tree of the genus of willow.

Sallows and reeds on banks of rivers born,
Remain to cut to stay thy vines. *Dryden.*

The more particular explication of willows and *sallows*, and distinguishing them into ten species. *Worthington.*

SA'LLOW, *adj.* [*salo*, Germ. black; *sale*, Fr. foul; or rather, perhaps, from an analogy between the *drooping* of the tree and the colour of melancholic persons.] Sickly; yellow.

What a deal of brine
Hath washt thy *sallow* cheeks for Rosaline? *Shakspeare.*

SA'LLOWNESS, *s.* Yellowness; sickly paleness.—A fish-diet would give such a *sallowness* to the celebrated beauties of this island, as would scarce make them distinguishable from those of France. *Addison.*

SALLUST (Caius Crispus Sallustius), a celebrated Roman historian, was born about the year 85, B.C. in the country of the Sabines. He was educated at Rome, and was not less distinguished for his licentiousness than for his talents. It is recorded of him, that being detected in an adulterous intercourse, he was actually scourged by the hand of Milo, and obliged to pay a fine before he obtained his dismission. His extravagance and debauchery caused

caused him to be expunged from the list of senators by the censors Appius Claudius and Calpurnius Piso. He was afterwards restored by Julius Cæsar, promoted to the dignities of quæstor and prætor, and nominated to the government of Numidia. In this high office he enriched himself so much by pillage and rapine, that on his return to Rome he was enabled to build himself a magnificent villa, with extensive gardens, on the Quirinal Hill, which even still retain the name of Sallust. He married Terentia, the divorced wife of Cicero, and from this circumstance, it has been said by some, arose an everlasting hatred between the orator and the historian; though, according to others, this enmity was occasioned by the defence which Cicero undertook to make for Milo in the case of Clodius. Sallust died in the 51st year of his age, in the year 35 before the Christian era. The vices of this man deserve a peculiar stigma, on account of their contrast with the rigid morality contained in his writings, which might lead the incautious reader to take him for a Cato. But while the man and the statesman must be ever held in contempt and abhorrence, the author has always been regarded as one of the ornaments of the age and country in which he flourished. He had composed a history of the Roman republic, from the death of Sylla to Catiline's conspiracy: of this nothing remains but a few fragments. His only compositions that have come to modern times, in a state of tolerable perfection, are the history of Catiline's conspiracy, and of the wars of Jugurtha, king of Numidia. In these works, which have met with uniform applause, the author is greatly admired for the elegance, the vigour, and the animation of his sentences: he every where displays a wonderful knowledge of the human heart, and paints with a most masterly hand the causes that gave rise to the great events which he relates. No one was better acquainted with the vices that prevailed in Italy, from his own practice of many of them; and no one seems to have been more severe against the follies of the age, and even those failings of which he not only stood guilty in the face of the world, but must have stood self-condemned. His descriptions are elegantly correct, and his harangues are nervous and animated, and, apparently, extremely well adapted to the character and different pursuits of the great men in whose mouths they are placed. By the moderns it is agreed that the concise energy of the Latin language is no where displayed to more perfection than in the existing works of Sallust, in which there is great skill shewn in sketching the characters that come under his notice. By his contemporaries his style was criticised for an affectation of the use of old words, and an occasional obscurity, produced by the boldness of figure and excess of brevity. Notwithstanding this defect, if it were a defect, his reputation stood very high in Rome: Martial calls him "primus in Romana historia;" and Tacitus speaks of him as "rerum Romanarum florentissimus auctor." Quintilian compares him to the Greek Thucydides.

Though faithful in every other respect, he has not painted the character of Cicero with all the fidelity and accuracy which the reader claims from the historian; and in passing over in silence many actions which reflect the greatest honour on the first husband of Terentia, the rival of Cicero has disgraced himself, and rendered his compositions in some respects suspicious. There are preserved also, under the name of Sallust, two orations to Cæsar, "De Republica Ordinanda," and two declamations against Catiline and Cicero. The authenticity of the orations is doubtful, and the declamations are, by the best informed critics, decided to be spurious. Of this author the editions have been numerous, but the most esteemed are those of Gronovius, cum. not. var. Lug. B. 1690; of Wasse, Cantab. 1710; of Havercamp, Amster. 1742: and of Edinburgh, 1755. There are other persons noted in Roman history of the same name: of whom one was a nephew of the historian, by whom he was adopted. He is said to have imitated the moderation of Mæcenas, and to have remained satisfied with the dignity of a Roman knight, when he could have made himself powerful by the favour of Augustus and of his successor Tiberius. Horace dedicated one of his odes to him. Secundus Promotus Sallustius was a native of Gaul, and the intimate friend of the emperor Julian. He is remarkable for his integrity, and the soundness of his counsels. He was prefect of Gaul. There is another "Secundus," sometimes confounded with Promotus, who was also a favourite of Julian, who made him prefect of the East. He conciliated the good graces of the Romans by the purity of his morals, and the excellence of his religious principles. After the death of Jovian, he was universally named by the officers of the Roman empire to succeed to the imperial throne, but he declined the honour, pleading old age, and its attendant infirmities, as his excuse. The Romans would have invested his son with the imperial purple, but the father very wisely opposed so dangerous a situation for the young man, saying that he had not experience to support the dignity to which they would have elevated him.

SALLUVII, in Ancient Geography, a people of Gallia Narbonnensis, whose capital was Aquæ Sextiæ. These people are the same with the Salians: they were anciently enemies of the Romans: but in the year of Rome 629, the consul M. Fulvius repulsed their enterprises, and their chief Teutomal, in the year 631, was defeated by C. Sextius Calvinus, who was the consul that founded Aquæ Sextiæ. *Pliny.*

SA'LLY, *s.* [*sallie*, Fr.] Eruption; issue from a place besieged; quick egress.—The deputy sat down before the town for the space of three winter months; during which times *sallies* were made by the Spaniards, but they were beaten in with loss. *Bacon.*—Range; excursion.—Every one shall know a country better, that makes often *sallies* into it, and traverses it up and down, than he that, like a mill-horse, goes still round in the same track. *Locke.*—Flight; volatile or sprightly exertion.—These passages were intended for *sallies* of wit; but whence comes all this rage of wit? *Stillingfleet.*—Escape; levity; extravagant flight; frolick; wild gaiety; exorbitance.—The episodical part, made up of the extravagant *sallies* of the prince of Wales and Falstaff's humour, is of his own invention. *Malone.*

To SA'LLY, *v. a.* To make an eruption; to issue out.

The noise of some tumultuous fight:
They break the truce, and *sally* out by night. *Dryden.*

SA'LLYPORT. *s.* Gate at which sallies are made.

My slippery soul had quit the fort,
But that she stopp'd the *sallyport*. *Cleaveland.*

SALM, the name of several principalities or domains in Germany. The territory originally of this name, lay chiefly in Lorraine and Luxemburg; but having been ceded to France in 1802, the possessors were indemnified out of the secularisations to the east of the Rhine, and stand at present as follows:—1st. Salm-Salm, and Salm Kirburg, possess, in or near the bishopric of Munster, territory to the extent of 620 square miles, with a population of 60,000. 2d. Salm Reiferscheid, subdivided into four branches (two bearing the title of princes, and two that of counts), possess domains, partly in Suabia, partly in Bohemia, Moravia, and the Netherlands.

SALM, a small river of the grand duchy of the Lower Rhine, which rises near Manderscheid, and falls into the Moselle near Numagen; 8 miles below Treves.

SALM, Old, a small town of the Prussian province of the Lower Rhine; 12 miles north-north-east of Spa, and 45 north of Luxemburg. Population 2500. It was the chief place of the Lower county of Salm.

SALMAGU'NDI, *s.* [It is said to be corrupted from *selon mon gout*, or *salé à mon goût*. *Johnson.*—The French write it *salmigondi*; and the author of La Vie Privée des François, says, it originally signified an entertainment among tradesmen, or low artisans, where each person brought a different dish. Cotgrave calls it a hash, made of cold meat sliced and heated in a chafingdish, with crums of bread, wine, verjuice, vinegar, nutmeg, and orange peel. *Malone.*—"It is probably a corruption of the Latin *salgama*, salted meats, preserved fruits. *Todd.*]—A mixture of chopped

chopped meat and pickled herrings, with oil, vinegar, pepper, and onions.

SALMASIA [so named in memory of Claudius Salmasius], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order trigynia, natural order of Cisti (*Juss*).—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, five parted; segments oblong, acute, permanent. Corolla: petals five, oblong, clawed, inserted into the receptacle, the length of the calyx. Stamina: filaments five, capillary, the length of the corolla, inserted into the receptacle. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germ three-corned, superior. Style none. Stigmas three. Pericarp: capsule three-cornered, three-celled, three-valved. Partitions contrary to the valves. Seeds very many, minute. —*Essential Character.* Calyx five parted. Corolla five-petalled. Style none. Capsule three-celled, three-valved, many-seeded.

Salmasia racemosa.—This is a shrub with round hirsute rufescent branches. Leaves alternate, sub-sessile, oblong acuminate, quite entire, smooth. Stipules linear, hirsute, deciduous. Flowers white in long axillary and terminating racemes. Peduncles hirsute.—Native of Guiana in woods.

SALMASIUS, or SAUMAISE, (Claude), a learned writer, was born at Saumur, in the year 1588. He received the elementary part of his education under his father, and afterwards studied at Paris and Heidelberg. He succeeded Scaliger as professor of history at Leyden. Richelieu offered him a considerable pension on condition of his settling in France, which Salmasius refused. The king, however, conferred upon him considerable honours, and made him counsellor of state. In 1649, he wrote a defence of Charles I. of England, to which Milton replied. (See MILTON.) In the following year he went to Sweden, on an invitation from queen Christina. He died at Spa, in 1653. His principal works are "Historiæ Augustæ Scriptores Sex;" "De modo Usurarum;" "Dissertatio de Fœnore trepezetico, in tres libros diviso;" "De Re militari Romanorum;" "De Hellenistica;" and he was the editor of several ancient authors, as Florus, Polyhistor, Simplicius on Epictetus, &c.

Though violent as a controversalist, Salmasius was, in private life, extremely mild and unassuming. His mind was a vast magazine of multifarious knowledge, laid up by the help of memory and application, but crude, inexact, and little adorned by taste or judgment. There was scarcely any topic of learned discussion in which he did not engage, and he contributed to the illustration of numerous works of antiquity. Most of the great scholars of his time speak of him with high commendation, though he had also many enemies and detractors, whom he provoked by that arrogance and propensity to abuse which has been but too common among critics. One of Salmasius's biographers, Sorbiere, has thus described his literary character. "It is impossible to dispute his opinions, in the smallest degree, without being called a blockhead or an idiot; and an antagonist must lay his account with receiving from him a thousand insults, which rather fall upon the person, than defend the point in question. For these forty years that he has been setting the press to work, nothing has fallen from his pen but invectives, sparingly mixed with solid knowledge. He has constructed no work with lime and sand by which posterity will be benefited. He cannot live without illustrious enemies, and without some quarrel upon his hands; and it does not suffice him to have disarmed his man, and obtained from him usual satisfaction, he must trample him in the dirt, and disfigure him. His latinity runs away with him. He is unwilling that all the foul language which he has learnt should be lost, and he finds it more easy to produce from the stores of his memory the reproachful terms which he has collected from ancient authors, than delicate raillery and sound argument from any other source." Salmasius composed with rapidity, and is said never to have revised what he had written. The abundance of matter that occurred to him while engaged on any subject, led him perpetually into digressions, and to forget what he had advanced, and even plunged him into contradictions, so that he has been described as a receptacle of erudition rather than an able dispenser of it.

SALMAST. See SELMAST.

SALMESTON, a village of England, in Kent, near Margate.

SALMO, [Lat. probably from *salto*, to leap, in allusion to the well-known power of leaping displayed by these fishes.] a genus of fishes of the order abdominales. The Generic Character is, that the body is covered with scales; the second dorsal fin adipous, or fat, and destitute of rays.

The fishes of this genus are in general the handsomest, the best tasted, and the most wholesome, of the finny tribe; but some must be excepted, whose flesh is too fat. They have commonly a lengthened body, covered with round scales with thin stripes, ornamented with beautiful spots, and furnished with eight fins. The head is without scales, flattened at the sides. The mouth is large: the lips small; sometimes the upper jaw is protruded beyond the under; there are sharp teeth, not only in the mouth, but also in the throat and upon the tongue. The tongue is white, gristly, and moveable. The eyes are not very large, and are placed at the sides of the head. The nostrils are divided by an intermediate membrane, and are placed between the eyes and the upper lip. The coverings of the gills consist of three bony laminæ. The membrane of the gills is furnished with strong osseus rays in some species to the number of twelve. The back is round, and forms almost a straight line from head to tail. The lateral line, which is nearer to the back than to the belly, is almost straight from head to tail. The sides are but little flattened; the belly is straight; the anus is near the tail-fin.

They are voracious fish, and haunt rapid streams which have a bottom of sand or flint, and soon die when taken out of the water. Some live in the ocean, as the salmon, the salmon trout, and the grayling; but in spring they seek the rivers, make long voyages, and return to the salt water after spawning time.

With respect to the interior construction of fishes of this genus, the œsophagus is in large folds; the stomach is separate, consisting of a thick skin. The intestinal canal has but two sinuosities, and is furnished with several appendages at the beginning. The air bladder is not divided; the roe and ovaries are double. The gall is yellow, and not very bitter; and the cavity of the belly is very long.

Fishes of this genus are most generally found in the northern ocean; the eastern and western seas contain but few, and the Mediterranean furnishes but two species; so that it is not surprising that Greek and Roman naturalists describe but few.

This genus is separated into four distinct divisions. I. Into those genera whose body is variegated: II. Those whose dorsal and anal fins are opposite to each other: III. Those which have scarcely any teeth, or which at least are barely discernable: and IV. Those whose gill-membrane has not more than four rays.

I.—Body variegated.

1. Salmo Salar, or common salmon.—This well-known fish, when the mouth is shut, has the upper jaw protruding a little; this, and the 13 rays in the anal fin, form the distinctive character. In males of the full growth, the under jaw forms a kind of hook which shuts into a cavity of the upper. There are 12 rays in the membrane of the gills; 14 in the pectoral fins, 10 in the ventrals, 13 in the anal, 21 in the tail, and 14 in the dorsal.

In both jaws there are sharp teeth, between which there are smaller ones, which are moveable or loose; the upper jaw not only has more than the lower, but there are also on both sides of the palate two rows of sharp teeth; besides these, on each side of the œsophagus, near the gills, there is a bone, with such-like teeth, bending inwards; and on the tongue

tongue there are six or eight bent backwards. The palate is smooth. The forehead is black, as well as the back of the head and the cheeks, only the cheeks have a small mixture of blue. The eyes are small, pupil black. The back is black; the sides bluish above the line, silvery below, sometimes with black spots; but Jonston says, these black spots go off when they come to live in fresh water, and are only found in those caught in the sea. The belly and throat are of a yellowish red; the ground-colour of the pectoral fins the same, edged with blue; the ventral and anal fins are yellow, and there is an appendage above the former. The tail-fin is forked, and blue; the adipous fin is black, and the dorsal spotted and grey. The scales are middle-sized, and easily rub off. The lateral line is black, and goes straight towards the tail.

Salmons form the connexion between sea and river fish. They come into being in fresh water, grow in the sea, pass the summer in rivers, and return in winter to the sea; so that salt water and fresh have equal pretensions to claim this fish. It is common in the northern ocean, which it quits at spawning-time for the rivers that run into it; so that it is not only found in those parts of Europe which communicate with the ocean by means of rivers, but also at Kamtschatka, in the Caspian sea, in Greenland, New Holland, and North America. In Kamtschatka, particularly, they are in great plenty; Pennant says, that, during great floods, such quantities of them come up the rivers, that, when the waters retire, numbers are left to die, so as to infect the air, and occasion contagious disorders.

This fish forms a strong example of the instinct whereby animals are led to the propagation of their species; for it quits the ocean were it finds food in abundance, to gain the streams where man destroys its, tries every stratagem to escape the net, overcomes a thousand obstacles in the course of its long journey, and all this to find a convenient place to deposit its spawn. The time of spawning, which last six or eight days, is in May in southern countries, as Britanny; in the north, as in Sweden, it is not till July. One very remarkable thing is, that the salmon finds out again the place where she has spawned, as the swallow knows again the house where she has made her nest: De la Lande made the experiment by marking some salmons, as has been done to the swallows: he bought 12 of these fish of a fisherman of Chateaulin, (a little town in Lower Britanny, where sometimes they catch 4000 salmons in a year,) and to their tails he fastened a copper ring, and then set them at liberty: the fishermen assured him, that the next year they caught five of these very fish, the second year three, and three also the third. The princes of the east, who are fond of fishing, sometimes put rings of gold or silver upon the salmons, and then throw them back into the water; and by afterwards taking these fish, it is said, that the communication of the Caspian Sea with the Black Sea and Persian Gulph was discovered.

Towards the spring, when the ice begins to melt on the borders, the salmon seeks the fresh water; they are consequently found in greatest plenty in those streams whose mouth is narrow, because their waters go farther on into the sea; they commonly move from the ocean in spring with that strong tide and wind which fishermen call a salmon-wind, and seek the rivers.

The salmons commonly enter the rivers in shoals, and in two lines which form the sides of a triangle, in such order, that the females generally go first; then the largest males; and the smallest bring up the rear; so that, when the fishermen have taken the smallest males, they know they shall have no more of that shoal. Sometimes the shoals are so numerous, that, uniting their strength, they tear the nets, and escape. When the salmon swims, he keeps in the middle of the stream, and near the surface of the water. He makes much noise in his progress. When the weather is stormy, or very hot, these fish keep at the bottom of the water, and thus pass on without being perceived. The reason why they keep in the middle of the stream and near the surface of the water, is, because they delight in a rapid current; and, according to the observations of Mariott, rivers run more swiftly in the middle than near the banks, and near the surface than at the bottom.

The salmon, as we have observed, makes very long journeys; for instance, he goes from the North Sea into the Elbe, and into Bohemia by the Moulde, and into Switzerland by the Rhine. If any dikes or cascades oppose his passage, he leaps to a most astonishing height. Raising himself to the surface of the water, he bends his tail until it meets his mouth, thus forming a circle; then, quickly taking his usual form, he strikes the water with force, and rises five or six feet from the surface with great ease; when near the sea, where his strength is greater, he will rise to the height of fourteen feet.

If the salmons, at the outset of their journey, meet with two rivers, the one rapid, the other a smooth stream, they prefer the first; but when they have travelled some distance, they will prefer the latter. They also love rivers whose banks are furnished with trees, as they delight in coolness and shade; but they avoid such as have buildings near them; neither do they like shallow waters. Floating wood and weeds frighten them much, and they return back if they see boards or planks floating. According to the observations of Giefler, the salmon advances but one mile in four-and-twenty hours, and only half so much when the sun shines, because then they amuse themselves with playing on the surface of the water; this appears almost incredible, considering the long journeys they have to make in the course of a month or six weeks. Their course, however, is certainly not rapid, because in the Kuddo, into which they go immediately out of the Netze, it is much later before they fish for them.

When the salmons wishes to repose, he seeks for a large stone, against which he rests his tail, turning his head against the stream; if driven away by any noise, he returns to the same posture when he supposes the danger past; which is a direction to the Swedish fishermen in taking them.

Forster says, that, when the salmon first enter the rivers, they are covered with lice; in their progress these diminish; and at their return they have none at all. Some naturalists suppose that the object of their voyages is to rid themselves of these insects; but, as they soon leave them, it would not be necessary to go up to the smallest rivers: besides all salmon have not these insects, and many other fish are migratory without any such motive.

The salmon feeds on smaller fish, on insects, and on worms; this kind of nourishment contributes so much to their growth, that at the age of five or six years, they will weigh ten or twelve pounds; and they soon reach a much more considerable growth. Bloch gives a drawing of one taken in the Wesel which weighed 40lbs. In Scotland they weigh 70lbs.; in Sweden 80lbs.; and it is said there are some in New France more than six feet long.

They are very greedy, and will devour even the stickleback, which the voracious pike will not touch: Muller affirms that he found forty-five of these in the stomach of one salmon; though fishermen in general say that no food whatever is ever found in the stomach of this fish. Perhaps this may be owing to a temporary neglect of food about the season of spawning or fecundation. It is well known that the angler takes them successfully with the fly, the worm, or small fish, an evident proof that these are the animals on which they feed.

The salmon fishery makes a very considerable article of commerce in many countries, particularly in England, Scotland, and Ireland, in the rivers, and sea-coasts adjoining to the river-mouths. The most distinguished for salmon in Scotland are, the river Tweed, the Clyde, the Tay, the Dee, the Don, the Spey, the Ness, the Bewly, &c., in most of which it is very common, about the height of summer, especially when the weather happens to be very hot, to catch four or five score salmon at a draught. The chief rivers in England for salmon are, the Tyne, the Trent, and the Severn.

Severn. The fishing is performed with nets, and sometimes with a kind of locks or weirs made on purpose, which in certain places have iron or wooden grates so disposed, in an angle, that, being impelled by any force in a contrary direction to the course of the river, they may give way and open a little at the point of contact, and immediately shut again, closing the angle. The salmon, therefore, coming up into the rivers, are admitted into these gates, which open, and suffer them to pass through, but shut again, and prevent their return. The salmon is also caught with a spear, which they dart into him when they see him swimming near the surface of the water.

The capture of salmon in the Tweed, about the month of July, (says Mr. Pennant), is prodigious. In a good fishery, often a boat load, and sometimes near two, are taken in a tide: some years ago there were above 700 fish taken at one hawl, but from 50 to 100 is very frequent. The coopers in Berwick then begin to salt both salmon and gilses in pipes and other large vessels, and afterwards barrel them to send abroad, having then far more than the London markets can take off their hands.

Most of the salmon caught in Northumberland, in the Tyne and Tweed, are sent to London; in the conveyance of which a great improvement has taken place of late years by packing them in pounded ice, instead of straw; by this method they are presented nearly as fresh at the London market as when taken out of the river. For the purpose of carrying them, and keeping up a constant and regular supply, vessels called smacks sail three times a-week, and, being purposely constructed for swift sailing, frequently make their run in forty-eight hours: these vessels are from 70 to 120 tons burthen; twelve men on an average are employed in each vessel; they make about fourteen voyages in a year; and not less than 75 boats and 300 fishermen are employed in taking the fish in the river Tweed.

Ireland (particularly the north) abounds with this fish: the most considerable fishery is at Cranna, on the river Ban, about a mile and a half from Coleraine. "When I made the tour of that hospitable kingdom in the year 1754," says Mr. Pennant, "it was rented by a neighbouring gentleman for 620*l.* a-year; who assured me, that his predecessor gave 1600*l.* per annum and was a much greater gainer by the bargain, on account of the number of poachers who destroy the fish in the fence months." The mouth of this river faces the north; and is finely situated to receive the fish that roam along the coast in search of an inlet into some fresh water, as they do all along that end of the kingdom which opposes itself to the northern ocean. We have seen near Ballicastle, nets placed in the sea at the foot of the promontories that jut into it, which the salmon strike into as they are wandering close to shore; and numbers are taken by that method. In the Ban they fish with nets 18 score yards long, and are continually drawing night and day the whole season, which we think lasts about four months; two sets of sixteen men each alternately relieving one another. The best drawing is when the tide is coming in: we were told, that at a single draught there were once 840 fish taken. A few miles higher up the river is a weir, where a considerable number of fish that escape the nets are taken.

The Norwegians have a particular method for drawing the salmon to their shores: they cover the rocks so as to make them look of the colour of waves running into the sea, which the salmon will follow. In the parish of Christiansand in Norway, between some very steep rocks, there is a remarkable and dangerous salmon-fishery in the river Mandal, near Bieland-bridge, which is built on piles protruding into the river. It is described as follows:—Not far from the bridge, to the north, the river forms a large cataract over a hollow rock. The fishermen venture into this hollow, on osier baskets which are made fast to one of the piles to prevent their being swallowed up in the gulph; if this pile breaks, the men are lost; if they run against the rocks, which has often happened, they are dragged out half dead by their companions; but if the beam holds firm, they swim on their rafts of osier, into the inmost hollows of the rocks, where the salmons abide: they drive them thence, to the number of twenty or more at a time, and their companions catch them as they come out.—Many are also taken in Sweden, and in the Gulph of Bothnia, near Laponia; they are found likewise in those fresh waters which run from the mountains upon the melting of the snow. In Holland, at the mouth of the Rhine and Meuse, salmon are taken in plenty, as also near Schonhoren from the 16th of May till the 10th of June.

Dr. Schæpf saw this fish in the river Connecticut, in America; there they pickle it, and then carry it to New York. It resembles the European in size and taste; but, according to this author, it is not found in the rivers of South America.—They are taken from time to time in Greenland. According to Professor Falck, salmon are taken, but not frequently, in the Wolchow, near Novogorod. The Tartars tan the skin, and make clothes of it.

Salmon is excellent food, especially in spring, when fat; but this very fatness requires a strong stomach to digest it. However, all waters do not produce them equally good; those in the Rhine and Weser are better than those in the Elbe; yet the flesh is more tender of those that have remained some time time in the Milde, which runs into the Elbe near Dessau. It is the same with the salmon of the Oder, whose flesh is lean and tough; but those that quit that river for the Varthe, the Netze, and the Kuddow, acquire in those rivers a tender pleasant taste. At Schneidmul, in East Prussia, a salmon from the Kuddow will sell for a ducat; whereas one of the same size from the Netze, which is not far from that place, is worth no more than half-a-crown. The flesh of this salmon is reddish; the fatter it is, the finer. It swells when smoked or dressed; and cooks know how to give it the best look by soaking or frequently dipping it in fresh water before they boil it. In spawning-time it is thin, whitish, and ill-tasted; at which time the males have brown spots and little risings on the scales. When it first returns to the sea after spawning, it is thin also and is called *wracklacks* by the Swedes. The young, after passing the winter in fresh water, go to the sea the next year; then they are called *smelts;* in the second year they are called *sprods;* in the third, *morts:* the fourth, *fork-tails;* the fifth, *half-fish;* the sixth they attain their full growth, and then gain their proper name, *salmon.* Numbers of the early salmon, or smelts, are fished up about Basle and Strasbourg; they are taken by placing the nets in such a manner that the fish enter them by following the stream, whereas those for taking full-grown salmon should be placed in a contrary direction. The destroyers of salmon, besides man, are the shark, sea-eagle, and sea-vulture; the latter sometimes lose their lives when they attack a large one; for the fish, when attacked, sinks to the bottom, with the claws of his enemy sticking to his back, who thus is drowned. The grayling is also an enemy to the salmon.

Salmon is prepared for keeping in the following manner: It is cut in pieces, cleaned, cleared of blood, and sprinkled with Spanish salt; after being left some weeks in this state, it is put in casks, and covered with brine; it takes a quarter of a ton of salt to a ton of salmon. Before boiling, the salt should be washed off. The following is the process of smoking: The fish is split, and has the back-bone taken out; it is left in salt four days, then cleaned, and afterwards exposed to the smoke a fortnight or three weeks; then it is to be kept in a current of air. Those of a middling size are fittest for smoking; the small ones decay too soon, the larger ones do not take the smoke so easily.

The salmon dies not not only soon after being taken out of the water, but also in small reservoirs and troughs, unless placed in the middle of rivers. To preserve the taste, indeed, it should be killed as soon as it is caught, which is commonly by stabbing it near the tail with a knife. It is remarked that this fish will keep several weeks without spoiling, though it be very fat: "I have frequently," says Bloch, "received it fresh in straw after being carried 70 miles;

miles; and then, exposing it to the air, it has kept good for several weeks."

The salmon has a large red liver; but it is not good to eat, being fat, and having a taste of train-oil. The stomach goes down to the middle of the belly: the intestinal canal has at its beginning about seventy appendages or cæcums, which are united by a membrane; in this canal is commonly found a kind of solitary worm, three feet long; whose head is in one of the appendages; and this worm was found living, by Bloch, in a salmon that had been dead for three weeks. The air bladder which lies along the spine of the back, is not divided. The ovaries of a salmon of 20lbs. have been found to weigh 2½ ounces, and to contain 27,850 eggs of a red colour, not larger than poppy-seed. It has 36 vertebræ, and 33 ribs on each side.

"It would be worth while," says Bloch, "to make the experiment, whether the salmon might not be transported into our (the Prussian) lakes. As they can pass the winter in some of the lakes of Ireland, it is likely they might thrive in such of ours as have clear water, with a sandy bottom, and communicating with some stream. Even if they would not breed there, still much advantage might be gained by transporting them, as salmon is often at 5*s*. a-pound. As it would be necessary to choose a large lake, there would be plenty of provision; but the safest way would be to throw in some gudgeons, which delight in running streams."

The above account relates chiefly to the female salmon; for, according to Bloch, the difference between the male and female salmon is so great, as to require to be separately described. The head is much longer, and resembles the snout of a hog. The upper jaw is in the form of a bow at the sides; it ends in a point, and protrudes beyond the lower: and within, towards the end, it has a hollow, wherein the hook of the lower jaw shuts close; for the under jaw, in the males, has a large hook, or turned-up production, which is gristly and moveable: and were it straight, would make the lower jaw much the longest. The palate has two rows of teeth; but, in the female, there is only a single tooth here and there. In the male also, the head is ornamented with many round yellow and brown spots; but in the female only one, which is on the covering of the gills. In the male, the sides are marked with a great number of black spots of irregular figures; in the female, they are fewer, and mostly lunate. The males have also, near the belly, several spots of yellowish red or copper-colour, which are not on the female: the male, therefore, has in German, the name of upperlacks, or copper-coloured salmon. In the males, the tail-fin is more deeply forked than in the females, being lunate.

The Illanken, given by Gmelin as a variety, is by many considered as a distinct species. It is a large beautiful fish, and resembles the salmon more than the salmon-trout, but it is only a fresh water fish, belonging to the lake of Constance. They go to a distance to spawn; from the lake of Constance, whose waters are fresh, they pass to the Upper Rhine; setting out in April, and returning to the same lake in September or October; a journey of sixty or seventy miles, but which they require three or four months to perform.

The back is of a dark blue colour; and the sides above the lateral line a light blue; below the lateral line it is of a silvery white. The scales are small, though the fish is pretty large. The head is in proportion to the size of the body, in which it differs from the salmon, which has a small head. When the fish is two years old, the under jaw ends in a blunt hook; and then it is called *rheinanken*, *inlanken*, or *illanken*, though it is scarcely half a foot in length. There are ten rays in the membrane of the gills, fourteen in the pectoral fins, eleven in the ventral, twelve in the anal, twenty-one in the tails, and twelve in the dorsal.

The head is wedge-shaped; the jaws are armed with sharp crooked teeth, most of which are loose; there are two rows in the upper jaw; the palate, mouth, and tongue, are also furnished with them. The front and cheeks are marbled grey and black; under the snout it is blackish; there are two nostrils on each side, or rather the nostril is divided by a membrane. The eyes are large, being each twelve lines in diameter; the iris is quite silvery, the pupil black. The back is of a dark blue; the sides light blue, as far as the lateral line, and silvery below it. Here and there, especially near the tail, are some longish black spots of irregular figures; but, as the ground-colour is darkish likewise, the spots cannot be seen, unless you are near the fish; on the body there are neither red spots nor prickles. The rays of the fins are strong, with many ramifications, and are mostly of a grey colour; but the dorsal and tail-fins are blue. The tail, which is shaped like a shovel, has small furrows, and is commonly edged with black. The adipous fin is strong, large, and thick; it is also without spots, blackish only at the sides; in other parts grey.

The greatest enemy to the illanken is the pike; he follows him as far as Feldkirk, where they are often caught together in the same net: a pike, not half or even a quarter so big as one of these will attack it; and, taking advantage of its own superior activity, swims round him till he has an opportunity of piercing his belly, which he tears with his teeth. If the illanken can defend itself, the pike falls a victim; and the wound, if not very large, heals of itself; an illanken is seldom taken without a scar on its belly.

The illanken lives on fish, worms, insects, and carrion; they are particularly fond of grayling, so that fishermen say they do more harm than good in the lake, though they are esteemed as food themselves.

The interior conformation is nearly the same with the rest of this genus; what seems peculiar to this is, that the stomach extends to the middle of the belly; the intestinal canal, where it quits the stomach, has sixty-eight appendages, in four rows of seventeen each. The vertebræ are fifty-seven; and the ribs thirty-three on each side.

Bloch affirms this fish to be the *salmo lacustris* of Linnæus; but Cepede considers the *salmo lacustris* the same with the *salmo trutta*, or salmon-trout.

2. Salmo Schiefermulleri.—The Specific Character of this fish is, that the lower jaw is the longer, and that the body is marked with black spots. The head is pointed; the iris of a silvery yellow; the palate and tongue toothed; the lateral line is black, in the middle of the body; the fins brown, mixed with blue; the ventral fin has an appendage; and the tail is forked.

This species is found in the Baltic, and in the different lakes of Austria. They are taken in fresh water as well as salt; and thence it is supposed they are carried by inundations into the lakes. The silver salmon, which is taken in the Wippre, and on the shores of the Baltic, in Prussia, weighs about 18lbs., and is better tasted than the other salmon taken thereabouts. In those parts it is taken in summer and in autumn: but in Austria, only in May; and there it is called *Mayforelle*, May-trout. It is a well tasted fish in that country; but probably does not multiply very fast, as they are not caught in great abundance; so that Marsigli and Kramer, who have described the fish of that country, do not even mention them. It is a voracious fish, as may be seen by its teeth.

The cavity of the belly is long; the liver is small, and yellowish, consisting of two lobes; the gall-bladder is thin and small; the stomach is long; and goes as far as the pectoral fin; the rest of the intestinal canal has a straight direction; and is continued as far as the anal fin. The membrane of the air-bladder is thin; the ovary and roe are double.

3. Salmo eiox, or the grey salmon.—Specific Character. Cinereous spots on the body, tail even. Twelve rays in the membrane of the gills, 14 in the dorsal and pectoral fins, 10 in the ventrals, 12 in the anal.

Inhabits the European seas; is much less than the salmon and the flesh paler, but ascends rivers like it. Head more sloping and shorter than the salmon; body above the lateral line deep grey with purplish spots; belly silvery.

4. Salmo trutta, or the salmon-trout.—This species is distinguished by the black spots which cover the head and body

body, except the belly, on a light ground, and the 6 dots on each pectoral fin. There are 12 rays in the membrane of the gills, 14 in the pectoral fins, 10 in the ventrals and anal, 20 in the tail, and 14 in the dorsal, which last is nearer to the head than the ventrals, and above them there is an appendage.

The head is small and wedge-shaped; jaws of equal length, furnished with sharp teeth, a little bent, which knit into each other when the mouth is shut; besides these, there are three rows of teeth in the roof of the mouth, and the tongue has ten or twelve in two rows. The nose and front are black; the eyes small, pupil black, iris silvery, a little mixed with yellow; the cheeks are yellow and violet. The back, which is a little bent, and the lateral line, which is almost straight, are both black; the sides are black, inclining to violet. The belly and breast are white. The scales are small, especially those on the pectoral fins. The rays of the fins are branched, and of a grey colour, except the tail and adipous fins, which are black. The first is also broader than in the salmon, and has only one small furrow. The dorsal and adipous fins, as well as the body, are ornamented with little round black spots, with this difference, that those spots are not on a light ground, like those on the body; in some varieties, these spots are angular.

This fish is well named salmon-trout, since it partakes of the nature both of the trout and the salmon. It attains to the bigness of a middle-sized salmon; it is spotted like a trout, and spawns in winter like them. Like the salmon, it haunts sometimes the sea, and sometimes rivers, going into the last to deposit its eggs; but it does not quit the sea so early as the salmon; they seldom appear till May. Like the salmon, it spawns not till November or December; but, as the rivers freeze at that time, it does not return to the sea till after the thaw. It feeds, like others of the genus, on aquatic insects, worms, and young fry; and loves, like them, brisk running streams with a sandy or flinty bottom. The flesh is red and well-tasted, especially before spawning-time; but, like the salmon, the taste differs according to the waters it lives in; for instance, the salmon-trout of the Oder has the flesh pale, tough, and lean; but, after passing from thence into the Trago through the Warte and the Netze, it becomes fat and well-tasted; and moreover those which are caught in their return are always ill-tasted.—The colour and the spots change also according to the purity of the water wherein they have passed the winter. It is not very tenacious of life, but dies soon after it is out of the water.

The salmon-trout attains a considerable growth, even to the weight of eight or ten pounds. This fish possesses in a very high degree the property of emitting light in the dark, as do many other fish, especially those of the sea: the palate, tongue, gills, and eyes, throw out a great deal of light; by touching one of these parts with the finger, it will emit light also; and, by touching one of these parts and then rubbing another, the same quality is communicated. Hence it appears, that the luminous matter is contained in the mucus which covers those parts; for the flesh of the hind part of the neck does not emit the least particle of light. Now, as the fish is covered with a viscous matter, it is probable that the whole surface of its body is thereby enlightened, and that this luminosity is lost where the fish is washed and this viscous substance taken away; for, when kept out of the water the luminosity leaves it by degrees as it grows dry.

The salmon-trout is taken about Hamburgh, in the Elbe in the beginning of May, later in the Oder; but most are taken between Michaelmas and Christmas. It is caught in Lombardy; and in Russia in the Kama and Viaetka. In those places where they are caught most plentifully, they are salted, pickled, or dried. In Scotland they are salted like herrings, and make a considerable branch of the trade of that country.

The salmon-trout is excellent food; it is tender and well-tasted, especially when fat; it is moreover easy of digestion, and may therefore be recommended to weak and sickly persons.

In its internal conformation it resembles the salmon, except that its vertebræ and ribs are rather more in number. The solitary worm found in the intestinal canal is smaller than in the salmon. According to Pontopidan, this species is often subject to a consumption; then the head is large, the body lean, and the intestines covered with little pustules.

The white trout is a variety, with the dorsal fin spotted; the tail black, and much forked. In the dorsal fin 11 rays, 13 in the pectorals, 9 in the ventrals and anal. It migrates out of the sea into the Esk, in Cumberland; seldom exceeds a foot long; body above mixed black, dusky and silvery, beneath the lateral line of an exquisite silvery whiteness; first dorsal fin spotted with black. Upper-jaw a little longest, with two rows of teeth, lower with one; tongue with six teeth; lateral line straight.

5. Salmo fario, or the common trout.—This is distinguished by the whole body as far as the belly being covered with round spots, red within a light circle, and the lower jaw rather longest. Ten rays in the membrane of the gills, 14 in the dorsal and pectoral fins, 10 in the ventrals and anal, 20 in the tail.

The head is large when compared with other trouts. It is known moreover by the jaws being furnished with large teeth bent inwards, and the under jaw protrudes a little when the mouth is shut; on each side of the palate, or roof of the mouth, there are three rows of teeth, the middle ones are the largest; the tongue is also armed with six or eight teeth. The nose and front are of a deep brown; the cheeks yellow, mixed with green. The eye is middle-sized; the pupil black, edged with red; the iris white, with a blackish crescent-shaped border. The body is narrow; the back round, ornamented with black spots. The lateral line is strait, narrow, and black: below which line, the sides are of a yellowish green; above, they are of a golden yellow. The belly and throat are white. The body is covered with very small scales and round spots which contribute to its beauty: these spots, at the head and back, are blackish and not edged; on the sides they are red on a bluish ground. The pectoral fins are of a clear brown colour; the ventrals red, with an appendage above; the anal has the first and longest ray purple, the rest a mixture of grey with yellow; the tail is a deep green, rounded at the end, with a small furrow in the middle; the adipous fin is yellow, bordered with brown; the dorsal grey, and has several little round purple spots.

The trout is a very handsome fish; the females particularly are distinguished by their beauty. It is remarkable that this fish, which is found in all parts of the world, and is distinguished as well by its beauty as its use, should have been unknown to the ancients: neither the Greeks nor Pliny speak of it; the poet Ausonius, who lived at the beginning of the fifth century, is the first who has mentioned it.

This fish has a long narrow body, like the pike; it is commonly a foot long, and weighs half a pound; some are, however, found in ponds which weigh 3lbs.; one was caught in Saxony which weighed 8lbs. and was sent to George I. as a curiosity. The trout delights in clear cold water which runs from the mountains, a rapid stream, and stony bottom; and hence they are commonly found in rivulets which have their source among hills. It swims with celerity, and leaps like the salmon five or six feet to surmount any obstacles in its progress. It feeds on worms, small fish, snails, aquatic insects, &c. Their time of spawning differs in different countries: in Geneva and Switzerland, as in the lakes of Leman and of Neufchatel, they spawn in the spring; but in Germany and Prussia, where Bloch made his observations, the spawning-time was September or October. During that time they dig among the roots of trees, and large stones to lay their eggs: they multiply greatly, though they lay much fewer eggs than other river-fish; the reason of which is, that the rapacious fishes do not haunt those cold waters wherein the trout delights to breed: and they would increase still more, but that they devour one another, for small trout have been often found in the throats of the larger

larger: the grayling is also very fond of devouring their eggs. In spawning-time they may be taken with the hand.

In places where the trout-fishery is abundant, as in mountainous countries, and where they do not find an immediate market for them, they pickle them like salmon, or salt them like herrings.

The common trout is a fish universally known in this island, for the delicacy of its flesh, for the sport it affords to the angler, and for the superior beauty of its colours. The colours of the trout vary greatly in different waters: in Llyndivi, a lake of South Wales, are trouts marked with red and black spots, as large as sixpences. In Loch Neagh, in Ireland, and Hulse Water, in Cumberland, it is said there are trouts taken, which weigh about thirty pounds. These are probably of the same species with the celebrated trout of the lake of Geneva. The size alone of these fishes can recommend them; for in taste and flavour they are all inferior to our common river-trout. In the Italian rivers the trout abounds, and in all probability did so at the time when the Romans were transporting oysters from Sandwich, and the livers of the scari from the coast of Africa.

The trout is taken in many small rivers of the New Marches, in Prussia, in which country they are kept in ponds; also in the mountainous parts of Silesia, and particularly about Dantzick. They are very rare in the Seine, because the water is too mild and still; but they are found in the waters of the Pyrennees more than 2000 feet above the level of the sea. They can swim with wonderful rapidity against the stream in search of cooler water; but if caught in summer where the water is hot, and put quickly into a reservoir that is very cold, the sudden change kills them presently.

The flesh of the trout is tender and well-tasted, and the colder the water wherein it has lived, the better it eats: at the source of the Orbe, which comes from a rock in the canton of Berne, trouts are taken which have the taste of lobster, and surpass all others, especially if dressed as soon as they are caught. The trout is fat when other fish are lean, and lean when they are fat; so that in winter its flesh is white and ill-tasted, but in summer red and tender.

The interior conformation is the same as in the first species; only the skin of the stomach is much stronger, and this circumstance is observed to be no where so remarkable as in those found in some of the Irish lakes, and particularly in those of the county of Galway. These are called gillaroo-trouts: on the most accurate examination, however, it does not appear that they are specifically different from the common trout: but by living much on shell-fish, and swallowing small stones at the same time, their stomachs acquire a much greater degree of thickness, and a kind of muscular appearance, so as to resemble a sort of gizzard. The vertebræ also are 60 in number, and the ribs 30 on each side. The eggs are of an orange colour, and as big as pease, standing in rows; their size is the more remarkable, as in the largest fish, the silurus and the sturgeon, they are never bigger than a grain of millet. The eggs when dressed make a nice dish for the table; they are also used as a bait for the grayling; their colour is so lasting, that they have been kept for three years in spirits of wine without losing their brightness.

Bloch gives the following directions for the breeding of trout in places where they are not natural to the country. To form a trout-pond, there requires, 1. Water clear and cold, with a bottom of sand or flints. 2. Springs, or a stream that will bring a continual supply of fresh water; if it be a rivulet, it should be such as runs through cool shady places, or not having a distant source, otherwise the water in summer becomes too hot before it reaches the pond. 3. The banks should be high, or the trout, which loves to leap, may fall over on the ground, and die. 4. The pond should be surrounded with large trees, which give a coolness to the water. 5. There should also be at the bottom some roots of trees, or large stones, among which the fish may cast their spawn. 6. Great floods should be guarded against either by a trench or some other means; and care should be taken particularly, that the drains which run into it do not bring down the dirty and muddy waters of the hard rains. 7. The pond should never be less than from seven to ten inches deep. 8. You must provide them sufficient nourishment: as trouts are carnivorous, you should throw in fish which live in the same kind of water; the best for the purpose are gudgeons, and some of the smaller species of carp; for want of these, hashed liver, entrails, cakes made of bullock's blood and barley. In winter-time, you must break the ice to give them breath, the same as for carp, and with the same precautions. Lastly, the mouth of the pond should be guarded with narrow iron grating, that the young fry may not escape; and take care to keep away rapacious fishes, waterfowl, and frogs.—As for the size of the pond, sixty fish may be allowed for an acre.

M. Jacobi discovered a curious method of breeding trout and salmon. He had a trough twelve feet long, one foot and a half wide, and eight inches deep. At top, where the water was to run, a piece of wood was fastened across, with a hole in the middle six inches long and four wide. In the lower board was a hole four inches square, to let the water run. Both holes were closed with wire grating, so that the young fry could not escape. To hinder the ingress of rats, or other destroyers of fish, the trough had a cover with holes. The bottom was covered with gravel; and the vessel was placed in such a manner that the water might run in above, and run out below when it rose about two inches above the gravel. This being done, he took the males and females in spawning time, and by squeezing their bellies let out the ova and the smelts: these he put together into a small vessel of water, and stirred them about with his hand to mix them; then they were put into the trough we have been speaking of. M. Jacobi says, that if the eggs, &c. are left exposed for five weeks to the running of a good stream, the fish will of themselves break with their heads the skin that confined them in the egg, and, after moving about for an hour, a large aperture is seen, out of which they can thrust their belly, which is as large as the yolk of the egg; after this, they remain quiet for two days; and for the first three or four weeks they live on the yolk of the egg, which is still enclosed in their belly, so that the yolk diminishes in proportion as the fish grows; then it is time to put them into a larger place with the water in which they were hatched. "But," says Bloch "though M. Jacobi says they come out of the egg head-foremost, and bring the yolk with them, this peculiarity does not seem to me to be likely, as in general their nature must be the same with all other fishes that have scales."

The brown trout. This beautiful trout is a variety of the preceding; it differs not only in colour, but also in its haunts. The head is larger, and of a dark brown. When the mouth is shut, the upper jaw protrudes a little; and both jaws are armed with sharp teeth, as well as the palate and tongue. The iris is blue; the pupil black, edged with red. The back is round; and the sides are brown as far as the lateral line, and spotted, as well as the head, with violet; below the line, the sides are of a yellowish white, with red dots on a brown ground, and encircled with white. The belly is white, and larger than the foregoing. It has the same number of rays in the membrane of the gills and in the fins, except the tail, which has few more, and is consequently larger. Its colour in general is brown; yet the ventral, anal, and tail fins, have a mixture of yellow. They prefer the shade more than the common trout; and Bloch says they are better tasted also. According to Pontopidan, the brown trouts of Norway, when pretty well grown, leave the small streams, and go into the North sea.

6. Salmo erythrinus, or the red trout.—Specific Character. Scarlet ocellate spots on the body, jaws equal. Twelve rays in the membrane of the gills, 10 or 12 in the dorsal fin, 13 in the pectorals, 9 or 10 in the ventrals, 11 in the anal, 19 in the tail.

Inhabits

Inhabits the lakes and rivers of Siberia. Two feet long; is fat, and the flesh red and tender. Body roundish, compressed, above brown, beneath scarlet, the fore-part reddish-white. Head slightly compressed; front and gill-coverts grey; iris greenish; snout conic, obtuse; teeth in the palate and jaws in a double arch; tongue broad, toothed. Dorsal fin grey, with dirty-red ocellate spots, the fleshy one brown, long; pectoral paler; ventral and anal deep scarlet; tail forked, reddish-brown. Eggs yellow.

7. Salmo Gædenii, or the sea-trout.—Specific Character. Head small, red spots in a white ring on the body. There are 10 rays in the membrane of the gills, 15 in the pectoral fins, 10 in the ventrals, 11 in the anal, 18 in the tail, and 12 in the back.

The body is long and much thinner than the other trouts. The opening of the mouth is large; the jaws and roof of the mouth are armed with sharp teeth. The eyes are large, having a black pupil in a silvery iris. The cheeks, coverings of the gills, the sides, and the belly, are silver-coloured. The aperture of the gills is large. The back, front, tail, and fins, are brownish. The dorsal fin is ornamented with brown spots; the tail is forked. The lateral line has a straight direction, and runs rather nearer to the back than to the belly. The anus, as in most of the trout kind, is near the tail-fin; and the ventral fin has an appendage.

This fish is found in the Baltic; they are common at Rugenwald in Lower Pomerania; and grow to a foot and a half long, weighing from one to two pounds. The flesh is white, but lean, yet well tasted. It is called the silver trout, *silver forelle*, in the places where it is caught. It is not at all known in England, being first described by Bloch, who received it from Counsellor Gæden, of Lower Pomerania.

8. Salmo hucho, or the German trout.—Specific Character. Two rows of teeth on the palate; body, and all the fins except the pectorals, spotted with black. Twelve rays in the membrane of the gills, 17 in the pectoral fins, 10 in the ventrals, 12 in the anal, 16 in the tail, and 13 in the dorsal.

The snout ends in a point; the upper jaw protrudes a little beyond the lower; each jaw has a row of sharp teeth, and the palate and tongue have two. The head is brown above, silvery on the throat and cheeks; on the sides, the colour is silver mixed with red. The lateral line is faint and straight. The anus is near the tail, which is forked. The ground-colour of all the fins is yellowish; but, according to Marsigli, they are red while the fish is young.

This fish is found in Bavaria and Austria, in all the great lakes, and even in the Danube. It is said also to inhabit the Lake of Geneva, and to grow very large. This is supposed by Cepede to be the species which inhabits the Lake of Morat, and passes thence by the Thiole into the Lake of Neufchatel; it is called *salut*. The body of the hucho is long, and very fleshy. It grows to the length of four or five feet, and will sometimes weigh 70lbs. or even 100; in this, and its black spots, it resembles the salmon, but it is distinguished from it at first sight by its long body. It feeds, like the other trouts, on small fish; but the flesh is soft, and not so well tasted as the trout, so that it is much less esteemed. If we may rely on Marsigli, it spawns in June, which is the case with no other fish of this genus: it spawns at the bottom, on rough stones. This fish is found in all the rivers of Siberia. The largest which Falck had seen was three feet and a half long: they often ascend the large streams to pass into the smaller rivers, where they are taken in great numbers in nets.

9. Salmo lacustris, or the lake trout.—Specific Character. Minute black spots on the body, a longitudinal groove in the belly, tail forked. It inhabits the fresh-water lakes of Switzerland, Norway, and Siberia, and grows to a vast size.

10. Salmo carpio, or the gilt char.—Specific Character. Five rows of teeth in the palate. There are 12 rays in the membrane of the gills, 14 in the dorsal and pectoral fins, 10 in the ventrals, and 30 in the tail, which is forked.

This is a small species. The lower jaw is the longest, with eight punctures on each side. The sides and belly silvery, with little white spots; black spots on the back, red ones on the lower fins; the adipous fin not edged with red. This species says, Beckman, "is found chiefly in the Lago di Garda, the ancient Lacus Benacus, on the confines of Tyrol. The oldest account of this fish is to be found in works of the sixteenth century, such as the poems of Pierius Valerianus, and in Jovius de Piscibus. According to Linnæus, it is found in the rivers of England, but that is false. This celebrated naturalist suffered himself to be misled by Artedi, who gives the char or chare, mentioned by Camden in his description of Lancashire, as the Salmo carpio. Pennant, however, by whom it is not mentioned among the English fish, says expressly, that the char is not the carpio of the Lago di Garda, but rather a variety of the Salmo Alpinus."

11. Salmo Alpinessa, or the red char.—Specific Character. Back black, sides pale blue, belly orange; tail truncate. There are ten rays in the membrane of the gills, 14 in the pectoral fins, 8 in the ventrals, 12 in the anal, 24 in the tail, and 13 in the dorsal.

The head terminates in a blunt point. The pupil of the eye is black, in a silver iris, with a circle of gold. The body is covered with very minute scales; the dorsal fin, which is yellow, has some black spots; and there is a narrow appendage to the ventral fin. The back is greenish, the belly white. The lateral line is straight; the anus is near the tail. All the fins except the dorsal, are reddish; and the adipous fin is red at the extremity.

This species is very properly denominated the Alpine char by Linnæus; for its constant residence is in the lakes of the high and mountainous parts of Europe. A few are found in some of the lakes in Wales, and in Loch Inch, in Scotland, from which last it is said to migrate into the Spey to spawn. Seldom however, does this species venture into any running stream; its principal resort is in the cold lakes of the Lapland Alps, where it is fed by the innumerable larvæ of gnats that infest those dreary regions. When the Laplanders migrate to the distant lakes during summer, they find a ready and luxurious repast in these fishes; which to them are extremely palatable without any sauce; accustomed to temperance, and exercise, these hardy natives are independent of the inventions of epicurism. This species is also found in Siberia, in the Tabel and the Tom, and the rivers which run into them. But the largest and most beautiful chars are found in the lake of Winander-Mere, in Westmoreland, where there are three species, the red, the gilt, and the case, char. These kinds are nearly similar in their external appearance; but the time and manner of their spawning are so different, as to afford room for their specification into three distinct species. The case-char spawns about Michaelmas, and chiefly in a river that runs into the lake called the Brathy. The spawning season of the gilt char is from the beginning of January to the end of March: they never ascend the river; but make choice of a springy part of the lake, where the bottom is smooth and sandy. The manner of taking these fishes is with nets, or trammels, as they are called, which are furnished with bait to allure the fish, and left set for several days, till they are known to enter them.

Linnæus wonders, and with reason, what those trout can live upon that inhabit the mountains; as, being constantly covered with snow and ice, they offer neither plants, insects, nor other fish.

12. Salmo saloclinus, or the German lake trout.—Specific Character. Ventral and anal fins red, with the first ray white and stiff. There are 10 rays in the membrane of the gills, 14 in the pectoral fins, 9 in the ventrals, 12 in the anals, 24 in the tail, and 13 in the dorsal.

The head is compressed at the sides; the aperture of the mouth is wide; the jaws with small sharp teeth; and, when the mouth is shut, the upper advances a little beyond the under; the tongue is cartilaginous, loose, and, as well as the palate, furnished with two rows of sharp teeth; the nostrils are placed between the eyes and the edge of the mouth, in the middle; the eyes have a black pupil and silvery iris; the cheeks

cheeks are silvery, as well as the covering of the gills; the head is brown at top, and the back is of the same colour. The body is ornamented with round spots of an orange-colour edged with white. The lateral line is faint, and goes along the middle of the body. The ground-colour of the sides is white, and of the belly orange-colour. But the colours vary according to the quality of the water; for in clear cold water, the flesh is firmer and the colours more bright. In the Konigsee, the belly is yellowish, the spots on the sides extremely pale, and the fins reddish only; those in the Obersee have brighter colours; but those in the Hintersee are the handsomest, for the belly is of a fine yellow, and the fins a brilliant red. The anus is near the tail; the tail and dorsal fins are brown; there is an appendage to the ventral fin, and the tail is bifurcated.

This species is natural to the south of Europe. It is found in lake St. Bartholomew in Bavaria, in lake Traun in Austria, and in all the lakes which extend between the mountains from Saltzburg to Hungary between Austria and Styria. It commonly weighs about 2lbs., but sometimes as much as six, and one was taken some time since which weighed ten. Falck says it grows to the length of two feet or two feet and a half; it is found in all the large rivers of Siberia, and the small ones which run into them. It is not known in England. Most of this species spawn in December; though some spawn as early as October and November, while others do not begin till January.

This is a voracious fish, as the multitude of teeth testify. They love a clear cold water, and die soon after they are taken out. The male has the brightest colour on the belly; and in general they are handsomest while young, though the quality of the water contributes greatly to this, as remarked before; for the cleaner the bottom, and the more streams that run into the lake, the brighter are the yellow and red colours of this fish. There are 58 vertebræ, and 38 ribs on each side.

13. Salmo salmarinus, or the Italian lake trout.—Specific Character. Back tawny with yellow spots; tail forked. This is found in the cold stony rivers and lakes of Italy. Probably a variety of the last.

14. Salmo umbla, or the umbel.—Specific Character. Lateral line turned up, no spots on the body, tail forked. There are 15 rays in the pectoral fins, 9 in the ventrals, 18 in the tail, and 11 in the dorsal and anal.

The head is small; the upper jaw a little longer than the lower, which has two rows of small sharp teeth, the upper jaw only one. The covering of the gills is two thin whitish lamillæ; the aperture is large. The cheeks are greenish, mixed with white; the nape is a darkish green. The pupil of the eye is black, surrounded by an orange-coloured iris edged with silver. The belly is whitish; the back greenish. All the fins are short, and of a yellowish-green colour; the tail is forked. The scales are so small and delicate, as to be scarcely half a line in diameter, so that they are hardly perceived through the viscous matter which covers them.

This species is found in abundance in the lake of Geneva; also in that of Neufchatel, though but seldom. They commonly weigh from a pound to a pound and a half; and live on the shell-fish, snails, and small fish. It is very fat, yet is more delicate than the trout, consequently more esteemed, and dearer; particularly in summer, because then but rarely caught. A guinea was asked for one at Geneva in the summer of 1786. In winter, being plenty, they are sent to Lyons, and even to Paris.

15. Salmo taimen, or the taimen.—Specific Character. Body brownish, with darker spots; tail forked. In the dorsal fin 12 or 13 rays, in the pectorals 15 to 18, in the ventrals and anal 10.

This and the four following were first described by Pallas. The present species inhabits the rivers and streams of Siberia which run into the Frozen Sea. The body is fat, round, compressed towards the tail, a little silvery at the sides, beneath white; half a yard long; flesh white. The head long and fat; the snout a little depressed; teeth hooked; lower jaw a little longer. Dorsal fins brown; ventrals whitish, with an appendage; anal very red; tail dusky-red.

16. Salmo nelma, or the nelma.—Specific Character. Colour silvery white; head very long; lower jaw much the longest; tail forked. Ten rays in the membrane of the gills, in the dorsal fin 13, 14 in the anal. This inhabits the larger rivers of Siberia, and attains a length of two yards. Scales large. The pupil of the eye is oblong; iris silvery; the snout a little depressed, with broad laminæ near the aperture of the mouth.

17. Salmo lenok, or the lenok.—Pale gold, with a few brown spots; above reddish, beneath yellowish. In the dorsal fin 12 or 13 rays, 16 in the pectorals, 10 in the ventrals, 12 in the anal.

Resembles the tench. Inhabits the rapid and stony rivers of the mountains of Siberia, and is chiefly found near waterfalls; about a yard long. Body broad and thick; flesh white. Eyes small, angular on the fore-part, iris silvery. Dorsal fins spotted; pectorals pale yellow; ventrals reddish, with an appendage; anal deep red; tail reddish-brown, bifid.

18. Salmo kundscha, or the kundscha.—Silvery with white dots; tail forked. Eleven rays in the membrane of the gills, in the dorsal fin 11 or 12, 14 in the pectorals, 9 in the ventrals, 10 in the anal.

Inhabits the bays of the Arctic seas, and does not ascend rivers; two feet long. Resembles Salmo eriox, or grey salmon, except that the tail is forked. Body above and beneath the lateral line bluish. Iris yellow-silvery. Fleshy fin small, serrate; ventrals with a scaly appendage.

19. Salmo Arcticus, or the Arctic trout.—Silvery, with four rows of brown dots and faint lines on each side; tail forked. Nine rays in the membrane of the gills, 18 in the dorsal fin, 16 in the pectorals, 10 in the anal.

Inhabits the stony rivulets running into the Arctic sea; about a finger's length; resembles a young grayling. Head hardly compressed; front flat, with three longitudinal ridges; snout rounded, the jaws nearly equal; iris silvery.

20. Salmo stagnalis, or the Greenland trout.—Above brownish, beneath white; body roundish; upper jaw longest. Twelve rays in the membrane of the gills, 14 in the dorsal and pectoral fins, 10 in the ventrals and anal, and 21 in the tail.

This species inhabits the remoter mountainous rivers of Greenland; above seventeen inches long. Body long, growing slender towards the tail, and not spotted; flesh white. Head large, oblong-oval, compressed; snout rather pointed; tongue long, nearly obtuse, and like the jaws toothed at the edge; palate with three rows of crowded teeth; teeth strong, curved, very sharp. Gill-coverts large, smooth, double; lower fins hoary, white at the base. Pectoral fins a little longer than the dorsal; tail slightly forked, large; fleshy fin falcate, rounded at the tip; rays of the dorsal two inches long, and nearly equal.

21. Salmo rivalis, or the small Greenland trout.—Body long, brown; belly reddish; head obtuse. Inhabits the muddy rivers and stagnant waters of Greenland; hardly six inches long; body smooth, mucous, spotted with black, beneath dirty-red; resembles the gilt char, but is longer and more slender, and the head is more obtuse; feeds on insects. Scales small; iris flame-colour.

22. Salmo stroemii, or the Danish trout.—Dorsal and ventral fins edged with white. This inhabits the muddy waters of Denmark. Is probably the same with the Salmo mulleri, and is so considered by Cepede.

23. Salmo lepechini, or the Russian trout.—The upper jaw a little prominent; back brown, small black spots in circles of red on the sides; belly flame-colour. Eleven rays in the membrane of the gills, 9 in the dorsal and ventral fins, 14 in the pectorals, 12 in the anal, and 20 in the tail.

Inhabits the stony rivers of Russia and Siberia; resembles the red char; eight inches long; scales small; flesh reddish and firm. Head large, compressed, above greenish; eyes large, iris yellow; cheeks silvery; jaws with firm sharp teeth

teeth, curved inwards, the lower with sixty. Dorsal fin dusky, with large square spots, the others flame-colour.

24. Salmo silus, or the snub-nosed trout.—Brown, with yellowish fins; vent very near the tail-fin; scales large, shining. In the membrane of the gills 6 rays, 12 in the dorsal fin, 17 in the pectorals, 14 in the anal, 13 in the ventrals, and 40 in the tail.

Head broad and flat; jaws nearly equal; back convex, belly flat; the anal fin is just opposite the adipous dorsal. Length more than two feet. Inhabits the north sea.

25. Salmo albus, or the white trout.—Upper jaw longest; tail forked and black; lateral line straight; a silvery stripe along each side. Eleven rays in the dorsal fin, 13 in the pectorals, 9 in the ventrals and anal.

This species during the summer comes from the sea into the rivers of Great Britain. It has two rows of teeth in the upper jaw, one in the lower; six teeth on the tongue. The back is varied with brown and white; dorsal fin reddish.

26. Salmo varius, or the variegated trout.—Tail forked; body and tail very long; head and opercula scaly like the back; a longitudinal red stripe with black dots upon each side, under which the body is alternately yellow and black; fins varied black and red. Twelve rays in the membrane of the gills, 10 in the dorsal, 14 in each pectoral, 8 in each ventral and the anal, and 19 in the tail.

This and the three following were first described by Cepede. The present species was observed by Commerson about the shores of the Isle of France; it is not often met with; length eight inches or thereabouts. The colours are very various, and elegantly mixed. The brownish tints of the back are set off by red spots, and heightened by the red, yellow, and black of the two stripes on the sides, and the red and black of the fins. The under part of this fish is whitish. The irides are flame-colour, shining like carbuncles amidst the dark shades of the head. The head is shaped like that of a snake; the gape is very wide; teeth in the upper jaw sharp, but distant; in the lower crowded; the lower jaw is rather longest, the upper not moveable; there are teeth like recurved spines on the tongue, which is very short and hard; and a few smaller teeth in the palate. The upper rim of the orbit of the eye is near the top of the head. The gill-covert is in two pieces; vent near the tail-fin; lateral line nearly straight.

27. Salmo renatus, or the blue-spotted trout *(Cepede)*.—Nine or ten large blueish spots upon the lateral line; tail forked; jaws nearly equal; nostrils double. Twelve rays in the membrane of the gills, 10 in the dorsal fin, 13 in the pectorals, 9 in each ventral and the anal, and 25 in the tail.

In the Moselle, and especially near the mouths of that river, a species of Salmo has been caught which in Lorraine they used to call rené, or born-again. It has two rows of teeth on the tongue, and three in the palate. The top of the head and upper surface of the body, as well as the dorsal and tail fins, are of a dark colour: the under surface, and the rest of the fins, white or whitish.

28. Salmo Rilla, or the Rille trout *(Cepede)*.—Jaws equal; small red spots and smaller black ones on the body; two black spots upon each gill-covert. Thirteen rays in the membrane of the gills, 14 in the dorsal fin and each pectoral, 9 in each ventral and the anal, and 35 in the tail.

Seldom larger than a herring. It inhabits several rivers, and especially the Rille, which runs into the Seine near its mouth. This species has often been confounded with the young of the salmon, which has led to very erroneous ideas as to its manners and conformation. But some have gone farther, and pretended that the rilla never had either milt or ova, being produced from the spawn of certain salmon which had both, and thus united the two sexes. Hence a double error; for, 1st, there are no hermaphrodite fish, or fish which contain at once both milt and ova; 2dly, the rilla is not void of the means of producing. For the following description, Cepede owns himself indebted to Citizen Noel, of Rouen:—

The head of the rilla is small; the eye pretty large; both jaws and the tongue armed with small teeth. The opercu-lum is in three pieces; the lower rim of the upper piece somewhat crenellated. The lateral line is straight. The scales are oval, very small, and close together. The back is olive green; sides whitish, mottled with grey; the belly white. Reddish dots on the dorsal fin. The roe is large, double, firm to the touch, and very white. The flesh is very white, well-tasted, and soft. The vertebræ are 60 in number, a sufficient mark to distinguish this from the salmon. It prefers cold waters, like the trout, which it resembles in many respects.

29. Salmo gadoides, or the whiting trout *(Cepede)*.—Mouth very wide, lower jaw the longest; body grey, marbled, with red spots on the adipous fin, and red and brown spots on the back. Eleven rays in the membrane of the gills and in the dorsal fin, 13 in each pectoral, 9 in each ventral, 8 in the anal, and 20 in the tail.

It grows to the length of more than a foot. The form of the head resembles the Gadus tribe, and especially the whiting.

30. Salmo Cumberland, or the Cumberland trout *(Cepede)*.—Tail furrowed; jaws equal, two rows of small pointed teeth in each, and one row of sharp teeth in the middle of the palate; red dots along the lateral line. Ten rays in the membrane of the gills and in the dorsal fin, 8 in each pectoral and the anal, 9 in each ventral, and 28 in the tail.

Inhabits the lakes of Cumberland and Scotland: but has escaped the attention of our countryman Pennant, and all other writers, according to Citizen Noel, who observed it while in England, and communicated the following account of it to Cepede:—The head is small; the lateral line straight; the eye is large, and near the end of the snout. The mouth opens wide; the tongue is partly loose, and armed with two rows of teeth. The scales small; the adipous fin long. Prevailing colour white; back grey. Flesh white, but not very well tasted.

II.—Dorsal and anal fins opposite.

31. Salmo eperlanus, or the smelt.—Specific Character. Head diaphonous, lower jaw the longest, 17 rays in the anal fin. There are 7 rays in the membrane of the gills, 11 in the pectoral fins, 8 in the ventral, 19 in the tail, and 11 in the dorsal.

The smelt is nearly transparent; it shines bright, presenting successively the green, blue, and white, with which it is ornamented. The body is round, and becomes thinner towards the tail and towards the head; so that in shape it resembles a spindle. The head is small, ending in a blunt point. The eyes are large and round; pupil black, iris silver-colour inclining to blue. The under jaw is bent; the upper straight; both, as well as the roof of the mouth, furnished with teeth, which bend inwards; there are also four or five teeth on the tongue. The body, which seldom exceeds two or three inches in length, is covered with small silvery scales, which easily rub off. This fish is so transparent, that the parts of the brain may be discerned, and the vertebræ and ribs may be counted. The back is round, and of a grey colour; on the sides, the ground-colour is silver, varied with tints of green and blue. The belly is also round, and of a white colour inclining to red. If these colours are agreeable to the eye, the odour of this fish is by no means so to the smell.—All the fins are of a grey colour; the tail is forked; the adipous fin is opposite to the anal, and the dorsal is in the middle of the body.

This fish is common in the lakes of Germany which have a sandy bottom; and, as it haunts the deepest places, it is seldom taken but in spawning time, which happens in March, when they quit the deep places, and go in shoals into the rivers, where they lay their spawn on the sand at the bottom. They multiply much, are very plentiful in Sweden and England, and live on worms and little snails. They die soon after they are out of the water. The flesh is not very easy of digestion; yet with us they are esteemed good food.

The stomach in this species is very small; there are from four to six appendages to the intestinal canal. The air-bladder is single, and pointed at both ends; the ovary also is

is single, containing very small yellow eggs, but so delicate that it is impossible to count them. The peritonæum is silver-coloured with black dots. The vertebræ are 59; the ribs 35 on each side.

The variety called by Bloch the sea-smelt, resembles the above in its outward form, transparency, and the number of rays in the fins; but differs in the following particulars: 1. In the size and thickness of the body; for this is a giant compared to the other: the common smelt is from three to five inches long; this is ten or twelve. In England they are sometimes thirteen inches long, and weigh half a pound. Narborough saw some in the straits of Magellan twenty inches long, and eight round. 2. In their haunts; the first living in fresh water, the latter in salt. 3. By the smell, which is not so strong in the large, as in the small one. But here it may be remarked, that there is no disputing smells, (or giving a general rule for them,) any more than tastes; for Linnæus says the odour of this fish is like that of a dung-hill; while Pennant and others compare it to the smell of a violet.

It inhabits the depths of the Northern and Baltic Seas, whence it comes out in November, December, and January, and shews itself near the shores. In England, according to Pennant, they come into the rivers at that time; but only a few together. But in spawning time, which takes place in March, they go thither in great shoals to deposit their spawn on the stones. At that time they are caught in abundance, especially in Prussia, where they dry them in the air, as they do the common smelt, and send them to Poland in casks. They are plentiful also at the mouth of the Elbe; and, as the Hamburgh fishermen cannot sell all they take, they salt them, and send them into the neighbouring provinces. This species is natural to the northern countries; and is not found in the Mediterranean.

This fish is greatly tormented by a worm called *gordius harengum*. Commonly they are in the upper part of the back; sometimes half out, sometimes quite buried in the skin. The worm may be seen, however, in any situation; for, as the fish is transparent, and the worm is not, you need only hold the fish to the light in order to discern his tormentor. These worms will live after the fish has been dead several days. In the stomach of this fish, Bloch found a smelt of the same kind, about four inches long. The intestinal canal begins near the upper aperture of the stomach, and continues in a right line to the anus.

32. Salmo saurus, or the sea-lizard.—Specific Character. 12 rays in the dorsal fin, 11 in the anal. The pectoral fins have 12 rays, the ventrals 8, the anal 11, the tail 18, and the dorsal 12. Gmelin makes the specific character, 10 rays in the anal fin, but Artedius says 11, and is followed by Bloch and Cepede.

The head is narrow, flat at top, tapering off to a point. The aperture of the mouth is very wide; the jaws are of equal length, and strongly armed. The nostrils are single, and near the eyes. The eyes are near the top of the head; the pupil is black, iris blue and white; near the eyes, just above them, there is a hole. The gill-coverts are furnished with scales, and the aperture is wide. The body is oblong, fleshy, and covered with thin scales. The lateral line takes a direction along the middle of the body; and the anus is nearer the tail, which is forked, than the head. The back and belly are round. The rays of the fins are four-branched, except those of the ventrals, which are bifurcated only. The back is green, inclining to black; the belly white, with blue, brown, and green spots. This mixture of colours, and its sharp snout, have gained it the name of lizard. The flesh is lean, easy of digestion, but not very delicate; it is commonly eaten fried.

This fish inhabits the waters of the Antilles, the Red Sea, and the Mediterranean, but is not common in the latter, according to Willughby and Seba. It grows about a foot long, and is very voracious.

33. Salmo fœtens, or the slender salmon.—Specific Character. The head truncated and furnished with scales; membrane of the gills, pectoral and dorsal fins, with 12 rays each; the ventrals 8, the anal 16, the tail 25.

The head is compressed, half covered with scales, long at the sides, short above, and declining. The aperture of the mouth is large; the jaws, palate, and tongue, are provided with a double row of teeth; the lower jaw is the longest. The nostrils are round, single, and near the eyes; the pupil is black, the iris red; the upper rim of the orbit of the eye is protruded and dentated; and the eyes are near the top of the head; and hence there is a furrow formed by these projecting rims; behind this furrow the head is rough and radiated. The aperture of the gills is wide, and the membrane is loose. The sides are compressed, the back and belly round. The lateral line divides the body; the anus is somewhat nearer the tail, which is forked, than the head. The pectoral fins are short; the anal long; all have flexible and branched rays. The back is blackish, the sides and belly silvery, the fins of a reddish brown. Inhabits the sea near Carolina; but is a rare species. In many respects it resembles the preceding; and it has been necessary to remove it from the fourth division, on account of the number of rays in the membrane of the gills.

III.—Teeth hardly visible, or none.

34. Salmo migratorius, or the travelling salmon.—Specific Character. Jaws nearly equal, 12 rays in the dorsal fin. The membrane of the gills has 9 rays, the ventrals 12, the pectorals 17, the anal 13, and the tail 20.

The eggs of this are yellow, and very good to eat. The species inhabits the lake Baikal, in Siberia, from which it goes into the rivers that empty themselves into it, for the purpose of spawning. It is from fourteen inches to two feet long; body a little compressed, silvery, above grey. Head compressed; iris saffron; mouth without teeth; snout sub-conic; upper fins grey, lower, reddish white.

35. Salmo lavaretus, or the gwiniad.—The upper jaw longest, and resembling a nose. There are 8 or 9 rays in the membrane of the gills, 15 in the pectoral fins, 12 in the ventral, 14 in the anal, 20 in the tail, and 14 or 15 in the dorsal.

The head is small in proportion to the body, which is long and thick; it is wedge shaped, and nearly transparent as far as the eyes. The upper jaw, which protrudes, ends in a blunt point, soft and fleshy, of a black colour; and, when the mouth is shut, it is entirely covered by a large gristly lip. The mouth is small, toothless, and opens backwards below; the tongue is white, gristly, short, and somewhat rough. The eye is middle-sized; pupil black, iris silvery. The cheeks, as well as the covering of the gills, are varied from blue to yellow; but the latter colour predominates. The back is round, and of a greyish blue. The sides, as far as the lateral line, are blueish; below it they are little yellow. The belly is silvery. The lateral line is straight, has forty-five dots, and is nearer the back than the belly. The scales have a small furrow near the edge, which is particularly visible in those upon the lateral line. The pectoral fins are yellowish; the others have white rays, a blue membrane, and a border of the same colour. The dorsal fin is nearer the tail than the head; the adipous fin is lozenge-shaped; the tail forked.

The gwiniad is found in the North and Baltic Seas, and in all the rivers of Russia and Siberia. It keeps in general at the bottom; but rises when the herring begins to spawn, which it follows close to devour the eggs; so that, if a quantity of herrings are taken in one haul, the fishermen generally catch twenty, thirty, or forty gwiniads the next; and, if they are opened at that time, the intestinal canal is found full of the ova of the herring. In like manner the grayling makes reprisals on the gwiniad, whom he follows in spawning-time, and devours her eggs.

The gwiniad spawns from August till October; at which time they are found plentifully in bays, creeks, and at the mouths of streams, which fall with the greatest rapidity into the sea. The female, followed by the male, rubs herself against stones and flints to ease herself of her ova. Part of these fish ascend the streams, advancing in two rows, which form an acute angle; at the extremity of the angle is one

who

who leads the shoal: if the winds are so strong as to stop them in their course, they return, and spawn in the places we have mentioned. But, when the wind is favourable, and increases the swiftness of their course, they enter the streams in shoals; and, the more rapid the current, the stronger are their efforts to oppose it: they make a league in four-and-twenty hours; whereas, in a smooth gentle stream, they do not make half that way in the same space of time.

One thing is remarkable of this fish, that its return shews whether the winter will set in early or late. When the gwiniad returns early, it is a sign that winter is at hand; when they are late, cold weather is expected to set in late also. Indeed, the movements and migrations of many species of fish, if properly attended to, would furnish very correct data for foretelling the weather. The young gwiniad remains where he was born, till about three inches long; then he is carried by the tide into the sea, where he remains till the desire of propagation makes him quit it, which commonly happens when about five or six years of age.

Besides other rapacious fishes, the gwiniad is more particularly persecuted by the shark, who follows it to the very shores; so that the fishermen expect good sport when they see a shark near their nets. They also devour one another's eggs, which is the reason they do not increase very fast. The flesh is white, tender, and well-tasted; yet not greatly esteemed in England. In some of the German lakes they are caught in vast abundance, and there they either smoke or salt them; the latter operation is performed as follows:—After having cleaned and gutted them, and washed them well within and without, they are laid in a basket on their bellies, that the water may drain off. Then they are salted; they are placed in layers, and after being thus left for three days, they are washed again, by which means all the slime and blood are cleaned away; then they are salted like herrings in alternate layers; they put a stone upon them to press them close, and then they barrel them up. By this method they will keep good if caught in cold weather; if taken in hot weather, they should be split open before they are salted, and have the head and back-bone taken away; for these parts soonest taint, and spoil the taste of the whole.

The skin of the stomach is strong; the intestinal canal is short, and at its beginning has many appendages hanging to it. The roe and ovary are double: the ovary contains 37,000 yellow eggs of the size of turnip-seed. The vertebræ are 59 in number; the ribs 38 on each side. The mouth of this species, having no teeth, shews that it is not a fish of prey, but lives on herbs, worms, insects, and the spawn of other fish; small shells have also been found in the stomach.

This fish seems to be an intermediate species between the trout and the herring; like the latter, it suddenly dies when taken out of the water. In length, it is nearly a foot, and weighs about two pounds. It is of an Alpine nature, and inhabits the lakes of the mountainous parts of Europe; such as Switzerland, Savoy, Norway, Sweden, Lapland, and Scotland: into the last-mentioned country, it is said to have been introduced from France by the unfortunate Queen Mary; a circumstance rendered probable by the French name *vangis*, given it by the inhabitants in the vicinity of Lochmaben. The British name of *gwiniad* is bestowed upon it from the whiteness of its scales.

Several varieties are mentioned by Cepede, as, the *ferrat* of Lac Leman, the *gravanche*, inhabiting the lake of Geneva, between Rolle and Morgas; the *palée*, inhabiting the lake of Neufchatel; and the *bondelle*, probably, however, only the young of the preceding.

36. Salmo pidschean, or the pidschian.—Upper jaw longest; back gibbous; 13 rays in the dorsal fin. There are 10 rays in the membrane of the gills, 14 in the pectorals, 11 in the ventrals, and 16 in the anal.

This resembles the preceding species, and may, perhaps, be another variety of it. It inhabits the Oby, and is about two spans long. Irides silvery yellow. Long triangular appendages to the ventral fins.

37. Salmo schokur, or the shokur.—Upper jaw longest; head small; dorsal fin angular on the hind part, and 12-rayed. Nine rays in the membrane of the gills, 17 in the pectorals, 11 in the ventrals, and 14 in the anal.

Inhabits the Oby; two feet long; very much resembles the gwiniad, but is larger and a little broader; head less compressed, snout more obtuse, rounded, with two obsolete tubercles. Ventral fins with short obtuse appendages.

38. Salmo nasus, or the nose salmon.—Upper jaw longest, head thick, 12 rays in the dorsal fin. Eight or 9 rays in the membrane of the gills, 18 in the pectoral fins, 11 to 13 in the ventrals, and 13 in the anal.

This, like the two preceding, inhabits the Oby, in Siberia, and resembles the gwiniad, but is broader and thicker; scales large. Head very little compressed; upper jaw gibbous as far as the eyes and obtuse. Appendages of the ventral fins very short and triangular; tail forked. Total length, a foot and a half.

39. Salmo autumnalis, the omul, or autumnal salmon.—Lower jaw the longest, 12 rays in the dorsal and ventral fins. The membrane of the gills has 9 rays, the pectorals 16, the anal 13.

This species inhabits the Frozen Sea, and ascends periodically, in vast shoals, the rivers which empty themselves into it; one foot and a half long; body fat, compressed, coated with large silvery scales; it dies immediately after it is taken out of the water. Iris pale gold; mouth without teeth; gills gaping very wide; appendages nearly half as long as the ventral fins; tail forked.

40. Salmo albula, or the black salmon.—Lower jaw longest, teeth none. There are 7 rays in the membrane of the gills, 12 in the dorsal and ventral fins, 15 in the pectorals and anal, and 33 in the tail.

Bloch seems to have confounded this with the salmo maræ-nula, or small marena, by the synonymes he has added to the latter; perhaps not without reason, for they differ but little, if at all. This species inhabits Europe; six inches long; body greenish brown, silvery at the sides; scales imbricate, entire, roundish, spotted with black. Eyes large, iris silvery; aperture of the gills very large. Black carinate before the fin. Lateral line a little bending near the beginning, nearer the back, and composed of 70 or 80 dots; fins pale with blackish spots.

41. Salmo peled, or the peled.—Lower jaw longest; no teeth, 10 rays in the dorsal fin. The membrane of the gills has 12 rays, the pectoral fins 16, ventrals 13, anal 14, tail 22. Length a foot and a half. Inhabits northern Russia. Body fat, black-blueish; sides and belly white; head dotted with brown; is very nearly allied to the preceding. Head conic; snout obtuse; iris whitish yellow.

42. Salmo thymallus, or the grayling.—The grayling is easily distinguished by the beauty, size, and various colours of the dorsal fin, which has 23 rays; upper jaw longest. There are 10 rays in the membrane of the gills, 16 in the pectoral fin, 12 in the ventral, 14 in the anal, and 18 in the tail.

The head is small, rounded, studded with black dots, brown above, and on the sides white, inclining to blue. When the mouth is shut, the upper jaw protrudes a little. In each jaw are some little teeth standing wedgewise, of which the upper ones are rather the largest. In the fore part of the palate, and also near the gullet, there are some small teeth; the tongue is smooth. The pupil of the eye is black; the iris yellow sprinkled with black dots. The body is long, and covered with large hard scales; the back is round, and of a dark green colour. The sides are somewhat flattened, and their colour is a mixture of grey and blue. A straight line runs over each row of scales from head to tail; the middle line is studded with little black dots. The belly is white, and larger than in the other species of trouts. The pectoral fins are white; the ventral, tail, and anal, reddish; and there is an appendage to the ventral. The dorsal fin is violet, on a green ground with brown spots. The five first rays are single; the others divide into eight branches near the end.

The grayling was not unknown to ancient authors. Elian speaks

speaks of it at the beginning of the second century, and St. Ambrose, Bishop of Milan, near the end of the fourth. This fish delights in a rapid stream, cold and pure water, with a sandy or flinty bottom; hence it is found in shaded rivulets which are near mountains or high hills. It seems not indigenous to Norway, as Pontopidan does not speak of it; but in Lapland it is so common, that the inhabitants use its entrails in the making of cheese from the milk of their rein deer. It is found in Silesia in the Mountains of the Giants; in Prussia; in Curisch-Haff; in Pomerania, near the Baltic. It is found also in the Don and the Caspian Sea, and in all the rivers of Siberia. It feeds on snails and shell-fish, the shells which have been found in abundance in its stomach, as well as other insects, and small fish. It is particularly fond of the ova or spawn of the trout and salmon; hence the Swedish fishermen conclude the salmon to be not far off when they see the grayling. They grow very fast, and attain the length of one or two feet, weighing at that time two or three pounds; with us they sometimes weigh four pounds or more. They spawn in April and May, depositing their eggs on the stones at the bottom of the water. They swim very fast, and are difficult to be taken except at spawning-time.

The flesh of the grayling is white, firm, soft, and very well tasted; the ancients esteemed it a dainty, and at present there are some provinces where the grayling-fishery is reserved for the lord of the domain or manor. That they may be allowed to grow to a proper size, the meshes of the nets for this fishery should be made wide enough to let the smaller fish escape. They are fattest in autumn; yet in winter they are better tasted, especially if the weather be very cold. The oil drawn from this fish has been accounted a remedy to take away the marks of the small-pox, and other spots on the skin, &c. &c.

This fish does not increase very fast; first, because it is very tender and delicate; secondly, because they are much destroyed by water-fowl. They die soon after being out of the water, and even in stagnated water: hence it is difficult to transport them from their usual haunts, unless they are put into deep lakes where there are springs, or communicating rivulets. If you would preserve these fish in troughs, they must be placed in a running stream, giving them for food some liver, and the cakes we spoke of in describing the trout. A remarkably pleasant odour exhales from the body of this fish: Elian compares it to the smell of thyme; Ambrose to honey. Pennant denies the existence of this odour altogether; yet we think without reason, for this fish devours insects which have themselves a strong smell, which therefore they may communicate, (as we perceive in the breath of human beings, which is much affected by their food); but, as they do not always devour these insects in equal quantities, the odour may exist at one time, and be imperceptible at another. One of the species of insect on which it feeds is the *gynyrus notator*.

In spring, the grayling quits the Northern and Baltic Seas, and ascends the streams like the salmon and salmon-trout, to deposit its spawn; and in autumn returns to those seas. No author but Richter speaks of this migration, which perhaps may have been because they are seldom taken in large rivers; but we are not to conclude that they do not pass into these rivers merely because they are seldom caught there; they have more chance of escaping the net in these than in smaller rivers. The case is the same with the salmon and salmon-trout: neither of these fish are ever caught in the Netze; whereas in the Kuddow and Drago, which run into the Netze, they are found in abundance.

The skin of the stomach is so hard in this species, as to be like a cartilage. The gall-bladder is small; the gall yellow and transparent; the other intestines do not differ from other fish of the genus. There are fifty-nine vertebræ in the back-bone; and thirty-four ribs on each side.

43. Salmo maræna, or the marena.—The upper jaw blunt and broad in front, and the whiteness of the body are sufficient to distinguish the marena from the other species of salmon. There are 8 rays in the membrane of the gills, 14 in the pectoral fins, 11 in the ventrals, 15 in the anal, 20 in the tail, and 14 in the dorsal.

The head is blunt; the mouth toothless, and small in proportion to others of the same genus; the under jaw is narrower and shorter than the upper, which hides it when the mouth is shut; at the edge of the upper jaw are two little round holes. The nose and front are black, as well as the back, which is round. The chin and belly are white. The eyes are large; the pupil is black, and forms an acute angle towards the snout; the iris is silver-coloured. The cheeks are yellow; the coverings of the gills blueish edged with white. The sides are blueish above the lateral line, inclining to yellow; below it, they are silvery. "In the lake Madui," says Fleming, Jagerb. p. 450, "where this fish is indigenous, on one side of the lake the fish taken are of a silver colour, and those on the other grey." The lateral line, whereon are forty-four white dots, bends a little towards the head. The fins of the breast, belly, back, and anus, are large; the rays end in several ramifications; they are violet at bottom; the rest blueish, edged with black; and they end in a point. The adipous fin is blackish; the tail forked; and there is an appendage to the ventral fin. The body is oblong; and the scales are large, thin, shining, and easily rub off.

There are two kind of marena known in Germany, the present species, sometimes called the *Marena of Madui*, from the lake of that name mentioned above. This lake greatly abounds in fish; it is situated in the bailliwic of Kolbatz, near Stargard, in Lower Pomerania, three leagues from Stettin; it is four leagues long, and from one to two wide, from 20 to 25 fathoms deep, with a marly bottom. It has been an erroneous opinion that the marena is found only in that lake: it is taken also in the lake of Hitzdorfen, near a village of the same name, in the bailliwic of Marienwalde; and in that of Calliser, near the little town of Callies, on the frontiers of Poland.

The small kind is found in various places, and is better known; but the large one has entirely escaped the notice of all systematic writers before Bloch, who calls it *le grande marene*. The fish he describes, which he received from the lake of Madui, was two feet three inches in length from the snout to the extremity of the tail; its greatest breadth five inches, its thickness four; it weighed four pounds and a half; sometimes, however, they grow to the length of four feet. It is reckoned good food; being white, tender, and well-tasted, and not encumbered with little bones. They delight in deep waters, with a bottom of sand or clay; they seek the deepest places, and keep together in shoals. They rise nearer to the surface in spawning-time which happens in November, and in spring to devour small shell-fish and little snails. They die soon after being out of the water, and are often ill in summer. When, in pursuit of an insect, or itself endeavouring to escape from the pike, they come too near the surface of the water, become dropsical, and die by degrees.

The marena does not begin to produce its like till about five or six years old; it is then a foot long. They seek places covered with sea weeds or other herbage to deposit their spawn. They multiply greatly; they are caught in the spring, autumn, and in winter under the ice; taking 3000 in a year in the lake Madui; in autumn they are taken with a net eight fathoms long. The spawning begins about St. Martin's day, the eleventh of November, and lasts about a fortnight. If a storm arises, they disappear all at once. Their enemies while they are yet young, are the sander, the pike, the perch, and the sea-gull which pursues them with avidity, and points out to the fishermen where they may be found, and they place their nets accordingly. These fishes are much sought after, and are transported to distant towns packed up in snow, and they will keep good a month: those taken in spring are the best, as being fattest.

The internal conformation of this species differs from the preceding in that the gall-bladder is smaller, and the gall very pale; the beginning of the intestinal canal exhibits from one hundred and twenty to one hundred and fifty appendages;

SALMO AND SCARUS.

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1 The Male Salmon. 2. The Female Salmon. 3. The Salmon Trout.
4. The common Trout. 5 The Smelt. 6. The Red Parrot Fish.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1826.

appendages; as the nutritious juice is long detained in the small intestines, and there is properly prepared, it is hence easy to conceive how this fish may become so fat though the intestinal canal be so very short as not even to be the length of the fish. Though the marena dies soon after it is entirely out of the water, it may, however, be transported from one water to another with proper precautions. The following rules are to be observed in transporting them: 1. As they soon die when kept out of the water, vessels full of water should be ready to put them into the moment they are taken out of the net; and care must be taken not to squeeze them, or even to throw them in; they should be handled as gently as possible. 2. The water should be so deep, that the summer's heat may not penetrate to the bottom; and the bottom should be sand or chalk.

44. Salmo maræmula, or the small marena.—The protrusion of the under jaw, and 14 rays in the anal fin, are the distinguishing marks in this species. There are 7 rays in the membrane of the gills, 15 in the pectoral fins, 11 in the ventrals, 20 in the tail, and 10 in the dorsal.

The head, which ends in a point, is semi-transparent and of a brownish-red colour. The nostrils are near the eyes; the mouth is toothless; the under jaw bent, narrower and longer than the upper; the tongue is gristly and short. The pupil of the eye is black, surrounded with a silver-coloured iris. The cheeks are silver; and all the body is of the same colour, except the back, which is blueish. The lateral line, which is near the back, is straight, and ornamented with fifty-eight black dots. The scales, which, according to Richter, are in number 1750, are thin, silvery, and easily rub off. All the fins are of a whitish grey; and the tail, which is forked, is edged with blue. The whole fish is commonly six or eight inches long, and an inch or an inch and a half broad, and half an inch thick; and weighs from two ounces to two and a half; but some run as far as ten inches long.

This fish is found in the Marches, in Silesia, Prussia, Pomerania, Mechlenburg, Sweden, and Denmark, in lakes with a sandy or clayey bottom. They live in shoals, but in the deepest places, and only appear in spawning-time, which is about St. Martin's day, November 11: at this time they seek out places covered with herbage to deposit their spawn. It is only at that time, and in winter under the ice, that they can be taken. They increase fast; but die soon after they are out of the water. They feed on weeds, insects, and worms: but are themselves cruelly persecuted by rapacious fish and water-fowl. The flesh is white, tender, and well tasted. At Morin and Joachimsthal they smoke them in tubs like herrings, after sprinkling them with beer; in other places they barrel them up also like herrings.

The interior parts are the same as in the other species of salmon, except that the eggs are smaller: 39,000 have been counted in one fish. The vertebræ are fifty-eight in number; the ribs sixteen on each side.

This species may be put in ponds, using the same precautions as recommended in transporting the preceding species.

45. Salmo Wartmanni, or the blue-fish.—The blue colour of this species, and the upper jaw truncate, are the marks that distinguish it from the other salmon. This species was not in Linnæus's system; and, as Dr Wartmann is the first author who has exactly described it, Bloch and Gmelin adopted it under his name. There are nine rays in the membrane of the gills, 17 in the pectoral fins, 12 in the ventrals, 14 in the anal, 23 in the tail, and 15 in the dorsal.

The head is small, and of silver colour, as is the belly below the lateral line; the jaws are of equal length; the mouth is toothless. The apertures of breathing and smelling are near the eyes; the pupil is black, in a silvery iris. The front, the back, and the sides as far as the lateral line, are blue, and this colour gradually sinks into white as it approaches the belly. The pectoral, anal, and ventral, fins, have a yellow ground; the dorsal and tail are whitish; all with a broad blue border; the ventral fin has an appendage. Not far from the anal fin is the navel, and the tail-fin has a crescent-shaped furrow. This is a species of the broad thin salmons. The scales are very small on the breast and above the pectoral fins, as well near the tail; on the rest of the body they are much larger than in the other species of salmon. The lateral line has a direct direction, and has many black dots.

This species is found in many of the Swiss lakes, particularly in the lake of Constance, where they are taken in great quantity. The first year, this fish is an inch and a half to two inches long; three or four the second; five to seven the third; eight or nine in the fourth; thirteen in the sixth; and fourteen to seventeen in the seventh. It then takes its name of *blue-fish*, having a different name for every previous year. They spawn in December; the spawning-time lasts a week. This fish generally haunts the deepest places; but deposits its spawn on the inequalities of the bottom, and then returns to its hole, where it remains till spring. They multiply considerably; and are, in a small degree, to the fisherman of the lake of Constance what the herring is, in a greater, to the northern countries. From the month of May till the autumn many millions of them are taken, which are sent into the cantons of Switzerland and to foreign parts. In summer, from twenty to fifty boats set off every evening for this fishery; the smaller ones have two men on-board, the larger four. The nets are sixty or seventy fathoms long; for the fish are generally found at the depth of more than fifty fathoms; yet during a storm or a heavy rain, they will rise within twenty, or perhaps ten fathoms of the surface; the more tempestuous the weather, and the more troubled the water, so much the more abundant is the fishery. Each boat generally returns with two or three hundred fish. But, when the weather begins to get cold, they retire into holes one or two hundred fathoms deep; and, as no net can reach them at that depth, there are but few caught at that time. In Switzerland, there was a law before the revolution, (and which probably still subsists,) forbidding the fishing for the small fry, or those of only a year or two old; but at three years growth they fish for them when they leave their holes in the spring; and they sell on the spot at from three to five florins a-hundred, or even ten florins, if the fishery has not been plentiful: (a florin is about 2*s*. sterling.) They are reckoned the best fish the lake of Constance produces. They are exported in pickle, either fresh, or previously boiled; then they are put up in casks: thus they send them to Augsburg, Ulm, Ratisbon, Vienna, Leipsic, Strasburg, Frankfort, Lyons, Paris, &c. In autumn the blue-fish of three years growth takes a reddish tinge; and, as this is supposed to be owing to disease, they are not eaten at that time. In December, the time of spawning, the fishery begins afresh; but at that time they are not so tender as in summer. They live on weeds, worms, insects, and *fischbroot*, a kind of sea-wrack. Their enemies, besides the voracious fishes, are the tench, which devour their eggs. This species is not hardy; but dies soon after it is taken out of the water. The stomach is hard, narrow, and has many appendages. The liver is large; the gall green; the air-bladder undivided, and lying along the back.

46. Salmo oxyrhinchus, or the sharp-nosed salmon.—Specific Character. Upper jaw longest, and conical. In the membrane of the gills 9 rays, 13 in the dorsal fin, 17 in the pectorals, 12 in the ventrals, and 14 in the anal. Inhabits the North Atlantic Ocean. It has no teeth; lateral line bent at its origin; scales large; colour whitish.

47 Salmo vimba, or the Swedish salmon.—Specific Character. Adipous fin serrate in a small degree. The dorsal fin has 12 rays, the pectorals 16, the ventrals 10, anal 14. Inhabits the rivers of Sweden.

48. Salmo leucichthys, or the Caspian salmon.—Specific Character. The upper jaw very broad, entire, and shorter than the lower, which ascends, and is tuberculate at the end. There are 10 rays in the membrane of the gills, 15 in the dorsal fin, in the pectorals and anal 14 each, ventrals 11, tail 27.

Inhabits the Caspian Sea; three feet long. Body oblong, a little compressed, spotted with black, above blackish hoary; scales roundish, smooth, silvery. Crown arched, naked, very smooth, sub-diaphanous, greenish-brown; eyes lateral, large, iris silvery, dotted with black; snout, very obtuse; mouth without teeth, very large, square; tongue triangular, a little rough; palate flat, broad, rough to the touch. Gill-coverts compressed, of four pieces. Dorsal fin pale brown; pectorals pointed, white; ventrals rounded, white, spotted with brown on the fore-part the appendage triangular and reddish, spotted with brown: tail perpendicular, semilunar.

49. Salmo rubus, or the red trout.—Colour entirely red; snout rounded and flat; lower jaw longest; gill-covert rounded, and in two pieces. The dorsal fin, which is high and rather sickle-shaped, contains 11 rays, the anal 11, the pectorals 10 or 11, the ventrals 8; tail forked.

This species is also of a lengthened shape. The ventral fins are almost as large as the dorsal and anal, and are nearer the head than the dorsal fin, and nearer to the tip of the snout than to the anal fin. These marks would seem to place it in the second division. The adipous fin is bent, and club-shaped; the pectorals rather sickle-shaped. Inhabits the American seas, and near the tropics.

IV.—Gill-membrane with not more than four rays.

50. Salmo argentinus, or the piabuca.—This fish is specifically distinguished by a white stripe along each side, and by the length of the anal fin. The membrane of the gills has 4 rays, the pectoral fins 12, the ventrals 8, the anal 43, the tail 20, and the dorsal 9. This is now brought into the fourth division, though placed by Gmelin in the first, it having been since discovered that the membrane of the gills has not more than four rays.

The head is small, compressed, and without scales; the under jaw is somewhat the longest, both are armed with three-pointed cutting teeth. The aperture of the mouth is very small; the tongue is smooth, and in the palate there is a membrane stretched out in form of a sickle. The nostrils are round, and single; the pupil of the eye is black, the iris silvery, and both covered with a membrane. The body is thin; the belly somewhat large, yet sharp, as is the back; the anus is nearer to the tail than to the head. The lateral line begins from the neck, at the same point with the silvery stripe; then makes an arch towards the belly, and rises again at the tail. The rays of the fins are soft, and branched, except the first. The back inclines to green, the sides to white, the fins are grey.

This species is found in the rivers of South America. It is eight inches long; the flesh is white, and delicate, eating like most of the salmons; it may be caught by a hook, baited with a worm. Marckgrave says, that meal, mixed up with blood, is a very good bait.

51. Salmo gasteropelecus or the pigeon-breasted salmon.—This fish, which Linnæus placed among the *clupea*, is made a distinct genus by Bloch and Gronovius, on account of the particular structure of its body; in which they are followed by Cepede. Linnæus calls it, *Clupea sternicla, pinnis ventralibus nullis*, "the broad breasted herring without ventral fins;" but, the ventral fins having been discovered since, it is now placed by Gmelin among the *salmo*. And the Specific Character is, the ventral and adipous fins very small. There are 3 rays in the membrane of the gills, 9 in the pectoral fins, 2 in the ventrals, 22 in the tail, 11 in the first dorsal.

The head and body are much compressed, and of a fine silvery colour, mixed with steel-blue. The mouth is large, so are the scales in proportion to the size of the fish. The tongue is white, smooth, and thick. The eyes are round, large, placed near the aperture of the mouth, with a black pupil and silvery iris. The nostrils are between the upper lip and the eyes. The aperture of the gills is wide, and the operculum smooth. From the throat to the anus goes a sharp bone, as thin as paper, in the form of an arch or semicircle, somewhat like a gardener's knife, which occasioned Bloch to call it *serpe*: it serves as a point of resistance to the pectoral fin, which is sickle-shaped; the tail is bifurcated. All the fins are of a grey colour.

"This fish from its shape," says Bloch, "must swim with great rapidity; as it has but few obstacles to overcome." Cepede, however, thinks differently. Its country is Carolina and Surinam. It is a voracious fish, as may be discerned from its teeth; but, being small, it can feed only on the spawn of other fish, on worms, and insects. It is not supposed to grow more than three inches long. It resembles the *cyprinus cultratis*, or razor-fish, in having three rays to the membrane of the gills, a thin body, and sharp belly; but its mouth armed with teeth, excludes from the genus of carps, to which the razor-fish belongs. Pallas first discovered the second dorsal fin, and pronounced it an adipous fin, which brings it among the *salmo*; but Bloch says, it is a real fin with two rays; but adds, "indeed the rays of the second dorsal, as well as of the ventral fins, are so minute that they cannot be distinguished without a microscope, so that it is not to be wondered at that Gronovius and Kohlreuter, should not have discovered the latter, nor Pallas the former." Muller says this fish has no teeth; but they were plainly seen by Bloch, who minutely described the fish, and has given a figure of it of the natural size.

52. Salmo gibbosus.—Black, gibbous, compressed, the anal fin has fifty rays. It is found at Surinam.

53. Salmo notatus.—This species has a black spot on each side near the gill-covers. This is also found at Surinam; the body is oblong, with a black spot above the lateral line; it resembles the

54. Salmo bimaculatus, of which the body is compressed, with two spots; the anal fin is thirty-two-rayed. It inhabits South America.

55. Salmo immaculatus.—The body is without spots; the anal fin is twelve-rayed. An inhabitant of America.

56. Salmo fœtens.—The rays of the dorsal and anal fins are twelve. It inhabits Carolina; the body is oval, a little pointed, and of a blackish-ash colour.

57. Salmo cyprinoides.—The first rays of the dorsal fin are long, and setaceous. It is found in Surinam; the body is of a snow-white.

58. Salmo niloticus.—The body of this is white; all the fins are yellowish. It inhabits the Nile.

59. Salmo Ægyptius.—The back is greenish; teeth in the lower jaw are large. It inhabits, as its name imports, Egypt; the tail is scaly at the base.

60. Salmo pulverulentis.—The fins are apparently slightly dusted; the lateral line descending. It is an inhabitant of America.

61. Salmo rhombeus.—The belly is serrate; the anal and caudal fins are black at the base and edge. It inhabits Surinam; the body is compressed, rather oval, but sub-angular on the back, and a little gibbous from the nape to the dorsal fin; it is of a grey or yellowish-silvery colour; towards the back brownish: it is said to bite off the legs of ducks.

62. Salmo anostomus.—The Specific Character of this is, that the mouth is simous. It inhabits South America and India.

63. Salmo salmulus.—The samlet is, according to Pennant, the least of the British species of this genus, and is frequently seen in the river Wye, in the upper part of the Severn, and in the rivers that run into it, in the north of England, and in Wales. It is by several imagined to be the fry of the salmon; but Mr. Pennant dissents from this opinion for the following reasons: first, it is well known the salmon-fry never continue in fresh water the whole year, but, as numerous as they appear on their first escape from the spawn, all vanish on the first vernal flood that happens, which sweeps them into the sea, and leaves scarcely one behind; secondly, the growth of salmon-fry is so quick and so considerable, as suddenly to exceed the bulk of the largest samlet; for example, the fry that have quitted the fresh water in spring, not larger than gudgeons, return into it again a foot

foot or more in length; thirdly, the salmon obtains a considerable bulk before it begins to breed; the samlets, on the contrary, are found both male and female of their common size, and are readily distinguished by being furnished with either the hard or soft roes; fourthly, they are found in the fresh waters all times of the year, and even at seasons when the salmon-fry have gained a considerable size. It is well known that at Shrewsbury (where they are called Samsons,) they are found in such quantities in the month of September, that a skilful angler, in a coracle, will take with a fly from twelve to sixteen dozen in a day. They spawn in November and December, at which time those of the Severn push up towards the head of that river, quitting the smaller brooks, and return into them again when they have done spawning. They have a general resemblance to the trout, and must, therefore, be described comparatively.

The head is proportionally narrower, and the mouth smaller; the body deeper; the length seldom more than six or seven inches, or at most about eight and a half; the pectoral fins have generally but one large black spot, though sometimes a single small one attends it; whereas the pectoral fins of the trout are more numerously marked; the spurious or fat fin on the back is never tipped with red, nor are the edges of the anal fin white; the spots on the body are fewer, and not so bright; the body is also marked from back to sides, with six or seven large blueish bars; but this Mr. Pennant allows to be not a certain character, as the same is sometimes observed in young trouts; lastly, the tail of the samlet is much more forked than that of the trout. The samlet is very frequent in the rivers of Scotland, where it is called the parr. It is also common in the Wye, and is there known by the title of skirling or laspring.

64. Salmo Groenlandicus, or Greenland salmon.—Length about seven inches, which it very rarely exceeds; shape lengthened, contracting somewhat suddenly towards the tail; dorsal fin placed in the middle of the back; fins rather large for the size of the fish; scales small; tail forked; colour pale green, with a tinge of brown above; abdomen and sides silvery; in the male fish, just above the lateral line, is a rough fascia, beset with minute pyramidal scales, standing upright like the pile of a shag. The use of this villous line is highly singular, since it is affirmed, that while the fish is swimming, and even when thrown on shore, two, three, or even as many as ten, will adhere, as if glued together, by means of this pile, insomuch that if one is taken, the rest are also taken up at the same time. This species swarms off the coasts of Greenland, Iceland, and Newfoundland, and is said to be one of the chief supports of the Greenlanders. The inhabitants of Iceland are said to dry great quantities of it, in order to serve as a winter food for their cattle, whose flesh is apt to acquire an oily flavour in consequence. This fish lives at sea the greatest part of the year; but in April, May, June, and July, comes in incredible shoals into the bays, where immense multitudes are taken in nets, and afterwards dried on the rocks. When fresh, they are by some said to have the smell of a cucumber, though others affirm the scent is highly unpleasant. They feed on small crabs, and other marine insects, as well as on the smaller fuci and confervæ, on which they are also observed to deposit their ova.

SA'LMON, *s.* [*saûmon*, Fr.] A well-known fish. See Salmo.—They take *salmon* and trouts by groping and tickling them under the bellies in the pools, where they hover, and so throw them on land. *Carew.*

SALMON, a river of the United States, in Connecticut, which runs into the river Connecticut, in East Haddam.

SALMON, a river of the United States, in New York, which flows into Lake Ontario; 4 miles north of Mexico point. Length 60 or 70 miles. There is on this river, about 10 miles from the lake, a tremendous cataract, which has a descent of 110 feet perpendicular.

SALMON (Francis), a learned Frenchman, who flourished in the last century, was descended from an opulent family, and born at Paris, in 1677. Attached from his earliest years to a studious life, he acquired considerable skill in the learned languages, particularly in those in which the scriptures of the Old and New Testament are written, and became a very able divine, as well as intimately conversant with the fathers and the councils. In the year 1702, he was created doctor of divinity by the faculty of the Sorbonne, and afterwards, on account of his great knowledge of books, received the appointment of librarian to their society. He died suddenly at Chaillot, near Paris, at the age of 60, in the year 1736. It is mentioned, very much to his praise, that young men ever found in him an able and affectionate adviser, who liberally communicated to them his knowledge, and took great pleasure in directing them to such books as were best adapted to the respective subjects they were pursuing. As an author, he is known by "A Treatise on the Study of the Councils and their Collections, with Observations on the Authors who have written on the Subject, and on the Choice of their Editions," 1724. This work, which was replete with erudition, was favourably received by the learned world, was translated into Latin, and printed at Leipsic, in 1729. M. Salmon intended to have given a supplement to "Father Labbe's Collection of Councils" and had made considerable progress in it when death put a stop to his labours. M. Salmon also had projected an "Index Sorbonicus," or alphabetical library, in which was to be given, under the names of the respective authors, their acts, lives, chronicles, histories, books, treatises, bulls, &c. dispersed through a vast number of miscellaneous collections. In this task he was assisted by four doctors of the Sorbonne, but the only fruit of their labours, as far as the public was concerned, were a "Conspectus" of the work, and "Epistola plurium e Societate ad illustrum Marchionem Scipionem Maffeium, de Ratione Indicis Sorbonicis, seu Bibliothecæ quam adornant."

SALMON (Thomas), an English historian and general writer, of whose personal history nothing is known, except that he died in 1743. He was concerned in writing the "Great Universal Dictionary:" he compiled likewise a work entitled "The present State of all Nations;" and he was author of what was, at one time, a very popular work, entitled "A Geographical Grammar," the plan of which was afterwards adopted by Guthrie. Salmon was author likewise of the "Chronological History of England," in 2 vols. 8vo., and of an "Examination of Burnet's History of his own Times."

SALMON COVE, a port on the north-west coast of North America, in Observatory inlet, so named from the abundance of salmon found there by Captain Vancouver. Lat. 35. 20. N. long. 230. 21. E.

SALMON CREEK, a river of the United States, in Cayuga county, New York, which runs into the south end of Lake Cayuga; 19 miles long.

SALMON CREEK, a river of the United States, in Franklin county, New York, which runs into the St. Lawrence; 7 miles north of French Mills.

SALMON CREEK, Big, a river of Upper Canada which runs into Lake Ontario.

SALMON FALL, a name given to the river Piscataqua, in part of its course. See Piscataqua.

SALMON-PEEL, the name of a fish found in great plenty in the rivers of Wales, agreeing in the colour of its flesh, and perhaps in kind, with the common salmon.

SALMON-PIPE, in our old writers, an engine to catch salmon, or such like fish.

SALMON RIVER, a river of New Brunswick, which runs into the St. John. Lat. 47. N. long. 67. 32. W.

SALMON RIVER, a river of New Canada, which runs into the Pickouagamis, Lat. 48. 30. N. long. 73. 30. W.

SALMON-SEWSE, a name sometimes used for the young fry of salmon.

SA'LMON-TROUT, *s.* A trout that has some resemblance to a salmon. See Salmo.—There is in many rivers that relate to the sea *salmon-trouts* as much different from others, in shape and spots, as sheep differ in their shape and bigness. *Walton.*

SALMSHOHE, a lofty mountain of Upper Austria, in the circle of Salzburg, near the great Glockner, 8650 feet in perpendicular height.

SALMULUS, in Ichthology, the name of a small fish of the truttaceous kind, called in English a *samlet*. See SALMO.

SALO, a town in the north of Austrian Italy, in the Brescia, situated in a delightful country, on a bay of the lake of Garda. It stands near the base of a mountain (Pennino), is well built, and has about 4600 inhabitants, who manufacture linen, yarn, and thread. The environs are productive in vines and silk. This town was the scene of several military operations in 1796. The French took it in May; they were driven out by the Austrians, in the end of July, but recovered possession of it a few days after; 22 miles north-east of Brescia, and 28 north-west of Verona. Lat. 45. 37. N. long. 10. 32. E.

SALO BAY, a bay on the north coast of the island of Java. Lat. 6. 58. S. long. 112. 36. E.

SALOBRENNA, a small town of the south-east of Spain, in Granada, on the Mediterranean, with a castle on a rock, in which the Moorish kings formerly kept their treasure. The climate is warm, and sugar is raised in the vicinity; 4 miles west of Motril.

SALOMBO, a cluster of small islands in the Eastern seas. Lat. 5. 30. S. long. 113. 13. E.

SALOMON ISLANDS. See SOLOMON ISLANDS.

SALOMONIA [named by Loureiro, after king Solomon, whose botanical fame rests on the authority of the Holy Scriptures], in Botany, a genus of the class monandria, order monogynia, natural order uncertain, but it has been suggested by Sir J. E. Smith, simply from the description of Loureiro, that it should be referred to the Acanthi of *Jussieu*, near Justicia.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth inferior, compressed, cloven into five awl-shaped, short, nearly equal, rather spreading segments. Corolla of one petal, its tube cylindrical, split longitudinally on one side; limb short, divided into three rounded, erect segments, the middle one longer, hooded. Stamina: filament one, thread-shaped, short, placed on the middle segment of the limb, and about the same length; anther ovate, incumbent, covered by the hood of the segment. Pistil: germen superior, roundish, compressed; style inflexed, swelling in the middle, shorter than the stamen; stigma thickish. Pericarp: pouch compressed, two-lobed, rough, of two cells. Seeds solitary, nearly ovate, compressed.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-cleft, inferior. Limb of the corolla three-cleft. Capsule of two cells. Seeds solitary.

Salomonia Cantonensis. Loureiro.—Found on waste ground in the neighbourhood of Canton.—"Stem herbaceous, annual, six inches high, erect, furrowed, much branched. Leaves heart-shaped, pointed, entire, smooth, scattered on short stalks. Flowers violet-coloured, in simple, erect, terminal spikes."

SALON, a town in the south-east of France, in Provence, department of the Mouths of the Rhone. It is situated on a height, on the canal of Craponne, is tolerably well built, and contains 6300 inhabitants. Its trade consists in the produce of the neighbouring country, viz. corn, cattle, wool; also olives and silk; 18 miles west-north-west of Aix, and 19 east of Arles. Lat. 43. 38. 14. N. long. 5. 6. 0. E.

SALONA, a town of Austrian Dalmatia, on a bay of the Adriatic. Though now an insignificant place, it was a town of importance in ancient times, having been taken and destroyed in the reign of Augustus, but rebuilt by Tiberius, who sent thither a Roman colony, and made it the capital of Illyricum. This rank it long held; but seems to have declined after the reign of Dioclesian; 2 miles north-east of Spalatro.

SALONA, a considerable town of European Turkey, in Livadia, near a bay called the gulf of Salona, which is an inlet from the gulf of Corinth. Salona is situated in a fertile and highly cultivated plain, at the foot of Mount Parnassus, and is supposed to occupy the site of the ancient Amphissa, of which, however, the vestiges are inconsiderable. The modern town has no fortifications; but it contains several well built mosques and churches, as well as spacious and commodious baths. Its population is estimated at 8000; its trade is considerable, owing in some measure to its situation between the trading town of Zeitoun, on the east, and the Morea on the west. Its chief manufactures are of tobacco and cotton, both raised in the neighbourhood. Salona is the see of a bishop, subject to the archbishop of Athens; 48 miles north-east of Lepanto. Lat. 38. 51. N. long. 22. 30. E.

SALONICA (anciently called *Thessalonica, Hallia,* and *Therma*), a large and handsome city of European Turkey, in Macedon, standing at the northern extremity of a great bay or gulf. It is pleasantly situated, and the approach to it from the sea is very imposing. It is built on the acclivity of a steep hill, which rises from the bay at its north-east extremity, is surrounded by a lofty stone wall, which ascends in a triangular form from the sea, and is surmounted by a fortress with seven towers. The circumference of the walls is about five miles. The domes and minarets of mosques are seen rising from among the other buildings, environed, as usual in Turkey by cypresses, and giving a general air of splendour to the place. The interior of Salonica, although it presents the irregularity common in Turkish towns, forms in some measure a contrast with most places in that country, of large size and population, in as far as respects cleanliness and internal comfort. In ancient times, it was comparatively small, and is indebted for its increase to the advantage of its commercial position, the extent of water communication afforded by the gulf rendering it a receptacle for the produce of a great track of country to the east and west. With the country to the north, one of the most fertile districts in Macedon, it communicates by land, or by the river Vardari, the ancient Axius. The articles collected in Salonica, viz. cotton, tobacco, corn, and wool, are exported thence to different parts of Europe. The Turks carry on little business: it is in the hands of Greek, Jewish, and Frank merchants, understanding by the last, French, Italian, and English or Dutch, all of whom have consuls here. The population is computed at 70,000, and in regard to trade, this place ranks second only to Constantinople.

Salonica has few antiquities, except the propylæa of the ancient Hippodrome, the alto-relievos on which are represented in a series of beautiful and accurate engravings, in Stuart's Antiquities of Athens. The remains of this building are a magnificent Corinthian colonnade, consisting of five pillars supporting an entablature, and having void spaces between the columns, which must have served for the entrance into the former Hippodrome. The whole of the sculpture is in marble, and is considered among the finest pieces of the art that have escaped the ravages of time. The figures are as large as life; but the soil has risen so materially, that the lower part of the columns is buried. Here is also the rotunda, an edifice built after the model of the Pantheon at Rome. The Hippodrome seems to have been situated between this rotunda and the sea. The church of St. Sophia, at Salonica, is now a mosque, similar, but on a smaller scale, to the well known St. Sophia at Constantinople. Two triumphal arches of Augustus and Constantine, complete the list of the antiquities of this city, with the exception of some marble *soroi* (cut blocks), in different parts of the town, now used as cisterns. This city is the residence of a Turkish pacha; likewise of a Catholic and Greek archbishop. In the year 1313, it was ceded by the Greek emperor to the Venetians, who were dispossessed of it about eight years afterwards, by the Turks under Amurath I.; 272 miles west of Constantinople, and 252 east-south-east of Ragusa. Lat. 40. 38. 7. N. long. 22. 56. E.

SALOOMEA, a town o the Birman empire, situated on the left bank of the Irrawuddy river; 25 miles north of Raynangong.

SALOON, a town of Hindostan, province of Oude. Lat. 26. 2. N. long. 81. 24. E.

SALOON, a town of Hindostan, province of the Circars. Lat. 18. 26. N. long. 83. 19. E.

SA'LOON, *s.* [*salon, salle,* Fr. from the Germ. *sal.*] A spacious hall or room.—The principal apartment of these buildings consists of one or more large *saloons.* *Chambers.*

SALOOP,

SALOO'P, *s.* [Turkish, *salep.*] Properly SALEP, which see.

SALOPAR, a town of the island of Ceylon, belonging to the British, situated 18 miles north-north-west of Trincomalee.

SALOR, a river of Spanish Estremadura, which falls into the Tagus, nearly opposite to Rosmarinhal, on the Portuguese frontier.

SALOU, CAPE, a promontory in the north-east of Spain, in the south-east part of the coast of Catalonia. Lat. 41. 4. 30. N. long. 1. 11. 50. E.

SALOWACKI, a small island in the Eastern seas. Lat. 3. 50. N. long. 131. 38. E.

SALPA, in Zoology, a genus of the Vermes Mollusca class and order. The Generic Character is as follows:—the body is loose, nayant, gelatinous, tubular, and open at each extremity: the intestine is placed obliquely. The animals of this genus are of a gregarious nature, and often adhere together; they swim with great facility, and have the power of contracting or opening at pleasure the cavities at the extremities. There are eleven species, inhabitants, for the most part, of the Mediterranean, separated into two divisions, viz., those which are furnished with an appendage; and those which are without the terminal appendage.

I.—Furnished with an appendage.

1. Salpa maxima.—The body of this species has a small appendage at each extremity. All the species in this division are inhabitants of the Mediterranean. The colour of the maxima is hyaline, with a blueish cast, about a span long, somewhat quadrangular, with a dull testaceous spot at the lower end; the lower appendage is subulate, the upper conic.

2. Salta pinnata.—The Specific Character of this, is, that it has a terminal mouth; the back is marked with a yellow and white line, and the abdomen has two reddish-white lines. The body is about two inches long, nearly triangular; hyaline, with an opaque line on the back; the appendage resembles a fin, excepting that it is rather triangular.

3. Salpa democratica.—Body fasciate, and prickly behind. It inhabits the Mediterranean in large groups, and swimming confusedly in all directions; about an inch long. The body is oval, truncate before, and ending in about eight spines behind, with a blueish nucleus at the base, or a radiate circle.

4. Salpa mucronata.—Mouth lateral; the front is marked with a hyaline spine placed on the right side, and another at the tail placed on the left side; the nucleus or spot behind is oblong and blue. It is about an inch long, rather oblong and ovate, and pointed behind.

II.—Without the terminal appendage.

5. Salpa punctata.—Mouth nearly terminal; back dotted with red, and mucronate behind; the tail is projecting. This and the two following are natives of the Mediterranean. The body is an inch and half long; hyaline, with bands scarcely visible on the abdomen; it has a nucleus or spot near the tail, opaque, and yellowish-ferruginous.

6. Salpa confœderata.—The mouth of this species is terminal; and the back gibbous. The body is not more than an inch long; it is nearly quadrangular, hyaline, soft, with a globular nucleus behind the gibbosity of the back, is opaque, and of a reddish-brown, with a pellucid line proceeding from it.

7. Salpa fasciata.—This is ovate-oblong; the mouth is terminal; the abdomen fasciate; intestine filiform, incurved above the nucleus or spot. The body is an inch and half long, hyaline, with five bands on the abdomen; the spot is marginal, opaque, and ferruginous.

8. Salpa sipho.—Sub-cylindrical, obtuse, hyaline, with a reddish-brown spot: in the front are two small tubes, the tips of which are perforated and red. This is a native of the Red Sea. The body is not an inch long; it is affixed by its base to stones or sponge; the spot is near the base, globular and opaque; the intestine is blueish-brown.

9. Salpa Africana.—This species is sub-triangular transversely, with ten striæ; the mouth is terminal; the base has a gibbosity, and three spots. It inhabits the northern shores of Africa, and is about an inch and a half long. The body is hyaline, the first spot is opaque, brown, and globular, the rest whitish and almost pellucid.

10. Salpa solitaria.—This is hyaline, oval; the mouth is terminal, with a blue tube; the vent is lateral and blue. This is found in the Red Sea, adhering to weeds, grass, &c. It is less than the last, and the body depressed; the spot near the middle at the base is globular, and of a pale reddish-brown.

11. Salpa polycratica.—Mouth placed beneath the upper extremity; the front and tail truncate. It is found in the Mediterranean. The body is about an inch and half long; the abdomen is marked with five transverse bands; the nucleus is globular and brown.

SALPERTON, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 4½ miles north-west of North Leach.

SALPI, a small town in the east part of the kingdom of Naples, in the Capitanata, near where the river Ofanto (the ancient Aufidus) falls into the Adriatic. In the neighbourhood are some salt-works; 23 miles south of Manfredonia, and 92 east-north-east of Naples.

SALPI'CON, *s.* A kind of farce put into holes cut in legs of beef, veal, or mutton. *Bailey.*

SALPINGO-PHARYNGEUS, a name given to a slender bundle of muscular fibres in the pharynx.

SALPINGO-STAPHYLINUS, is a name given by some of the older anatomists to the *levator palati.*

SALPUGA, a name given by some of the Latin writers to the solipuga.

SALSAFY, in Botany. See TRAGOPOGON.

SALSAMENTA'RIOUS, *adj.* [*salsamentarius*, Lat.] Belonging to salt things. *Johnson.*

SALSAS, a fortress in the south of France, department of the Eastern Pyrenees; 9 miles north of Perpignan. It was built by the emperor Charles V. and belonged to Spain till 1639.

SALSETTE, an island on the western coast of Hindostan, province of Aurungabad, formerly separated from Bombay by a strait 200 yards wide, across which, in the year 1805, a causeway was carried, which, although it has been of much advantage to the islands, is said to have injured the harbour. This island is 18 miles long by 14 broad, and is well adapted for the cultivation of sugar, cotton, hemp, indigo, &c.; but it has hitherto been kept in a state of nature, for the purpose of supplying Bombay with wood, charcoal, and sea-salt, of which there is a considerable manufactory. It has, however, been recently proposed to cultivate it, and to invite a colony of Chinese to settle there. Salsette is remarkably rich in mythological antiquities, and the remains of reservoirs, with flights of stone steps round them, and the ruins of temples, &c. indicate a former state of prosperity and extensive population. The most remarkable object, however, is the caverns at Kennere, which contain two colossal statues of Boodh. One of these caverns was converted by the Portuguese into a church. The first account we have of this island, is dated in 1330, and was written by a friar named Oderic. It was then governed by a Mahometan judge but subject to one of the Hindoo rajahs on the continent. It was taken possession of by the Portuguese in the 16th century, and from them by the Mahrattas in 1750. In 1773, during a rupture with the Mahrattas, it was occupied by the British troops, and has ever since remained in their possession. Its principal town is Tanna.

SALSEY, one of the smaller Shetland islands. Lat. 59. 53. N. long. 1. 41. W.

SA'LSIFY, *s.* [Lat.] A plant.—*Salsify*, or the common sort of goatsbeard, is of a very long oval figure, as if it were cods all over streaked, and engraven in the spaces between the streaks, which are sharp pointed towards the end. *Mortimer.*

SALSO, a small town of Italy, in the grand duchy of Parma, which derives its name from its salt-works. The produce there is considerable; 16 miles west of Parma, and 17 south-east of Piacenza.

SALSO, a river in the east of Sicily, which rises in the Val di Demona, and empties itself into the Mediterranean by two mouths.

SALSOA'CID, *adj.* [*salsus* and *acidus*, Lat.] Having a taste compounded of saltness and sourness.—The *salsoacids* help its passing off; as *sal prunel. Floyer.*

SALSOLA [from the saltness of the plant], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order digynia, natural order of holoraceæ, atriplices *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-parted: segments ovate, concave, permanent. Corolla none, unless the calyx be called so. Stamina: filaments five, very short, inserted into the segments of the calyx. Pistil: germ globular. Style three-parted or two-parted, short. Stigmas recurved. Pericarp: capsule ovate, wrapped in the calyx, one-celled. Seed single, very large, spiral. Some species have three styles.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-leaved. Corolla none. Capsule one-seeded. Seed screw-shaped.

1. Salsola kali, or prickly saltwort.—Herbaceous, decumbent, leaves awl-shaped, spiny rugged, calyxes margined, axillary. These plants produce alkaline salt, commonly called barilla, soda, or kelp, and are many of them herbaceous and annual, others have shrubby stems. Root annual, fibrous.—Native of the sandy shores of Europe, Asia, Africa, and America. It flowers with us in July. This plant, on being burned, affords fossil alkali.

2. Salsola tragus.—Herbaceous, erect, leaves awl-shaped, spiny, even, calyxes ovate.—Native of the South of Europe, and of Africa, on the sea coast.

3. Salsola rosacea, or rose-coloured saltwort.—Herbaceous, leaves awl-shaped, mucronate, calyxes spread out. The stalks of this seldom rise more than five or six inches high. The flowers are small, and of a rose-colour, soon fading.—Native of Tartary.

4. Salsola soda, or French saltwort.—Stems procumbent or upright, with spreading branches. Leaves long, fleshy, spreading, awl-shaped, widened at the base, ash-coloured, with two opposite longitudinal streaks, the margin of the base membranous and diaphanous. Flowers axillary, sessile, one, two, or three together.—Native of the South of Europe. The true Barilla is made in Spain from this species.

5. Salsola sativa, or Spanish saltwort.—Diffused, herbaceous, leaves round, smooth, flowers conglomerate. This grows abundantly on the Spanish coast, which is washed by the Mediterranean sea, and affords all the best soda consumed in Europe.

In September the Spaniards collect the crop into heaps, about six feet in height. Of these they burn fifty in one hole, stirring well the broth with sticks; then, protecting it from rain, at the expiration of eight or ten days, the stone will be cold enough to be removed.

6. Salsola spicata, or spiked saltwork.—Herbaceous, leaves oblong, obtuse, semi-cylindric, flowers in threes, axillary subspiked.—This also is a native of Spain.

7. Salsola altissimi, or grass-leaved saltwort.—Herbaceous, erect, very much branched, leaves filiform, sharpish, pedunculiferous at the base. Peduncles three-flowered, the lateral ones springing at the base of the middle one. Styles three.—Native of Italy, Saxony, and Astrachan.

8. Salsola trigyna, or trifid-styled saltwort.—Herbaceous, erect, leaves filiform, obtuse, fleshy, flowers axillary, sessile, in threes, styles trifid. In habit, this very much resembles the preceeding, but it is quite distinct, having axillary flowers not inserted into the leaf, as in that.—Native of Spain.

9. Salsola salsa, or striped-stalk saltwort.—Herbaceous, nearly upright, leaves linear, somewhat fleshy, awnless, calyxes succulent, diaphanous. Stems a foot high, panicled, even, purplish, somewhat striated. Flowers axillary, sessile, in threes.—Native of Astrachan. This, and all the preceding, are annual plants.

10. Salsola nudiflora, or naked-flowered saltwort.—Somewhat woody, ascending, leaves filiform, fleshy, flowers glomerate, leaves the length of the glomerules.—Native of the East Indies, near Tranquebar, on the coast. Perennial.

11. Salsola flavescens, or yellow saltwort.—Somewhat woody, erect, leaves round, pubescent, flowers subglomerate. Distinct from the next species, in having a suffruticose stem, narrower leaves, shorter than the flowers.—Native of Spain. Perennial.

12. Salsola hirsuta, or hairy saltwort.—Herbaceous, diffused, leaves round, obtuse, tomentose.—Native of Denmark and the South of France, on the sea coast. Distinguished by its pubescent leaves. It is annual.

13. Salsola laniflora, or woolly-flowered saltwort.—Herbaceous, leaves round, pubescent, flowers axillary, anthers coloured. Stem two feet high, when young, woolly, but towards the time of fructification, becoming naked. Flowers in threes.—Native of Siberia, about Saratschik.

14. Salsola hyssopifolia, or hyssop-leaved saltwort.—Herbaceous, leaves linear, flat, glomerules of flowers axillary, woolly. This is an annual plant.—Native of the dry salt plains of Siberia.

15. Salsola polyclonos, or many-spiked saltwort.—Somewhat woody, diffused, leaves oblong, calyxes margined, glomerate coloured. Stems very much branched. Flowers axillary and terminating, glomerate, sessile.—Native of the sea-coast of Spain and Sicily.

16. Salsola prostrata, or prostrate saltwort.—Frutescent, leaves linear, hairy, unarmed.—Native of Spain, Austria, Switzerland, and Siberia.

17. Salsola monandra, or fleshy-leaved saltwort.—Stem herbaceous, branched, fleshy, almost leafless, leaves round, fleshy, flowers one-stamened.—Native of Siberia, by the lake Altan, and in the steppes of Astrachan. Annual.

18. Salsola vermiculata, or narrow-leaved saltwort.—Frutescent, leaves in bundles, round, filiform, floral leaves ovate, acute fleshy. Stems shrubby, three or four feet high, sending out many side branches. The flowers are produced from among the leaves, towards the ends of the branches, they are so small as scarcely to be discerned.—Native of Spain and Siberia.

19. Salsola arbuscula, or bushy saltwort.—Shrubby, leaves in bundles, round, attenuated at the base, incurved; flowers solitary, scattered.—Native of the Tartarian steppes.

20. Salsola aphylla, or leaflets saltwort.—This is a shrub the height of a man, leafless and very irregular. Branchlets covered with the rudiments of flowers. Flowers sessile, with a spreading membranous border.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

21. Salsola arborescens, or tree saltwort.—Frutescent, leaves, semi-cylindric, the lower conjugate. Stems shrubby, ascending white. Spike terminating. Calyxes scariose, rose-coloured.—Native of Siberia.

22. Salsola fruticosa, or shrubby saltwort.—Stem about two feet high, or more, woody, very much branched; the branches erect, and thickly clothed with alternate, semi-cylindrical, rather glaucous leaves. Flowers inconspicuous, axillary, solitary; with three small concave, scariose bractes. Linnæus remarks, that the germ is cylindrical, and the styles three in number.—Native of England, France, Spain, Barbary, and Persia, on the sea-coast.

23. Salsola Indica, or Indian saltwort.—Shrubby, leaves linear, fleshy, half round, floral leaves oblong, obtuse. Flowers three sessile on the axils of the leaves, on the branches of the former year, not towards the top. In other respects it has the habit of the preceding species.—Native of the East Indies.

24. Salsola sedoides, or sedum-like saltwort.—Suffruticose, leaves round, filiform, ciliate, flowers glomerate, axillary.—Native of Siberia, in the salts by the Samara and the middle Jaik.

25. Salsola muricata, or hairy saltwort.—Shrubby, patulous, branchlets hirsute, calyxes spiny. Leaves linear, ash-coloured. Seed small, within a three-toothed bag: flowers small, one, two, or three together, axillary, sessile.—Native of Egypt and Barbary, near Cassa.

26. Salsola

26. Salsola didyma, or twin-fruited saltwort.—Stem herbaceous, decumbent, leaves oblong, unarmed, capsules two-lobed, two-seeded. Stem two feet long, diffused, rough. Leaves blunt, smooth, opposite. Flowers axillary, glomerate, sub-sessile.—Native of the island of Mozambique, in Africa.

27. Salsola echinus, or thorny saltwort.—Shrubby smooth, leaves subulate, awnless, spines divaricate, flowering. This is a shrub, a foot in height, very much and closely branched. —Native of the higher mountains of Libanus.

28. Salsola camphorosmoides, or camphorosma-leaved saltwort.—Shrubby, smooth, leaves filiform, with axillary bundles. Stems upright, very much branched: branches panicled, spiny; spines like needles.—Native of Barbary, near Tlemsen, in fallow fields.

29. Salsola brevifolia, or short-leaved saltwort.—Shrubby, very much branched, leaves ovate, clustered, very short, pubescent. Flowers axillary, sessile, solitary, numerous.—Found near Cassa, in Barbary, in sands; also in Sicily.

30. Salsola mollis, or soft-leaved saltwort.—Shrubby, branches spreading, leaves round, fleshy, glaucous, obtuse. Upright, very much branched.—Found with the preceding.

31. Salsola oppositifolia, or opposite-leaved saltwort.—Shrubby, leaves subulate, unarmed, opposite. Branches opposite, upright. Flowers axillary, solitary, two or three together, sessile. Bractes three, awl-shaped, small; the lower larger. Calyx small. Styles two. This is a very handsome species.—Native of Tunis, in Africa; also of Spain and Sicily.

Propagation and Culture.—All the annual sorts may be propagated by seed.

In those countries where the preparation of soda forms a a considerable branch of commerce, the seeds are regularly sown in a proper situation near the sea; where they usually shoot above the ground in the course of a fortnight. In Spain they plough the land and manure it well, then, having turned the earth twice more, they make it smooth with boards instead of harrows, and sow the seed in January and February, waiting always for wet weather. When the plant is about the bigness of a shilling, they clear off all the weeds. About the time that the seeds become ripe, the plants are pulled up by the roots, and exposed in a suitable place to dry, and there the seeds are collected: this being done, the plants are tied up in bundles, and burned in an oven constructed for that purpose; the ashes, whilst hot, being continually stirred with long poles. The saline matter, on becoming cold, forms a hard solid mass, which is afterwards broken in pieces of a convenient size for exportation.

The shrubby sorts may be propagated by layers or cuttings.

SALSONA. See SOLSONA.

SALSTADT, a small town in the east of Sweden, in the province of Upland, on the gulf of Bothnia.

SALSTON, a village of England, in Cambridgeshire, situated in the vale near Gogmagog-hills.

SALSU'GINOUS, *adj.* [*salsugineux*, Fr. *Cotgrave*; from *salsugo*, Lat.] Saltish; somewhat salt. The distinction of salts, wherby they are discriminated into acid, volatile, or *salsuginous*, if I may so call the fugitive salts of animal substances, and fixed or alcalizate, may appear of much use in natural philosophy. *Boyle.*

SALT, *s.* [*salt*, Goth. ſealc, Sax. *sal*, Lat.] In common acceptation, the substance properly called muriate of soda. Chemists, however, use the word in a very undefined sense, for all compounds of acids, with alkalies, earths, or metallic oxyds.—*Salts* are bodies friable and brittle, in some degree pellucid, sharp or pungent to the taste, and dissoluble in water; but after that is evaporated, incorporating, crystallizing, and forming themselves into angular figures. *Woodward.*—Taste; smack.—Though we are justices and doctors, and churchmen, Mr. Page, we have some *salt* of our youth in us; we are the sons of women. *Shakspeare.*—Is not discourse, manhood, learning, gentleness, virtue, and liberality, the spice and *salt* that seasons a man? *Shakspeare.*—Put also metaphorically for tears.

He perfidiously has given up,
For certain drops of *salt*, your city Rome,
To his wife and mother. *Shakspeare.*

The production and manufacture of salt have already been sufficiently noticed in the articles ROCK-SALT and POLAND, in this work.

SALT, *adj.* Having the taste of salt: as, *salt* fish.—Impregnated with salt.—It hath been observed by the ancients, that *salt* water will dissolve salt put into it in less time than fresh water. *Bacon.*—A leap into *salt* water very often gives a new motion to the spirit, and a new turn to the blood. *Addison.*—Abounding with salt.—He shall inhabit the parched places in the wilderness in a *salt* land, and not inhabited: *Jer.* xvii. 6.—Acrid, irritating [as salt.]

We were better parch in Africk sun,
Than in the pride and *salt* scorn of his eyes. *Shakspeare.*

Thou old and true Menenius,
Thy tears are *salter* than a younger man's,
And venomous to thine eyes. *Shakspeare.*

Lecherous; salacious.

All the charms of love,
Salt Cleopatra, soften thy wan lip! *Shakspeare.*

To SALT, *v. a.* To season with salt.—If the salt have lost its savour, wherewith shall it be *salted?* *St. Matt.* v. 13.—If the offering was of flesh, it was *salted* thrice. *Brown.*

SALT, *s.* [*sault*, old Fr. *saltus*, Lat.] A leap or jump. *Not in use.*

Frisking lambs
Make wanton *salts* about their dry-suck'd dams. *B. Jonson.*

SALT, a village of England, in Staffordshire; 3 miles north-east of Stafford.

SALT, a river of the United States, in Kentucky, which rises in Mercer county, and running north-west, enters the Ohio, 20 miles below Louisville. It is navigable for boats 150 miles, and is 150 yards wide at its mouth.

SALT CREEK, a river of the United States, in Ohio, which runs south-east into the Scioto, about 15 miles below Chillicothe. Near this river are salt springs, from which salt is manufactured in large quantities. The salt-works are about 80 miles north-west of Gallipolis.

SALT CREEK, a township of the United States, in Muskingum county, Ohio. Population 389.

SALT CREEK, a township of the United States, in Pickaway county, Ohio. Population 810.

SALT CREEK, a township of the United States, in Fayette county, Pennsylvania. Population 994.

SALT CREEK, a river of Mexico, in Yucatan, which runs into the bay of Honduras. Lat. 18. 10. N. long. 89. 24. W.

SALT ISLAND, one of the Virgin Islands. Lat. 18. 5. N. long. 64. 6. W.

SALT ISLAND, GREAT, an island near the south coast of Jamaica. Lat. 17. 50. N. long. 76. 57. W.

SALT ISLAND, LITTLE, an island near the south coast of Jamaica; 1 mile north of Great Salt Island.

SALT KEY, a small island in the West Indies. Lat. 21. 30. N. long. 71. 3. W.

SALT LICK CREEK, a small stream of the United States, which enters the Ohio, in the state of Kentucky.

SALT RIVER, a river of Jamaica, which runs into the sea, opposite Great Salt Island.

SALT RIVER, an arm of the sea, which divides Guadaloupe.

SALT, or SALINE RIVER, a river of Louisiana, which falls into the Missouri. It is about 30 yards wide at its mouth, and has its name from the number of salt lakes and springs which render its water brackish. The river is very rapid, and its banks are falling in.—There is another river of the same name.

SALT RIVER, a river of Louisiana, which runs into the Mississippi, bearing from that river 75. west. It is about 120 miles

120 miles broad at its junction with the Mississippi, and is navigable at high water for boats, at least 200 miles above its mouth. About one day's sail up the river, there are salt springs, which have been worked for several years. It joins the river 60 miles above the Illinois.

SALT SPRING RIVER, a river of the United States, in Indiana, which runs into the Ohio.

SALT TOWN, a sea-port of Calabar, in Western Africa, so called from the principal occupation of the inhabitants consisting in the manufacture of salt.

SALT, VALLEY OF, in Syria, about 18 miles to the east of Aleppo. In winter it is a lake, but in summer the moisture is evaporated by the heat of the sun, when the salt is left in beds of about half an inch thick, and is afterwards purified for use.

SALTA, a river of South America, in the province of Tucuman, which runs east, and enters the Vermeijo.

SALTA, or SAN MIGUEL DE SALTA, a city and district of Tucuman, in South America. The city was founded in 1582, under the name of San Clemente de la Nueva Sevilla, but was afterwards changed to its present site in the beautiful valley of Lerma, which is five leagues in circumference, and through which passes a river, on whose shore the city stands, having a fine bridge over it. It contains 400 houses, and 500 men capable of bearing arms, who have hitherto defended the city against the Indians, though it has no walls. In it are one church, two chapels, four convents, and a college which belonged to the Jesuits, the inhabitants being chiefly Spaniards and their slaves. Its environs are very fertile, abounding in wheat, rye, and vines, with pastures for the cattle exported from this place to Peru; and its commerce consists in corn, meal, wine, cattle, salt meat, fat, hides, and other commodities, which are sent to all parts of Peru. The cattle and mules of Tucuman also go from this place, which is situated on the high road from Buenos Ayres to Potosi. It is computed that the number of mules fattened in the valley of Lerma amount, during the months of February and March, when the annual fair is held, to 60,000; and besides these, there are generally 4000 horses and cows. The natives are subject to a species of leprosy, and nearly all the women, after they have attained the age of 20, have the coto, or goitrous swelling in the throat, which disfigures them very much, and which they take great pains to conceal. It is 20 miles south of Jujui; and the river which washes the town turns east, and enters the Vermeijo. Lat. 24. 17. S. long. 64. 1. 30. W.

SA'LTANT, *adj.* [*saltans*, Lat.] Jumping; dancing.

SALTASH, a market town and borough of England, in the county of Cornwall. It is situated on the side of a steep hill, on the banks of the Tamar, from which the main street rises, with a direct and steep ascent. The foundation of the town is on a solid rock, and the buildings are formed of the native stone. The houses rise above each other to the summit of the hill, near which stand the chapel dedicated to St. Nicholas, and the mayoralty-hall. The streets are narrow, and but indifferently formed. From many parts of the town there are fine views of the Tamar and the adjacent country. The mayoralty-hall was erected nearly 50 years ago. It is supported on pillars, and the market is held in the space beneath. Here are meeting-houses for Baptists and Methodists, and a small school, said to have been founded by queen Elizabeth, and endowed with £7. per annum, payable out of the duchy revenue. The inhabitants of the town are chiefly fishermen, or persons belonging to the dock-yard at Plymouth. A considerable traffic is carried on in malt and beer, and in furnishing the dock-yards of Plymouth with provisions, and other necessaries. Saltash is governed by a mayor, who is water-coroner, six aldermen, and an indefinite number of burgesses. It sends two members to Parliament. This privilege was confirmed by Edward I., and the right of election is vested in the mayor, recorder, 6 aldermen, and 20 freeholders. The assizes for the county were held in 1393. From the Devonshire side, the town is approached by a ferry over the Tamar, the rent of which forms part of the revenues of the corporation, who have also the right of dredging for oysters, and a certain sum on the anchorage and clearance of vessels. Market on Saturday; 47 miles east-north-east of Truro, and 219 south-west of London. Lat. 50. 24. N. long. 4. 10. W.

SALTATIO, [Lat.] Dancing; or, more properly, pantomime. The Greeks called it *orchesis*, or sometimes *chiromania*, rules for the hands. It consisted in the imitation of all the gestures and natural movements of man. Varro tells us (Isidor. lib. 18. cap. 50.) that the word *saltatio* is not derived from *saltus*, which signifies a leap, but from the Arcadian *Salius*, who first taught the art to the Romans. We must not then, as is generally done, confound dancing with leaping and jumping; and it should be remembered, that the true dance of the ancients was an imitation of the actions and attitudes of the body, the gestures and all the demonstrations with which men usually accompany their discourse, or which are used to explain their sentiments, without the help of words.

Among the capital pictures dug out of Herculaneum, are portraits of Apollo and the nine muses, his companions, from which engravings have been published in the second volume of "Le Pitturi Antichi d'Ercolano;" and the seventh muse, Polhymnia, is called the Fabulist; ΠΟΛΥΜΝΙΑ ΜΥΘΟΥϹ. She is there represented as the patroness of mimes, with her finger on her mouth, in token of silence. The painter differs in characterising this muse from most of the poets and mythologists, who make her the inventress of hymns to the gods. However, there are etymologists, among whom are Plutarch and Nonnus, who derive her name from Μνημη, *tradition*, alluding to the fables and tales of antiquity, which the mimes and dancers usually made the subjects of their performance. Nonnus Dionys. v. 5. 104, et seq. says,

> "Sweet Polhymnia, see advance,
> Mother of the graceful dance:
> She who taught th' ingenious art,
> Silent language to impart:
> Signs for sentiment she found,
> Eloquence without a sound:
> Hands loquacious save her lungs,
> All her limbs are speaking tongues."

SALTA'TION, *s.* [*saltatio*, Lat.]—The act of dancing or jumping.—The locusts being ordained for *saltation*, their hinder legs do far exceed the others. *Brown.*—If the great artery be hurt, you will discover it by its *saltation* and florid colour. *Wiseman.*

SALTBY, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 8½ miles north-east of Melton Mowbray.

SA'LTCAT, *s.* A lump of clay strongly impregnated with salt; it is placed on the tops of houses to attract pigeons who are said to be exceeding fond of it.

SA'LTCELLAR, *s.* Vessel of salt set on the table. We had an old word *saler*, from the French *saliere*, expressive of the same.—When any salt is spilt on the table-cloth, shake it out into the *saltcellar*. *Swift.*

SALTCOATS, a sea-port of Scotland, in Ayreshire, originally a natural harbour, formed in a projecting ledge of rock, occasionally frequented by small coasting vessels of from 20 to 30 tons burden, and much exposed to the westerly winds. It has been greatly improved, and rendered more capacious and safe, with well constructed quays and piers, so as now to admit of full loaded vessels of 100 tons burden, or more, and to accommodate from 20 to 30 at a time. It owed its improvements at first to a very enterprising gentleman, Robert Cuninghame, Esq., of Auchenharvie, about 140 years ago, and whose successors have been very attentive in keeping it in good repair to the present day. He also erected large pans for making salt, in which, along with those belonging to Lord Eglinton, there was made 6125½ bolls of salt (612½ tons), in 1819, which was nearly double of what was made at an average 25 years before. In the same year, the shipping belonging to this port

port was 35 vessels, containing 3324 tons, manned by 234 seamen. The quantity of coals exported was 14,346 tons; and there was imported 2047 quarters of grain. There is very little other trade. Ship-building was at one time carried on to a considerable extent; but has of late dwindled down to very little. The town, 140 years ago, consisted of only four houses; now it contains 3413 inhabitants, of whom about 3000 are tenants to Lord Eglinton. The houses, in some of the lately built streets, are handsome, and even elegant. On the whole, it is a cheerful place, and is much resorted to for sea-bathing, as the salt water is remarkably pure, there being no rivulet of any note nearer than 5 miles by the shore. The state of manufactures is in general very low; but there is a chemical work, in good repute, for magnesia, and what is called epsom salts; 25 miles south-west from Glasgow, 22 south from Greenock, and 5 west from Irvine.

SALTCOTE, a village of England, in Cumberland, between Newton Marsh and Rabycote.

SALTES, two small islands or rocks in St. George's Channel, near the south coast of Ireland, divided from the continent by a strait about three miles across; in the whole length of which are rocks, called St. Patrick's Bridge, which it is said might formerly have been passed on foot at low water; 10 miles west-south-west of Carnsore point. Lat. 52. 8. N. long. 6. 37. W.

SA'LTER, *s.* One who salts.—I return to the embalming of the Egyptians; and shall next proceed to speak of the surgeon or embalmer, and all other inferior officers under him, such as the dissector, emboweller, pollinctor, *salter*, and other dependant servants. *Greenhill.* —One who sells salt.—After these local names, the most have been derived from occupations; as smith, *salter*, armourer. *Camden.*

SALTERFORD, a hamlet of England, county of Nottingham, situated on the forest near Granby.

SALTERFORTH, or SATTERFORTH, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 8½ miles south-west of Skipton. Population 503.

SALTERGATE, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 8 miles north-east of Pickering.

SA'LTERN, *s.* A saltwork.—A saltcat made at the *salterns*. *Mortimer.*

SALTERNESS, a sea-port village of Scotland, in the stewartry of Kirkcudbright, much resorted to as a bathing quarter. The point on which it is situated, and from which it takes its name, is considered by many to be the southernmost point of Scotland, being in lat. 54. 55. N.

SALTFLEET, or SALTFLEETBY, a market town of England, in the county of Lincoln, situated on a small creek of the German ocean. It was formerly a place of considerable trade, but is now much decayed. It has still a harbour for shipping, which, having been much neglected, is now frequented only by lighters. Here is a building erected as a bathing hotel, but little frequented, the shore being very flat, and the bathing-place upwards of a mile distant. Its ancient name was Stepney, the old town of which was partly destroyed by a storm, and the rupture of a sea-bank. Population 169; 33 miles north-east of Lincoln.

SALTFLEETBY, EAST, WEST, and MIDDLE, three adjoining parishes of England, in Lincolnshire, south-east of Saltfleet.

SALTFORD, a parish of England, in Somerset; 6 miles west-north-west of Bath.

SALTHILL, a village of England, in Lincolnshire, south-west of Kirton.

SALTHOLM, a small island of Denmark, in the sound near the coast of Zealand. Between it and the island of Amak lies the Drogden, the only passage by which ships of the line can reach the Baltic; 5 miles south-east of Copenhagen. Lat. 55. 58. N. long. 12. 46. E.

SALTHORPE, a village of England, in Wiltshire, south-east of Wotton Basset.

SALTHOUSE, or SALLOW, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4 miles south-east of Coltishall.

SALTHOUSE, a parish of England, in Norfolk, between Holt and the sea.

SA'LTIER, *s.* [*saultiere*, French.] Term of heraldry. —A *saltier* is in the form of a St. Andrew's cross, and by some is taken to be an engine to take wild beasts: in French it is called *un sautoir:* it is an honourable bearing. *Peacham.*

SALTILLO, a town of Mexico, situated on the confines of the province of Cohahuila and the small kngdom of Leon. This town is surrounded with arid plains, in which the traveller suffers much from the want of water. The table land on which Saltillo is situated descends towards Monclovax, the Rio del Norte, and the province of Texas, where, in place of European corn, we find only fields covered with cactus. The town contains 6000 inhabitants.

SALTINBA'CO, *s.* [*saltare in banco*, to climb on a bench, as a mountebank mounts a bank or bench.] A quack or mountebank. *Unused.*—*Saltinbancoes*, quacksalvers, and charlatans, deceive them: were Æsop alive, the Piazza and Pont-neuf could not speak their fallacies. *Brown.*

He play'd the *saltinbanco's* part,
Transform'd t' a Frenchman by my art. *Hudibras.*

SA'LTISH, *adj.* Somewhat salt.

When billows make a breach and beate the bankes adowne,
Doth not the *saltish* surge them beat the bankes adowne?
Mir. for Mag.

Soils of a *saltish* nature improve sandy grounds. *Mortimer.*

SALTKETCHERS, a river of the United States, in South Carolina, which changes its name of Cambahee.

SA'LTLESS, *adj.* Insipid; not tasting of salt.

SA'LTLY, *adv.* With taste of salt; in a salt manner.

SALTMARSH, a village of England, East Riding of Yorkshire, on the banks of the Ouse. The ancient family of Saltmarsh have been seated in this village above 800 years; 4 miles south-east of Howden.

SA'LTNESS, *s.* Taste of salt.—Salt water passing through earth, through ten vessels, one within another, hath not lost its *saltness*, so as to become potable; but drained through twenty, becomes fresh. *Bacon.*—Some think their wits have been asleep, except they dart out somewhat that is piquant and to the quick: men ought to find the difference between *saltness* and bitterness. *Bacon.*—State of being salt.

If I had buried him in a wave at sea,
I would not to the *saltness* of his grave
Have added the least tear. *Beaum. and Fl.*

SALTO, a town of Paraguay, situated on a remote upper branch of the Vermeijo. It is an important point for the Spaniards, who are transporting their goods from Buenos Ayres, Tucuman, &c. to Upper Peru.

SALTON, a village of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 6½ miles south-west of Pickering.

SALTON, a parish of Scotland, in Haddingtonshire, comprehending an area of about 2000 acres. It contains two small villages, named from their relative situations, East and West Salton, and containing, the one 281, and the other 127 inhabitants. Population 790.

SALT-PAN, or SALT-PIT, *s.* Pit where salt is got.—Cicero prettily calls them salinas *salt-pans*, that you may extract salt out of, and sprinkle where you please. *Bacon.* —The stratum lay at about twenty-five fathom, by the Duke of Somerset's *salt-pans* near Whitehaven. *Woodward.*

SALTPE'TRE, *s.* [*sal petræ*, Latin; *sal petre*, Fr.] Nitre, or nitrate of potash.—Nitre or *saltpetre*, having a crude and windy spirit, by the heat of the fire suddenly dilateth. *Bacon.*—See the articles NITRUM and CHEMISTRY.

SALTPETRE CREEK, a river of the United States, in Maryland, which runs into Gunpowder river; 12 miles east-north-east of Baltimore.

SALTS, *s. pl.* of SALT. This word is used somewhat differently from its singular. When persons speak of salts, they usually mean the carbonate of ammonia. There are, however,

however, in the old nomenclature, an hundred substances called salts. See SAL.

SALT-SILVER is a denomination given to one penny paid at the feast of St. Martin, by the tenants of some manors, as a commutation for the service of carrying their lord's salt from market to his larder.

SALTUARIUS, in Antiquity, an officer, or servant, among the Romans, who had the care and custody of a country-house, with lands and woods, and who was to look to the fruit, the fences, &c.

In Nehemiah, chap. ii. 8, mention is made of an officer of this kind; *custos saltus regis*, which the English translators interpret, *keeper of the king's forest;* but he was more, having not only the keeping of a forest, but of a house with a forest; *saltus* being here used as *horti*, for a house of pleasure because gardens are the principal part. In the laws of the Lombards, saltuarius is an officer who has the guard of the frontiers.

SALTUM, *Ordination per Saltum.* See ORDINATION.

SALTUS, in Law-books, a high thick wood.

SALTWARP, a village of England, Worcestershire; 3 miles west of Droitwich, near a river of the same, which runs into the Severn, at Worcester. Population 399.

SALTWATER, a village of England, in Sussex, south-west of Chichester.

SALTWATER HAUGH, a remarkable salt spring in the river Wear, county of Durham, England. It is to be seen chiefly in summer when the water falls to the side of the channel. It tinges the stones near it with a red colour, and when boiled, produces a great quantity of bay-salt.

SALTWICH, a village of England, in Northumberland, near Stannington.

SALTWOOD, a parish of England, in Kent. Population 1066; 1 mile north of Hythe.

SALT-WORK, *s.* A saltern; a place where salt is made. —These *salt-works*, and a mint that is established at the same place, have rendered this town [Hall] almost as populous as Inspruck itself. *Addison.*

SALT-WORT. See SALICORNIA.

SA'LTY, *adj.* Somewhat salt. *Cotgrave.*

SALVABI'LITY, *s.* Possibility of being saved from damnation.—Why do we Christians so fiercely argue against the *salvability* of each other, as if it were our wish that all should be damned, but those of our particular sect? *Dec. of Chr. Piety.*

SA'LVABLE, *adj.* Capable of being saved.—Our wild fancies about God's decrees have in event reprobated more than those decrees, and have bid fair to the damning of many whom those left *salvable. Dec. of Chr. Piety.*

SALVADOR, ST., the name given by the Portugese missionaries, to the capital of the kingdom of Congo, in Western Africa. We have no account of it, except theirs, which is now somewhat antiquated. They describe it as built on a rocky and somewhat steep hill, at the top of which is a plain about ten miles in circumference, over which the buildings are irregularly scattered. The houses, even of the opulent natives, are, like all others in this country, built merely of reeds and straw, and the interior hung with mats. The king's palace consists of a vast inclosure about a league in circuit, in the interior of which are separate mansions, or rather cottages, for his servants and wives. The Portuguese had a quarter assigned to them, which they built partly of stone, and inclosed. They had erected a church, and invested one of their number with the title of bishop. The late British expedition, though they found no Portuguese on any part of the Zaire, were yet informed that a few still remained in the capital, but obtained no intelligence as to their number or actual condition.

SALVADOR, ST., a large and opulent city of Brazil, at the entrance of All Saints bay, on the right side, where the land at a small distance from the shore rises steeply to a high ridgy hill, on the summit of which the city is erected, with the exception of a single street that ranges parallel to the beach. From the inequality of the ground, and the plantations interspersed, it occupies a considerable space. The buildings are chiefly of the seventeenth century, ill constructed, and, from the slightness of the materials, rapidly decaying, which diminishes the effect of many of them that once were sumptuous. The town is divided into high and low, the latter, consisting of certain streets, filled with store-houses on the shores of the bay, for the convenience of loading and unloading. As in all Catholic cities, the churches are the most distinguished edifices, and those on which the greatest attention and expense were originally lavished. The cathedral is large, but falling into ruin; while the college and archiepiscopal palace, or rather house, adjoining, are kept in thorough repair: they were all, at the period of their erection, spacious buildings, and have a proud station on the summit of the hill, commanding the bay and surrounding country. The grand church of the ex-Jesuits is by far the most elegant structure in the city. It is composed entirely of European marble, imported for the purpose, at an immense cost, while the internal ornaments are superfluously rich; the rails of the altar are of cast brass, the whole of the wood work is inlaid with tortoise-shell, and the grand chancel, and several other communion recesses, diverging from the side aisles, with their respective altars, are loaded with gildings, paintings, images, and a profusion of other decorations. The college and monastery adjoining it, which were the most extensive and best endowed of any in Brazil, having for the last forty years been entirly unoccupied, government have lately converted them into a commodious hospital. The valuable library is nearly lost to mankind; the books and manuscripts being huddled together in a neglected room, and in a state almost of ruin. The church and monastery of the Franciscans are extensive buildings; the latter is two stories high; the apartments of the monks open into spacious corridors, that front a large square court, with a fountain in the centre, whose walls are decorated with European blue tiles in historical compartments, in which passages of heathen mythology and Christian history are curiously blended. Immediately adjoining is a separate foundation for the brothers of the Franciscans, or those who, having mixed with the world, may choose in the latter period of their lives a religious retirement. This building is curiously fronted in stucco, and remarkable for its neat cemetery, consisting of two rows of small arched vaults, three tiers deep, each vault intended to contain a coffin, which being deposited in it, the end of the vault is closed. The vaults are numbered and white-washed, and their arches relieved with neat colouring: a broad aisle, paved with black and white marble, leads between them; and at the end is a drapery figure of Religion. The whole is kept remarkably clean, and well ventilated by windows near the roof, which open to the garden; while the spreading banana excludes the sun's rays, and casts a solemn light on this sadly pleasing abode of death. The Carmelite church is more modern and more elegantly ornamented than that of the Franciscans; and the monastery adjoining is immensely rich. The same buildings belonging to the Benedictines are inferior to those of the other orders that have been mentioned, though their revenues are equally productive. Among the parochial churches, those of the Concession, Pillar, and St. Peter, are the most distinguished within the city, and those of St. Antonio and Victoria near the bar, which stand in such striking situations, as to form excellent sea-marks. There are, besides these, several other churches, and a variety of chapels, monasteries, and convents; all presenting the same tedious load of ornaments, bad taste, and excess of superstition. The principal squares or places are, the one immediately adjoining the palace, and that of the Jesuits. The streets are confined and narrow, wretchedly paved, never cleaned, and therefore disgustingly dirty. The backs of several of them are the receptacles of filth, which, exposed to so extreme a heat, would affect severely the health of the inhabitants, but for the salubrious air that prevails, in consequence of the elevated situation of the place. In the royal square is the house or palace of the governor, which is an old insignificant building; and opposite are the mint and public offices. The third side contains the court-house, and the remaining one, the

the hall of the senate, and the prison. The latter is an extensive structure, of which the lower divisions are exceedingly strong and secure, the windows having two sets of bars about eighteen inches from each other, of heavy circular iron. These dungeons are entered from a grated room above, by trap-doors. In the centre of the first story is a well secured hall, out of which open a number of dark cells, about six feet square, that have strong close doors, but no windows, and are provided each with a heavy chain, fastened to a ring in the wall. These cells are for inquisition and state criminals. The prison seldom contains less than two hundred persons, the greater part confined for offences disgraceful to society; and the rest run-away slaves, and state victims, too frequently placed there on the most trifling pretences. A small hospital adjoins the prison; but, from the heat of climate, the close situation of the building, the want of a free circulation of air, and the total neglect of cleanliness, there are upwards of a hundred burials in a year. The custom-house and wharfs are on the beach, as also is the dock-yard; near which are the marine store-houses and offices, with the house of the intendant, or port commander. Some, but not many, of the superior class of inhabitants, have erected for themselves large and elegant mansions, particularly in the vicinity of the town and have appropriately fitted them up. The habitations of other individuals who are opulent, are roomy and convenient, but shabbily furnished. Viewing them from the street, they have a dull and dirty appearance; and what they thus promise from without, is completely realised within. The houses belonging to tradesmen and shopkeepers are still more disgusting; instead of glazed windows, they have wooden drop lattices, which want even the addition of painting to enliven or preserve them. The lowest order of soldiers, mulattoes, and negroes, have tiled cabins, open to the roof, with a single lattice window. These several and different buildings, with the exception of a street or two, are all intermingled throughout the city, and exhibit a motley and disagreeable appearance. The city is protected by a number of forts and batteries; but, with the exception of one of eighteen guns, of St. Phillips, and Do Mar, they are nearly nugatory, from the want of ordnance. As the present defence rests entirely on the last mentioned fort, we shall describe it minutely, taking only a cursory notice of the others. The Fort Do Mar was erected about the year 1600, on a small rocky bank of the inner bay, three-quarters of a mile from the shore. It was first built in a circular form; but when the Dutch entered the bay in 1624, they were so greatly annoyed by it, during their attempt to take possession of the place, that they thought it deserving of additional fortifications, and they completed it to the shape it bears at present, raising the original tower, and surrounding it with an extensive lower battery. The diameter of the whole is about two hundred and seventy feet, and that of the upper tower battery a hundred: the lower battery mounts twenty-nine guns, of which there are a few that are forty-two pounders, and none less than twenty-four; the upper contains only sixteen, consisting of twenty-fours and eighteens. The tower ascends from the level of the lower battery about twenty-five feet; it is not a solid mass, but has several apartments, which diverge like rays from the centre to the exterior, and are employed as magazines for powder, artillery stores &c., and for barracks. The top of the tower is paved with flag-stones carefully cemented and sloped, to preserve the rain that falls on its surface, which, collecting in the centre, descends through a grate into an extensive reservoir below, and affords a sufficiency of water for the garrison for six months, without any other supplies. The house and offices of the commandant, and some rooms for state or military prisoners, are ranged on the lower battery, near the sloping entrance of the fort, on the side fronting the sea. The garrison, when complete, consists of five hundred men, but few only attend duty, to avoid expense. The shipping usually anchor between this fort and the city, where they are immediately under its protection, and that of St. Phillips, on the opposite shore. On the extreme point of the peninsula, and nearly opposite the bar, is the small antique fort and light-house of St. Antonio Do Barro; and in proceeding to the bar, a deep small bay indents the shore, rising to a sandy beach, and flanked on one side by the trifling fort of Santa Maria, and on the other by St. Diego, which is a circular battery; at the extremity of the city that leads to the sea, an eighteen-gun battery, chiefly twenty-fours, ranges at water-mark, and is in tolerable condition. Passing this, the dock-yard is defended by the high bulwark battery of St. Philips, mounting about thirty guns of various bores. There are three other insignificant batteries on the inhabited part of the beach, and a small one on the point of Montserrat. The city is defended on the land side, at the south and north passes, which are parallel to the beach, by three forts; on the south by the extensive fortification and outworks of St. Pedro's, the completest of the whole, but at the present moment nearly dismantled. The northern pass is a valley, entirely commanded by Barbalho on the one side, and St. Antonio Do Carmo, on the opposite eminence, nearer the bay. This last is a quadrangular fort, that has a few guns peeping over its glacis. It is said that of all the guns which, according to the last returns to government, were mounted on the different forts, 94 were all that were truly serviceable. From the recent changes that have occurred, it is probable, however, that these fortifications are now better provided with artillery. There is in the city about 5000 infantry; their pay and appointments are miserable; but they are well armed. The government dock-yard admits on the stocks only a ship of the line at a time. There are several private dock-yards near the city, in which well-modelled merchant ships of all dimensions are built. This capital carries on a considerable commerce, chiefly in linen, cloths, hats, silk and thread stockings, grain, rice, flour, biscuit, port wine, household utensils, negroes, oil, cheese, butter, and bacon; in exchange for which, it exports gold, sugar, tobacco in leaf and in dust, brazil wood, skins, balsam of copaibi, ipecacuanha, and many other drugs. The inhabitants of the city and suburbs are estimated at upwards of 100,000, of whom 30,000 are whites, 30,000 mulattoes, and the rest negroes. Lat. 12. 58. S. long. 38. 32. 30. W.

SALVADOR, St. a district of Guatimala, in South America, which produces in great abundance, sugar-cane and indigo, and is of a very fertile soil.

SALVADOR, St. the capital of the above province, situated on the banks of a river, which at the distance of 12 miles runs into the Pacific Ocean. It has a little trade, and is the residence of a governor. Population about 5000 Indians, whites, and castes; 140 miles east-south-east of Guatimala. Lat. 13. 14. N. long. 89. 20. W.

SALVADOR, St. a settlement of Peru, in the province of Calca and Lares.

SALVADOR, St. a settlement of Quito, in the province of Quixos and Macas.—It is also the name of several other inconsiderable settlements.

SALVADOR, St. a river of the province of Buenos Ayres, which rises near the coast of the river Plata, runs west, and enters the Uruguay.

SALVADOR, St. a river of Brazil, in the province of Rio Janeiro, which runs east, and enters the sea.

SALVADOR, St. one of the Bahama islands, in the north Atlantic ocean, discovered by Columbus in 1492. It is also known by the name of Cat island; this island, except at the south extremity, is very narrow. The population in 1797, amounted, including whites, to 657, and in 1803, the era of patented estates granted by the crown for cultivation, to 28,903. Lat. 24. 20. N. long. 75. 40. W

SALVADOR, St. Little. See Little Island.

SALVADOR, San, an island on the coast of New Spain, Lat. 32. 43. N. long. 118. 30. W.

SALVADORA [so named by Garcin from Salvadore, an apothecary at Barcelona], in Botany, a genus of the class tetandria, order monogynia, natural order of Atriplices (*Juss*). —Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, four-cleft; lobes revolute. Corolla one-petalled; tube short; border four-cleft; segments oblong, revolute. Stamina: filaments

laments four, the length of the calyx, reflex. Anthers round. Pistil: germ roundish. Style single, short, (or none.) Stigma simple, blunt, umbilicate. Pericarp: berry globular, one-celled. Seed single, spherical, covered with a callous aril.—*Essential Character.* Calyx four-cleft. Corolla four-cleft. Berry one-seeded. Seed covered with an aril.

1. Salvadora Persica.—Trunk generally crooked, eight or ten feet high to the branches, and one foot in diameter: bark very scabrous and deeply cracked. Branches numerous, spreading, with their extremities perfectly pendulous, like the weeping willow. Leaves opposite, petioled, oval, entire, smooth and shining on both sides, from one to two inches long, and about an inch broad. Stipules none. Panicle terminating, and from the exterior axils, compound. Flowers minute, very numerous, greenish-yellow.—Native also of the Persian gulph.

2. Salvadora capitulata.—A middle-sized tree, very much branched. Leaves alternate, very rough, unequally serrate, sub-petioled. Flowers from the axils in heads containing eight of them or thereabouts.

3. Salvadora biflora.—Ten feet high, with many twisted, spreading branches. Leaves sub-serrate, rough, alternate. Flowers axillary, on long peduncles. Calyx four-parted. Corolla none. Style bifid, with simple stigmas. Berry yellow, two-lobed, one-seeded, esculent.—Both species are natives of Cochin-china, in woods and hedges; and are not easily distinguished unless when they are in flower.

SALVADORE, St. a small town in the north-west of the kingdom of Naples, in the Terra di Lavoro, with 1200 inhabitants.

SALVADORE, St. a small town in the north-west of Italy, in Montferrat, province of Casale, situated on an eminence. Population 1600.

SALVADORE, St. an inland town of the continental Sardinian states, duchy of Montferrat. It contains four churches, and 5200 inhabitants, and is situated on a hill; 5 miles south-south-west of Valenza.

SA'LVAGE, *s.* [*salvaige*, old Fr. "Ce qui revient de droit à ceux qui ont aidé à sauver des marchandises du naufrage d'un vaisseau échoué, ou des flammes." Roq.] Recompence allowed by the law for saving goods from a wreck.—If any ship be lost on the shore, and the goods come to land, they shall presently be delivered to the merchants, they paying only a reasonable reward to those that saved and preserved them, which is intitled *salvage. Blackstone.*

The regulations which the law of England has established in relation to this subject, are principally found in our statutes, some of which are of very ancient date. (See 3 Edw. I. c. 4. 4 Edw. I. c. 2. 27 Edw. III. c. 13.) But those that are now principally in force, are found in the statute 12 Ann. stat. 2. c. 18. and subsequent acts, made for the protection of ships and goods stranded on the coasts of this kingdom. The statute of Ann. sect. 2. enacts, among other provisions, that persons employed in the salvage of ships or cargoes, &c. shall, within thirty days after the service performed, be paid a reasonable reward for the same by the commander or other superior officer, mariners, or owners of the ship or goods so saved; and in default thereof, the ship, vessel, or goods so saved, shall remain in custody of the collector of the customs, or his deputy, until all charges shall be paid.

This statute also prescribes the punishment to be inflicted on persons guilty of plundering or destroying ships in distress. But this being found insufficient to repress the barbarous practices, the stat. 26 Geo. II. c. 19. has enacted a variety of further regulations for the more effectual punishment of offenders, and the better protection of ships in distress.

Salvage in the case of recapture has been fixed by several statutes (viz. 13 Geo. II. c. 4. and 29 Geo. II. c. 34.) at certain rates, according to the interval of time the recaptured ship was in the hands of the enemy. But the regulations now in force were established by the last prize act. Accordingly, by stat. 33 Geo. III. c. 66. § 42, "If any ship or vessel, taken as prize, or any goods therein, shall appear, in the court of admiralty, to have belonged to any of his majesty's subjects, which were before taken by any of his majesty's enemies, and at any time afterwards retaken by any ships, such ships, vessels, and goods shall be restored to such former owner, he paying for salvage, if retaken by any of his majesty's ships, one-eighth part of the value thereof: and if retaken by any privateer, or other ship or vessel, one-sixth; or if retaken by the joint operation of his majesty's ships, and private ships of war, the judge of the court of admiralty shall order such salvage, and in such proportions, to be paid to the recaptors by the owners, as he shall deem fit and reasonable."

SA'LVAGE, *adj.* [*saulvage*, old French; *selvaggio*, Ital. from *silva*, Lat.] Wild; rude; cruel. It is now spoken and written *savage:* which see.

SALVAGES, a group of uninhabited islands, or rather rocks, off the coast of Africa, immediately north of the Canaries. The largest is about a league in circumference, high and rocky; and a few leagues to the north west is another, resembling the largest needle rock at the west end of the Isle of Wight. Between these there are many rocks and sands, some above, and others under water; so that it is dangerous for those who are not well acquainted with this sea, to approach them, unless on the east side of the great island. There are a great number of cormorants and sea fowl: these, with wrecks, form inducements to some of the inhabitants of the Canary islands to resort thither in summer. They catch the young in their nests, kill and salt them, and carry them to Teneriffe for sale. The largest island produces nothing but orchilla, a dyeing weed, 40 tons of which have been collected in the course of the summer. Although the Salvages lie much nearer to the Canaries than to Madeira, yet the Portuguese claim the property of them, and will not allow the former people even to collect the orchilla.

According to Lieut. Mudge, who surveyed the great Salvage island in 1820, along with Lieut. Vidal, it is of volcanic origin, and consists principally of dark coloured black rock, which has a fixed magnetic polarity. Even the dust of the roads and of the floors of the cottages may be gathered up like steel filings by a bar magnet. A plan of the island communicated to Dr. Brewster by Lieut. Mudge, is published in the *Edinburgh Philosophical Journal,* vol. v. p. 381. Position of Lieut. Mudge's station 15° 56′ 18″ west long. and 30° 27′ 39″ north lat. *Edinburgh Ency.*

SALVAIGNAG, a small town in the south of France, in the department of the Tarn, with 1200 inhabitants; 9 miles west of Gaillac, and 21 north-north-east of Toulouse.

SALVATELLA VENA, in Anatomy, an old name given to a vein of the hand, beginning at the back of the little finger, and running into the commencement of the vena basilica.

SALVATEON DE IGUEY, a settlement of St. Domingo, one of the first towns founded there by the Spaniards, 28 leagues from the capital.

SALVATERRA, a small town in the east of Portugal. Population 2000; 144 miles east-north-east of Lisbon, and 10 north of Alcantara in Spain.

SALVATERRA, a small town of Portuguese Estremadura, near the Tagus, with a royal palace; 31 miles north-east of Lisbon.

SALVATIERRA, the name of four small towns of Spain; one in Galacia, on the Minho; 30 miles north of Braga, and 54 south of St. Jago de Compostella; one in the Narvarre, on the Ezca; 24 miles east of Pampeluna; a third in Estremadura; 28 miles south-south-east of Badajos, and a fourth in the province of Alava; 14 miles east-north-east of Vittoria.

SALVATIERRA, a city of Mexico, in the intendancy of Valladolid. It is surrounded by woods, or small settlements; 30 miles north-west of Mexico.

SALVA'TION, *s.* [*salvatione*, old Fr. pardon. Kelham. from *salvo*, Latin.] Preservation from eternal death.

Him

SALVIA, SANICULA, SAXIFRAGA.

1 Sal. glutinosa. 2 San. europæa. 3 Sax. petræa. 4 Sax. nivalis.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1827.

Him the Most High,
Wrapp'd in a balmy cloud with winged steeds,
Did, as thou saw'st, receive; to walk with God
High in *salvation*, and the climes of bliss,
Exempt from death. *Milton.*

SA'LVATORY, *s.* [*salvatoire*, Fr.] A place where any thing is preserved.—I consider the admirable powers of sensation, phantasy, and memory, in which *salvatories* or repositories the species of things past are conserved. *Hale.*

SALVAYLE RIVER, a tributary stream of the Ymaska, in the province of Lower Canada, and county of Richlieu, which falls into it about 20 miles before the latter joins the St. Lawrence.

SALU'BRIOUS, *adj.* [*salubris*, Lat.] Wholesome; healthful; promoting health.

The warm limbeck draws
Salubrious waters from the innocent brood. *Philips.*

SALU'BRIOUSLY, *adv.* So as to promote health.—Does not the sweat of the mason and carpenter, who toil in order to partake the sweat of the peasant, flow as pleasantly and as *salubriously*, in the construction and repair of the majestick edifices of religion, as in the painted booths and sordid sties of vice and luxury. *Burke.*

SALU'BRITY, *s.* [*salubrité*, Fr. *Cotgrave.*] Wholesomeness; healthfulness. *Bullokar.*

SALUDA, a river of the United States in South Carolina, which runs south-east, and unites with Broad river, just above Columbia, to form the Congaree.

SALVE, *s.* [This word is originally and properly *salf*, which having *salves* in the plural, the singular in time was borrowed from it; ȝealf, Saxon; undoubtedly from *salvus*, Lat. *Dr. Johnson.*—The Latin word means merely *safe*, but the Goth *salbon* is to annoint; *salbona*, an ointment; *salbe*, German, the same. The change of *b* into *v* is not infrequent. *Todd.*]—A glutinous matter applied to wounds and hurts; an emplaster.

Let us hence my sov'reign, to provide
A *salve* for any sore that may betide. *Shakspeare.*

Help; remedy.—If they shall excommunicate me, hath the doctrine of meekness any *salve* for me then. *Hammond.*

To SALVE, *v. a.* [*salbon*, Goth. *salben*, Germ. ȝealȝian, Saxon, to annoint.] To cure with medicaments applied.

The which if I perform, and do survive,
I do beseech your majesty may *salve*
The long-grown wounds of my intemperance. *Shakspeare.*

To help; to remedy.

Some seek to *salve* their blotted name
With others blot, till all do taste of shame. *Sidney.*

To help or save by a *salvo*, an excuse, or reservation.—Ignorant I am not how this is *salved*, they do it but after the truth is made manifest. *Hooker.* [From *salvo*, Latin.] To salute. *Obsolete.*

That stranger knight in presence came,
And goodly *salved* them: who nought again
Him answered as courtesy became. *Spenser.*

SALVER, *s.* [A vessel, I suppose, used at first to carry away or save what was left. *Johnson.*] A plate on which any thing is presented.—He has printed them in such a portable volume that many of them may be ranged together on a single plate; and is of opinion that a *salver* of spectators would be as acceptable an entertainment for the ladies, as a *salver* of sweetmeats. *Addison.*

SALVER-SHAPED, in Botany, *hypocrateriformis*, is a term appropriated to a regular monopetalous corolla, with a horizontal limb, and an elongated tube, as in the primrose.

SALVETAT D'ANGLES, La, a small town in the south of France, in Languedoc, situated on the Agout. Population 2800; 58 miles west of Montpelier. Lat. 43. 35. 53. N. long. 2. 32. 13. E.

SALVETAT PEYRALET, La, a small town in the south of France, in the department of the Aveyron; 22 miles south-west of Rhodez.

SALVIA [from *salvare*; on account of its healing qualities], in Botany, a genus of the class diandria, order monogynia, natural order of verticillatæ. Labiatæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, tubular, striated, gradually widening, and compressed at the top; mouth erect, two-lipped; lower lip two-toothed. Corolla one-petalled, unequal; tube widening at the top, compressed; border ringent, upper lip concave, compressed, curved inwards, emarginate; lower lip wide, trifid, middle segment larger, roundish, emarginate. Stamina: filaments two, very short; two threads are fastened transversely to these almost in the middle, on the lower extremity of which is a gland, on the upper an anther. Pistil: germ four-cleft. Style filiform, very long, in the same situation with the stamens. Stigma bifid. Pericarp none. Calyx very slightly converging, having the seeds in the bottom of it. Seeds four, roundish.—The singular forking of the filaments constitutes the essential character. Rudiments of two stamens, but barren ones, in the opening of the corolla. Gland in most species callous, but in a few a sort of rudiment of an anther with little or no pollen occurs.—*Essential Character.* Corolla unequal. Filaments fastened transversely to a pedicel.

1. Salvia Ægyptiaca, or Egyptian sage.—Leaves lanceolate, toothletted, flowers peduncled. This is an annual plant, a foot high, stiff and brachiate. Corollas white, with the upper lip very short, emarginate, not compressed; the lower trifid, with the middle segment violet-coloured and dotted. Stamens small, with blueish anthers.—Native of Egypt and the Canary Islands.

2. Salvia dentata, or tooth-leaved sage.—Leaves linear-oblong, tooth-pinnatifid, whorls two-flowered, calycine segments blunt.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope. It flowers in December and January.

3. Salvia Cretica, or Cretan sage.—Leaves linear-lanceolate, flowers two-styled, calyxes two-leaved. Styles two, with simple stigmas.—Native of the island of Candia. It flowers from June to August, and is shrubby.

4. Salvia lyrata, or lyre-leaved sage.—Root-leaves oblong, resembling those of the common bugle, above dark green with dark purple spots about the veins, beneath dusky purple. The whole hirsute; the hairs on the upper part springing from dots or small tubercles.—Native of Virginia and Carolina.

5. Salvia leucantha.—Leaves linear-lanceolate, crenulate, wrinkled, flowers whorl-spiked, calyxes tomentose. Stems branched, upright, five feet high.—Native of Mexico. It flowers at Madrid in November and December.

6. Salvia habliziana.—Leaves linear, entire, pubescent, sessile, flowers whorl-spiked, bractes ovate, acuminate. This is a handsome plant. Stem indistinctly quadrangular, pubescent. There are commonly leafy branches from the upper axils of the leaves.—Native of Tauris.

7. Salvia officinalis, or garden sage.—The common garden sage is a branching shrub, about two feet in height. The younger branches are tomentose and whitish. The leaves are wrinkled, cinereous white, or tinged with dusky purple, on very short petioles, sometimes eared at the base. Flowers terminating, in long spikes composed of six-flowered whorls, approximating yet distinct. Bractes ovate, acute, deciduous. Calyx striated, five-toothed; the teeth acute, the three upper ones nearly equal and smaller. Corolla blue.—Native of the South of Europe, and Barbary. There are five varieties. It still keeps its ground in the kitchen for sauce to luscious and strong meats.

8. Salvia grandiflora, or broad-leaved garden sage.—Leaves cordate-oblong, crenate, whorls many-flowered, calyxes acute. This is called balsamic sage by the gardeners. The stalks do not grow so upright as those of the common sage; they are very hairy, and divide into several branches. It flowers in June, and in good seasons the seeds ripen in autumn.

9. Salvia triloba, three-lobed sage, or Sage of Virtue.—The

The leaves of this are narrower than those of the common sort; they are hoary, and some of them are indented on their edges towards the base, which indentures have the appearance of ears. The spikes of flowers are longer than those of the two preceding sorts, and the whorls are generally naked. The flowers are smaller, and of a deeper blue than those of the common sage.—Native of the South of Europe.

10. Salvia pomifera, or apple-bearing sage.—Leaves cordate, elliptic, blunt, tomentose, crenulate-waved at the edge, whorls in clusters; calyxes trifid, blunt. Stem shrubby, four or five feet high. Flowers of a pale blue colour. The branches have often punctures made in them by insects, producing protuberances as big as apples, in the same manner as galls upon the oak, and the rough balls on the briar. —Found in Candia.

11. Salvia urticifolia, or nettle-leaved sage.—Leaves ovate-oblong, doubly serrate, calyxes three-toothed, upper segment three-toothed. Stem high, upright, smooth. Petiole an inch long. Flowers in whorls, six together, small.—Native of Virginia and Florida.

12. Salvia Occidentalis, or West-Indian sage.—Root fibrous, annual. Stem a foot high. Leaves shortly acuminate, hispid above, smooth beneath. Petioles four-cornered, red, pubescent. Bractes opposite, alternate, awned; within them two or three small blue flowers.—Native of the West Indies.

13. Salvia tiliæfolia, or lime-leaved sage.—Leaves cordate, wrinkled, equally-crenate, serrate, acute, calyxes smoothish awned. Stem herbaceous, upright, somewhat villose, with the angles blunt.—Native of Mexico.

14. Salvia serotina, or late-flowering sage.—Leaves cordate, serrate, soft, flowers raceme-spiked, corollas scarcely exceeding the calyx. Root biennial. Stem suffruticose, a foot and half high.—Supposed to be a native of the island of Chios.

15. Salvia tenella.—Leaves cordate, stem filiform, creeping, spikes ascending. This is an herbaceous annual plant, with long, capillary, creeping roots. It is easily known by its habit and smallness; and flowers all the year.—Native of Jamaica.

16. Salvia viridis, or green-topped sage.—Leaves oblong, crenate, helmet of the corolla semi-orbicular, fruiting calyxes reflex. This is an annual plant, and has altogether the appearance of Salvia horminum. The plant has a strong smell. —Native of Italy and Africa on the hills about Tunis.

17. Salvia horminum, or red-topped sage.—Stems erect, about a foot and half high. Leaves shaped like those of the common red sage. They flower in June and July, and their seeds ripen in the autumn.—Native of the South of Europe.

18. Salvia virgata, or long-branched sage.—Radical leaves oblong, footstalked, contracted and wrinkled, with very numerous veins, undulated at the margins, of a dark green and smooth above, except on the midrib and veins: about six inches long, and two or three broad. Stems hirsute, about four feet high.—Native of the Pyrenean mountains.

19. Salvia sylvestris, or spotted-stalked Bohemian sage.—Leaves cordate, wrinkled, biserrate, bractes coloured, shorter than the flower, acuminate, hairs of the stem and calyx simple.—Native of Austria, Bohemia, Silesia, the hills about Turin, &c.

20. Salvia nemorosa, or spear-leaved sage.—Leaves cordate, lanceolate, serrate, flat, bractes coloured, lower lip of the corolla reflex.—Native of Austria and Tartary.

21. Salvia Syriaca, or Syrian sage.—Leaves cordate, toothed, the lower repand, bractes cordate, short, acute, calyxes tomentose. Flowers in small whorls, disposed in loose spikes at the top of the stalks; they are small and blue. —Native of Syria.

22. Salvia viscosa, or clammy sage.—Leaves oblong, blunt, erose-crenate, viscid, flowers in whorls, bractes cordate, acute. Root perennial. Lower part of the stem woody. —Native of Italy.

23. Salvia hæmatodes, or bloody sage.—Roots like those of peony. Root-leaves five or six inches long, and almost four broad at their base. Between these arise strong stalks about four feet high, having on the upper part loose spikes of whorled flowers of a purple colour.—Native of Italy and Istria.

24. Salvia pratensis, meadow sage or clary.—Root perennial. Leaves oblong, nearly smooth, irregularly crenate, wrinkled and veiny. Long whorled spikes of large blue flowers, six in a whorl, terminate the stem and branches, with a pair of very small heart-shaped acuminate bractes to each whorl. The flower-stalks and calyx, as well as the apex of the corolla, are hairy and viscid.—Native of many parts of Europe, in dry pastures and by hedge sides.

25. Salvia bicolor, or two-coloured sage.—Leaves ovate, erose-toothed, flowers nodding, the middle segment of the lower lip of the corolla concave. This is a handsome plant. Stem pubescent, with blunt angles. Flowering branches rod-like, erect, pubescent, eighteen inches high or more.—Native of Barbary.

26. Salvia Indica, Indian sage or clary.—Leaves cordate, sublobed at the sides, the upper ones sessile, whorls almost naked, very remote.—Native of India: it flowers from May to July.

27. Salvia Dominica, or Dominica sage.—Stem, towards the root, suffruticose, erect, pubescent; branches and stem square. Leaves acuminate, wrinkled, hispid above, subhirsute beneath. Flowers terminating, in whorls, peduncled, blue.—Common in the West Indies.

28. Salvia verbenaca, vervian sage or clary.—Leaves serrate, sinuate, smoothish, corollas narrower than the calyx. Root perennial, brown, the thickness of the middle finger, with numerous fibres. Stems nearly upright, two feet high. Flowers in whorls, almost naked, containing about six flowers. —Native of all the four continents. Not uncommon in England, especially on chalky and gravelly soils.

29. Salvia scabra, or rugged sage.—Rugged; leaves lyrate, toothed, wrinkled, stem panicle-branched.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

30. Salvia runcinata, or runcinate-leaved sage.—Rugged; leaves runcinate-pinnatifid, toothed, flowers spiked, whorled. —Found at the Cape of Good Hope.

31. Salvia clandestina, or cut-leaved sage.—Leaves serrate, pinnatifid, very much wrinkled, spike obtuse, corollas narrower than the calyx. Stems blunt, villose, ascending, a span high; with two branches commonly at top.—Native of Italy.

32. Salvia Austriaca, or Austrian sage.—Leaves ovate and cordate, root-leaves petioled, stem almost leafless, stamens double the length of the corolla. This species rises with a single stem about a foot high, tetragonal, and about the thickness of a quill. Flowers white, or very pale yellow, and of moderate size.—Native of Austria, Hungary, and Moldavia.

33. Salvia Pyrenaica, or Pyrenean sage.—Leaves obtuse, erose, stamens double the length of the corolla.—Native of the Pyrenees.

34. Salvia disermas, or long-spiked sage.—Leaves cordate-oblong, erose, stamens equal to the corolla. The whole plant is pubescent, with villose hairs glutinous at the tip.—Native of Syria. It flowers in July.

35. Salvia rugosa, or wrinkled-leaved sage.—Leaves cordate, oblong-lanceolate, erose-crenate, wrinkled, somewhat hairy, stamens shorter than the corolla. This approaches very near to the preceding, and indeed scarcely differs from it, except in its short stamens reaching up only to the throat or aperture of the corolla, which is white.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.—It flowers in July and August.

36. Salvia Nubia, or Nubian sage.—Leaves oblong, subcordate, unequilateral, wrinkled, crenate, somewhat eared at the base. Stem a foot and half high, and a thumb's thickness at bottom, tapering in its ascent, slightly villose with horizontal hairs: branches opposite and crosswise.—Native of Africa. It flowers in June and July.

37. Salvia Nilotica, or Nile sage.—Leaves sinuate, angular, crenate-toothed, teeth of the calyxes spiny, angles and margin of the aperture ciliate. Height about two feet: upright, obtusely quadrangular; channelled on the sides, branched;

branched: spikes terminal, verticillated, and either simple or compound: whorls remote, horizontal, with three flowers on each side.—Supposed to be a native of Egypt.

38. Salvia Mexicana, or Mexican sage.—Stem shrubby, eight or ten feet high, sending out slender four-cornered branches of a purplish colour. Leaves thin, pale green, and hairy on their under side. Flowers in close thick spikes at the end of the branches. Corolla of a fine blue colour.—Native of Mexico.

39. Salvia amethystina, or amethystine sage.—Stem suffruticose, bluntly four-cornered, rough-haired. Leaves cordate-oblong, serrate, green and rough-haired above, very closely woolly, and white beneath. Whorls rather remote, composed of about six flowers, without any bractes. Peduncles spreading, rough-haired, one-flowered.—Native of New Granada.

40. Salvia fulgens, or fulgid sage.—Stems three feet high, reclining at bottom, and then upright; branches opposite. Leaves almost equal, on channelled petioles. Flowers in terminating spikes, composed of six-flowered whorls.—Native of Mexico.

41. Salvia formosa, or shining-leaved sage.—Leaves subcordate, helmet of the corollas bearded, calyxes three-lobed, stem frutescent.—Native of Peru.

42. Salvia tubiflora, or long-tubed sage.—Leaves cordate, orenate, somewhat hairy, calyxes trifid, corollas very long, tubular, stamens standing out. Stem suffruticose, striated, villose at top.—Native of Lima in South America.

43. Salvia longiflora, or long-flowered sage.—Leaves ovate, acute, serrate, pubescent; calyxes trifid, corollas very long, tubular, pubescent, stamens the length of the corolla.—Native of Mexico.

44. Salvia coccinea, or scarlet-flowered sage.—Leaves cordate, acute, tomentose, serrate; corollas narrower than the calyx, and twice as long.—Native of East Florida.

45. Salvia pseudococcinea.—This resembles the preceding, but the leaves are ovate, smoothish, unequal at the base; the stem is hairy, the corollas longer, widening at the throat.—Native of South America.

46. Salvia Hispanica, or Spanish sage.—Leaves ovate, petioles mucronate each way, spikes imbricate, calyxes trifid. Root annual: stem a foot and half high, blunt at the corners, four-grooved, clothed at top with reflex white hairs.—Native of Spain and Italy.

47. Salvia Abyssinica, or Abyssinian sage.—Lower leaves lyrate, upper cordate, flowers in whorls, calyxes mucronate, ciliate. Stems about a foot and half high, upright, tetragonal and hairy.—Native of Africa.

48. Salvia verticillata, or whorl-flowered sage.—This sends out from the root a great number of heart-shaped leaves, serrate, deeply veined. From among these arise the stalks, two feet and a half high, having at each joint two leaves which are also heart-shaped, and half embrace the stalk. At the two or three upper joints a long flowering-stalk comes out on each side: these, as well as the principal stalk, have whorls of small blue flowers, not much unlike those of the Salvia verbenaca, but larger. The spikes are more than a foot long, and towards the top the whorls are nearer together.—Native of Germany and Austria.

49. Salvia napifolia, or rape-leaved sage.—Leaves cordate, crenate-toothed, lower ones hastate and lyrate, whorls almost naked, upper lip shortest, but the middle one longer, and very obtuse.—Native of the warmer parts of the globe.

50. Salvia glutinosa, yellow sage, or clary.—Root composed of strong woody fibres. Leaves four inches long, and three broad at the base, of a pale yellowish-green colour, upon foot stalks three or four inches long. Stems strong, near four feet high, having smaller leaves below, and the upper part closely set with whorls of large yellow flowers. The whole plant is very clammy, and has a strong scent somewhat like common garden clary. The flowers are used in Holland to give a flavour to the Rhenish wines.—Native of Germany, Austria, Switzerland, Italy and the south of France.

51. Salvia Barrelieri.—Leaves unequally toothed, acuminate, cordate, angular-hastate at the base, whorls almost naked. Stems upright, three feet high. Flowers large, blue, in distant whorls.—Native of Spain.

52. Salvia Canariensis, or Canary sage.—Leaves hastate-triangular, oblong, crenate, obtuse. Stem shrubby, five or six feet high, dividing into many branches covered with a flocky down. The flowers are of a light blue colour, and are ranged in whorled spikes, having two small leaves under each whorl.—Native of the Canary Islands.

53. Salvia aurita, or eared sage.—Villose, leaves ovate, toothed, eared, flowers whorl-spiked.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

54. Salvia Africana, or blue-flowered African sage.—Leaves roundish, serrate, truncate and toothed at the base. This rises with a shrubby stalk four or five feet high, dividing into branches. The flowers come out in whorls towards the end of the branches; they are of a fine blue colour.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

55. Salvia aurea, or gold-flowered African sage.—Leaves roundish, quite entire, truncate and toothed at the base. Stalk seven or eight feet high, covered with a light coloured bark, sending out branches the whole length which grow almost horizontally. Flowers in thick short spikes at the end of the branches; they are very large, and of a dark gold colour.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

56. Salvia colorata, or coloured-calyx African sage.—This has great resemblance to Africana, but the branches are stronger, and grow more erect.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

57. Salvia paniculata, or panicled African sage.—Stem frutescent, erect. Leaves small, wedge-form, sharply toothed.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

58. Salvia acetabulosa.—Leaves obovate, toothed, calyxes bell-shaped, spreading, hairy, stem shrubby.—Native of the Levant.

59. Salvia spinosa, or thorny-calyxed sage.—Leaves oblong, repand, calyxes spiny, bractes cordate, mucronate, concave. Stem a foot high, obscurely quadrangular, hirsute, brachiate.—Native of Egypt.

60. Salvia Tingitana, or Tangier sage.—Leaves cordate, erose toothed, calyxes spiny, bractes quite entire, cordate, mucronate, concave, ciliate. Very nearly allied to the preceding.—Native of Northern Africa.

61. Salvia sclarea, or common clary.—Lower leaves seven or eight inches long, and four broad at the base, ending in blunt points. Stems large and clammy, about two feet high, sending out small opposite side branches. Flowers in loose terminating spikes, composed of whorls, of a pale blue colour. It is a biennial plant.—Native of Syria.

62. Salvia involucrata.—Leaves ovate-lanceolate, serrate, flowers in terminating spikes, bractes very large, coloured. This plant is very beautiful from the number and size of the flowers.—Native of Mexico.

63. Salvia ceratophylla, or horn-leaved sage.—Root biennial. Leaves very thick and woolly, eight or nine inches long, narrow, cut into obtuse segments nearly opposite on their sides almost to the midrib, somewhat like a stag's horn in shape, and spreading flat on the ground. Stem more than a foot high, thick, and very woolly, sending out branches by pairs, and having long narrow leaves in pairs at each joint, which are serrate. Flowers in loose whorled spikes, at the top of the stalks barren. Corolla white.—Native of Persia.

64. Salvia Æthiopis, woolly sage, or clary.—Leaves of a thick substance and very woolly, especially on their under side, the upper side rugged and wrinkled, with several longitudinal veins diverging from the midrib. Stems about two feet high, sending out many branches in pairs. Flowers in whorled terminating spikes.—It is a biennial plant.—Native of France, Austria, Illyria, Italy, Greece and Africa.

65. Salvia phlomoides.—Leaves lanceolate, almost entire, stem woolly and viscid.—Native of Spain, in the mountains about Siguenza.

66. Salvia argentea, silvery-leaved sage, or clary.—Leaves oblong, tooth-angular, woolly, upper whorls barren, bractes concave.

concave. Corollas white.—Native of the Island of Candia. Biennial.

67. Salvia vulnerariæfolia, or kidney vetch-leaved sage.—Leaves pinnate, quite entire, terminating leaflet very large. Stem pubescent at top and roundish. Flowers whorl-spiked, terminating naked.—Native of the Levant.

68. Salvia pinnata, or wing-leaved sage.—Leaves pinnate, pinnas erose. This is an annual or biennial plant, with trailing stalks. Flowers in whorls, large, both corolla and calyx of a deep blue colour. Stem hairy.—Native of the Levant.

69. Salvia incarnata, or flesh-coloured sage.—Leaves pinnate, serrate, stems procumbent, hirsute. Flowers in whorls, large, flesh-coloured.—Native of the Levant.

70. Salvia rosæfolia, or rose-leaved sage.—Leaves pinnate, hoary, leaflets serrate, calyxes ringent. Stem suffruticose, hoary, with a few white hairs scattered over it.—Native of Armenia.

71. Salvia Japonica, or Japan sage.—Leaves bipinnate, smooth. Flowers panicled whorled.—Native of Japan. Annual.

72. Salvia ceratophylloides, or branchy sage.—Leaves pinnatifid, wrinkled, villose, stem panicled, very much branched.—Native of Sicily and Egypt.

73. Salvia Forskaelei.—Leaves lirate-eared, stem almost leafless, helmet of the corolla semibifid. Stem of the second year flowering, erect, a foot and half high, leafless, with whorls beyond the middle.—Native of the Levant.

74. Salvia nutans, or nodding sage.—Leaves cordate, indistinctly, five-lobed, erose, stem roundish, racemes nodding.—Native of Russia.

75. Salvia hastata, or halbert-leaved sage.—Leaves hastate-lanceolate, crenate, stem almost naked, racemes drooping.

76. Salvia betonicæfolia, or betony-leaved sage.—Leaves lanceolate, crenate, stem almost naked, racemes drooping.—Both natives of the empire of Russia.

77. Salvia Algeriensis, or Algerine sage.—Lower leaves ovate, crenate, decurrent into the petiole, calyxes tooth-spiny, nodding, bractes reflex. Stem upright, hirsute, with blunt angles.—It is an annual plant.—Native of Algiers, near Maiane.

78. Salvia fœtida, or fetid sage.—Shrubby, leaves cordate-ovate, very much wrinkled, villose, flowers whorl-spiked, fruiting calyxes compressed. This is a branched upright shrub. Branches villose, with blunt angles. Whorls four or six-flowered. Flowers subsessile.—Native of the kingdom of Tunis.

79. Salvia patula, or spreading sage.—Root-leaves cordate, woolly, sinuate, erose, stem and calyxes villose-glutinose, bractes concave, mucronate, upper flowers fading. Allied to Salvia Æthiopis. The root is biennial.—Native of Portugal and Syria, also of Barbary.

Propagation and Culture.—All the sorts of sage may be propagated by seeds if they can be procured; but as some of them do not perfect their seeds in England, and most of the sorts, but especially the common kinds for use, are easily propagated by slips, it is not worth while to raise them from seeds. The slips of the hardy sorts should be planted the beginning of April, on a shady border, where, if they are now and then refreshed with water, if the season should prove dry, they will soon take root. There should be a succession of young ones raised every other year.

Several of the sorts are somewhat tender, and will not live through the winter in the open air in England. These must be planted in pots filled with fresh, light, sandy earth, and in winter they must be removed under a hot-bed frame, that they may have a great share of fresh air whenever the season is mild; for if they are too much drawn, they seldom flower well, and make but an indifferent appearance.

The 1st, 27th, 68th, &c., are annual plants, propagated by seeds only; these may be sown upon a bed of light earth in the places where they are to remain.

SALVIAC, a small town in the south of France, in the department of the Lot. Population 1800; 6 miles south of Gourdon, and 16 north-north-west of Cahors.

SALVIANUS, a celebrated presbyter of Marseilles, who flourished in the fifth century, was probably born at Cologne, and is said to have been descended from a family of rank, and enjoyed the advantages of a liberal education, by which he became thoroughly conversant with profane and sacred literature. He married a lady who was not a Christian, but who became, through his means, a convert to the religion which he espoused. We first find him in a public capacity, in the office of presbyter at Marseilles. According to Cave, he began to flourish about the year 440, when he finished one of his principal works, viz. "A Treatise concerning the Providence of God;" and from this time his reputation greatly increased, and became widely diffused. He was living in 495, and had, at that period, attained to a good old age. It was at this time that Gennadius wrote his account of him, observing, that he might well be called "a master of bishops," since he wrote many homilies which were preached by bishops not so well qualified to compose for themselves. His works that remain, are written with force and elegance, particularly when he is declaiming against the irregular manners of the times; so that he has had the title given to him of "the Jeremiah of the fifth century." The works of Salvianus that have come down to us consist of "De Providentia et Gubernatione Dei, deque Justo ac presenti ejus Judicio, Lib. viii.;" Adversus avaritiam præsertim Clericorum et Sacerdotum, Lib. iv." published under the title of Timothy, and "Epistolæ IX." Of his works that are lost, an account will be found in Cave's Hist. vol. i.

SALVIATI (Francisco Rossi), called *Il Salviati*, from the favour and patronage of the Cardinal Salviati, was the son of Michelangiolo Rossi, and was born at Florence, in 1510. He was first placed as a pupil under Andrea del Sarto, and afterwards with Baccio Bandinelli. The cultivation of his talents under these two able masters enabled him to rival in fame the best artists, after the decease of the great luminaries who had conducted painting so near to perfection; and he is celebrated by his fellow pupil, Vasari, as the greatest painter then in Rome. The power which he exhibited was not suffered to lie unemployed. For the church of La Place he painted the Annunciation, and Christ appearing to Peter; and soon afterwards was engaged by his patron, the cardinal, to adorn his chapel with a series of frescoes, the subjects being taken from the life of St. John Baptist. He produced a set of cartoons of the history of Alexander, as patterns for tapestries; and, in conjunction with Vasari, ornamented the apartments of the Cancellaria with paintings in fresco.

From Rome he went to Venice, where he painted many pictures, both for public edifices and private collections, particularly the history of Pysche, for the Palazzo Grimaldi. He afterwards travelled through Lombardy, and made some stay at Mantua, studying with much delight the works of Julio Romano. At Florence, he was employed by the grand-duke to adorn the Palazzo Vecchio: in one of the saloons he represented the victory and triumph of Furius Camillus, a work greatly admired for the truth and taste of imitation, and the vigour and spirit of the composition.

A restless habit, and a disposition to rove, led Salviati to accept an invitation to France, made by the Cardinal de Lorraine, in the name of Francis I., then engaged in constructing and adorning his palace at Fontainebleau. He was received with distinction, and politely treated by F. Bimaticio, who had the superintendance of the works; but proud and turbulent, he soon became dissatisfied, and returned these favours with unkindness and ingratitude. During his stay in France, he painted a fine picture for the church of the Celestines at Paris, of the Taking down from the Cross. He soon after returned to Italy, and there fell into new disputes with Daniel de Volterra and Pietro Ligorio; and by continual agitation of mind brought on a fever, of which he died in 1563, at the age of 53.

Il Salviati possessed an invention fertile and well stored with materials, which he combined with care and originality; introducing in his pictures magnificent designs of architecture, and uniting in his execution celerity and correctness

rectness. His first character is that of a designer; and indeed he was a complete example of the Roman school, of which colouring by no means forms an agreeable feature, whilst it has sufficient to separate and support the forms. His unhappy disposition, and his inclination to debase and villify the works of others, caused him many enemies, and frequently led to the employment of less able artists, whose talents were conducted with a more engaging manner, and less captious temper.

SALVINI (Anton-Maria), a learned Italian, was born of a noble family at Florence, in 1654. He became professor of Greek in his native city, and was a distinguished member of the Della Crusca, to the perfection of whose dictionary no one contributed so much. He passed his life in literary pursuits, and died in 1729, at the age of 76. During his life he was not much known as an author, but after his decease a great number of works from his pen appeared, either in a separate form, or inserted among the writings of other learned men. He displayed great industry in translations, and gave metrical versions, comprising the Iliad and Odyssey of Homer; Hesiod; Theocritus; Anacreon; and many of the minor poets and epigrammatists: the Clouds and Plutus of Aristophanes; parts of Horace and Ovid; Perseus; part of the Book of Job and the Lamentations; Boileau's "Art Poetique;" Addison's "Cato" and "Letters from Italy," and other pieces. He obtained the character of a very faithful translator; and it is said he has not omitted a single epithet of Homer; hence he was obliged to introduce into the Tuscan language a multitude of compound terms never before hazarded. There have been published of this author, "Sonnets and other original Poems;" "A hundred Academical Discourses;" "A funeral Oration for Antonio Magliabecchi," and other works.—He had a younger brother, a canon of Florence, who died at an advanced age in 1751, and who was also a distinguished man of letters, and published a work, entitled "Fasti consolari delle' Academia Fiorentina," also the Lives of Maglotti and Migliorucci.

SALVINIA, a plant so named by Micheli, in compliment to a Florentine nobleman. This is the *Marsilea natans* of Linnæus, which see.

SALVO, *s.* [from *salvo jure*, Latin; a form used in granting any thing: as *salvo jure putei.*] An exception; a reservation; an excuse.—If others of a more serious turn join with us deliberately in their religious professions of loyalty, with any private *salvoes* or evasions, they would do well to consider those maxims in which all casuists are agreed. *Addison.*

SALUM, or Bursalum, an African kingdom, situated on the northern bank of the Gambia. It is 120 miles long, 50 broad, and contains 300,000 inhabitants. The king maintains considerable state; but he never does any thing of importance without the advice of his grandees and people. The country is very fertile and populous, and the inhabitants intelligent and courageous. It is traversed by a river, called the River of Salum, which runs about thirty leagues up the country, and, on approaching the Atlantic, divides into several branches, one of which forms a broad bay; but the stream is muddy, and its banks unwholesome. It is not frequented by the English, on account of a quarrel with the king, of which advantage was taken by the French, to establish an alliance with that monarch. The river falls into the sea, in Lat. 13. 44. N.

SALVORE, a promontory of Austrian Illyria, in Istria, to the south of Pirano, and 3 miles north of Umago.

SALURN, a small town of the Austrian states, in Tyrol, on the Adige; 10 miles north of Trent. Population 1100.

SALUT, Port, lies on the south-west side of the south peninsula of the island of St. Domingo, about 14 leagues from Les Caves, as the road runs, and only 7 in a straight line south-west of that town. Lat. 18. 6. N. long. 76. 20. W.

SA'LUTARINESS, *s.* Wholesomeness; quality of contributing to health or safety.

SA'LUTARY, *adj.* [*salutaris*, Lat.] Wholesome; healthful; safe; advantageous; contributing to health or safety.—It was want of faith in our Saviour's countrymen, which hindered him from shedding among them the *salutary* emanations of his divine virtue; and he did not make many mighty works there, because of their unbelief. *Bentley.*

SALUTA'TION, *s.* [*salutatio*, Lat.] The act or style of saluting; greeting.

Thy kingdom's peers
Speak my *salutation* in their minds;
Whose voices I desire aloud with mine,
Hail, king of Scotland! *Shakspeare.*

The *Salutatio*, among the Romans, was daily homage paid by clients and inferiors to their superiors.

Among the great, *atrium* was the place appointed for this purpose; but among people of middling condition, the *vestibulum* only.

This practice of salutation was not confined to the city, but took place in the army likewise; it being usual for the private soldiers to go very early in the morning to salute their centurion, who at their head proceeded to salute the tribune, and then the tribune with the rest went and saluted the imperator, or commander-in-chief.

The women, too, had their crowds of saluters attending them every morning.

The manner of receiving those who came to pay their respects, was to receive those of the better sort with a kiss, and the poorer sort had a small entertainment given them, and were even feasted by such as wanted to be thought more liberal than ordinary.

There is a great variety in the forms of salutation: we salute God by adorations, prayers, &c.; kings by genuflexion, &c. In England, we salute one another by uncovering the head, inclining the body, &c. The orientals salute by uncovering their feet, laying their hands on their breast, &c. The pope makes no reverence to any mortal but the emperor of Germany, to whom he stoops a very little, when he admits him to kiss his mouth.

It was believed by the ancients, that the statue of Memnon, in a temple of Egypt, saluted the sun every morning at his rising: the cheat consisted in this, that the statue being hollow, when the warmth of the morning began to rarify the including air, it was driven out through a narrow duct in the mouth; this made a gentle murmur, which the priests interpreted a salutation.

In the *Army*, the salute is performed by a discharge of artillery, or small arms, or both; the men presenting their arms. The colours likewise salute royal personages, and generals commanding in chief, which is done by lowering the point to an inch above the ground. In the field, when a regiment is to be reviewed by the king, or his general, the drums beat a march as he passes along the line, and the officers salute one after another, bowing their half pikes or swords to the ground, then recover, and take off their hats. The ensigns salute altogether by lowering their colours. When his majesty, or any of the royal family are present, when the word of command, "to shoulder," is given, the officers recover their swords, and the ensigns raise their colours.

At *Sea*, this ceremony is variously performed, according to the circumstances, rank, or situation of the parties. It consists in firing a certain number of cannon, or volleys of small arms, in striking the colours or top-sails, and in one or more general shouts of the whole ship's crew, mounted in the masts or rigging for that purpose. For a tedious rigmarole on this subject, see Regulations and Instructions for the Sea Service.

SALUTATION, *Angelical*, is an address, which the Romanists make to the Virgin, containing the formula in which the angel saluted her, when he acquainted her with the mystery of the incarnation.

SALUTATO, (Lino Coluccio Piero), one of the restorers of literature in Italy, was born in 1330, at the castle of Stignano, in Tuscany. His father, a soldier and hero, having been exiled by the prevalent faction in his country, retired to Bologna on the invitation of its lord,

lord, whom he served till his death. Coluccio received his education in that city, and by his father's command applied himself to the study of the law, which he quitted for the more pleasing and elegant pursuits of rhetoric and poetry, as soon as he became his own master. In the year 1368, he was the colleague of Francesco Bruni in the office of Apostolical secretary to pope Urban V. It is probable, that when this pontiff returned to France, Coluccio quitted the papal court and married. He had, however, previously to this, acquired so high a reputation for eloquence, that various states and sovereigns sent him invitations to enter into their service, but his attachment to his native country caused him to give a decided preference to the Florentine republic, of which he was, in 1375, made the chancellor, an office which he held many years: during this period he was engaged in almost every important transaction that had occured in Italy. Such was his influence and the force of his eloquence, that Giangaleazzo, duke of Milan, was accustomed to say, that a single letter of Coluccio did him more mischief than a body of a thousand Florentine horse. In the midst of his public occupations, he was attentive to the interests of literature, which few persons of his time promoted with more assiduity. He died in 1406, in the 76th year of his age. On account of his great merit a public funeral was decreed to him, and on this occasion the whole city spontaneously attended, and a garland of laurel was solemnly placed on his bier. Of his writings, which were numerous, none have been published, except a treatise "De Nobilitate Legum ac Medicinæ," a sonnet, some Latin poems, and two collections of letters made by Metius and Rigacci. The letters contain many curious particulars of the literature and politics of the time. He wrote a treatise concerning the corruption of the manuscripts of ancient authors, and the means of remedying it by the careful collation of different copies; and he himself collected 600 volumes, which was a vast library for the period, considering that the art of printing had not been then discovered. His own compositions, in prose and verse, obtained the highest eulogies from his contemporaries, who were disposed to give him rank by the side of Cicero and Virgil, to which, by the way, he had no claim whatever. He was, nevertheless, a man of very extensive erudition, and well acquainted with the literature then chiefly in esteem.

SALUTATORIUM, in Nunneries, was a place where the nuns received the salutation of those that came to see them.

Salutatorium was also used for the vestry, or place where the bishop was dressed, and received the salutation of visitants before divine service.

SALUTATORY, *s.* [*salutatorium*, low Lat.] Place of greeting. *Not in use.*—Coming to the bishop with supplication into the *salutatory*, some out-porch of the church. *Milton.*

To SALUTE, *v. a.* [*saluto*, Lat. *saluer*, Fr.] Our old writers accordingly follow the French, and write *salue*, or *salew*, as *Gomer and Chaucer*. *Salew* is also used by Spenser. F. Q. iv. vi. 25.—To greet; to hail.

One hour hence
Shall *salute* your grace of York as mother. *Shakspeare.*

To please; to gratify.

Would I had no being,
If this *salute* my blood a jot: it faints me,
To think what follows. *Shakspeare.*

To kiss.—You have the prettiest tip of a finger.—I must take the freedom to *salute* it. *Addison.*

SALUTE, *s.* Salutation; greeting.

O, what avails me now that honour high
To have conceived of God; or that *salute*,
Hail, highly favour'd, among woman blest. *Milton.*

A kiss.—There cold *salutes*, but here a lover's kiss. *Roscommon.*

SALUTE, an ancient name of a coin made by king Henry V. after his conquest in France, on which the arms of France and England were stamped and quartered.

SALUTER, *s.* He who salutes.

SALUTIFEROUS, *adj.* [*salutifer*, Lat.] Healthy; bringing health.—The king commanded him to go to the south of France, believing that nothing would contribute more to the restoring of his former vigour than the gentle *salutiferous* air of Montpelier. *Dennis.*

SALUTIGERULI, among the Romans, were servants chiefly employed by the women in carrying salutations to one another.

SALUZZO, a district in the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont, forming part of the continental states of the king of Sardinia, and bounded by the county of Nice, the valley of Lucerne, and the frontier of France, extending along the province of Dauphiny. It has a superficial extent of 750 square miles, and a population of 126,000. Its surface is mountainous and rugged; but from warmth of climate, its soil is in many parts fertile, producing corn, hemp, fruit, wine, and silk. It is commonly called the Marquisate of Saluzzo.

SALUZZO, a town of the Sardinian states, in the north-west of Italy, the capital of the district of the same name, situated at the foot of the Alps, not far from the source of the Po. Including its suburbs, it has above 10,000 inhabitants. It stands on an eminence, in the midst of a plain, which gives it the double advantage of a fine prospect and a healthy atmosphere. It is tolerably well built, and contains the cathedral and several churches worth notice. Of its manufactures, those of silk are the most extensive. It is the see of a bishop; 28 miles south of Turin. Lat. 44. 40. N. long. 7. 26. E.

SALUZZOLA, a small town of the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont, situated on the acclivity of a hill, at the foot of which flows the Elvo. Its population amounts to 2000. In the neighbourhood is a hill, containing some mines of gold and silver; 18 miles west-north-west of Vercelli.

SALWATTY, an island in the Pacific ocean, near the north-west coast of New Guinea, from which it is separated by a narrow channel, called Revenge Strait, of an oval form, inclining to a triangle, about 90 miles in circumference. It is governed by a rajah, but so much under the controul of the Dutch, that some years since they seized one of the rajahs who had offended them, and conveyed him to the Cape of Good Hope. Lat. 1. 6. S. long. 131. 15. E.

SALZ, a small river of the west of Germany, which falls into the Rhine; 4 miles above Spire.

SALZA, or SALZACH, a large river of Austria, in the duchy of Salzburg, which rises in the south part of the province, and after passing Hallein, Salzburg, and other towns, falls into the Inn. It begins to be navigable at Hallein.

SALZA, a small river of Saxony, which flows through the territory of Nordhausen, and falls into the Helm.

SALZA, GREAT, a town of Prussian Saxony, near the Elbe, with 1600 inhabitants; 12 miles south-east of Magdeburg. Lat. 52. 0. N. long. 12. 0. E.

SALZBRUNN, a village of Prussian Silesia, in the government of Reichenbach, with 1700 inhabitants.

SALZBURG, a province in the west of the Austrian empire, lying between Styria, Tyrol, and Bavaria. Its area, since the cession of Berchtolsgaden to Bavaria, does not exceed 2800 square miles, nor its population 142,000. It consists partly of a great valley, with the river Salza flowing along the middle; partly of a track of alternate mountains and defiles. The ground is highest in the south, where it approaches to, or rather forms part of, the Noric Alps; for there, as in Switzerland, are mountains, lakes, glaciers, avalanches, and all the accompaniments of Alpine scenery. The climate of this mountainous region is much more severe than might be expected in a track of land lying between 46. 55. and 47. 58. of north latitude. Even in the neighbourhood of Salzburg, the hills, which are here much interior to those of the south, are covered with snow before October, though it does not lie constantly till November. In the south, the winter lasts, with little intermission, from the beginning

beginning of November to April, and showers and frosts follow till about the end of June. The heat then becomes intense in the valleys, and brings forward the vegetation with uncommon rapidity. The Sirocco, so well known in the Mediterranean, passes along these valleys from Italy, and though much cooled in this mountain track, has not even here lost its power of producing languor: though it seldom lasts above a day, it never fails to cause a sudden thaw and flood.

This country produces, in favourable situations, wheat, oats, barley, and other corn. Its pastures are more extensive; but its chief wealth consists in its minerals, viz. the salt of its northern, and the metals of its southern mountains. In the latter, gold is found occasionally; silver less rarely; while iron and lead are abundant. The annual product of the salt mines of Hallein approaches to 100,000*l.* sterling. The productive industry of the country, however, is very limited, the materials seldom undergoing any other preparation than smelting, and the iron being almost all exported in bars. Hence, as in Auvergne, Westphalia, and other poor countries, a general habit of emigration among the active but illiterate inhabitants of the province, who traverse the adjacent states, either in quest of labour, or for the sale of their petty commodities. Salzburg was formerly subject to an archbishop, who was a prince of the empire, and primate of Germany. On the general secularisation in 1802, Salzburg was made an electorate, and given with some additional territory, to the grand duke of Tuscany. In 1806 it lost its new rank, and was incorporated with the Austrian states; but in 1809 it was transferred to Bavaria. After the overthrow of Buonaparte, it was restored, with the exception of a part of its territory, to Austria: the revenue afforded by it is about 100,000*l.* a year. So early as the 16th century, a number of the inhabitants of Salzburg embraced the reformation, and became exposed to persecution from their archiepiscopal rulers. The result, after several changes of treatment, was the emigration of no less than 30,000 of the inhabitants, with their property, in Prussia, the Protestant part of the north of Germany, and in part to the English colonies in North America, where their descendants, in numbers greatly increased, are still to be discerned.

SALZBURG, a city in the south-west of Austria, and capital of the preceding province. It stands on the banks of the Saltza, at the commencement of a long defile which traverses the Rhœtian Alps. Having been for ages an archiepiscopal see, it contains a greater number of churches and clerical buildings than is proportioned to a town of a population of 13,000. The cathedral, one of the earliest specimens of Italian architecture in Germany, is more remarkable for solidity than elegance: it has two towers in front, and is altogether in the Roman style of building. The university of Salzburg, founded in 1623, subsisted nearly two centuries, but was converted in 1810 into a lyceum or academy, with a theological and surgical school. Here are likewise elementary schools of different kinds, and a seminary for educating country schoolmasters. Salzburg has two public libraries on a small scale. Its charitable institutions are well endowed. The most striking feature of the place is its romantic situation amidst lofty mountains. The citadel, no longer kept in repair, stands in a bold and commanding situation, and one of the gateways leading into the town is cut through a solid rock, being 300 feet in length, 30 in height, and 24 in breadth. Salzburg has few manufactures, except hardware, from the materials supplied by the adjacent mines. In May, 1818, above 100 houses were destroyed here by accidental fire; 63 miles east-south-east of Munich. Lat. 47. 43. 10. N. long. 13. 1. 25. E.

SALZBURG, or Sovar, a town in the north-east of Hungary. It contains 4000 inhabitants, and has several brine springs, which produce about 6000 tons of salt annually, the brine being so rich as to deposit a considerable quantity of the salt without the aid of artificial evaporation. There are also mines of rock salt in the neighbourhood, but they are not wrought, having been long since filled with water, which is allowed to remain; 84 miles north-north-east of Erlau, and 2 south-south-east of Eperies.

SALZBURG, or Vizakna, a small town of Transylvania. Though situated in what is termed the Saxon province, the inhabitants are Magyars and Walachians, employed chiefly in the neighbouring salt-works and mines, which are the most important in the country; 4 miles north-west of Hermanstadt.

SALZ DER HELDEN, a small town situated in the north of Germany, but in the south of Hanover, on the Leine. Here are productive salt-works. Population 1000; 2 miles south-east of Eimbeck, and 19 north of Gottingen.

SALZ-DETFURT, a small town of Germany, in Hanover; 8 miles south-south-east of Hildesheim, with 1000 inhabitants, and some salt-works.

SALZGITTER, another small town of Hanover; 11 miles north of Goslar. Population 1600. Outside of the walls is a salt-work called Salzliebenthal, belonging in common to Hanover and Brunswick.

SALZ-KAMMERGUT, a district of Upper Austria, lying between Styria and the lake of Traun, on both sides of the river Traun. Its extent is 254 square miles; its population 14,000, partly Lutherans, but chiefly Calvanists. This is a very rugged and romantic track, affording to its inhabitants few resources, except in the forests and salt-works, both of which belong to government.

SALZKOTTEN, or Soltkott, a small town of Prussian Westphalia, in the principality of Paderborn, containing 1200 inhabitants, with a good salt-work; 8 miles west-south-west of Paderborn, and 11 east-by-south of Lipstadt. Lat. 51. 40. 45. N. long. 8. 35. 7. E.

SALZO, a small town in the north of Italy, in the duchy of Parma, situated on an eminence in the district called Stato Pallavicino.

SALZSCHLURF, a small town of the west of Germany, in Hesse-Cassel; 9 miles west of Fulda, with salt-works, and a population of 900.

SALZSTETTEN, a small town of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, near Horb, with 900 inhabitants.

SALZUFLEN, a small town of the north-west of Germany, in the county of Lippe-Detmold; 12 miles north-north-west of Detmold. Population 1300.

SALZUNGEN, a small town of the interior of Germany, in the duchy of Saxe-Meinungen, on the river Werra; 10 miles north-west of Schmalcalden. It contains 2200 inhabitants, employed chiefly at the salt-works, which produce between 6000 and 7000 tons a-year.

SALZWEDEL, or Soltwedel, a town of Prussian Saxony, in the government of Magdeburg, on the river Jeetze; 27 miles east of Hamburgh. It is surrounded with walls, and is divided by a branch of the river, into the old and new towns. It contains 6000 inhabitants, and has six churches, three hospitals, and a gymnasium. Its chief manufactures are the weaving of woollen, linen, and cotton. Leather is tanned, and the whole of the surrounding country is supplied with shoes from this place. The traffic in corn, cattle, and hops, is also considerable. In the spring of 1813, an engagement took place here between a Russian and a French division, to the disadvantage of the latter.

SAM, is to curdle milk for cheese, or set the curd. *A provincialism.*

SAM-GROUND, a term applied to coarse-ground oats or barley used for fattening different sorts of live-stock, as neat cattle and hogs, as well as for the feeding of horses in some cases. It is much used in the northern districts. The meal of this coarse-ground grain is never sifted, but the whole is eaten together by the animals. *A provincialism.*

SAMA, a settlement of Peru, in the province of Arica, where there is a creek which serves to shelter fishermen's barks.

SAMA, on the Gold coast, the same as *Chamah*, which see.

SAMABALETA, a river of New Granada, in the province of Santa Martha, which enters the Lebrija.

SAMACA,

SAMACA, a settlement of New Granada, in the province of Tunja, which is fertile in wheat, maize, and barley, and contains 250 Indians, and more than 300 house-keepers.

SAMACHINA, a village of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Irkoutsk; 68 miles north-west of Ilimsk.

SAMADERA, in Botany, a barbarous name used by Gærtner for VITMANNIA.

SAMADET, a small town in the south-west of France, department of the Landes, with 1300 inhabitants. In the neighbourhood is dug a large quantity of turf; 9 miles south-by-east of St. Sever.

SAMADJE, or SAMAGI, a village of Irak, in Persia.

SAMADONG, a large town in the interior of the island of Java; 144 miles south-east from Batavia. The surrounding country is in the highest state of cultivation, and with the luxuriant fertility, and pleasing diversity of hill and dale, mountain and valley, afford a highly picturesque and beautiful scene. The inhabitants here are fairer in their complexions, and possess softer features, than in the other parts of the island. The women are also gracefully shaped and beautiful.

SAMAGALLI, a settlement of Quito, in the province of Quixos and Macas, on the shore of the river Avenico.

SAMAGALOVA, a village of Tobolsk, in Asiatic Russia, on the Tara; 60 miles north of Krainsk.

SAMAIPATA, a settlement of Santa Cruz de la Sierra, which contains above 600 Spanish inhabitants.

SAMAK, or SAMAHE, an island in the south-western part of the gulf of Persia, about 12 leagues in circumference.

SAMAKOV, a small town of European Turkey, in Romania. It has some iron works, with a manufactory of ships' anchors, and other heavy iron goods, which are exported by the Danube; 33 miles south-south-east of Sofia.

SAMALOUT, a village of Upper Egypt, situated on the western side of the Nile, near which Mourad Bey was defeated by the French; 14 miles south of Girge.

SAMAMINGKOOS, a town of Ludamar, in Africa, chiefly inhabited by Foulahs.

SAMANA, a town of Hindostan, province of Delhi, belonging to a native chief in alliance with the British. Lat. 30. 2. N. long. 75. 48. E.

SAMANA, a large bay at the east end of the island of St. Domingo, which opens to the north-east, between Cape Samana, which is also called Cape Reson or Cape Grondeur, on the north; and Cape Raphael, south-east of the former, 20 miles apart. Its mean breadth is about 11 miles, and its length 39. Some mariners reckon Pointe d'Icaque, or Icaque point, as the south point of the bay, which comes after Cape Raphael, and is only 30 miles from the head of the bay, and lies in Lat. 19. 8. N. and long. 69. 13. W. This bay offers a safe shelter to the largest squadrons. Lying to the windward of the island, it has the advantage over all the other places as a maritime post, which renders it capable of protecting the whole gulf of Mexico, to which it is in reality a key. The entrance is difficult, and very narrow; because from the south side of its opening runs a breaker, which advances in a point towards Port Banister, and between which and the north coast nature has placed the rock or shallow, called the Rebels. This rock narrows the entrance, so that between it and the land, forming the north side, in the interior of the bay, there is little more than 800 fathoms. Thus, with a battery on shore, and another on the rock, the Rebels would, by their cross fire, completely defend the entrance against even the smallest vessels; and a battery on the other side of the Rebels would effectually prevent any vessel from entering between it and the breakers. Samana was taken by the English in November 1808.—There is also a settlement of the same name in this bay.

SAMANA, an island near the east coast of Hispaniola; 33 miles long, and from 7 to 9 broad. Lat. 19. 13. N. long. 69. 22. W.

SAMANA, or CROOKED ISLAND, one of the Bahama islands. Lat. 22. 50. N. long. 74. 4. W.

SAMANA, CAPE, at the east end of the island of Samana. Lat. 19. 13. N. long. 69. 11. W.

SAMANAP, a town on the south-east coast of the island of Madura. It is a large and populous town, and the residence of a prince. It is situated on a fine bay, which, though rather shallow, will admit of large brigs or country prows, lying close up to the town. This place carries on an extensive commerce; and the country abounds in rice, and teak timber for building. Here the Dutch used to build their largest ships for the country trade. Few European Dutch settlers are now remaining here, but the half-cast population is still considerable, and the number of native inhabitants is very great. The bay is much frequented by merchant vessels, which adds greatly to its importance. The fort is much out of repair, and its situation is badly chosen; so that, in fact, it is only of use as a depôt. The British resident's house, and a few others belonging to individuals, are fine buildings. The old prince of Samanap, worn out with age, has surrendered the reins of government to his second son, who appears to be of a mild disposition, and is greatly esteemed by the people. The heinous character of the old sovereign may be read in his countenance, which is of a most diabolical cast. The princes live separately, but their courts shew little or no splendour; 82 miles from Bancallang, on the west coast of Madura. Lat. 7. 5. S. long. 114. E.

SAMAND, a town of Hindostan, province of Moultan, district of Bakar, tributary to the Afghans. It is situated on the eastern side of the river Indus. Lat. 28. 11. N. long. 19. 57. E.

SAMANDRAKI. See SAMOTHRACE.

SAMANEANS, a kind of magi, or philosophers, erroneously confounded by some with the Brahmins, or Brachmans, who, proceeding from Ariana, a province of Persia, and the neighbouring countries, spread themselves in India, and taught new doctrines. According to some writers, the Brahmins, before their arrival, were in the highest period of their glory; they were the only oracles of India, and their principal residence was on the banks of the Ganges, and in the adjacent mountains; while the Samaneans were settled towards the Indus. Others say, that the Brahmins derived all their knowledge from the Samaneans, before whose arrival it would be difficult to prove that the Brahmins were the religious teachers of the Indians. The most celebrated and ancient of the Samanean doctors was Boutta, or Budda, who was born 683 years before Christ. His disciples honoured him as a god; and his doctrine, which consisted chiefly in the transmigration of souls, and in the worship of cows, was adopted not only in India, but also in Japan, China, Siam, and Tartary. It was propagated, according to M. de Sainte Croix, in Thibet, in the eighth century, and succeeded there the ancient religion of Zamolxis. The Samaneans, or Buddists, were entirely destroyed in India by the jealous rage of the Brahmins, whose absurd practices and fables they affected to treat with contempt; but several of their books are still respectfully preserved on the coasts of Malabar; and, moreover, we are told, that several of the Brahmin orders have adopted their manner of living, and openly profess the greatest part of their doctrines. *L'Ezour Vedam, ou Ancien Comment. du Vedam*, published by M. de S. Croix, Paris, 1779.

SAMAQUANTI, a river of New Granada, in the province of Choco, which enters the sea in the gulf of Darien.

SAMAR, one of the Philippines, situated south-east from the large island of Luzon, from which it is separated by a strait about five leagues in breadth. In length it may be estimated at 140 miles, by 60 the average breadth. In this island the soil is extremely fertile, easily cultivated, and rewards the industry of the labourer with at least forty fold. Besides other grain, the Indians sow a considerable quantity of rice, but which is wholly intended for the use of the parochial clergy, the settlement of Manilla, and the governor of the province. The common food of the natives consists chiefly in a species of potatoe, yams, and a root named gaby.

From

From the sap of the cocoa, nipe, and cabonegro trees, they obtain the materials for an excellent species of brandy. The last of these owes its name to the black colour of its fibres, which are manufactured by the natives into cables, and different kinds of cordage. The only instrument used by the Indian, either for the purposes of war or industry, is a kind of hunting knife, named cris or campilan; an instrument which, after serving him against the enemy, enables him to cut down the largest tree in the wood, to be formed into a canoe, or split into deals for more ordinary uses. When the campilan has been so much worn as to be of little further service to him, it is still employed by his wife to grub up a light soil, in which she plants yams, potatoes, and other roots. Sugar-canes, cabbages, garlic, onions, melons, the Chinese oranges, lemons, vegetables, and though in small quantity, several other kinds of fruit, little known in Europe, are cultivated in this island. It abounds in figs, of which Mr. Pagis reckoned no fewer than thirteen or fourteen different species, with a great variety of perfumes. The natives are instructed to give particular attention to the culture of the cocoa tree, which grows here to an uncommon size. Their woods produce the pumplemous, a species of orange, near five inches in diameter, pepper, honey, and wax. Indeed, all these islands are eminently distinguished by the labours of the bee. The woods swarm with birds of almost every description, particularly the common fowl, which is, however, distinguished from ours by the shortened proportions of its body and legs. The colour of the hen is grey, with feathers spotted, like a partridge. There are three different species of turtle-dove. The parroquet, cockatoo, and another pretty little species of the same genus, no larger than a linnet, are surprisingly common. There is also found here a very small bird of the diminutive size of a wasp, whose colours, consisting in a shade of yellow, mixed with red and blue, are peculiarly vivid and beautiful. Many kinds of monkies, one of which is remarkably large, roe-bucks, wild buffaloes, and other quadrupeds, abound in the woods. The foot of a tall species of the banyan fig consists in numberless folds of bark, which in a certain period of putrefaction are separable without art or difficulty. These pieced together afford them a species of fine linen, harsh indeed, and disagreeable to the skin, in its natural state, but which they have learned to render sufficiently soft and pliable, by a preparation of lime. Besides serving them as the materials of linen cloth, it is likewise useful to them for the purposes of cordage. The deportment of the men is easy, open, and affable; the women are gay and lively. Among their productions of art, the Indian mat merits particular notice, which is a species of manufacture of such fineness, that a piece of six feet could easily be put into a pocket. It is executed in various handsome designs, and painted in very lively and elegant colours, which they have the art of extracting from different trees. The hair of both sexes is remarkably fine, particularly that of the women, which they are accustomed to comb with great care, and to anoint frequently, with the oil of the cocoa-nut, in order to strengthen and render it of a deep black. Their noses are short and depressed, but their nostrils are by no means dilated, like those of the negro. The iron-tree, ebony, and dyeing wood, grow in every part of the island; and gold-dust is found, in some quantity, in its more interior regions. The natives, especially such as reside on the sea-coast, were formerly Mahometans; but the missionary Jesuits converted them to the religion and allegiance of Spain. Their houses are constructed of bamboos, and raised a few feet from the ground, to admit of a circulation of air underneath; and the natives generally are lodged, fed, and clothed, with very little trouble or expense. The streams are everywhere shaded by the bamboo, and the woods contain creeping plants and rattans, which supply the place of nails in a Bisayan's dwelling. Cotton and the fibres of the banyan fig-tree furnish materials for the scanty apparel he requires. The priests exercise over them a patriarchal authority, which is in general cheerfully submitted to. Advice and admonition on their part is always accompanied with some small present of wine, medicines, liquor, or animal food, which influences the Indian to an industry he would not otherwise exert. When punishment is necessary, it is promptly inflicted, which the priest is enabled to do by acting in a military as well as sacerdotal capacity. In his own parish it is competent to each missionary to issue orders for building or repairing the fort, for providing it with cannon and ammunition, and for the construction of war canoes, which he frequently commands in person. The instrument mostly used, both for the purposes of war and industry, is a species of creese, somewhat different from that of the Malays. The galleon always touches here on the passage from Acapulco to Manilla, which attracts the Indians from the neighbouring islands. Lat. 11. 15. to 12. 45. N. long. 124. 15. to 125. 52. E.

SAMARA, a small town in the south-east of European Russia, government of Simbirsk, on the Wolga. It has some trade by means of Tartar caravans, and large tanneries. Population 2600; 105 miles south-east of Simbirsk.

SAMARA, a river in the south of European Russia, in the government of Ekaterinoslav, which falls into the Dnieper.—There is another in the government of Simbirk, which joins the Wolga at the town of Samara.

SAMARA, a town of Irak Arabi, on the Tigris. It was known in antiquity, and in the ninth century became considerable as the residence of several caliphs of the house of Abbas. It is revered by Mussulmen as containing the tomb of Mahomet al Mahudi, the twelfth Imam. It is now much declined, and contains only about four hundred houses; 60 miles north of Bagdad.

SAMARA, in Botany, a genus of the class tetandria, order monogynia, natural order of rhamni *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth very small, four-parted, acute, permanent. Corolla: petals four, ovate, sessile, with a longitudinal pit at the base. Stamina: filaments four, awl-shaped, long, opposite to the petals, immersed in the pit. Anthers subcordate. Pistil: germ ovate, shorter by half than the corolla, superior, ending in a style that is superior and longer: stigma funnel-form. Pericarp: drupe roundish. Seed solitary.—*Essential Character.* Calyx four-parted. Corolla four-petalled. Stamina immersed in the base of the petal. Drupe one-seeded.

1. Samara læta.—Flowers clustered, pedicelled, yellow, leaves ovate, obtuse. Branches purplish, even. It differs from Cornus not only in having a superior germ, but the filaments opposite to, not alternate with the petals. It is a shrub, and native of the East Indies.

2. Samara coriacea.—This is a tree, with a trunk from twenty to thirty feet in height, and upright branches. Branchlets alternate. Leaves alternate, entire, somewhat rigid, very smooth, membranaceous, dark-green; on short petioles. Flowers lateral and axillary, small, whitish. Native of Jamaica.

3. Samara pentandra.—Flowers pentandrous, leaves elliptic.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

4. Samara floribunda.—Flowers pentandrous, leaves obovate. It is a shrub, with the trunk five feet high, branched at top. Flowers in bundles, sub-sessile, scattered over the bark of the branches and branchlets. Corolla white.—Native of Cayenne and Guiana, on the margins of meadows or savannas.

SAMARA, according to Pliny, the proper appellation of the fruit of the Elm; (see his Natural History, book 16, chap. 17.) Gærtner therefore uses this term for a compressed, somewhat membranous, capsule, of one or two cells, never spontaneously bursting, and dilated at the sides or extremity into a leafy form. The word is liable to the same exception as *Cotyledon*, being used for a generic name.

SAMARAIN, or SERMIN, a small town of Syria, in the pachalic of Aleppo.

SAMARANG, a town of the island of Java, on the north coast, and the principal central station in the island. It is a large town, with a considerable European population. It is defended by a stone parapet and rampart, with bastions and a wet ditch, but only calulated for defence against a native power. The line of fortification along the coast has been destroyed. Between the town and sea-coast is an impassable

passable morass, which prevents any approach to the town but by two fine roads, east and west, both of which are raised, and communicate with each other, by one running parallel to the coast, and close to the water. Ships are obliged to lie at the distance of five or six miles from the shore, the anchorage being six fathoms, and a muddy bottom, in Lat. 6. 53. S. long. 110. 34. E.; or a ship may anchor in 5 or 4½ fathoms nearer the shore. The bay is bounded on the east side by the high land of Japara. The river, which is navigable for prows and coasting vessels up to the town, runs between the west side of the city and the Chinese campong. In blowing weather, the bar at the mouth of the river is deemed very dangerous. The town has a neat appearance, with a number of good houses. It has also a fine large church, a new town-house, and a variety of other public buildings, both elegant and commodious, within and without the city. Here was formerly a public school, where numbers of Dutch and half-cast children were educated for the military profession. Samarang, was always the seat of a separate governor, having the denomination of governor of Java proper, and exercising very extensive powers under the sanction and controul of the governor-general and supreme council of Batavia. All political and commercial regulations with the neighbouring courts of Solo and Djoejocarta, were under the immediate authority of the governor of Samarang, whose influence, extending over so great a territory, made this an exceeding lucrative office. But the establishment has given way to the less expensive institutions of a civil commissioner, and residents for the transaction of business. The climate of Samarang, though not very salubrious, is far preferable to that of Batavia. The European inhabitants appear much more healthy, and instead of the gloomy indolence of the Batavians, we find here a pleasing sociability of disposition and hilarity of behaviour. The environs have numerous villas, which, from their commanding situation, overlook the stately tops and the neat garden houses that peep through the shady groves among the verdant fields; while the beautifully variegated hills and dales towards the interior greatly enliven the scenery. The Chinese and native population here is very considerable. Crowded villages overspread the neighbourhood. Under the system of land rental adopted after the British acquired possession of Java, the territorial revenue of Samarang for the year 1814, amounted to about 56,536*l.*, exclusive of the land assessments provisionally assigned to native chiefs. The salt revenue is stated at 22,223*l.*, opium at 2675*l.*, and the town duties at 22,223*l.*, which gives a total of about 103,657*l.*, without reckoning the profitable collections made on the edible birds' nests, which are given up by the native courts, and a variety of other customs; 343 miles east of Batavia. Lat. 6. 54. S. long. 110. 38. E.

SAMARCAND, a great city of Asia, once the capital of Independent Tartary, and, under Timur, of an empire which extended over a great part of the continent. It does not appear, however, to have ever equalled in magnitude the great metropolitan cities of India, or even of Europe. Clavijo, a Spanish ambassador, who visited it about 1400 A.D. estimates the poplation of the city and suburbs at 150,000. A considerable number, for want of houses, were obliged to make their habitations in caves in the surrounding rocks. The country, for two leagues round, was entirely covered with large villages, gardens, and country houses, the residence of Tartar chiefs; so that to a stranger approaching, a vast forest seemed to inclose it on every side. A great proportion of the inhabitants consisted of persons who had been collected by Timur from every part of Asia, as he made it a system to bring from every place persons exercising the art for which that place was famous: so that there was scarcely a nation in Asia which had not representatives, or an employment which was not exercised at Samarcand. Its inland commerce was most extensive with Russia, Tartary, India, Turkey, and particularly China. The pomp of Timur's court, and of his numerous palaces, is said to have almost surpassed description. The magnificent halls painted with various colours, the hangings of silk, gold, and silver embroidery, the tables of solid gold, and the display of rubies and precious stones, formed a scene of the most dazzling splendour. Our information with regard to the modern state of this once celebrated capital, is very imperfect. Not only has Independent Tartary ceased to rule over the rest of Asia, but Samarcand has ceased to be the capital of this region. This has been transferred to Bukharia, which now holds the first place, both as a metropolitan city, and a school of learning. Of late, however, under the government of Shah Murad Bey, who took it from the Tartar tribe of Yuz, Samarcand has recovered somewhat of its former greatness. The climate is delightful: on one side a fruitful and verdant plain extends to Bukharia; on the other, at the distance of two miles to the southward, the hilly country commences. The river Kohuk flows at a little distance, and falls into the Zurusshan, which passing by Bukharia, empties itself into the Oxus. The city is supplied with water, by a small stream descending from the mountains. All kinds of fruit are plentiful, and of great excellence. The city contains still many fine buildings; 180 miles south of Bulkh. Lat. 32. 37. 23. N. long. 64. 9. E.

SAMARIA, in Ancient Geography, a country and town of Judea. The town was situated on Mount Sameron, called also Samaria, and was the residence of all the kings of Israel from Omri, its founder, until the overthrow of this kingdom. All of them contributed to aggrandize and adorn it, till it became the largest and strongest town of the kingdom of Samaria, i. e. of the ten tribes of which it was the capital. It sustained several sieges against Benhadad, king of Syria, but that which it resisted against Salmanazar, king of Assyria, lasted three years, after which he took it, and utterly destroyed the kingdom (2 Kings, ch. xvii.) The country of Samaria comprehended the tribes of Ephraim and of Manasseh, on this side of Jordan, and its inhabitants were called *Samaritans*. (See the article.) Josephus, in his "Antiquities," says, that Samaria was captured by Hyrcanus, son of Simon, one of the Maccabees, who pillaged it, razed its foundations, and caused torrents to overflow its ruins; but Aulus Gabinius, proconsul of Syria, began to re-establish it, and Herod the Great completed the work, restored its ancient lustre, built here a temple, and called it "Sebaste," in honour of Augustus. (See SEBASTE.) The city of Samaria is seldom mentioned in the New Testament, otherwise than in connection with the country of which it was the capital. (See Luke xvii. 11. John iv. 4. It is mentioned in Acts viii. 1, 2, 3.) Samaria is never called Sebaste in the New Testament, though strangers hardly know it by any other name. St. Jerom suggests that Obadiah was buried at Samaria. Here were also shewn the tombs of Elisha, and of St. John the Baptist. There are many ancient medals struck at Sebaste or Samaria: and some bishops of this city subscribed to the acts of ancient councils.

SAMARITAN, *s.* One of a religious sect still subsisting in some parts of the Levant.

Its origin was in the time of Rehoboam; under whose reign, a division was made of the people of Israel into two distinct kingdoms. One of these kingdoms, called Judah, consisted of such as adhered to Rehoboam, and the house of David; the other retained the ancient name of Israelites, under the command of Jeroboam. The capital of the state of these latter was Samaria; and hence it was that they were denominated Samaritans.

Some affirm, that Salamanzar, king of Assyria, having conquered Samaria, led the whole people captive into the remotest parts of his empire: and filled their places with colonies of Babylonians, Cutheans, and other idolaters. These finding themselves daily destroyed by wild beasts, it is said, desired an Israelitish priest to instruct them in the ancient laws and customs of the land they inhabited. This was granted them; and they thenceforth ceased to be incommoded with any beasts. However, with the law of Moses, they still retained somewhat of their ancient idolatry. The rabbins say, they adored the figure of a dove on Mount Gerizim. As the revolted tribes had no more of the scriptures

tures than the five books of Moses, so the priest could bring no others with him besides those books written in the old Phœnician letters, which, upon the return of the Jews, Ezra changed for the Chaldee, which we now call the Hebrew letters.

Upon the return of the Jews from the Babylonish captivity, and the rebuilding of Jerusalem and the temple, the religion of the Samaritans received another alteration on the following occasion. One of the sons of Jehoiada, the high-priest, whom Josephus calls Manasseh, married the daughter of Sanballat the Horonite; but the law of God having forbidden the intermarriages of the Israelites with any other nation, Nehemiah set himself to reform this corruption, which had spread into many Jewish families, and obliged all that had taken strange wives immediately to part with them. (Nehem. xiii. 23—30.) Manasseh, unwilling to surrender his wife, fled to Samaria; and many others in the same circumstances, and with similar disposition, went and settled under the protection of Sanballat, governor of Samaria. Manasseh brought with him some other apostate priests, with many other Jews, who disliked the regulations made by Nehemiah at Jerusalem; and now the Samaritans, having obtained an high-priest, and other priests of the descendants from Aaron, were soon brought off from the worship of the false gods, who were as much enemies to idolatry as the best of the Jews. However, Manasseh gave them no other scriptures besides the Pentateuch, lest, if they had the other scriptures, they should then find that Jerusalem was the only place where they should offer their sacrifices. From that time, the worship of the Samaritans came much nearer to that of the Jews, and they afterwards obtained leave of Alexander the Great to build a temple on Mount Gerizim, near the city of Samaria, in imitation of the temple at Jerusalem, where they practised the same forms of worship.

To this mountain and temple the Samaritan woman of Sychar refers in her discourse with our Saviour, John iv. 20. The Samaritans soon after revolted from Alexander, who drove them out of Samaria, introduced Macedonians in their room, and gave the province of Samaria to the Jews. This circumstance contributed in no small degree to increase the hatred and animosity between those two people. When any Israelite deserved punishment on account of the violation of some important point of the law, he presently took refuge in Samaria or Schechem, and embraced the worship at the temple of Gerizim. When the affairs of the Jews were prosperous, the Samaritans did not fail to call themselves Hebrews, and of the race of Abraham. But when the Jews suffered persecution, the Samaritans disowned them, and alleged that they were Phœnicians originally, or descended from Joseph, or Manasseh his son. This was their practice in the time of Antiochus Epiphanes.

Notwithstanding the charge above-mentioned, it is certain, the modern Samaritans are far from idolatry; some of the most learned among the Jewish doctors own, that they observe the law of Moses more rigidly than the Jews themselves. They have a Hebrew copy of the Pentateuch, differing in some respects from that of the Jews; and written in different characters, commonly called Samaritan characters; which Origen, Jerom, and other fathers and critics, ancient and modern taken to be the primitive character of the ancient Hebrews; though others maintain the contrary. The point of preference, as to purity, antiquity, &c. of the two Pentateuchs, is also much disputed by the modern critics.

Origen, Jerom, and Epiphanius inform us, that the Samaritans rejected all the sacred writings, except the five books of Moses.

The Samaritans are now few in number: though it is not very long since they pretended to have priests descended directly from the family of Aaron. They were chiefly found at Gaza, Neapolis or Schechem (the ancient Sichem or Naplouse), Damascus, Cairo, &c. They had a temple, or chapel, on mount Gerizim, where they performed their sacrifices. They have also synagogues in other parts of Palestine and also in Egypt.

Joseph Scaliger, being curious to know their usages, wrote to the Samaritans of Egypt, and to the high-priest of the whole sect, who resided at Neapolis. They returned two answers dated in the year 998, of the Hegira of Mahomet. These answers never came to the hands of Scaliger. They are now in the library at Paris, and have been translated into Latin by father Morin, priest of the Oratory; and printed in the collection of letters of that father in England, 1662, under the title of "Antiquitates Ecclesiæ Orientalis." M. Simon has inserted a French translation, in the first editions of "Ceremonies et Coûtumes des Juifs," by way of supplement to Leo de Modena.

In the first of these answers, written in the name of the assembly of Israel, in Egypt, they declare that they celebrate the Passover every year, on the fourteenth of the first month, on mount Gerizim, and that he who then did the office of high-priest was called Eleazar, a descendant of Phinehas, son of Aaron. At present they have no high-priest. In the second answer, which is in the name of the high-priest Eleazar, and the synagogue of Schechem, they declare that they keep the sabbath in all the rigour with which it is enjoined in the book of Exodus; none among them stirring out of doors but to the synagogue. They add, that on that night they do not lie with their wives; that they begin the feast of the Passover with the sacrifice appointed for that purpose in Exodus; that they sacrifice nowhere else but on mount Gerizim, that they observe the feasts of harvest, the expiation, the tabernacles, &c. They add farther, that they never defer circumcision beyond the eighth day; never marry their nieces, as the Jews do, have but one wife; and, in fine, do nothing but what is commanded in the law: whereas the Jews frequently abandon the law to follow the inventions of their rabbins.

At the time when they wrote to Scaliger, they reckoned one hundred and twenty-two high-priests; affirmed that the Jews had no high-priests of the race of Phinehas; and that the Jews belied them in calling them Cutheans; for that they are descended from the tribe of Joseph by Ephraim. The truth is, the Jews impose abundance of things on the Samaritans: they frequently confound them with the Sadducees, as if they were infected with their errors. Rabbi Benjamin, who lived in the 12th century, confirms the best part of what we have said of the Samaritans: he observes, they had priests of the tribe of Aaron; and who never married with any but those of the same tribe: that they sacrificed on mount Gerizim, where they had an altar of stone, raised by the Israelites after passing over Jordan. He adds, that they are of the tribe of Ephraim; that they change their habit to go to the synagogue, and wash before they put it on.

SAMARITAN MEDALS. In the cabinets of antiquaries we find some medals, usually called Samaritan medals, the inscriptions and legends of which are Hebrew; but the character different from the Hebrew of our bibles, which is the square Hebrew, or Chaldee: and it is hence, viz. from the character, not from their being struck by the Samaritans, that they are denominated Samaritan.

The learned Jesuit Souciet, in an express dissertation on the Samaritan medals, rejects all Hebrew medals, whose inscriptions are in Chaldee characters, as spurious, and allows of none to be genuine but the Samaritan. Of these there are four kinds:—

The first bear expressly the name of Simon, and the subject for which they were struck, viz. the deliverance of Jerusalem. The second kind have not the name Simon, but only the deliverance of Sion, or Jerusalem. The third kind have neither Simon nor the deliverance of Sion; but only the epochas, first year, second year, &c. The fourth class have neither any inscriptions, nor any thing whence one may judge of the time they were struck.

The three first kinds were certainly struck after the return from the Babylonish captivity, and in the time of Simon Maccabeus, after Jerusalem had been freed from the yoke of the Greeks. But though struck after the captivity, father Souciet observes, their character shews itself to be that of the ancient Hebrew, which was used before the captivity, and

and the use of which was lost by the people, during their sojourn in Babylon and Chaldeæ; but was again restored after their return, on the same footing as before. He adds, that the inscriptions are pure Hebrew, such as it was spoken before the captivity: that the character, therefore, is the true ancient Hebrew character: that it was the custom to write each language in its proper character: that if they had departed from this rule, they had doubtless used the new character they brought with them from Babylon: that there could be no other reason, but that of settling all things on the same foundation they were on before the destruction of Jerusalem, that could have induced them to use this character on their coins. And, lastly, that these medals were not struck by the Samaritans, but by the Jews, and in Jerusalem.

F. Souciet is very full on all those points; and, to the proofs drawn from medals, he adds two others foreign thereto: the first drawn from the resemblance of the Greek letters, introduced by Cadmus the Phœnician, with this Hebrew character, which was the same with that of the Phœnicians, as the language of those people was the same with that of the Hebrews. The second drawn from several various readings in the scriptures, which cannot be well accounted for otherwise than by supposing, that the books written before the captivity were in the same characters with these medals, and which shew, that it is the conformity which certain letters have to that character, that has deceived the copyists.

From the whole he concludes, that this character of the medals is the true ancient Hebrew character; and that, to judge of the various readings of the Hebrew text, and the differences of the ancient Greek and Latin translations, either from themselves, or from the Hebrew text, recourse must be had to this character.

SAMAROBRIVA, in Ancient Geography, a town of Gaul, which, in the time of Cæsar, was a place or passage over the river, as its name indicates, and in which were held the states of Gaul. It was the capital of the Ambiani in the time of the Notitia Imperii, and a place where arms were fabricated.

SAMAROUSKOI, a village of Tobolsk, in Asiatic Russia; 176 miles north of Tobolsk.

SAMARRA, a garment worn by those condemned by the Romish inquisition to be burnt; such are impenitents, and those who confess themselves guilty of heresy, but repent, and renounce their errors before the execution.

It is a kind of frock, made of sackcloth, of a saffron colour, and painted with flames pointing downwards; sometimes the unhappy sufferer's picture is drawn to the life on it, and sometimes devils are painted on it, dragging, as it were, the person along with them to hell: on their frock there is likewise put the cross of St. Andrew, of a red colour on the back and heart: it is otherwise called *sambenito*, or *blessed sackcloth*, and *samareta*

SAMARSKAIA, a fortress of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Oufa; 40 miles west of Troitsk.

SAMATA, a village of Upper Egypt, on the left bank of the Nile; 7 miles north-west of Dendera.

SAMATAN, a small town in the south-west of France, in Gascony, department of the Gers, on the Save. Population 1600; 17 miles south-east of Auch.

SAMAVAT, a town in the Syrian desert, to the west of the Euphrates, once bearing the name of the Celestial City, but now containing only a population of 300 Arabs, who levy exorbitant contributions on all the pilgrims that take this route to the holy cities; 90 miles west of Meshed Ali.

SAMBA, Galera de, a point of the coast, in the province of Carthagena, and New Kingdom of Granada.

SAMBAC, an Arabian name for Jasminum.

SAMBAH, a town of Hindostan, province of Lahore, belonging to the Seiks, Lat. 32. 34. N. long. 74. 8. E.

SAMBALLAS, a name given to a numerous cluster of small islands near the coast of America, in the Spanish Main, of which three clusters are called *Cavesas*, *Mulatas*, and *Sagua*. These islands are scattered at very unequal distances, some only one, some two, some three, and some four miles from the shore and from one another, extending a very considerable distance along the northern shore of the isthmus of Darien. They seem to lie as it were parcelled out in clusters; and between most of them are navigable channels, by which ships may pass through, and range along the coast of the isthmus, the sea between them and it being navigable from one end to the other, and affording everywhere good anchoring in firm sandy ground, with good landing, either on the islands or the main. In this long channel, a number of ships may always find shelter, be the wind which way it will; so that it was the general rendezvous for the privateers on this coast. Most of these islands are low, flat and sandy, covered with a variety of trees, and abound with shell-fish of several kinds; some of them also afford springs of fresh water, and convenient places for careening ships. The long channel between the Samballas and the isthmus is from two to four miles in breadth, extending from Point Samballas to the gulf of Darien; and the coast of the isthmus is full of sandy bays, with many brooks of fresh water. Lat. 9. 26. N. long. 78. 25. W.

SAMBALLAS POINT, or Point San Blas, a cape of America, on the north coast of the isthmus of Darien. Lat. 9. 36. N. long. 70. 14. W.

SAMBAR POINT, the south-west point of the large island of Borneo.

SAMBARA, the name of a tyrant in Hindoo legends, destroyed by Kama, the god of love, in punishment of indignities offered by him to his wife Reti, a personification of affection, who had been reduced in one of her avataras, or incarnations, to the situation of cook to the tyrant Sambara.

SAMBASS, a town and river on the west coast of Borneo. The river has a wide entrance, and is in Lat. 1. 12. N. long. 109. 5. E. The town is about forty miles up the river. The houses here, as in almost all the other sea-port towns in Borneo, are built of timber and bamboos, raised on wooden stalks or piles, on low swampy morasses. It is an excellent market for opium, the consumption being above 500 chests per annum. In consequence of the predatory and piratical habits of the inhabitants, whose armed powers are continually on the watch, both in Sambass and in Borneo proper, to dart out on the defenceless trading vessels, it has become extremely unsafe for the European trader to venture near any of the extensive coasts of Borneo, particularly the north-west coast. A large Portuguese ship with a valuable cargo, was thus assaulted and carried into Sambass by these pirates, which was the occasion of the attack of the Sultan by a British armament, in 1812. The assailants were, however, repulsed with considerable loss, and suffered still more from the pestilential effects of the climate. In 1813, a second attack was made on it, and with complete success. Lat. 1. 3. N. long. 109. 25. E.

SAMBAYA, or Solo River, a river on the north coast of the island of Java, and the largest in the island. It is navigable, in the rainy season, as far as the residence of the Soosoohoonan, or Emperor of Solo; and it appears, from a recent survey made by Captain Colebrooke, of the royal artillery, that the impediments which obstruct its passage in the dry season, might be removed without much labour or expense; thus facilitating the commercial intercourse with the interior of that fertile and populous country.

SAMBEK, or Sambok, a small town in the west of Hungary; 14 miles north-north-west of Buda.

SAMBELONG ISLANDS, two or three islands in the Indian sea, among the Nicobar islands, so called, a little to the north of the Great Nicobar. Lat. 41. 20 N. long. 100. 36 E.

SAMBER, a town of Hindostan, province of Ajmeer, and district of Jyepore. It is situated in the vicinity of a salt lake, 13 miles long by two broad, from whence the greater part of Hindostan proper is supplied with salt, and which is greatly preferred by the natives to the sea salt, although it has frequently a bitter taste. It is, however, the source of great prosperity to the town, which is consequently one of the most

most flourishing in the Jyepore territory. Lat. 26. 55. N. long. 75. 20. E.

SAMBHA, in Hindoo Mythology, a son of Krishna, by one of his wives named Jambavanti, who, in the extravagant allegories of that whimsical people, is related to have been the daughter of a bear, and won by some heroic exploit on the part of Krishna. This has been thought connected with some astronomical allegory; Krishna being the sun. Several children are stated to have been the offspring of this connection. Sambha stole a daughter of a Kuru rajah, which gives rise to several battles in which the thief is made prisoner. The differences were healed for the time, but appeared to have laid the foundation of the future wars described in the Mahabarat.

SAMBHAR, Cape, a cape on the south-west coast of the island of Borneo. Lat. 2. 52. S. long. 109. 50. E.

SAMBHU, a name of Siva, the destructive power of the Hindoo trimurti, or triad. Siva is often called by the name of Sambhu, which is said to be an abbreviation of Swayambhu, or the self-existing. See Swayambhu.

SAMBO, the offspring of a Negro man with an Indian woman, or of an Indian man with a Negro woman. His colour is nearly that of a grif or cobb, the produce of a Mulatto or Negro. The Sambo is well formed, muscular, and able to endure fatigue.

SAMBOANGAN, a cape on the south-west coast of Mindanao. Lat. 6. 43. N. long. 122. 10. E.

SAMBOANGAN, a Spanish fortress and settlement on the south-west extremity of the island of Magindanao. The town is situated on the banks of a small rivulet which flows into the sea. The number of inhabitants is about 1000, among which are included the officers, soldiers, and their respective families. In its environs are several small look-out houses, erected on posts twelve feet high, in all of which a constant guard is kept against the hostilities of the natives, with whom the Spaniards are in a state of perpetual hostility. The fort is built of masonry, and has a high wall close to the sea. It is not very capacious, the church and many of the houses being without the walls; but the cannon of the fort commands them, and can far oppose any approach that may be made that way by an enemy. There is a clear plain, of some extent, towards the land. A swamp also on one side of the fort, adds to its strength. As a place of defence, however, it is of no importance, and is in a state of rapid decay. Towards the sea is no harbour, only an open road; but many islands around make the road a very good one. On some of those islands, the Spaniards keep a breed of hogs. The tides on the springs are pretty strong in the offing, and the passage between Samboangan and the island Basilan, which belong to Soolco, being narrow, the Spaniards prevent Chinese junks from passing this way to Magindanao. The garrison is said to consist of about forty or fifty American Spaniards, a few native Spaniards, and about a hundred Bisayans, or natives of the Philippines. They are generally very deficient in discipline. To this place criminals from the Philippines are sent into banishment; but the inhabitants are nevertheless said to be more polished in their manners than this circumstance would seem to indicate, being instructed by their priests in music and dancing; in both of which accomplishments they are great proficients, being well acquainted with European music, particularly with Handel's compositions. The adjacent country is extremely fertile, and cattle have multipled everywhere, to the great diminution of their value. Pirates swarm in the neighbourhood, and they frequently plunder and cut off Spanish vessels richly laden, while lying in the harbour. They frequently also make descents close to the fort, and carry off the inhabitants, whom they sell into slavery. About the year 1755, this fortress was captured by the Sooloos. Lat. 6. 45. N. long 122. 10. E.

SAMBOR, a circle of Austrian Poland, lying to the north of Hungary. Its superficial extent is 1780 square miles; its population 237,000; and it is consequently one of the largest in Galicia. The Dniester has its source in this circle, and traverses the northern part, while the Stry traverses the south. This latter portion is intersected by a number of lofty mountains. See Galicia Austrian.

SAMBOR, a town of Austrian Poland, and the chief place of the above circle. It is situated in a large plain, on the banks of the Dniester; 46 miles south-west of Lemberg, and 160 east-south-east of Cracow. It is the seat of a criminal court, has a gymnasium or college, and a high school, and contains 6400 inhabitants, partly Catholics, partly of the Greek church. They are employed in manufacturing and bleaching linen, and in making salt. Government has also erected a depôt here, both for the latter article and for tobacco. Lat. 49. 31. 30. N. long. 23. 14. 30. E.

SAMBOR, Old, a small town of Austrian Poland, near the former.

SAMBORN, a village of England, in Warwickshire, four miles north-west of Alcester. Population 588.

SAMBOROUGH, Cape, a cape on the south-east coast of Nova Scotia. On it is a light-house. Lat. 44. 30. N. long. 63. 22. W.

SAMBRE, a river which rises in French Flanders, near Landrecies, passes by Charleroi, and falls into the Meuse, at Namur. Its banks were, in 1794, the scene of several sanguinary conflicts.

SAMBU, a river of the province of Darien, in South America, which falls into the Pacific ocean. There is also a settlement of the same name on its banks.

SAMBUCA, an Ancient Musical Instrument. The sambuca is said to have been invented in Syria, by a person of the name of Sambicus, and it is pretended that it was used by the first Sybil: Suidas, however, asserts it to have been invented by Ibycus.

Athenæus describes it as an acute instrument with four strings. Porphyry pretends that it was of a triangular form, and that its strings were of different lengths. St. Jerom, St. Isidor, and many others, assure us that it was a wind instrument. How unprofitable, alas! is all the information we are now able to acquire concerning the musical instruments of the ancients: we are not only ignorant of their form and species, but even uncertain of their names. The prophet Daniel is the first who speaks of symphony as an instrument, and of the sambuca, when he describes the magnificence of Nebuchadnosor, at the time when he commanded every one to fall down and worship the golden calf.

SAMBUCA Lincea, an instrument of more modern times, invented in the 16th century by Fabio Colonna, of Naples, descended from the illustrious Roman family of that name. This instrument had 500 strings, and the inventor in describing and recommending its use as a perfect instrument, published a tract in 4to., at Naples, in 1618. It was not only to express the three genera of the ancients, but to have distinct strings for the major and minor tones and semitones of the modern diatonic genera. This impracticable instrument has been described by Mersennus, lib. 6. Harmonicorum, prop. 13., and Walther has given his divisions of a tone into five parts, in his plates, tab. ix. fig. 7.

SAMBUCUS, the name of an ancient engine of war, used by Marcellus in besieging the city of Syracuse.

It was so big, that Plutarch, in the life of that general, observes, two ships were required to carry it.

SAMBUCUS [of Pliny. Ακτη of the Greeks], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order trigynia, natural order of dumosæ: caprifolia *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, superior, five-parted, very small, permanent. Corolla: one-petalled, rotate-concave, five-cleft, blunt: segments reflex. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, the length of the corolla: anthers roundish. Pistil: germ inferior, ovate, blunt: style none, but instead of it a ventricose gland: stigmas three, blunt. Pericarp: berry roundish one-celled. Seeds three, convex on one side, angular on the other.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-parted. Corolla five-cleft. Berry three-seeded.

1. Sambucus ebulus, or dwarf elder.—Root creeping. Stems herbaceous, three feet high, upright, leafy, branched above,

above; the branches opposite and upright. Leaves opposite, unequally pinnate, dark green: leaflets four to six pairs, ovate-lanceolate, smooth above, downy with a slight roughness underneath; the lowermost often lobed. Stipules large, leafy. Cyme terminating, in three principal branches, and those dividing into many others, hairy and many-flowered. All the flowers pedicelled.—Native of many parts of Europe, in waste ground, and balks of corn fields, by hedges and way sides: flowering in July.

2. Sambucus Canadensis, or Canadian elder.—Cymes five-parted, leaves sub-bipinnate, stem frutescent. This rises to the height of twenty feet in North America, but in England it is seldom much more than half that height.—Native of North America.

3. Sambucus nigra, or the common elder.—The common elder grows to a bushy tree, twelve or sixteen feet in height, much branched, and covered with a smooth gray bark when young, which becomes rough on the trunk and older branches. Wood hard, tough, yellow, polishing almost as well as the box-tree; the younger branches containing a very large proportion of medullary matter or pith. Leaves opposite, unequally pinnate: leaflets commonly five. Cymes terminating, dividing into five principal branches, and many small ones. Flowers cream-coloured, with a sweet but faint smell, especially when dried.—Native of Britain and many other parts of Europe; also of Africa, Japan, &c. The leaves and stalks are so nauseous, that few animals will browse upon it.

4. Sambucus Japonica, or Japonese elder.—Cymes three-parted, stipules none, stem shrubby.—Native of Japan.

5. Sambucus racemosa, or red-berried elder.—This sends up many shrubby stalks from the root, rising ten or twelve feet high, and dividing into many branches, which are covered with a brown bark. Leaves opposite; the lower generally composed of two pairs of leaflets, terminated by an odd one. Flowers of an herbaceous white colour, appearing in April, and sometimes succeeded by berries, which are red when ripe.—Native of Germany, Switzerland, Italy, and Siberia.

Propagation and Culture.—Dwarf elder propagates itself, by its creeping roots. The other sorts may be propagated by cuttings.

SAMBUNARA, a town of Bambouk, in Western Africa, near which is a gold mine. Sixty miles south of Gallam.

SAMBURGH HEAD, a cape of Scotland, at the south-east extremity of the island of Shetland. Lat. 39. 44. N. long. 1. 39. E.

SAMCOCK, one of the Ladrone isles, where good water is to be found.

SAME, *adj.* Not different; not another; identical; being of the like kind, sort, or degree.

Th' etherial vigour is in all the *same*
And ev'ry soul is fill'd with equal flame. *Dryden.*

That which was mentioned before.

Do you but think how well the *same* he spends,
Who spends his blood his country to relieve. *Daniel.*

SAME, *adv.* [ram, Saxon; often used in composition; as ram-mæle, agreeing together; ram-þyncan, to work together, from the Su. Goth. *sam*, con. Spenser writes this word *sam* for the sake of his rhyme. *Todd.*] Together. *Obsolete.*

What concord han light and darke *sam*?
Or what peace has the lion with the lamb? *Spenser.*

SAMEE, a town of Gallam, or Kajaaka, in Western Africa, beautifully situated on the Senegal; 20 miles east of Toag.

SAMEN, a province of Abyssinia, consisting of a chain of immense mountains, extending along the western and northern banks of the Tacazze, and separating the high country of Tigre, from the low fertile regions around the capital. It is eighty miles long, but seldom so much as thirty broad. The highest mountain is called the Jew's rock, and the whole chain is very rugged.

SA'MENESS, *s.* Identity; the state of being not another; not different.—Difference of persuasion in matters of religion may easily fall out, where there is the *sameness* of duty, allegiance, and subjection. *King Charles.*—Undistinguishable resemblance.—If all courts have a *sameness* in them, things may be as they were in my time, when all employments went to parliament-men's friends. *Swift.*

SAMER, a small town in the north of France, department of the Pas de Calais; 12 miles south-east of Boulogne. Population 1600.

SAMERIUS (Henry), a learned Jesuit, was born at Manche, a small city in the duchy of Luxemburg, in the year 1540. He entered the society at the age of 21, in their college of Cologne, and during the progress of his studies, became distinguished for a deep knowledge in history and chronology. He was well qualified for the duties of a missionary into Protestant countries, by the address with which he could assume a borrowed character. It was on this account, that, when Mary, queen of Scotland, then a prisoner in England, had expressed a desire to have a priest of the Jesuits' order to attend upon her, he was sent into this country in the character of a physician. Under this disguise he gained access to that princess, and attended her some years, officiating privately as her confessor. At length he had some reason to believe, that the agents of Elizabeth began to suspect him, and he made his escape to the continent. After this he was sent as a missionary into the United Provinces; where, on the capture of Steenwyck, in Overyssel, by the English auxiliaries, in the year 1592, he was discovered, and thrown into prison. Through the grace of Count Maurice he obtained his liberty, and permission to retire to his native country. He died at Luxemburg in 1610, in the 70th year of his age. As an author, his chief work was entitled "Chronologia Sacra ab orbe condito usque ad Christum natum," 1608. This work is said to possess the merit of correcting a vast number of errors which had been made by preceding writers. *Gen. Biog.*

SAMGANOODHA, or SAMNANOODHA, a harbour on the north-east side of Oonalashka island, on the north-west coast of North America; 10 miles east of Egooshak bay. Ships can lie here landlocked from all winds, in seven, six, and four fathoms water. It abounds with hallibut, salmon, &c. Lat. 53. 55. N. long. 166. 30. 15. W.

SAMGAUM, a town of Hindostan, province of the Carnatic, and district of Nelloor, situated on the north side of the Pennar river. Lat. 14. 33. N. long. 70. 44. E.

SAMHAR, a mountainous district of Abyssinia, to the north of Dixan, with a town of the same name.

SAMI, a town of Ludamar, in Western Africa; 84 miles east of Benowm.

SAMI, the Sanscrit name of the *Adenanthera aculeata*, of the wood of which the Brachmans, who devote themselves to the priesthoood, are in certain sects constrained to kindle a fire by the process of attrition. This is done on entering their sacerdotal office by means of a simple machine called *Arani*, which is thus constructed and used: a piece of a plank of a foot in length, and half that in diameter, has a small conical hole or socket in the upper side, into which is introduced the end of a pin, about a foot long and an inch in diameter, the other end of which forms a moveable handle: this is held steady in the left hand of the operator, who with a bow, having its string twice wound loosely round the upright pin, twirls it quickly backwards and forwards with his right hand. The pin and socket fitting closely, the attrition of the two pieces of hard wood soon produces fire.

SAMIA TERRA, an earth of the marle kind, found in the island of Samos, and much used both in medicine and in the pottery of the ancients.

SAMIARII, among the Romans, were a kind of furbishers, who, with Samian earth, polished the arms of the prætorian soldiers, and emperor's guards.

SAMIAVERAM, a town of Hindoostan, in the Carnatic; 10 miles north of Tritchinopoli.

SAMICUM, in Ancient Geography, a territory in Triphylia, situated near the coasts, north-west of Lepreum. Near it are a temple of Neptune, held in great veneration, and

and two grottoes, consecrated, the one to the nymphs "Assigrides," and the other to the "Atlantides."

SAMI-DEVI, in Mythology, a name of the Hindoo goddess PARVATI; which see.

SAMINGAVA, a town of Xicoco, in Japan; 22 miles south-west of Ovutsi.

SAMIRA, on the Tigris. See SAMARA.

SAMI-RAMI, a name of the Hindoo goddess PARVATI; which see.

SAMISAT, a town of Diarbekir, in Asiatic Turkey, on the Euphrates; 70 miles west of Ourfa.

SA'MITE, *s.* [*samet, samit,* old Fr. "étoffe de soie. Roq. *sammet,* Germ. velvet. Morin traces it to the low Lat. *samitum,* or *examitum,* and that to the Gr. εξαμιτος, used by Fices for a sort of silk; which is formed of εξ, six, and μιτος, a thread; meaning therefore composed of six threads.] A sort of silk stuff. *Obsolete.*

In silken a *samite* she was light arry'd
And her fayre lockes were woven up in gold. *Spenser.*

SAMLAND was formerly the name of a district of East Prussia, bounded by the Friesche and Curische Hafs, and the Pregal. Its chief town was Conigsberg.

SAMLESBURY, a village of England, in Lancashire, near a navigable canal, which communicates with all the late inland navigation; 5 miles north-west of Blackburn. Population 1589, chiefly employed in manufactures.

SAMLET, SALMULUS, in Itchthyology. See SALMO.

SAMLOVA, a small town in the north of European Turkey, in Bulgaria, district of Sophia.

SAMMA, a town on the south coast of the isle of Bourro. Lat. 3. 50. S. long. 127. 15. E.

SAMMAEL, an evil angel, who, as the Jewish rabbins pretended, deceived Eve, mounted on the old serpent; they add, that he is the angel of the dead, the prince of the air, and the chief of the demons. Other rabbins represent him as the prince of the angels, and believe that he is to preside at the last judgment; on which account they present offerings to him on the day of solemn expiation, to appease his anger.

SAMMAN, a town in the interior of Lasha, in Arabia; 50 miles west-north-west of El Katif.

SAMMARTINO, a small town of Austrian Italy; 11 miles west of Mantua.

SAMNAH, a town of Lower Egypt, on the southern bank of Lake Menzeleh. It contains immense ruins of the ancient Tanis, particularly numerous obelisks.

SAMNITES, a considerable people of Italy, who inhabited the country called Samnium. They were descendants of the Sabines, and Strabo says expressly that they were called Sabellins, and that the Greeks called them Samnites. From them proceeded the Hirpini, Lucani, and Brutii. The Samnites were, like the Sabines, from whom they sprung, a warlike people; and engaged in frequent contests with the Romans. In the year of Rome 420, they attacked the Sidicini, a people of Ausonia, on the other side of the Liris, but upon their recurring for succour to the people of Campania the Samnites turned their arms against the latter, who, being an effeminate people, were defeated in two pitched battles, and their metropolis Capua was besieged. The Campanians, thus distressed by the Samnites, surrendered themselves and their country to the Roman republic. The Roman senate interposed, and dispatched ambassadors to intreat the Samnites, as friends, to spare a province which belonged to Rome. The Samnites, however, paid no regard to the message, but prepared for ravaging Campania. This insult incensed the Romans, who declared war against them. The succeeding contest was severe; and though the Samnites were defeated by the consul Valerus, the Romans owned that they had never engaged with a more intrepid enemy; nor would they have known that they had gained the victory, if the Samnites had not deserted their camp in the night, and abandoned it to the conquerors. In a subsequent engagement, the Romans, under the command of Decius, obtained a complete victory, and plundered their camp, after having cut in pieces above 30,000 of the enemy. The Samnites having raised new forces, appeared before Suessulo, a town situated between Nola and Capua; but they were again defeated by Valerius with great loss. Notwithstanding repeated defeats, the Samnites renewed their hostilities; and under the command of Pontius, an experienced and able officer, gained so decisive an advantage over the Romans, that they were constrained to sue for peace. At length the consul signified to the Samnite general, that they intended to lay down their arms, and pass under the yoke. This intimation was followed by a conference, the result of which was, that the Romans promised to quit Samnium, to evacuate the places where they had planted colonies, and to suffer the Samnites to live in peace according to their own laws. In order to secure the performance of this convention, the Samnites demanded 600 Roman knights as hostages, with this condition, that they might cut off their heads, if the republic did not perform the consul's promises. As soon as the terms were made known, sorrow and rage filled the hearts of the Roman soldiers; but whilst the legions were lamenting their hard fate, the consuls passed first under the yoke, stripped of their habits, and half naked; the inferior officers followed according to their rank, and at last the soldiers, one by one. The Samnites insulted them as they passed; and if any Roman returned merely a fierce look, he was immediately knocked down or killed. The Romans declared this treaty null; and soon formed an army consisting almost wholly of volunteers, burning with rage against the Samnites; and having marched from Rome to the neighbourhood of Caudium, where their army had suffered disgrace, they prepared to surrender the officers in due form to the Samnites. But preferring an open war to this act of vengeance, and demanding a fulfilment of the treaty, they released the hostages, and desired them to return, unmolested, to their camp. The Romans renewed the war; and the Samnites having surprised Fugellæ, a Roman colony, offered quarter to all who should lay down their arms; upon which many submitted; but the Samnites not thinking themselves obliged to keep their word with any of the Roman name, caused all who had surrendered to be burnt alive. The Samnites suffered a disastrous defeat at Apulia, and few of them escaped alive. At length Lucania, whither the Samnites had retired, was taken, and Papirius, afterwards consul, insisted that all the soldiers in the place, to the number of 7000, should, unarmed, and with one garment each, pass under the yoke, and Pontius at the head of them. These conditions were accepted, and the Romans had the pleasure of retaliating upon Pontius and his Samnites, the ignominy which he had made them and their consuls undergo at the Caudine forks. They also recovered the hostages which had been delivered up to the Samnites, as securities for the execution of a shameful treaty. After several successive defeats, the Samnites obtained a renewal of their alliance with Rome; nevertheless they soon renewed their hostility; and having sustained great loss both of men and territory, they were at length driven out of their own country, and took refuge in Hetruria. Uniting with the Hetrurians, Umbrians, and Gauls, they prepared for war against the republic, and were defeated by Fabius and Attilius, &c. in several engagements. The war with the Samnites having furnished the Roman generals with 24 triumphs, counterbalanced by many severe losses of men and money, the republic became tired of engaging the same enemy; and therefore consented, in the year of Rome 467, to enter into an alliance with them for the fourth time. In the year of the city 486, the Samnites lost all in a single battle, and thus terminated a bloody war, which had lasted 72 years, and procured for the Roman generals 30 triumphs.

We know nothing of the language of the Samnites, except from two medals, bearing two inscriptions. On the one is a head, probably that of a chief, with "Embratur," denoting, in Latin, "Imperator:" and on the other is the word "Saminius," which Pellerin takes for the name of the Samins.

Strabo informs us that no father of a family could dispose of his children in marriage at his own pleasure; but the state

state chose ten beautiful young females and ten comely and virtuous young men. The most distinguished of the latter married the most beautiful of the former, and thus in succession till the whole number was disposed of.

SAMNITES, an order of gladiators, armed by the Campanians after the fashion of the country of the Samnites. They wore a shield broad at the top, to defend the breasts and shoulders, and growing more narrow toward the bottom, that it might be moved with the greater convenience; they had also a sort of belt coming over their breasts, a greave on their left foot, and a crested helmet on their heads. *Livy*, lib. ix.

SAMNIUM, in Ancient Geography, a country of Italy, the central part of which is part of the Apennine, between the Marsi and Peligni, to the north-west, the Frentani to the east, Apulia to the south-east, Lucania to the south, and Campania to the south-east. Its limits, however, have varied at different periods, and have been differently stated by geographers. The principal rivers of Samnium were the Sagras, which ran to the east; the Vulturnus, which pursued a southern course for a considerable interval, and then ran westward into the sea; the Trinius and Tifernus, which flowed eastward into the Adriatic sea; the Tamarus, &c. Its principal towns were Alinum, Æsernia, Alisæ, Bovianum, Caudium, Sapinum, Volona, Palumbinum, Aculanum, Cominium, Romalea, Aquilonia, Morgantia, Ferentum, and Beneventum.

SAMO, a small town of New Grenada, in the province of San Juan de los Llanos, on the shore of the river Amadea.—It is also the name of two other settlements in Chili.

SAMO CAPO, a promontory of the Ionian island of Cephalonia, on the north-east coast.

SAMOCRAT, a village of Lower Egypt, on the western branch of the Nile; 6 miles south of Faoua.

SAMOCZYN, or SZUMACIN, a small town of Prussian Poland; 35 miles west of Bromberg. Population 1100. Here is a large dike, a mile in length, erected to confine the inundations of the river Netz.

SAMOEN, a small town of the north-west of Italy, in Savoy, with 3100 inhabitants; 24 miles west of Geneva.

SAMOGITIA, or SZAMAIT, a track of country in Russian Lithuania, forming the north-west part of that great province, and bearing the title of a county. It lies to the south of Courland, and to the north of Prussia proper, having part of its western boundary along the Baltic, but without any harbour of consequence. It is a very backward country, the inhabitants living in wretched hovels, one end of which is occupied by their families, the other by their cattle. These cottages are in general log huts, having the interstices filled with bark, moss, or straw, and the top terminating in a point, with a hole to give vent to the smoke. The clothing and agricultural implements of the inhabitants are equally rude, their shoes being made of bark, their carts fastened by wooden nails, their axles never greased, their ploughs without iron. A great part of the country is covered with forests: in these bees abound, and afford both wax and honey, two important articles of export. The wild animals are bears and wolves; occasionally the elk and wild ox. The soil is in many parts productive. The climate, though cold in winter, is so warm in summer, that the crops, not only of oats and barley, but wheat, would be abundant, if the cultivation were not so indifferent. The inhabitants appear to be of two races, one rather tall, descended from the Wends; the other short, but robust, more similar to the Lethonians. Their language resembles the other dialects of the Gothic, and is not uncouth; but many of their customs are continued without improvement since the days of their unci ilised ancestors.

SAMOLUS [of Pliny. A diminutive from Samos, in which island this plant was observed by Valerandus], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of preciæ. Lysimachiæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth, five-parted, superior, blunt at the base, segments erect, permanent. Corolla one petalled, salver-shaped: tube very short, the length of the calyx, patulous; border flat, five parted, blunt; scalelets very short, at the base of the finus of the border, converging. Stamina: filaments five, short, fenced by the scalets of the corolla. Anthers converving, covered. Pistil: germ inferior. Style filiform, length of the stamens. Stigma capitate. Pericarp: capsule ovate, girt by the calyx, one-celled, half-five-valved. Seeds very numerous, ovate, small. Receptacle globular, large.—*Essential Character.* Corolla salver-shaped. Stamina, fenced by the scalets of the corolla. Capsule one-celled inferior.

Samolus Valerandi, brook-weed or water-pimpernel.—Root perennial, consisting of long white fibres, commonly simple. The whole herb is smooth. Stem from a span to a foot in height, branched; leaves alternate, obtuse, perfectly entire, shining. Racemes terminating, erect, many flowered; pedicels commonly in pairs, one-flowered, erect, jointed, with one lanceolate bracte at the joint. Flowers small, white.—It is an inhabitant of every quarter of the globe, in marshes, wet meadows, and great ditches.

Propagation and Culture.—If the seeds be sown soon after they are ripe on a moist spot of ground, they will come up readily, and require only to be kept clean from weeds.

SAMON, an island in the Eastern seas, lying off Timor, to the north-west. It is woody, hilly land, but not mountainous, and towards the south end quite low. A woody island called Tios in the charts, lies off the south-west point, which is the only thing like danger on the west side of Samon; but the tides run strong here, and make ripplings, which at first alarm, from their great resemblance to breakers.

SAMONA, a township of the United States, in Northampton county, Pennsylvania.

SAMO PAULO, a small island near the western coast of the island of Samos.

SAMORE HILL, a mountain of Ireland, in the county of Sligo.

SAMOS, a name given by the ancients to three distinct islands, viz., one situated near Thrace, called Samos of Thrace, or Samothrace, now "Samandrachi;" the second, called by the Greeks Samos the steep, now Cephalonia; and the third lying near the coast of Ionia, of which we shall here give an account. Some authors affirm that the name Samos, which has superseded other appellations, was derived from a hero, who was born here. Others say, that the Greeks calling all elevated places Samos, have thus designated an island, which presents considerable eminences, insomuch that it was a land-mark all over the Archipelago. It was formerly consecrated to Juno, who is said to have been born here, on the banks of the river Imbrasus, under the shade of an agnus-castus, or chaste tree, a shrub common in this island, as well as in the other islands of the Archipelago. The magnificent temple that was erected here in honour of this goddess is totally annihilated, and the greatest part of the ancient splendour of the island is lost. Samos was also the cradle of Pythagoras, of the poet Charilus, of the mathematician Conon, contemporary of Archimedes, of Timanthus, one of the most famous painters of ancient Greece; and it was in this island that Herodotus, flying from tyranny, sought an asylum, and composed in this agreeable retreat the first books of his history. Samos afterwards became successively subject to the Persians and Athenians, and did not at any future period enjoy an independent political existence. It was, however, much celebrated by the ancients for its fertility, and for the excellence of its fruits. This reputation it still preserves in modern times. It contains, indeed, two ranges of very lofty mountains, some parts of which are verdant, covered with woods, and display the most beautiful scenery; but others are bleak and rocky. Between these, however, are rich and cultivated plains, which produce abundantly grain, vines, and all the fruits of this climate. Pococke says, the soil runs naturally to wood, and that he had observed in Samos all the trees which grow in Asia, except the cypress. Samos is 24 miles long, 12 broad, and about 70 in circumference. The population is estimated by Tournefort, at only 12,000; but Mr. Turner,

Turner, the most recent traveller, states it at 60,000, dispersed through 18 large, and 20 small villages. This is the only island of the Archipelago in which the people enjoy any thing of a republican form of government. A Turkish aga, indeed, resides here; but the whole power is in the hands of the Greeks. Each village elects, from among its principal inhabitants, three persons called primates; these choose annually three chiefs, who are the rulers of the island. The contest for this distinction, however, is said to give rise to furious scenes of violence and intrigue. There is also a governor appointed by the Porte, who pays for his situation 180 purses, in seeking to raise which sum with a profit, he practices every species of violence and extortion. There are swarms of Caloyers and Greek papas for this fine island, and the whole qualification necessary to become a priest, and live by the industry of others, is a talent of being able to repeat mass from memory. The bishop of Samos, who is also bishop of Nicaria, enjoys an annual income of 2000 crowns, and has, besides, a considerable revenue from the important services he renders to the islanders, in blessing for them their water and their cattle in the month of May. All the produce of the dairies on that day belongs to him and he has also two beasts out of every herd.

Notwithstanding all this, Samos flourishes, and is reckoned the richest island of the Archipelago. It exports from 20,000 to 25,000 cantars of grapes, 15,000 barrels of raisins, with wine to such an extent, that the duty amounts to 36,000 piastres. The other customs produce about 12,000 piastres. It produces also valuable marble, and contains mines of lead, silver, and even, it is said, of gold: but these are carefully concealed from the rapacity of the Turkish government. Cora bears the title of the capital; but the principal town is Vahti, distinguished by its large and convenient harbour. On the east end of the island, about two leagues from Cora, are the remains of the ancient city of Samos, the magnificence of which was much boasted in antiquity. The bay is small, and exposed to the south winds; and the artificial mole which now remains is insufficient to make a good harbour, but it appears likely to be the remains of that magnificent one, 250 paces long, which was esteemed one of the wonders of Samos. The city walls still remain, cased inside and outside with white marble, the interior being filled up with small stones; they are 10, 12, or 15 feet thick, according to the strength of the situation, and at the top are covered with very large hewn stones: they are built with square towers, but do not seem to have been above 15 feet high. Some parts of them are entire, and they appeared to Dr. Pococke the most beautiful he had ever seen. There are remains of a theatre, the seats of which were built, not on arches, but on the sides of a hill. It was 240 feet wide, and the space for the seats 80 feet wide. Towards the west side of the town there are the ruins of two or three very considerable buildings, but so destroyed that it is impossible to judge of what nature they were. The temple of Juno was another of the wonders of Samos, and was a very extraordinary building, both with regard to its size, and the style of its architecture. Several of the bases and pedestals remain on the north side, though they are almost buried in the ground; and on the south side there is almost an entire shaft remaining. The capitals seem to have been Doric. This temple was famous for a great number of fine statues. Dr. Pococke saw part of a large one of grey marble, the head and legs of which were broken off, but it appeared to be the work of a skilful hand. The third wonder of Samos was a canal cut through the mountains, to convey the water of a river on the north side of it, to the city; but our author could not gain information of any vestiges of it that can now be observed.

SAMOSATA, a town of Asia, and capital of Comageni; situated on the right bank of the Euphrates. It was the residence of Antiochus, when Pompey granted to him this province, and which his successors enjoyed until the time of Tiberius, who reduced it to a Roman province.

SAMOSATENIANS, Samosateni, in Ecclesiastical History, a sect of ancient Antitrinitarians, thus called from their leader, Paulus Somasatenus, bishop of Antioch, under the emperors Aurelian and Probus.

They are also called by St. Augustine, *Pauliani;* and by the fathers of the council of Nice, Παυλιανιζοντες.

St. Epiphanius will have the Samosatenians to be real Jews, without any thing more than the name of Christians: adding, that they use the same arguments against the mystery of the Trinity that the Jews do; pleading against it, with them, on pretence of maintaining the unity of the Godhead: though they do not observe the ceremonies of the law.

SAMOSCH, or Szamos, two rivers of Transylvania, one of which, called the Little, rises in the county of Clausenburg, and joins the other at Dees. The great Samosch has its source on the borders of Moldavia, receives the Sajo and the little Samos, enters Hungary, waters the counties of Szolnok, Szathmar, and Sabolcs, and afterwards joins the great river Theyss. It is navigable from the borders of Hungary.

SAMOTHRACE, now called Samothraki, *Samandraki*, or *Mandraki*, in Ancient Geography, a small island of the Ægean sea, at some distance to the north of Lemnos, over against the mouth of the Hebrus. This island was also called Dardania, because, according to Pliny and Pausanius, Dardanus retired hither, and also Leucasia and Leuconia. It derived its name Samothrace from a colony of Thracians, joined to some fugitives from Samos. It became celebrated for the worship of the Cabirian gods, in the mysteries of which all the heroes of antiquity were initiated. This island was formerly governed by its own kings: in process of time, the government became republican; and this form terminated, when the island was subdued by the Persians. Alexander restored to it its ancient privileges; but his successors made it dependent. The Romans restored its liberty; but in the time of Vespasian, this, like the other states of Greece, was reduced to the condition of a Roman province. Perseus, king of Macedonia, sought an asylum in the temple of Castor and Pollux in this island, when he fled from the pursuing vengeance of the Romans. Having lost its liberty, its other advantages have been of little avail: its ancient celebrity ceased. It is 17 miles in circumference.

SAMOTHRAKI, the ancient Samothrace, which see.

SAMOYEDES, a savage people who traverse the immense and frozen deserts extending along the ocean, which forms the northern boundary of Asia. They do not recognise themselves by this name, which has been given them by the Russians, but call themselves *Khasova*. They extend, on the European side, as far as the river Mesen, which falls into the White Sea; while they inhabit the shores of Asia, eastward to the Olenek, and almost to the Lena, thus filling up the space between the 40th and 120th degrees of east longitude, a line of upwards of 2000 miles. The breadth of this territory from north to south is by no means so considerable, and varies from 300 to 600 miles; yet such is the rigour of the climate, and the barrenness of the soil, that the whole of this vast extent is not supposed to contain a population of more than 20,000. They are divided into three great tribes, differing somewhat in language and manners; The Vanoites, who inhabit the banks of the Petchora and the Obi, in the vicinity of Obdorsk; the Tysia-Igoley, who are found on the Mesen, and in the interior of the government of Archangel; and the Khirutches, who fill the remoter and interior parts of Siberia. The rude traditions concerning their origin seem to support the probable conjecture that they were driven hither by war and oppression from happier climates. In fact, there are still found on the lower part of the Yenisei several tribes, whose dialect, as well as figure, bears a considerable affinity with theirs.

The Samoyedes, like other nations placed in these ungenial climates, are a small and stunted race, commonly between four and five feet high. Their features resemble those of the Tungouses, while their neighbours the Ostiaks, bear the stamp of the Finnish race. They have a flat, round, and broad face, large thick lips, a wide and open nose, little beard, black and rough hair in small quantity, but carefully arranged.

arranged. The dress of the men differs little from that of the Ostiaks; some shave their head in whole or in part; others wear mustachios; and some leave a small part of the beard on each side of the chin. Many particulars are observed in the dress of the females, peculiar to themselves, and not borrowed from any other nation. They do not, like the Ostiak females, wear any veil; they keep the head and face uncovered, unless during their winter journies; their hair is formed into two tresses, which hang behind, and are never combed down; they wear ear-rings made of grains of coral; their gown is patched of different pieces, those in front of their breast, and in the back, being usually formed of the skins of young rein-deer. The lower part is garnished all round by three belts of fine furs. This gown is open in front; they put the two extremities over each other, and fasten them by a large iron ring, instead of buckles. They wear breeches of rein-deer skin, prepared like our deer skins. They never put off their dress, even when going to bed.

The Samoyedes are reckoned more savage than the Ostiaks, who hold much communication with the Russians, have adopted many of their customs, and are in regular subjection to them. The Samoyedes, on the contrary, though nominally included within the limits of the empire, are left to roam almost at perfect liberty. The vast extent and poverty of their deserts present nothing which could defray the expense of occupying them by a military force. They live by hunting, and move continually from place to place in their sledges, drawn by rein-deer. These animals, when tamed, scarcely serve any other purpose, as they do not milk them, and seldom kill them for the sake of food. In this view they chiefly seek the wild rein-deer, whom they have various modes of catching. They eat their flesh, make clothes of their skins, and use the nerves as thread for sewing. When they are upon the sea shore, they feed upon the flesh of the bear, upon that of the dead whales who are thrown ashore, and of other marine animals. They also fish in the lakes and gulfs of the sea, forming nets and cords from the bark and twigs of the willow. In autumn their principal occupation is the hunting of the white fox, in which men, women and children, are all alike employed. Some lay snares for them, while others alarm them out of their concealments, and kill them by repeated blows. Some rich Samoyedes make their residence in summer on the banks of the Obi, to enjoy the pleasure of fishing in that river, leaving their herds in the mean time to be tended by their children or servants.

The Samoyedes, like most savage nations, are extremely superstitious. Their rites seem derived, with some modifications, from the widely extended system of Shamanism prevalent over all the north and east of Asia. They acknowledge a supreme being called Noun, ruler of heaven and earth, and who cannot be represented by any image. Under him, however, are numberless inferior deities, spirits, and demigods, called Tadeptzies. These are divided into celestial and terrestrial, and are the beings who distribute good and evil to men. They are represented by little wooden idols, finely clothed and ornamented. These idols, called Khae, are placed in the woods, or in the houses, and are sometimes transported from one place to another. Sacrifices are offered only in acknowledgement of a good which they are supposed to have conferred, or of an evil which is believed to have been averted by their interposition. They have the magicians or shamahs, who are general through Northern Asia, distinguished by their drum, and by a dress adorned with rings and pieces of iron. These persons, among the Samoyedes, have something terrific in their aspect which frightens even the Russians, accustomed to see similar characters among all their subject states. They seem to work themselves into such an irritable state of nerves, that a sudden cry, a blow, or even a touch, throws them into a species of frenzy. They seize an axe, a knife, or whatever is under their hand, to massacre the person who is the cause of this agitation. By way of curing this real or imaginary malady, a piece of deer-skin is burned, and they are made to inhale the smoke. This remedy is said to throw them into a state of torpor and lassitude, which lasts for twenty-four hours, at the end of which time they wake in full possession of their senses. This people have many superstitions on the subject of death. They cover the deceased with all his clothes, put a cauldron over his head, and wrap the whole in deer skins, closely fastened with cords. This they drag out by an opening made in the tent for the express purpose, not by the door, as in that case it is supposed that the dead person would drag several of the inhabitants after him. In summer they place the body in a ditch, which, however, has so little depth, that it is necessary to heap wood and branches over the body, in order to cover it. In winter, a wooden cottage is constructed, in which they place the dead, with his axe, knife, bow, arrows, tobacco, and pipe. The consequence of this slight interment is, that the bodies are often devoured by wild beasts. The appearance of ghosts is a subject of superstitious dread; and in this case they have recourse to the magicians, who having arrayed themselves in all their charms, address the spirit, exhorting him not to disturb those who are left on earth, nor to envy them the possession of his former successful spots of hunting and fishing. It is also considered of evil omen to pronounce the name of the deceased, and the doing so is considered by his relations as the most deadly injury.

The Samoyedes appear in general to be a quiet, harmless, and peaceable race. They are said to be prone to intoxication, and passionately fond of tobacco. Their favourite amusements are wrestling and dancing. The latter is performed by very slow movements, and consists chiefly of throwing themselves into various attitudes.

SAMP, in America, a name given to a sort of bread made of the maize, or Indian corn.

They first water the corn for about half an hour, and then beat it in a mortar, or grind it in a hand-mill; afterwards they sift out the flour, and winnow the husks from it; they then mix this into a thin paste with water, and bake it in flat loaves, which they call samp-loaves, or samp-bread.

Beside this, they have another dish prepared of this corn, which they esteem a great delicacy, and call by the name of samp, without the addition of loaf or bread. To make this, they only bruise or grind the corn to the size of rice, and then winnowing away the husks, they boil it gently till it is thoroughly tender, and then add to it milk and butter and sugar: this is not only a very wholesome, but a very pleasant dish. It was the first diet of our planters when newly settled there, and is still in use, as an innocent food in sickness as well as health.

The Indians, who feed on this sort of food, are found never to be subject to the stone, and to escape several other painful diseases.

The English have found a way of making a very good sort of beer of the grain of this Indian corn: they do this either by using the bread made of it, or else by malting it as we do our own corn. When they make the beer of the maize-bread, they break or cut it into lumps as big as a man's fist; they mash these in the same manner that we do malt, and boil up the wort in the same manner, either with or without hops. *Phil. Trans.*

SAMPACCA, in Botany. See MICHELIA.

SAMPAKA, a town of Ludamar, in Central Africa, ceded to it by Bambarra, near which gunpowder is made, though much inferior to that of Europe; 55 miles east of Benowm.

SAMPANMANGO, CAPE, the north-west point of the island of Borneo. Lat. 7. N. long. 116. 52. E.

SAMPARA, a town on the west coast of the island of Celebes. Lat. 2. 21. S. long. 119. 10. E.

SAMPAT, the name of a fabulous bird, introduced among the mythological machinery of the Hindoos, and principally in the Ramayana, where it is made to resist the tyrant Ravana in his rape of Sita. The faithful bird lost his life in the attempt, and had magnificent obsequies performed in his honour, by his grateful master Rama. Sampat was endowed with

with supernatural prowess, which it seems was seated in one of the long feathers of his tail: deprived of this, he became like other birds. Ravana having treacherously gained this secret, gained also an easy victory after plucking the potential feather. Another name of this bird is Jettahi-paksha, or Jatayu. One of his names signifies king of the vultures; but in pictures he is seen in gaudy plumage, more like a parrot or peacock.

SAMPAT, a river on the south coast of the island of Borneo. Lat. 3. 18. S. long. 112. 27. E.

SAMPFORD, Great and Little, two adjoining parishes of England, in Essex; 4 miles north-east of Thaxted. Population of the former 603; of the latter 338.

SAMPFORD ARUNDEL, a parish of England, in Somerset; 3 miles south-west of Wellington.

SAMPFORD BRETT, a parish of England, in Somerset; 6½ miles east-south-east of Dunster.

SAMPFORD COURTENEY, a parish of England, in Devonshire; 5 miles north-east of Oakhampton. Population 971.

SAMPFORD PEVERELL, a parish of England, in Devonshire, near the river Leman; 5 miles east-by-north of Tiverton. Population 894.

SAMPFORD SPINEY, a hamlet of England, in Devonshire; 4 miles east-by-south of Tavistock.

SA'MPHIRE, [*saint Pierre*, Fr. q. d. herba sancti Petri. *Minsheu.* It is in our old books *sampire* or *sampier*, as in Barrett, Minsheu and Sherwood; the last of whom also terms it, *herbe de S. Pierre.*] A plant preserved in pickle.—This plant grows in great plenty upon the rocks near the sea-shore, where it is washed by salt-water. It is greatly esteemed for pickling, and is sometimes used in medicine. *Miller.*

Half way down
Hangs one that gathers *samphire*, dreadful trade!
Methinks he seems no bigger than his head. *Shakspeare.*

See Crithmum Maritimum, which is the best sort; and Salicornia, which is the commonest.

SAMPHIRE, Golden, a species of the Inula; which see.

SAMPHIRE, Prickly, a species of the Echinophora; which see.

SAMPHORÆ, among the Ancients, were horses marked with the letter Σ on their legs.

SAMPIT, a town of the island of Borneo, situated on the south coast, near a river of the same name; 140 miles west of Banjar Massam.

SA'MPLE, *s.* A specimen; a part of the whole shown, that judgment may be made of the whole.—I have not engaged myself to any: I am not loaded with a full cargoe: 'tis sufficient if I bring a *sample* of some goods in this voyage. *Dryden.*—Example.

Thus he concludes: and every hardy knight
His *sample* follow'd. *Fairfax.*

To SA'MPLE, *v. a.* To show something similar; to example.—The degree of the empire's downfall may be *sampled* by those of the Babylonish captivity. *Mede.*

SA'MPLER, *s.* [*exemplar*, Lat. whence it is sometimes written *samplar.*] A pattern of work; a specimen.

We created with our needles both one flower.
Both on one *sampler*, on one cushion;
Both warbling of one song, both in one key,
As if our hands, our sides, voices and minds
Had been incorporate. *Shakspeare.*

A piece worked by young girls for improvement.—I saw her sober over a *sampler*, or gay over a joined baby. *Pope*

SAMPOO, a small island in the Eastern seas, near the south coast of Java. Lat. 8. 23. S. long. 112. 26. E.

SAMPSEANS, Sampsæi, ancient sectaries; the same, according to St. Epiphanius, with the Elcesaites.

The Sampseans were not properly either Jews, Christians, or Gentiles; though they took their name from the Hebrew, *semes*, sun; as if they adored the sun.

They acknowledged one only God, washed themselves often, and were attached, in almost every thing, to the religion of the Jews. Many among them abstained wholly from eating of flesh.

Scaliger, after Epiphanius, will have the Sampseans to be the same with the *Esseni.* In reality, the *Elcesaites*, *Sampseans*, *Massalians*, and *Esseni*, appear to be no more than so many different names for the same sect; unless, perhaps, the first added something to the opinions of the last.

SAMPSON'S POST, in Ship Building, a large pillar or stantion placed up diagonally on each side against the quarter-deck beam, and next afore the cabin bulkhead, with its lower end tenoned into a chase on the upper deck. It is used to bring the fish-tackle to, when fishing the anchor, &c. This name is also given to the pillar immediately under the hatchways, having scores on each side, as steps, to go up and down by. This pillar is of so much larger scantling than the other pillars, as not to be too much weakened by the scores.

SAMPSON'S, St., a parish of England, in Cornwall; 3½ miles south-south-east of Lestwithiel.

SAMPSUCUS, in Botany, an old name for the Marjoram, or Origanum; see that article.

SAMPTOWN, a village of the United States in Middlesex county, New Jersey.

SAMPUNIA, a pneumatic instrument of music among the ancient Hebrews, like our common bag-pipe.

SAMRONGUR, a town of Hindostan, district of Nepaul, in the Terriany, or low country. In its vicinity there is a very large artificial reservoir, which demonstrates that the country was formerly better cultivated and more prosperous than at present, being now nearly covered with wood. Lat. 26. 45. N. long. 85. 30. E.

SAMSBURY, a village of England, in Lancashire, on the banks of the Ribble, north-east of Preston.

SAMSO, a town on the west coast of the island of Celebes. Lat. 0. 11. N. long. 119. 38. E.

SAMSOE, or Sams, a small but fruitful island of Denmark, lying between Zealand and the coast of Jutland. It is about 12 miles long and three broad, contains about 4800 inhabitants, and is situated in Lat. 55. 49. N. long. 10. 23. E.

SAMSON, a county of the United States, in the south part of North Carolina. Population 6620, including 2049 slaves.

SAMSON, St., a small town in the north-west of France, department of the Maine and Loire; 4 miles north-east of Angers. Population 1200.

SAMSOON, a city of Asia Minor, on the coast of the Black sea. It lies on the site of the ancient *Amisus*, which, after Sinope, was the most opulent city in Pontus, and decorated by Mithridates with many stately edifices. He particularly erected, at a short distance, a magnificent palace, which he named Eupatoria. It was afterwards included in the dominion of the emperors of Trebisond, and finally annexed to the Turkish empire, by Mahomet II. It is situated near the west end of a bay, about four miles in length, and surrounded by extensive groves of olive trees. The houses, which are made of wood, plastered with mud, and finally white-washed, produce a good effect. The modern town is small, not containing more than 2000 inhabitants. It is surrounded by a decayed wall, which, from the form of the arches of the gates, and some ancient pieces of sculpture, intermixed with the other stones, appears to have been built by the Turks. The town can boast of five mosques, with minarets, and a large khan for the use of merchants, who carry on a brisk trade with Constantinople and the other ports on the Black Sea. The ships belonging to the port are navigated by Greeks; for though the population of the town consists almost entirely of Turks, the adjoining villages are inhabited chiefly by Christians.

SAMTER, a small town of Prussian Poland; 20 miles north-west of Posen. Population 1300.

SAMUDRA, in Hindoo Mythology, a personification of the sea, who is called the lord of rivers. Hindoo writers suppose

pose the sea to move or flow with great rapidity, and the swiftness of Samudra is proverbial. Perhaps, however, the allusion may be to its momentum, rather than its velocity. This personification of the sea is frequently mentioned in Hindoo books. Nadit is another name of Samudra, and Sagara; under which latter article of our work, and under SOMA, farther mention will be found on the subject of this. We have never seen any picture or description of the person or attributes of Samudra, and know not, therefore, how he is represented in those particulars. His proverbial swiftness occurs in a translation from the Ramayana, under our article TARA.

SAMUEL, an eminent prophet and judge of Israel for several years. To Samuel have been ascribed the book of Judges, that of Ruth, and the first of the two books that bear his name. It is very probable that he composed the twenty-four first chapters of the first book of Samuel, as they contain nothing but what he might have written, and in which he had not a great share. Nevertheless, in these twenty-four chapters, there are some additions, which it is likely were inserted after his death. The two first books of Kings bear the name of the books of Samuel; but it must be observed that he could not have been the author of the second of these books, which contains an account of the transactions that happened after his death; nor could he have written the latter part of the first, since his death is mentioned in the 25th chapter. It has been supposed, that as Samuel was the author of the first twenty-four chapters, the work was finished by Gad and Nathan. This is the opinion of the Talmudists, which seems to be founded on 1 Chron. xxix. 29. But, in order to justify this opinion, it ought to be proved, that the books of Samuel, Gad, and Nathan, mentioned in this passage, were the same with that of the first book of Kings: whereas these were three distinct books, which contained the life and actions of these three prophets. Diodorus of Tarsus, Theodoret, St. Athanasius, and St. Gregory, have observed, that the four books of Kings are only an historical abridgment of several books or memoirs of the prophets, which are cited in several places of them. Grotius ascribes this abridgment to Jeremiah, some to Isaiah, and most to Ezra. Dupin has mentioned several circumstances which shew that the books of Samuel, or the two first books of Kings, are neither Samuel's, nor Gad's, nor Nathan's. As for the two last books, which are those only called by the Hebrews Malachim or Kings, since they contain the history of the kings of Israel and Judah, down to the captivity, which is related in the last chapter, they could not have been finished till after that time. Several passages which shew that the kingdom of Judah was still in being, serve to render it probable, that this history was composed out of several memoirs, or rather, that he who digested and wrote it, has inserted those things in it which he found in the more ancient records without changing the forms of expression. The Talmudists attribute this work to Jeremiah, others to Isaiah, but the generality to Ezra. The first book of Samuel, or of the four books of Kings, comprehends the events that occurred under the government of Eli the high-priest, Samuel the prophet, and the reign of Saul. The second is the history of David's government. The two last books of Kings contain the history of Solomon, and afterwards the reigns of the several kings of Israel and Judah down to the destruction of Israel and the captivity of Judah. The four books contain the history of almost 600 years.

Samuel began the chain of the prophets, which was never broken from his time to that of Zechariah and Malachi. (Acts iii. 24.) Besides the true history of Samuel, there are several traditions concerning this prophet among the Orientals. See D'Herbelot, Bibl. Orient. p. 735 and 1021. See also the History of the Afghans in the second volume of the Asiatic Researches, p. 119, &c. *Dupin's Canon.*

SAMUEL, POINT, a cape on the west coast of Admiralty island, north of Hood's bay, in the North Pacific ocean. Lat. 57. 28. N. long. 225. 33. E.

SAMUELA, ST., a small island in the North Pacific ocean. Lat. 62. 35. N. long. 190. 34. E.

SALULCOTTA, a town of Hindostan, province of the Circars, and district of Rajamundry. In the vicinity of this place pepper has been found growing wild on the hills, and it was at one time in contemplation of the East India Company to establish an extensive pepper farm here; but the extensive acquisitions of the British on the Malabar coast have now rendered that plan unnecessary. It is situated on the north bank of a small river, and a few miles from the sea. Lat. 17. 5. N. long. 82 30. E.

SAMUR, a river of Shirvan, in Persia, which rises in the mountains of Lesghistan, and fall into the Caspian. At its mouth is a small town of the same name; 15 miles south of Derbend.

SAMYDA [Σημυδα, of Theophrastus], in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order monogynia.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, coloured within; tube bell-shaped, ten streaked; border five-cleft; segments ovate, flat, spreading very much, blunt, two of them augmented with a point. Corolla none. Nectary one-leafed, conical, truncate, ten-streaked, almost the length of the calyx, and inserted into its border at the base; mouth bluntly ten-toothed or eight-toothed. Stamina: filaments none. Anthers ten or eight, oblong, erect, small, placed on the teeth of the nectary. Pistil: germ ovate. Style awl-shaped, erect, length of the nectary. Stigma capitate obtuse. Pericarp: capsule roundish, four-grooved, coriaceous, thick, one-celled four-valved. Seeds very many, subovate, obtuse, marked with a little pore at the base, fastened to the valves, wrapped in a pulpy pellicle.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-parted, coloured. Corolla none. Nectary, bell-shaped, staminiferous. Capsule berried within, four-valved, one-celled. Seeds nestling.

1. Samyda nitida.—Flowers eight-stamened, leaves cordate, smooth.—It shoots sometimes to the height of seven or eight feet. The leaves are shining and very slightly crenate; rudiments or segments of the nectary soft, red; flowers in slender axillary racemes.—Native of Jamaica.

2. Samyda macrophylla.—Flowers eight-stamened, leaves ovate, acute, smooth, axils of the veins villose beneath, corymb terminating.—Branches, smooth, round, scarred with the fallen leaves, yellowish.—Native of the East Indies.

3. Samyda multiflora.—Flowers eight-stamened, leaves oblong, toothed, attenuated to both ends, tomentose beneath, peduncles one-flowered, aggregate, axillary.—Stem shrubby, branches woody, round.—Native of the West Indies.

4. Samyda villosa.—Flowers ten-stamened, leaves oblong, sub-serrate, oblique at the base, silky, villose beneath, peduncles solitary, axillary.—Shrub a fathom high. Flowers large, white.—Native of Jamaica, in the mountains: flowering in spring.

5. Samyda glabrata.—Flowers ten-stamened, leaves, ovate-lanceolate, quite entire, shining, peduncles axillary, one-flowered.—A small tree with a trunk ten or twelve feet high, smooth, unarmed.

6. Samyda spinescens.—Flowers ten-stamened, terminating, leaves lanceolate-ovate, obtuse, crenate, smooth, branches patulous, spinescent.—A small tree.—Native of Hispaniola, where it flowers in December and January.

7. Samyda pubescens.—Flowers twelve-stamened, leaves ovate, tomentose beneath.—Native of America.

8. Samyda serrulata.—Flowers twelve-stamened, leaves ovate-oblong, serrulate.—Shrub three or four feet high, with round somewhat villose branchlets. Peduncles axillary solitary, one-flowered, very short.—Native of America.

9. Samyda polyandra.—Flowers many stamened.—Native of New Caledonia.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants are propagated by seeds procured from the countries where they naturally grow; sow them upon a hot-bed in the spring; and when the plants come up set them in small pots filled with good kitchen garden earth, plunge them into a hot bed of tanner's bark, and treat them in the same way as other tender plants from the same countries. Keep them in the bark-bed till they have attained strength, and they may be exposed in summer,

summer, but in winter they require the shelter of a greenhouse.

SAN, meaning SAINT. Many names of places with this prefixed, are to be sought under the word that follows, as SAN CARLOS. See CARLOS, SAN, or ST.

SAN, a large river of Austrian Poland, which rises in the Carpathian mountains, on the borders of the county of Unguar, in Hungary, and falls into the Vistula, near Sendomir. It is one of the largest rivers in the province, and now forms part of the boundary between Russian Poland and Austrian Galicia. Its course is very winding, but in general from south-east to north-west.

SAN, a river of China, which rises on the frontier of Tartary, and falls into the gulf of Leaotong. Lat. 39. 9. N. long. 117. 28. E.

SAN, in Lower Egypt. See SAMNAH.

SAN ANTONIO, a town of the Caraccas, situated on the north bank of the Apure, just above where it divides itself into several branches, to join the Arauca, in about Lat. 7. 30. N., with a village called Bancolargo on the opposite bank of the river. South of this town, and between the Capanaparo and the Sinaruco, the country is inhabited by tribes of wild and independent Indians, who allow no settlements to be made among them.

SAN ANTONIO DE BEJAR, a town of New Spain, and capital of Texas, between the two rivers Nagales and St. Antonio.

SAN BARTOLOMEO DE CHILLAN. See CHILLAN.

SAN BENEDITO, an island on the west coast of New Spain. Lat. 19. 18. N. long. 110. 53. W.

SAN BLAS, a small sea-port on the western coast of Mexico, situated on an island formed by the Rio Grande de Santiago, as it enters the Pacific. The climate is exceedingly hot and unhealthy; insomuch, that though it is the residence of the marine department of the province, the official people all live at Tepic, which is not so hot and unhealthy.

SAN DEL BOSE, an island in the Eastern seas, covered with mountains of a moderate elevation. Lat. 10. 27. S. long. 120. 31. E.

SAN BUENAVENTURA. See BUENAVENTURA.

SAN CARLOS. See CARLOS, SAN.

SAN FERNANDO, a town of Chili, and capital of the province of Colchagua, situated near the river Tinguirririca. It was built in 1742, and contains about 1500 families, with a parish church, a Franciscan convent, and a college, with a handsome church built by the Jesuits.

SAN JOSEF, a town of west Florida, on a bay of the same name, near Cape St. Blas, in the gulf of Mexico. Lat. 29. 45. N. long. 15. 34. W.

SAN JOSEF, a Spanish missionary settlement of California, in Port Juan Francisco or Bodego.

SAN LUIS DE GONZAGA, or ESTANCIA DEL REY, a town of Chili, and capital of the province of Huilquilemu lately built near the Biobbio, in Lat. 36. 45. S.

SAN MIGUEL DE IBARRA. See IBARRA.

SAN NICOLAS, an island in the Pacific Ocean. Lat. 33. 16. N. long. 119. 30. W.

SAN PALOI, a small island near the west coast of the island of Lucon. Lat. 14. 45. N. long. 120. 10. E.

SAN PEDRO, a settlement of Peru, in the intendancy of Truxillo, on the river Pascamayu, containing 120 Indian families, 30 families of whites, and 12 of mulattoes. Lat. 7. 25. 49. S.

SAN PEDRO DE BATOPILAS, a town of Mexico, in the intendancy of Durango. It is situated on the west of Rio Conchos, and was formerly celebrated for the great wealth of its mines. It contains 8000 inhabitants.

SAN SALVADOR, an island on the east coast of Mexico. Lat. 32. 43. N. long. 118. 30. W.

SAN SALVADOR, a small district of Guatimala, which produces sugar canes and indigo in great abundance.

SAN SALVADOR, the capital of the above province, situated 12 miles from the coast of the Pacific Ocean, and 140 miles east-south-east of Guatimala. It has a little trade, and is the residence of a governor. Many maps have absurdly made this town the capital of Spanish North America. Its population is about 5000 Indians, whites, and castes. Lat. 13. 40. N. long. 89. 20. W.

SANA, a small river of the west of Switzerland, which runs into the Aar; 3 miles south of Aarburg.

SANA, a city of Arabia, capital of Yemen, and residence of the Imam. It is situated in a barren and stony valley, encircled by lofty hills; but its immediate vicinity is beautifully diversified by woods and gardens. Sir Henry Middleton describes it as somewhat larger than Bristol, but probably not so populous, as it contains many gardens within the walls. Sana contains many handsome stone houses, with others substantially built of brick. Upon the whole, it appeared to a late traveller one of the prettiest cities of Asia, so that, if properly cleaned and kept, it might come into competition with some of the best in Europe. It is surrounded with a strong mud wall. Fruits are very plentiful in the neighbourhood, particularly grapes, great quantities of which are dried and exported; 128 miles north-north-east of Mocha. Lat. 15. 21. N. long. 44. 9. E.

SANA, a province of Peru, bounded east and north-east by the province of Caxamarca, north and north-west by that of Piura, and west by the Pacific Ocean, along the coast of which it extends 75 miles. It is 25 leagues in length from south-east to north-west, and is 14 wide. Its soil is level, and, excepting in the desert of Sechura, fertile. The heat is, however, at times insufferable. It produces in abundance wheat, maize, rice, and other seeds, and it has all kinds of fruit besides. Here are manufactories of barilla; they also make dressed leather from the skins of goats, in which they carry on a lucrative trade. A trade is also carried on in fine cotton manufactures.

SANA, the capital of the above province, situated on the shore of the river of its name, on the coast of the Pacific Ocean. This town has obtained the name of Miraflores, on account of the beautiful flowers in its neighbourhood, as well as for its being situated in a fertile and pleasant valley. It is now in a state of decay, in consequence of an inundation, by which it was nearly ruined, in 1728. In 1685, it was sacked by Davis, the English adventurer; 80 miles north of Truxillo. Lat. 6. 52. S. long. 79. 35. 30. W. The river Sana runs through this town.

SANABLE, *adj.* [*sanabilis*, Lat.] Curable; susceptive of remedy; remediable.

SANADON (Noel-Etienne), was born at Rouen, in 1676. He was early initiated into the society of the Jesuits, of which he afterwards became a professor at Caen, and other places. In 1728 he became librarian to the College of Louis le Grand; and in 1733 he died. He was esteemed one of the most elegant Latin poets of his time. But he is chiefly known by his version of the works of Horace, entitled "Traduction des Œuvres d'Horace avec des Remarques," which first appeared in 1727, Paris, 2 vols. 4to. It is a prose translation. He printed with his own translation the original Latin, in which he took great liberties in his various readings, and in changing the order of the poems; but his most noted effort of ingenuity was the "Carmen Seculare," which, from a number of detached odes, he formed into a grand connected piece of lyric composition. In his various alterations he frequently makes remarks, that display much taste and critical sagacity; but he is apt to indulge his fancy in pursuing supposed allegories and allusions to the events of the Augustan times.

SANAG, a town on the west coast of the island of Lombok. Lat. 8. 27. S. long. 115. 15. E.

SANAISCHARA, in Hindoo Mythology, a name of Sani, the Hindoo regent of the planet Saturn: the name means *slow-moving*.

SANALIA, in Surgery, a name given by some old authors to those tumours, commonly called *meliceres*.

SANAMUNDA, in Botany, a name applied by Clusius and other old botanists, to several shrubs of the *Daphne Passerina*, and similar genera, which seems to allude to their purgative qualities.

SANAN, a village of Yemen, in Arabia; 36 miles north-north-west of Abu Arisch.

SANASHYGOTTA, a flourishing town of Bengal, district of Purneah, situated on the eastern bank of the Mahanuddy river. It is much frequented by Hindoo pilgrims, on their route to the places of ablution in the Northern mountains, and takes its name from this circumstance. Lat. 26. 35. N. long. 88. 32. E.

SANATES, among the Romans, an appellation given to those people in the neighbourhood of Rome, who having revolted, soon submitted themselves again; on which account they had equal privileges with the other citizens, there being a law in the Twelve Tables ordaining *ut idem juris sanatibus quod foretibus sit.*

SANATION, *s.* [*sanatio*, Lat.] The act of curing.—Consider well the member, and, if you have no probable hope of *sanation*, cut it off quickly. *Wiseman.*

SA'NATIVE, *adj.* [from *sano*, Lat.] Powerful to cure; healing.—The vapour of coltsfoot hath a *sanative* virtue towards the lungs. *Bacon.*

SA'NATIVENESS, *s.* Power to cure.

SANATODOS, in Natural History, a name given by the people of Sicily to the spongy excrescence found on the stalk of the dog-rose, and more usually called the bedeguar. This they greatly esteem in all venemous bites, and use it in fine powder, both internally and externally, in many parts of that country. They use no other remedy for the bite of a viper: the wound is scarified, and some of the powder is sprinkled on, and large doses of it are also given internally in strong wine.

In the bite of a mad dog they apply it to the wound, softened into a sort of poultice with oil, or with strong wine; and they give it in repeated doses internally in broths, and other weak fluids. They give it also in continual fevers, and in many other cases, particularly in the colic. It is said, that a single dose of a drachm in red wine, takes off all the pain of the colic in an hour.

There seems a very old opinion on the side of this medicine, in the cure of a bite from a mad dog; for Pliny tells us, that the root of the wild-rose, from the stalks of which this substance grows, was revealed in a dream for the curing of this terrible disease.

SANBORNTON, a township of the United States, in Strafford county, New Hampshire. It contains three churches, and is situated between the Winnipiseogee and the Pemigewasset, which unite at the south-west part of the town, to form the Merrimack.

SANCAHO, a small town of Abyssinia, near the frontier of Sennaar, inhabited by a tribe of Shangalla; 20 miles north west of Tcherkin.

SA'NCEBELL, *s.* A corruption of *saints-bell;* which see.—Ring out your *sance-bells. Beaum. and Fl.*

SANCELLAS, a small town in the island of Majorca; 16 miles east-by-north of Palma.

SANCERRE, a town in the central part of France, in the department of the Cher, situated on an eminence near the Loire. Population 2500; 12 miles north-east of Bourges. Lat. 47. 20. N. long. 2. 55. E.

SANCHELLE, a cape on the west coast of Portugal; 2 miles south-east of Cape Roca.

SANCHEZ (François, or Sanctius), was a native of Las Brocas, in Spain, and has been dignified by his own countrymen with the pompous title of "Le père de la langue Latine, et le docteur de tous les gens de lettres." He wrote, 1. An excellent treatise, entitled "Minervæ, aut de causis Linguæ Latinæ," which was published at Amsterdam in 1714. 2. The Art of Speaking, and the Method of Translating. And, 3. Several other learned pieces on Grammar. He died in the year 1600, in his 77th year. This author is to be distinguished from a physician of the same name, who died at Toulouse in 1632, who was a Christian, though he had been born of and educated by Jewish parents. His works were collected under the title of "Opera Medica: his juncti sunt tractatus quidam philosophici non insubtiles." These were printed in 1636.

SANCHEZ, a town of the province of Cumana, in South America, situated on the shore of the river Orinoco.—It is also the name of a settlement on the shore of the river Plata.

SANCHEZ, a river of South America, in the province of Porto Bello, which runs north, and enters the sea.

SANCHONIATHON, an ancient Phœnician historian, was a native of Berytus. It is not at all ascertained at what time he flourished. He is, however, commonly referred to the age of the Trojan war. He is particularly known for a history which he composed in the Phœnician language, partly from the records of cities, and partly from the registers and inscriptions preserved in the temples of Phœnicia and Egypt. It was translated into the Greek language by Philo of Byblos, in the time of Adrian, of which version there are some fragments in Porphyry, "De Abstinentia," &c. Dodwell, in an express treatise, has attempted to shew that the history of Sanchoniathon never existed, and Dupin has attempted entirely to destroy the credit of the supposed fragments; but other learned men consider them as authentic. According to Suidas, Sanchoniathon wrote a treatise on the religious institutions of the Phœnicians; another on the physiology of Hermes; and a third on the Egyptian theology.

SANCOINS, a town in the central part of France, in the department of the Cher. Population 1400; 13 miles south-west of Nevers.

SANCOL, a town on the east coast of the island of Mindanao. Lat. 6. 37. N. long. 126. 15. E.

SANCOT, a town of Hindostan, province of Serinagur. The lands in the vicinity of this place are well cultivated, and the soil fertile. It suffered much while subject to the Nepaulese, but has been recently restored by the British to the rajah of Serinagur. Lat. 30. 10. N. long. 79, 33. E.

SANCOTY HEAD, the east point of Nantucket island, on the coast of Massachusetts. Lat. 41. 15. N. long. 69. 58. W.

SANCREET, or St. Creed, a parish of England, in Cornwall; 4 miles west of Penzance. Population 790.

SANCROFT (William), an eminent English prelate of the 17th century, was born at Fresingfield, in Suffolk, in the year 1616. He was initiated into grammar learning at Bury St. Edmund's, and at the age of eighteen went to Cambridge, where he soon distinguished himself in various branches of literature. He took his degrees, and was, in 1642, chosen fellow of his college. This situation he retained till the year 1649, when, refusing to conform to the wishes of the governing powers, he was ejected, upon which he withdrew to the continent, and travelled a considerable time in France and Italy. He was at Rome in 1660; but when measures were ripe for the restoration of Charles II., he returned to England, and was chosen one of the university preachers at Cambridge. After various promotions, he was, in 1670, unexpectedly raised to the archiepiscopal see of Canterbury. This church preferment he obtained from his known attachment to high principles with regard to the royal prerogative. He is said to have attended Charles II. on his death-bed, and to have spoken to the dying king with a degree of freedom that was scarcely to be expected. In 1686, he was nominated the first in King James's commission for ecclesiastical affairs; but he refused to act under it, though he did not feel strong enough to remonstrate against its illegality. In a short time after this, he afforded evidence of his zeal to counteract the king's insidious designs for promoting the interests of popery, by refusing, in his capacity of one of the governors of the Charter-house, to admit as pensioner in that hospital a papist, though strongly recommended by the court. In 1688, he shewed his resolution, by refusing, with six other bishops, to order the reading of the king's declaration of indulgence, and by signing, in conjunction with them, a petition to his majesty, containing their reasons for resisting the authority which he assumed. For this petition, as we have before seen (see England), they were committed to the Tower, and tried at the bar of the king's bench; but were acquitted, to the great joy of the people at large, though to the disappointment

ment and mortification of the court. During the same year, the archbishop, in the circular letter which he sent to the clergy of his diocese, exhorted them to cultivate a good correspondence with the Protestant dissenters, and he endeavoured to promote a plan which might, he thought, induce them to join the national church. In the autumn, when James had received intelligence of the designs of the Prince of Orange, to bring an army into England in support of the liberties of the people, he sent for archbishop Sancroft, and the other bishops who were in London, to ask their advice in that emergency; these plainly told him, that he must instantly shew a disposition to a complete change in the measures of government, by redressing the grievances of the nation, and by calling a free and regular parliament. The king was, however, still obstinate, and in a few days he sent for the archbishop, desiring him to sign a declaration of abhorrence of the Prince of Orange's undertaking, which, however, he declined, and on the withdrawing of the sovereign, Dr. Sancroft concurred with the lords spiritual and temporal, who assembled at Guildhall, on the 11th of December, in signing a declaration to the Prince of Orange for a free parliament, the security of the laws, liberties, and properties of the people, and a due indulgence to Protestant dissenters. Archbishop Sancroft had thus far given his countenance and support to the measures necessary for opposing the steps taken by James to establish arbitrary power and the Popish religion; but when the church was secure, he seems to have been alarmed at the part which he had taken, and resolved to wait the consequences in inactivity and silence. For this behaviour he is condemned by Burnet, who denominates him "a poor-spirited and fearful man, who acted a very mean part in all this great transaction." His conduct certainly justifies the opprobrium of the historian; but Burnet can scarcely be thought an impartial writer, as Sancroft had refused to consecrate him, because he had been so zealous in behalf of the revolution.

After the convention had declared the throne vacant, and the government was settled upon King William, Sancroft refused submission to the new settlement of the crown. Accordingly, after the convention had been converted into a parliament, the archbishop declined coming to the House, and his example was followed by seven other prelates, and he was soon after turned out.

Besides some indifferent sermons, the other publications of Dr. Sancroft consist of a Latin dialogue, composed partly by himself, and partly by two friends, entitled, "Fur Prædestinatus, sive, Dialogismus inter quendam Ordinis Prædicantium Calvinistam et Furem ad Laqueum damnatum Habitus;" "Modern Politics taken from Machiavel, Borgia," &c.; "Familiar Letters." His collections in MS. were purchased by bishop Tanner, and presented to the Bodleian library.

To SA'NCTIFICATE, *v. a.* [low Lat. *santifico.*] To sanctify. *Not in use.*—The Holy Ghost *sanctificating.* *Barrow.*

SANCTIFICA'TION, *s.* [from *sanctifico*, low Latin.] The state of being freed, or act of freeing from the dominion of sin for the time to come.—The grace of his *sanctification* and life, which was first received in him, might pass from him to his whole race, as malediction came from Adam unto all mankind. *Hooker.*—The act of making holy; consecration.—The bishop kneels before the cross, and devoutly adores and kisses it: after this follows a long prayer for the *sanctification* of that new sign of the cross. *Stillingfleet.*

SA'NCTIFIER, *s.* He that sanctifies or makes holy.—To be the *sanctifier* of a people, and to be their God, is all one. *Derham.*

To SA'NCTIFY, *v. a.* [*sanctifico*, Lat.] To free from the power of sin for the time to come.—For if the blood of bulls, sprinkling the unclean, *sanctifieth* to the purifying of the flesh, how much more shall the blood of Christ? *Heb.*—To make holy.—What actions can express the intire purity of thought, which refines and *sanctifies* a virtuous man. *Addison.*—To make a means of holiness.—Those judgments God hath been pleased to send upon me, are so much the more welcome, as a means which his mercy hath *sanctified* so to me as to make me repent of that unjust act. *King Charles.*—To make free from guilt.

The holy man, amaz'd at what he saw,
Made haste to *sanctify* the bliss by law. *Dryden.*

To secure from violation.—Truth guards the poet, *sanctifies* the line. *Pope.*

SANCTIMO'NIOUS, *adj.* [from *sanctimonia*, Latin.] Saintly; having the appearance of sanctity.—All *sanctimonious* ceremonies. *Shakspeare.*

SANCTIMO'NIOUSLY, *adv.* With sanctimony.

Ye know, dear lady, since ye are mine,
How truly I have lov'd you, how *sanctimoniously*
Observ'd your honour! *Beaum. and Fl.*

SANCTIMO'NIOUSNESS, *s.* State or quality of being sanctimonious. *Ash.*

SANCTIMONY, *s.* [*sanctimonia*, Lat.] Holiness; scrupulous austerity; appearance of holiness.—If *sanctimony*, and a frail vow between an errant Barbarian and a supersubtle Venetian, be not too hard for my wit, and all the tribe of hell, thou shalt enjoy her. *Shakspeare.*—There was great reason why all discreet princes should beware of yielding hasty belief to the robes of *sanctimony.* *Raleigh.*

SA'NCTION, *s.* [*sanction*, Fr. *sanctio*, Lat.—"*Sanction* is essential to contracts; which, among the ancients, was done by killing a sacrifice.—We read in Tacitus, Suetonius, Plutarch, and others, of leagues sealed by drinking of blood. So Servius, the grammarian, will have *sanctio* to come *à sanguine.*" Bp. Reynolds, Serm. 1668. p. 17.] The act of confirmation which gives to any thing its obligatory power; ratification.

Against the publick *sanctions* of the peace,
With fates averse, the rout in arms resort,
To force their monarch. *Dryden.*

A law; a decree ratified. *Improper.*

'Tis the first *sanction* nature gave to man,
Each other to assist in what they can. *Denham.*

To SA'NCTION, *v. a.* To give a sanction to.—Tests against old principles, *sanctioned* by the laws. *Burke.*

SA'NCTITUDE, *s.* [from *sanctus*, Lat.] Holiness; goodness; saintliness.

In their looks divine
The image of their glorious Maker shone,
Truth, wisdom, *sanctitude*, serene and pure. *Milton.*

SA'NCTITY, *s.* [*sanctitus*, Lat.] Holiness; the state of being holy.

At his touch,
Such *sanctity* hath heaven given his hand,
They presently amend. *Shakspeare.*

Goodness; the quality of being good; purity; godliness.

This youth
I relev'd with such *sanctity* of love,
And to his image, which methought did promise
Most venerable worth, did I devotion. *Shakspeare.*

Saint; holy being.

About him all the *sanctities* of heaven
Stood thick as stars, and from his sight received
Beatitude past utterance. *Milton.*

SANCTUS (Jasper), commonly denominated Sanchez, a learned commentator on the scriptures in the 16th and 17th centuries.

SANCTON, a parish of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 3 miles south-east of Market Weighton.

SANCTORIUS (Sanctorius), an ingenious physician, who greatly distinguished himself by his experiments on the insensible perspiration, was born in the year 1561, at Capo d'Istria, a town on the borders of the gulf of Trieste. He studied medicine at Padua, where he received the degree of doctor of physic, and then went to Venice, where he settled, and entered into the practice of his profession with considerable success. In the

the year 1611, however, he was recalled to Padua, by an appointment to the professorship of the theory of medicine in that university; an office which he immediately undertook, and gave lectures to a large concourse of auditors for the space of thirteen years. His professional reputation was now so high, that he was frequently sent for to Venice by the people of distinction in that city; and, finding his health impaired by the fatigue of these journies, he resigned his chair at Padua, in order to dedicate all his time to medical practice. His resignation was accepted, but the gratuity was continued; and with this testimony of the public esteem, he removed and settled finally at Venice. He had already attained the age of sixty-three, and lived twelve years in the enjoyment of reputation and emolument at Venice, where he died in 1636, at the age of seventy five. He was buried in the cloisters, and a statue of marble raised to his memory in the church of a religious order in that city. He bequeathed an annuity to the college of physicians at Venice, who, in gratitude for the gift, instituted an annual oration to commemorate his benevolence.

Sanctorius first called the attention of physicians to the function of cutaneous and pulmonary transpiration, the importance of which in the animal economy he demonstrated by proving the extraordinary proportion of substance, or weight, which was lost in the course of twenty-four hours by this insensible exhalation. By weighing the quantity of ingesta, that is, of the solid and liquid substances taken into the body within this given period, and also the sensible and ponderable discharges which were emitted within the same space of time, he found that "the insensible transpiration alone was wont to exceed considerably all the sensible discharges put together." (De Statica Medicina, Sect. I. aph. 4.) He calculated, in fact, that "if the meat and drink in one day amounted to eight pounds, the insensible transpiration usually constituted about five pounds;" (Aphorism 6.) and of this he estimated that about half a pound passed off from the lungs by respiration. (Aph. 5.) In another place, he estimates these more specifically; asserting, that "in the space of one night, about sixteen ounces of urine, four of digested matter by stool, and forty or more insensible perspiration, are usually discharged." (Aph. 59.) And that "in many persons as much is evacuated in one natural day by insensible perspiration, as in the course of fifteen days by the bowels." (Aph. 60.) He also states, "I have found the insensible perspiration to be about forty ounces in seven hours, during sleep; but only twenty while awake." (Aph. 20. sect. iv.)

It is natural, when any new function or action is discovered, to ascribe to it immediately a great influence in the common operations of the system, which we have hitherto been able to explain imperfectly; and accordingly Sanctorius referred most of the deviations from health to irregularities and impediments in this insensible perspiration. He affirms in his 42d aphorism, that "the first symptoms of diseases are more surely detected from a change in the perspiration than from disorder of the functions;" and he has drawn up many aphorisms, detailing the causes, internal and external, by which the perspiration is deranged, as well as the effects which follow this derangement, and especially the retention of the perspirable matter. From these views he regulated the principles both of diet and medicine, and the modes of preserving the health, and curing diseases.

There are many sound observations among the aphorisms of Sanctorius, and he conferred a benefit on medical science by directing the observation of medical men to the functions of the skin, but unfortunately, the doctrines were extended much too far; and, coinciding with the mechanical principles, which were coming into vogue after the discovery of the circulation, as well as with the chemical notions, which were not yet exploded, they contributed to complete the establishment of the humoral pathology, under the shackles of which the practice of medicine continued so long.

The treatise of Sanctorius, entitled "Ars de Statica Medicina," was first published, in a small duodecimo, in 1614, at Venice; but it had subsequently passed through more than twenty editions, including translations, with various commentaries. The Latin style of Sanctorius is elegant and perspicuous. He published some other works: viz. "Methodi vitandorum Errorum omnium, qui in Medicina contingunt, Libri xv." Ven. 1602; of which a Geneva edition of 1631, comprised also an essay "De Inventione Mediorum." "Commentaria in primam Fen. primi Libri Canonis Avicennæ," 1625. "Commentaria in primam Sectionem Aphorismorum Hippocratis," 1629: And "Commentaria in Artem Medicinalem Galeni," 1613. All his works were collected, and published together in four volumes, 4to. at Venice, 1660.

Sanctorius was the author of several inventions. Besides his statical chair, by which the quantity of food taken was weighed, he invented an instrument for measuring the force of the pulse; and several new instruments of surgery. He was the first physician who attempted to measure the heat of the skin by a thermometer, in different diseases, and at different periods of the same disease. And he was an avowed enemy to empirics and empirical nostrums, as well as to all occult remedies. See *Eloy, Dict. Hist de la Med.* and *Sanctorii Ars de Stat. Medicina.*

To SA'NCTURIZE, *v. a.* To shelter by means of sacred privileges. *Not in use.*—No place indeed should murder *sancturize. Shakspeare.*

SA'NCTUARY, *s.* [*sanctuarium*, Lat.] A holy place; holy ground. Properly the *penetralia*, or most retired and awful part of a temple.

They often plac'd
Within his *sanctuary* itself their shrines. *Milton.*

A place of protection; a sacred asylum: whence a *sanctuary man*, one who takes shelter in a holy place.

Oft have I heard of *sanctuary* men;
But *sanctuary* children, ne'er till now. *Shakspeare.*

Shelter; protection.—What are the bulls to the frogs, or the lakes to the meadows? Very much, says the frog; for he that's worsted will be sure to take *sanctuary* in the fens. *L'Estrange.*

SANCTUARY denotes an asylum, or place privileged by the prince for the safeguard of mens' lives, who were guilty of capital crimes.

In Scotland, they call the sanctuary *girtholl*, or *gyrthol.* The Saxons also call it *frodmortel*, and *fridstoll.*

Till Henry VIII. all our churches and church-yards were sanctuaries; and protected persons accused of any crime (except treason, in which the crown, and sacrilege, in which the church was too nearly concerned), who fled to them; and who, within forty days after, went in sackcloth, and confessed themselves guilty before the coroner, and declared all the particular circumstances of the offence; and who thereupon took the oath in that case provided, viz., that they abjured the realm, and would depart from thence forthwith, at the first port that should be assigned them, and would never return without leave from the king: by this means they saved their lives, if they observed the conditions of the oath, by going with a cross in their hands, and with all convenient speed, to the port assigned, and embarking; for if, during these forty days' privilege of sanctuary, or in the road to the sea-side, they were apprehended and arraigned in any court for this felony, they might plead the privilege of sanctuary, and had a right to be remanded, if taken out against their will. But by this abjuration their blood was attainted, and they forfeited all their goods and chattels. During this time, if any layman expelled them, he was excommunicated; if a clerk, he was made irregular; but after forty days no man might relieve them.

The immunity of these privileged places was very much abridged by the statutes 27 Hen. VIII. cap. 19. and 32 Hen. VIII. cap. 12. And now, by the statute 21 Jac. I. cap. 20, all privilege of sanctuary, and abjuration consequent thereupon, is utterly taken away and abolished.

St. John's of Beverley had an eminent sanctuary, called by the Saxons, *a seat of peace:* so had St. Martin's-le-Grand, in London. Ripon had the like granted by Whitlase, king of

of the Mercians: so had St. Burien's, in Cornwall, granted by king Athelstan, anno 936; and Westminster had the like, granted by Edward the Confessor.

SANCTUARY is also used, in the Romish church, for the chancel, or that part of the church in which the altar is placed, encompassed with a rail or balustrade.

SANCTUM SANCTORUM, or HOLY OF HOLIES, is supposed by the Jews to be a type or figure of heaven, and of Jesus Christ the true high-priest, who is ascended thither to make intercession for us.

Some will have it, that the whole temple was called the sanctuary: and that the sanctum sanctorum, where the ark was kept, was only a little chapel or oratory in it.

SAND, *s.* [ȝanȝ, Saxon; *sand*, Dan. and Dutch.] Particles of stone not conjoined; or stone broken to powder.

Hark, the fatal followers do pursue!
The *sands* are number'd that make up my life;
Here must I stay, and here my life must end. *Shakspeare.*

Barren country covered with sands.

Her sons spread
Beneath Gibraltar to the Lybian *sands.* *Milton.*

SAND, in Mineralogy. The name of sand is given to all mineral matter that exists in minute detached grains, and is denominated from the prevailing substance, as siliceous sand, iron sand, &c. Sand is generally formed from the disintegration of hard stones or rocks by the agency of water, and the particles of siliceous stones, possessing a greater degree of hardness than most other kinds. The greatest part of the sand which exists on the sea-shore, or is spread on the surface of the earth, is siliceous. Argillaceous stones, or calcareous stones intermixed with alumine, when reduced to minute parts, form a kind of paste or mud by intermixture with water, the particles uniting or cementing together as the mixture becomes dry. When a bed of siliceous sandstone rises to the surface, the particles become separated by the action of the atmosphere and other causes, and form a loose sandy soil; sometimes so destitute of mixture with other earths, as to be entirely unfit for vegetation. There are also certain regular beds of sand above and below chalk-rocks on the eastern side of our island, which, wherever they rise to the surface, form sandy tracts, as at Woburn, in Bedfordshire.

A bed of perfectly transparent and crystalline sand was found at Neuilly, in France, each grain of which, when examined with a lens, was a perfect six-sided prism, terminated by two six-sided pyramids. The sands at Creil, at Nevers, and Etampes, and other parts of France, are so pure, as to be employed in the glass manufactory of St. Gobelin. Some of the sands of Egypt contain also numerous microscopic crystals, particularly of sapphires; some perfectly transparent, and others as green as emeralds. Sand, principally composed of siliceous earth, is employed for divers important uses. Mixed with quick-lime, it forms mortar. In the fabrication of pottery-ware, a certain quantity of siliceous sand is necessary to give it consistence, and to enable it to stand the action of fire. The further vitrification that the silex undergoes communicates a degree of hardness and solidity which pottery could not otherwise acquire. Siliceous sand is an article of prime importance in the manufacture of glass. When pure, it forms the basis of the most beautiful transparent flint and crown-glass.

To SAND, *v. a.* To force or drive upon the sands.—Travellers and seamen, when they have been *sanded* or dashed on a rock, for ever after fear not that mischance only, but all such dangers whatsoever. *Burton.*

SAND, a large village of Germany, in Franconia, on the Maine, near Zeil. It has 1500 inhabitants, who maintain themselves chiefly by making baskets and other plaited wares, of such neatness, that they are in request not only in Germany, but in Russia.

SAND-BAGS, in the Military Art, are bags of earth or sand, used in fortification.

The smaller sand-bags hold about half a cubical foot of dearth, and serve to be placed upon the superior talus of the parapet, to cover those that are behind, who fire through the embrasures, or intervals, which are left betwixt them.

SAND-BATH, in Chemistry. See CHEMISTRY.

SAND-BOX TREE, in Botany. See HURA.

SAND-EEL. See AMMODYTES.

SAND-FLOOD, in Agriculture, a term signifying the covering of land with sandy materials, either by winds or the overflowing of rivers. The first is a sort of disaster incident to the lands of Suffolk, and some other parts of the kingdom, which are sometimes covered with vast quantities of sand, rolling upon them like a deluge from sandy hills in their neighbourhood.

SAND-GAVEL, a payment due to the lord of the manor of Rodley, in the county of Gloucester, for liberty granted to the tenants to dig sand for their common use.

SANDA, a small island of Scotland, on the coast of the peninsula of Kintyre, near the Mull of Kintyre, and belonging to the parish of Southend. It is about a mile and a half in length, and half a mile in breadth, and is famed for having been the place of rendezvous for the Danish fleets, during their expeditions to the western coast. There are two small islands on the east side, well calculated for sheep pasture; and about a league to the south of it is a dangerous sunk rock, about a mile in circumference, called Paterson's rock. Upon Sanda are the remains of an old chapel, dedicated to St. Columba.

SANDA, a small island of the Hebrides, separated from Canna, which is 12 miles south-west of Skye, by a narrow strait, covered at high water. It is of a tolerable soil, and possesses a good harbour.

SANDA, a town of Hindostan, province of Sinde, situated on the south bank of the Goonee river. It is a large and populous town, and the country in the vicinity well cultivated. Lat. 25. 6. N. long. not ascertained.

SANDABADA, in Ancient Geography, the name of one of the rivers of India which discharged themselves into the Indus. *Ptolemy.*

SANDAKAN BAY, a bay on the east coast of the island of Borneo. Lat. 5. 42. N. long. 118. 20. E. Opposite to it is an assemblage of islands, the most easterly of which is remarkable for the great plenty of green turtle.

SANDAL, *s.* [*sandalium*, Lat.; σανδάλιον, Gr.] A rich kind of slipper, worn on the feet, made of gold, silk, or other precious stuff, used by the Roman and Greek ladies; consisting of a sole, with a hollow at one extreme to embrace the ankle, but leaving the upper part of the foot bare.

Terence speaks of this sandal, "Utinam tibi commitigari videam sandalio caput:" *I wish she would break your head with her sandal.*

Apollo was sometimes called *Sandaliarius*, sandal-maker; the reason of which appellation has given great perplexity to the critics. Some derive it from a street called Sandaliarius, chiefly inhabited by sandal-makers, in which that god had a temple; but others, with more probability, derive the name of the street from that of the god, and take Apollo to have been thus called from his effeminate dress, as if he wore women's sandals.

SANDAL is also used for the shoe or slipper worn by the pope, and other Romish prelates, &c., when they officiate; being such as is supposed to have been worn by St. Bartholomew.

Alcuin observes, that there was some difference between the sandals of bishops, priests, and deacons. Monks were not allowed to wear sandals, except in travelling; as is observed by Du-Cange, Salmasius, &c.

SANDAL is also the name of a sort of slipper still worn by several congregations of reformed monks.

It consists of no more than a mere leathern sole, fastened with latches or buckles, all the rest of the foot being left bare.

The Capuchins wear sandals; the Recollects, clogs: the former are of leather, the latter of wood.

SANDAL, a hamlet of England, West Riding of Yorkshire, near Doncaster.

SANDAL-BRICKS. See BRICK.

SANDAL-WOOD, in Botany. See SANTALUM and SIRIUM.

SANDAL, GREAT, a parish of England, West Riding of Yorkshire, where is a handsome church, and the remains of a castle, anciently belonging to the earls of Warren; 2 miles from Walefield, and 185 from London. Population 2458.

SANDAL, KIRK, a parish of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles north-east of Doncaster.

SANDALARIUM, or SANDALARIUS VICUS, in Ancient Geography, the fourth quarter of Rome, in which was a temple of Apollo, built by Augustus.

SANDALIGERULI, among the Ancients, servants whose business it was to carry their masters' or mistresses' sandals.

SANDANAH, CAPE, the extreme of the high land that forms the north-east end of the island of Java, and the north entrance of Baly straits on the west and north-west side. Lat. 7. 46. S. long. 114. 35. E.

SANDAPELONES, among the Romans, a kind of porters, who were employed in carrying the bier called *sandapila*.

SANDAPILA, among the Romans, a sort of bier used for carrying out the corpses of people of low circumstances. It was not a bed, but a kind of wooden chest, made of a few boards nailed together, and was usually burnt along with the body.

SANDARACH, in the works of some of the ancients, a name by which the yellow matter collected on the legs of bees is called; others of them called it *erithace*, and some *ambrosia*. We usually esteem this to be wax; but the experiments of Reaumur, and others, evidently prove, that it is not real wax; though it contains the matter of which wax is to be made: it is only the farina of flowers, collected into lumps, and probably serves the bees as food; and after it has afforded them nourishment, suffers some change in their bowels, by which it is converted into the substance we call wax.

SANDARACH is also a native mineral; the same with what is by some otherwise called *realgar*.

It is sometimes also called *sandaracha Græcorum*, in opposition to the gum sandarach. Some distinguish two sorts of Grecian sandarach: the *natural*, which is the first above described; and the *factitious*, which is only cerusse exalted by the fire, and burnt into a kind of minium. Both the one and the other are deadly poisons.

SANDARACH, *Gum*, or *Sandaracha Arabum*, a resinous juice oozing out of the trunk and thick branches of several kinds of juniper, in the warmer climates, and particularly on the coasts of Africa, by incisions made in the heats of the summer.

This juice concretes into semipellucid, pale yellowish tears or globes, resembling mastich, but larger: the resin, thus formed, has a light agreeable smell, but no considerable taste; it dissolves in rectified spirits and in oils both expressed and distilled; but being nearly a pure resin, yields little or nothing to watery liquors.

The small or common juniper yields very little sandarach; but its fruit yields oils, waters, salts, spirits, and extracts of some repute in medicine.

The gum sandarach is an ingredient in varnish, and hence has been called *vernix*. With this, melted in oil of turpentine, is made the factitious varnish now used by painters and cabinet-makers. It is also reduced into an impalpable powder, called pounce, used to prevent paper from imbibing ink.

Gum sandarach has been sometimes given internally in diarrhœas and hæmorrhages, its dose being from ten grains to half a drachm. Now it is hardly ever used for any medicinal purposes.

The best is in fine white tears, free of dust; the English, Swedes, &c. drive a considerable trade with it.

SANDARLIE, a small town on the western coast of Asia Minor, near the head of a bay called the gulf of Sandarlie; 10 miles north-north-west of Smyrna.

SANDARUS, the original name of the gum, which later ages have, by corruption of the name, called *sandarax*, or *sandaracha*. The latter name is peculiarly improper, as it confounds this innocent gum with a poisonous mineral of the arsenic or orpiment kind. See SANDARACH.

SANDAU, a small town in the north-west of Bohemia; 39 miles north-west of Pilsen, and 79 west of Prague. Population 800. In the neighbourhood are mines of cobalt, garnets, and topazes.

SANDAU, a town of Prussian Saxony, on the Elbe; 48 miles north-by-east of Magdeburg, with 1400 inhabitants.

SANDAY, one of the Orkney isles, about 13 miles from north-west to south-east, and varying in breadth from 1 mile or less in some places, to 2 or 3 in others, so that the whole surface does not exceed 19 square miles It is of an irregular figure, having many extended points, with bays running inland. Being low and flat, which prevents it from being seen at a distance, it is remarkable for shipwrecks. It is of a light soil, being everywhere mixed with sand; but when well manured, it produces as good crops as any island in the Orkneys. Of 12,160 acres which it contains, 1725 are in constant tillage, and tolerably fruitful. It lies to the north-east of the isles of Eday and Stronsay, from which it is separated by a channel from two to three miles broad. The surface is low and flat, particularly on the east coast, which not only renders the coast dangerous to mariners, but subjects the island to inundation from a spring tide, with a gale of easterly wind. It yields some grain of inferior quality for exportation; but the staple commodity is kelp, of which about 500 tons annually are manufactured. There are two harbours, at all times safe and accessible: viz. Kettleloft on the south, and Otterswick on the north, nearly opposite to each other, and separated by a plain. Large shoals extend a great way from the coast; and on them many vessels are shipwrecked. In January, 1806, a light-house was erected in the vicinity of Sanday, 100 feet above the level of the sea, which displays a strong revolving light every other minute. Population 1800.

SAND-BAY RIVER, a river of the United States, in the Illinois territory, which discharges itself into the Mississippi, between the mouths of Rocky and Illinois rivers.

SANDBEACH, or SANDBACH, a market town of England, in Cheshire, very pleasantly situated on an eminence near the little river Wheelock, which falls into the Dane, about 5 miles below the town. Here is a large ancient church, and a chapel for the Methodists. In this market-place were two square crosses, ornamented with various images, and a carved representation of the crucifixion, but these have been removed. This town was formerly famous for its malt liquor, and had also a considerable worsted yarn manufacture, but this trade has declined. The Grand canal passes not far from the town. Market on Thursday. Population 2311; 26 miles east of Chester, and 161 north-north-west of London. Lat. 53. 8. N. long. 2. 23. W.

SANDBLIND, *adj*. Having a defect in the eyes, by which small particles appear to fly before them.—My true begotten father, being more than *sandblind*, high gravel blind, knows me not. *Shakspeare*.

SANDE, a small river of Brazil, which enters the Toccantines.

SANDEC, one of the eighteen circles or districts into which Austrian Galicia is divided. It lies in the south-west of the province, on the borders of Hungary, and is watered by the Donajetz and the Poprad, the latter being the only river common to Galicia and Hungary. It is of a very irregular form, and contains 1400 square miles, with 195,000 inhabitants. Its surface is covered with small hills, which increase in magnitude towards the south; but it has no elevation that deserves the name of a mountain. It contains extensive forests, and the abundance of wood has been the cause of erecting a considerable number of glass-houses.

SANDEC, NEW, the chief town of the above circle of Austrian Poland, stands on the Donajetz; 160 miles west of Lemberg, and 44 south-west of Cracow. It contains 3700 inhabitants,

inhabitants, and has a high school. Old Sandee is a small place, about 6 miles farther north.

SANDED, *adj.* Covered with sand; barren.—In well *sanded* lands little or no snow lies. *Mortimer.*—Marked with small spots; variegated with dusky specks. *Johnson.*—Rather of a sandy colour, which is one of the true denotements of a blood-hound. *Steevens.*

My hounds are bred out of the Spartan kind,
So flew'd, so *sanded,* and their heads are hung
With ears that sweep away the morning dew. *Shakspeare.*

Short-sighted. *North. Grose.*

SA'NDEEL, *s.* A kind of eel commonly found at about half a foot deep under the sand, when the tide has run out.

SANDEL BOSCH, or SUNDANA ISLAND, an island in the Eastern seas, about 80 miles from east to west, and from 15 to 36 in breadth. Lat. 9. 35. to 10. 15. S. long. 119. 33. to 120. E.

SANDELWOOD ISLE, a large island in the Eastern seas, situated to the south of the island of Floris, about the 10th degree of north latitude. In length it may be estimated at 100 miles, by 30 the average breadth; but it has never been explored, and nothing is known respecting it, nor how it acquired its present name.

SANDEMANIANS, a modern sect that originated in Scotland about the year 1728; where it is, at this time, distinguished by the name of *Glassites,* after its founder, Mr. John Glass, who was a minister of the established church in that kingdom; but being charged with a design of subverting the national covenant, and sapping the foundation of all national establishments by the kirk judicatory, was expelled by the synod from the church of Scotland. His sentiments are fully explained in a tract published at that time, entitled, "The Testimony of the King of Martyrs," and preserved in the first volume of his works. In consequence of Mr. Glass's expulsion, his adherents formed themselves into churches, conformable in their institution and discipline to what they apprehended to be the plan of the first churches recorded in the New Testament. Soon after the year 1755, Mr. Robert Sandeman, an elder in one of these churches in Scotland, published a series of letters addressed to Mr. Hervey, occasioned by his Theron and Aspasio, in which he endeavours to shew, that his notion of faith is contradictory to the scripture account of it, and could only serve to lead men, professedly holding the doctrines commonly called Calvanistic, to establish their own righteousness upon their frames, inward feelings, and various acts of faith. In these letters, Mr. Sandeman attempts to prove, that faith is neither more nor less than a simple assent to the divine testimony concerning Jesus Christ, recorded in the New Testament; and he maintains, that the word faith, or belief, is constantly used by the apostles to signify what is denoted by it in common discourse, viz. a persuasion of the truth of any proposition, and that there is no difference between believing any common testimony, and believing the apostolic testimony, except that which results from the nature of the testimony itself. This led the way to a controversy, among those who were called Calvinists, concerning the nature of justifying faith; and those who adopted Mr. Sandeman's notion of it, and who took the denomination of Sandemanians, formed themselves into church order, in strict fellowship with the churches of Scotland, but holding no kind of communion with other churches. The chief opinions and practices in which this sect differs from other Christians, are, their weekly administration of the Lord's Supper; their love feasts, of which every member is not only allowed but required to partake, and which consist of their dining together at each other's houses in the interval between the morning and the afternoon service; their *kiss* of charity used on this occasion, at the admission of a new member, and at other times, *when they deem it to be necessary or proper;* their weekly collection before the Lord's Supper for the support of the poor, and defraying other expenses; mutual exhortation; abstinence from blood and things strangled; washing each other's feet, the precept concerning which, as well as other precepts, they understand literally; community of goods so far as that every one is to consider all that he has in his possession and power as liable to the calls of the poor and church, and the unlawfulness of laying up treasures on earth, by setting them apart for any distant, future, and uncertain use. They allow of public and private diversions so far as they are not connected with circumstances really sinful; but apprehending a lot to be sacred, disapprove of playing at cards, dice, &c. They maintain a plurality of elders, pastors, or bishops, in each church, and the necessity of the presence of two elders in every act of discipline, and at the administration of the Lord's Supper. In the choice of these elders, want of learning, and engagements in trade, &c. are no sufficient objection; but second marriages disqualify for the office; and they are ordained by prayer and fasting, imposition of hands, and giving the right hand of fellowship. In their discipline, they are strict and severe; and think themselves obliged to separate from the communion and worship of all such religious societies as appear to them not to profess the simple truth for their only ground of hope, and who do not walk in obedience to it. We shall only add, that in every church transaction, they esteem unanimity to be absolutely necessary. The sect is nearly, if not quite, extinct.

SANDEND, a small village of Scotland, in Banffshire, about 4 miles from the town of Portsoy.

SANDERAY, a small island of the Hebrides, in the district of Barray, annexed to the county of Inverness. It is about 5 miles distant from Barray, is 2 miles long and 2 broad, and contains about 9 families, or 50 inhabitants. There is a very large Danish dun on the east coast of the island. Lat. 56. 52. N. long. 7. 30. W.

SA'NDERLING, *s.* A bird.—We reckon coots, *sanderlings,* pewets, and mews. *Carew.*—See CHARADICUS CALADRIS.

SANDER-ROCEL, CAPE, a promontory on the south-west coast of Majorca. Lat. 39. 27. N. long. 2. 40. E.

SA'NDERS, *s.* [*santalum,* Lat.] A precious kind of Indian wood, of which there are three sorts, red, yellow, and green. *Bailey, and Dr. Johnson.* Sir Thomas Herbert mentions a white kind. Isles — rich in stones, and spices, and white *sanders. Sir T. Herbert.*

SANDERS (Nicholas), an English Catholic priest, who published, in 1571, his treatise "De Visibili Monarchia Ecclesiæ, &c." in which he contends for the superiority of the popes over general councils, and endeavours to maintain the highest pretensions of the Roman see. By Gregory XIII. Sanders was sent to Spain on a mission, and from this country he was induced, by the warmth of his zeal for the popish cause, to undertake a kind of military mission into Ireland, with the design of encouraging the Catholics who had taken up arms against queen Elizabeth. Government was too firmly fixed to be shaken by their efforts, and Sanders had the mortification to be a witness of their ill success and ruin. He was author of a work, entitled "De Origine ac Progressu Schismatis Anglicani, Lib. iii." which was published in 1585, at Cologne, and has been frequently reprinted in Catholic countries. He also wrote "De Clave David, seu regno Christi;" "De Martyrio quorundam tempore Hen. VIII. et Eliz.;" "The Life and Manners of the Heretic Thomas Cranmer;" and some controversial pieces.

SANDERSLEBEN, a small town of Upper Saxony, in the duchy of Anhalt Dessau, on the Wipper. Population 1600; 18 miles south-east of Quedlinburg.

SANDERSON (Robert), a learned English prelate, was born at Rotherham, in Yorkshire, in the year 1587. He was educated in the grammar-school of his native town, where he discovered considerable talents, and an uncommon share of diligence. In his 13th year he was sent to Oxford. Here he generally devoted eleven hours a day to close study, by which means he was enabled, at an early period of life, to go through a whole course of philosophy, and to obtain a most accurate and intimate acquaintance with all the most celebrated classical authors.

In the year 1625, Mr. Sanderson was chosen one of the clerks in convocation for the diocese of Lincoln; as he was also

also in all the subsequent convocations during the reign of king Charles I. Four years afterwards, he was installed into a prebend in the cathedral church of Lincoln. In 1631, he was appointed one of the chaplains to the king. During his first month's attendance at court in his new capacity, the king put to him many cases of conscience, which he was enabled to solve in a manner that gave his majesty entire satisfaction. At the end of the month, the king told him "he should long for next November, for he was resolved to have a more intimate acquaintance with him when the month and he returned." When the time arrived, it is said that the king was never absent from his sermons, and was accustomed to say, "I carry my ears to hear other preachers, but I carry my conscience to hear Mr. Sanderson, and to act accordingly." This sort of flattery, and his own interest, easily attached Sanderson to the royal cause; and, during the protectorate, he was deprived of his Oxford professorship, and fell into oblivion. On the restoration of Charles II. he was re-instated in his professorship, and in the canonry of Oxford; and very soon afterwards, he was nominated to the bishopric of Lincoln, and was consecrated in October, 1660, when he was upwards of 73 years of age. In the following year, he was one of the commissioners at the Savoy conference, and he had a principal hand in the alterations which were made in the liturgy. He died in 1663.

He possessed a very extraordinary memory, and could repeat almost the whole of Horace, and Juvenal, and Persius; and he was accustomed to say, that he took as much delight, when alone in the repetition of an ode in Horace, as others do in playing a tune on some instrument. He was held in high esteem among his contemporaries, particularly by the celebrated Dr. Hammond, who speaks of him in terms of peculiar commendation. His attachment to the church of England was sincere and zealous, but he was steadily averse from all harsh measures against the Puritans. His principal works, besides those already mentioned, are, "Physicæ Scientiæ Compendium;" "Sermons;" "Nine Cases of Conscience resolved;" "De Juramenti Promissorii Obligatione Prælectiones Septem;" "Discourse concerning the Church," in various particulars; "The History and Antiquities of the Cathedral, at Lincoln," published in Peck's "Desiderata Curiosa." *Biog. Brit.*

SANDERSON (Robert), an antiquary of considerable note. He was born July 27, 1660, at Eggleston-hall, in the county of Durham, and entered a student of St. John's College, Cambridge. He remained in the university several years, and was contemporary with the celebrated Matthew Prior. Removing to London, he afterwards turned his attention to the law, and was appointed clerk of the rolls, in the Rolls' Chapel. He contributed largely to the compilation of Rymer's Fœdera, and was exclusively concerned in arranging the three concluding volumes, from eighteen to twenty, which he successively dedicated to kings George I. and II.

In 1704, he published a translation of "Original Letters from William III., whilst Prince of Orange, to Charles II., Lord Arlington, and others, with an Account of the Prince's Reception at Middleburgh, and his Speech on that Occasion;" dedicating the book to Lord Woodstock. He also wrote "A History of Henry V." in the way of annals, in nine volumes, of which the first four have been lost, and the others still remain in manuscript amongst his papers. In 1714, he became a candidate for the place of historiographer to Queen Anne, and received a very handsome offer of assistance from Matthew Prior, at that time ambassador to the court of France. His success, however, was prevented by the change of ministry which succeeded on the Queen's death. On the 28th of November, 1726, he was appointed usher of the high court of Chancery, by Sir Joseph Jekyll, the Master of the Rolls. He died December 25, 1741, at his house in Chancery-lane, in the 79th year of his age, and was buried in Red-Lion-Fields. He left behind him several volumes of MSS., relating chiefly to history, and the court of Chancery, and including a transcript of Thurloe's State Papers. He kept a diary, in which he noted down, with minute attention, the slightest occurrences of his life.

SANDERSON'S HOPE, a cape on the coast of America, in Davis's Straits. Lat. 66. 20. N. long. 67. W.

SANDERSTEAD, a parish of England, in Surrey, which has a delightful and extensive prospect, on the north to Croydon, on the north-west to Harrow-on-the-Hill, and over some part of Buckinghamshire and Berkshire, also into Southamptonshire, and over Bansted Downs. In this parish is Purley, which was the seat of the famous Bradshaw, who presided at the trial of Charles I. It was also lately the residence of John Horne Tooke, where he wrote his celebrated work, called "The Diversions of Purley."

SANDEVER, or SANDIVER, called also the *gall* and the *axungia of glass*, is the recrement of glass; or the white porous scum or sediment that arises in large crucibles employed in the manufacture of glass.

This substance appears to be a confused mass, consisting of all those salts contained in common alkalies, which readily melt at somewhat less than a glass-making heat, and are either naturally considerably volatile, or have little, if any, affinity for silex, and do not unite in the composition of glass, but being superficially lighter, rise to the top. There is another heterogeneous substance also, called sandiver, which sometimes is found at the bottom of the pots, and is taken out when the whole is worked off. The nature of this is very different from the other, and consists apparently of a vitrified mass of arsenic and earthy impurities.

It is reported by many authors of great credit, that this salt, in its genuine form, and no way differing from such as is separated from glass, is thrown out in great abundance in the eruptions of the burning mountains, and lies about in lumps of a spungy texture and great size, or in smaller solid ones, among the sciarri and ashes thrown out at those times. The more firm and solid pieces are the most pure, and are generally of a fine white; the others not unfrequently are tinged blueish or yellow, and have sometimes some of the melted matter of the sciarri blended among the mass, and filling up some of the cavities. In the catalogue of the specimens of substances thrown out of Mount Ætna in one of its eruptions, and sent as a present to the Royal Society, we find mention of several pieces of sandiver, but without any particular description. *Phil. Trans.*

SANDFORD, a hamlet of England, in Berkshire; 5½ miles east of Reading.

SANDFORD, a parish of England, in Devonshire, which contains several small villages; 2 miles north-by-west of Crediton Population 1720.

SANDFORD, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 2¾ miles south-south-east of Oxford.

SANDFORD, a parish of England, in Oxfordshire; 4 miles east-north-east of Neat Enstone.

SANDFORD, ORCAS, a parish of England in Somersetshire; 5½ miles north-east of Yeovil.

SANDGATE, a hamlet of England, in Kent, which is situated at the foot of a lofty and steep hill, a few yards from the sea. It is resorted to for the benefit of sea-bathing, and is accommodated with comfortable inns for that purpose. Here is a castle, erected in the reign of Henry VIII., which has a few guns mounted; and on the cliffs, several strong batteries were erected during the late war.

SANDGATE, a township of the United States, in Bennington county, Vermont. Population. 1187.

SANDHAMM, an island, fort, and harbour of Sweden; 10 miles east of Stockholm. Here all ships passing to and from the capital, are examined by the custom-house officers.

SANDHAUSEN, a village of the west of Germany, in Baden; 5 miles south-by-west of Heidelberg, with 900 inhabitants.

SANDHEAD, a village of England, in East Medina, Isle of Wight.

SA'NDHEAT, *s.* Warmth of hot sand in chemical operations.

SANDHILL BAY, a bay on the south-east coast of the island of St. Christopher.

SANDHOE, a hamlet of England, in Northumberland; 4 miles east-north-east of Hexham.

SANDHOLME,

SANDHOLME, a village of England, East Riding of Yorkshire, situated on the banks of the Coulney, north-east of Howden.

SANDHURST, a village near Bagshot, in Hampshire.—The Royal Military College, part of which is now established at Sandhurst, consists of a *senior* and *junior* department. The *senior* department was established at High Wycombe, in the year 1799, (but has since been removed to Farnham, in Surrey) for the purpose of instructing officers in the scientific parts of their profession, with a view of enabling them better to discharge their duty when acting in the command of their regiments, and at the same time qualify them for being employed in the quarter-master and adjutant-general's department.

No officer can be admitted into this department until he has completed the twenty-first year of his age, and actually served with his regiment as a commissioned officer for three years abroad, or four years at home. Applications for admission must be made to the governor through the colonel or commanding officer of the regiment to which the individual belongs. Every candidate, previous to admission, must undergo such examination as may be deemed requisite.

The students pay into the funds of the college such sum annually as is determined by the supreme board of commissioners. The present subscription is thirty guineas *per annum*. They are subject to the rules and discipline of the army, as if serving with their regiments.

The studies pursued at this deparment are as follows:—Mathematics in all its branches; fortification; gunnery; castrametation; military drawing and surveying; the reconnoitring of ground; the disposition and movement of troops under all the various circumstances of offensive and defensive war; rules for estimating the military resources of a country; and the German and French languages.

There are six professors in this department, viz., one mathematics, &c.; one fortification; two military drawing; one French; one German.

Public examinations on points of science are held half-yearly, in presence of the collegiate board, upon which occasion one or more members of the supreme board, not being members of the collegiate board, attend. Those officers who have gone through the regular course of studies, and have passed that examination by which they may be duly qualified for staff appointments, receive certificates thereof, signed by the board, and sealed with the seal of the college.

The *junior* department was first established at Great Marlow, in 1802, (but has recently been removed to Sandhurst, near Bagshot,) to afford a provision for the sons of officers who have fallen, or been disabled, in the service of their country; and the means of education to the sons of those officers who belong to any regular regiments. It consists of four companies, of 103 cadets each. They are admitted upon three different establishments, viz.:—

1st. Orphan sons of officers who have fallen or been disabled in the service, are admitted free of expense, except in bringing the first suit of uniform on their admission, and keeping up their stock of linen during their residence at the college. They are provided with board, clothing, and education, by the establishment, free of charge.

2d. The sons of officers actually serving in regular regiments of the line, who pay a certain sum *per annum* (from 10*l.* to 60*l.*) according to the rank of their fathers.

3d. The sons of noblemen and gentlemen, who pay 100*l.* *per annum* each.

Applications for admission must be addressed to the governor.—Every candidate previous to admission must pass an examination in Latin and English grammar, and the first four rules of arithmetic. No candidate can be admitted who is under thirteen years of age, or above fifteen.

There are examinations held monthly, which are conducted by the professors of the senior department, to ascertain the progress of each cadet, previous to his removal from one class to another. There are also public half-yearly examinations upon the same principle as those at the senior department, previous to the cadets receiving commissions from the college; and according to their proficiency in the course of studies, they have certificates of qualifications to serve in the army as officers, granted to them by the board of commissioners, in whose presence the examination takes place.

The studies pursued at this department are as follow:—Mathematics; fortification; military drawing; landscape drawing; history, geography, and classics; French; German; and fencing.

There are seven masters of mathematics; four of fortification; five of military drawing; three of landscape drawing; four of history, geography, and classics; six of French; one of German; three of fencing.

Gentlemen cadets are allowed to purchase commissions at any time during their continuance at the college; but no gentleman cadet can be recommended for a commission by private interest until he has made a certain progress in his studies.

SANDHURST, a parish of England, in Berkshire, near Blackwater, on the borders of Windsor forest.

SANDHURST, a parish of England, in Gloucestershire; 3 miles north of Gloucester.

SANDHURST, a parish of England, in Kent, near the Rother; 6 miles south west of Tenterden. Population 1012.

SANDHUTTON, a township of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 3 miles from Thirsk.

SANDHUTTON, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 7½ miles from York.

SANDIACRE, a parish of England, in Derbyshire; 9½ miles east of Derby. Population 495.

SANDING ISLES, PULO SANDING, or SANDIANG, two small islands, situated off the south-west coast of Sumatra, near the south-eastern extremity of the Nassau or Poggy isles, in which group they are sometimes included. They are both inhabited, and their only remarkable production is the long nutmeg, which grows wild on them; and some good timber, particularly of the kind known by the name of marbaw. An officer and a few men were landed here in 1769, with a view to the establishment of a settlement, and remained a few months, during which time it rained without cessation. The scheme was subsequently abandoned, as unlikely to answer any useful purpose.

SANDINI (Anthony), an Italian ecclesiastical historian, was born in 1692. Of his early life we have no account: by his talents he recommended himself to the patronage and esteem of his bishop, cardinal Rezzonico, who was afterwards pope, by the name of Clement XIII.; and through the same interest he obtained the posts of librarian, and professor of ecclesiastical history, in the university of Padua. He died in that city in 1751, in the 59th year of his age. He is known principally as an author by a work, entitled "Vitæ Pontificum Romanorum," which is highly spoken of as abounding in learning, and very curious researches. The best edition is that of Ferrara, in 1748. In the same year the bishop of Augsburg, landgrave of Hesse-Darmstadt, caused it to be printed, under the title of "Basis Historiæ Ecclesiasticæ." He also wrote "Historiæ Familiæ Sacræ;" "Historia S. S. Apostolorum;" "Disputationes XX ex historia Ecclesiastica ad Vitas Pontificum Romanorum," and certain "Dissertations," in defence of the "Historiæ Familiæ Sacræ."

SANDISFIELD, a post township of the United States, in Berkshire county, Massachusetts; 112 miles west-south-west of Boston. Population 1648.

SA'NDISH, *adj.* Approaching to the nature of sand; loose; not close; not compact.—Plant the tenuifolia's and ranunculus's in fresh *sandish* earth, taken from under the turf. *Evelyn.*

SANDISTON, a township of the United States, in Sussex county, New Jersey, on the Delaware; 11 miles north-west of Newton. Population 703.

SANDIUS (Christopher), known under the name of Van Den Sand, a learned Prussian Unitarian divine, was born at Koningsburg in the year 1644. He was educated

educated for the ministry, and removed from his native place to Amsterdam, where he died in 1680, at the early age of thirty-six. He was author of "Nucleus Historiæ Ecclesiasticæ," giving an account of the Arians; this work was first published in 1668, in two vols. 8vo. It was afterwards printed in an enlarged form, at Cologne, in 1676; and then in London, in 1681. His next work was published in 1671, entitled "Tractatus de Origine Animæ." And in 1677 he sent into the world "Notæ et Observationes in G. J. Vossium de Historicis Latinis," in which his great learning, judgment, and accuracy, are said to be very advantageously displayed. Among his other works may be mentioned "Centuria Epigrammatum;" "Interpretationes paradoxæ IV. Evangeliorum;" "Confessio Fidei de Deo Patre, Filio, et Spiritu Sancto, secundum Scripturam;" "Scriptura Sacræ Trinitatis Revelatrix:" and among the numerous manuscripts which he left behind him, a treatise was found, that was afterwards given to the world under the title of "Bibliotheca Anti-Trinitariorum, sive Catalogus Scriptorum, et succincta Narratio de Vita eorum Auctorum, qui præterito et hoc Sæculo, vulgo receptum Dogma de tribus in unico Deo per omnia Æqualibus Personis vel impugnarunt, vel docuerunt solum Patrem D. N. J. Christi esse illum verum seu altissimum Deum." "This curious work," says the biographer of Sandius, "presents us with a long catalogue of Unitarian writers, and of the works which they composed, nearly in the chronological order. Besides enumerating the productions of the respective authors, it gives an account of the different editions, of the translations of them which have been published, and sometimes of the occasions on which they were written." Annexed to the "Biblotheca" are several interesting documents, which throw a good deal of light on the ecclesiastical history of the Unitarians in Poland and Lithuania.

SANDNESS, a parish in the western parts of the Mainland of Shetland, united with Walls, Papastour, and Fowla, in forming a parochial district. Population 533.

SANDOMIR, a palatinate or province of the kingdom of Poland, according to the territorial division of 1815. It is bounded on one part by the Vistula, on another by the Pilica: the rest of the boundary is formed by the palatinate of Cracow. Its area is about 4700 square miles, with 448,000 inhabitants. Like the rest of Poland, it abounds in wood, and has extensive forests towards the middle. It has also several sandy tracks and marshes, but in general is of great fertility, and wants only a skilful and efficient cultivation to render it a flourishing country. The part lying towards the south-east, around the town of Sandomir, is remarkable for its fertility. This palatinate has also a greater variety of minerals than is common in Poland. It has no salt; but iron, lead, copper, and zinc, are found and wrought here.—Sandomir was also the name of palatinate in the old kingdom of Poland. It was of considerable extent, but in 1772, the part to the right of the Vistula was ceded to Austria, and has remained in her possession ever since.

SANDOMIR, a town in the south of Poland, on the Vistula, opposite to the influx of the San, and the chief place of the foregoing palatinate. In a remote age, before Poland had acquired much extension, this was the residence of the court. At present it is a poor place, the houses built of wood, the population only 2100. It is surrounded with a wall and moat; it has a gymnasium or great school; but its trade, notwithstanding its position at the confluence of two considerable rivers, is insignificant; 108 miles south-by-east of Warsaw.

SANDON, a parish of England, in Essex; 2 miles west-by-south of Danbury.

SANDON, a parish of England, in Hertfordshire; 5 miles north-west of Buntingford. Population 580.

SANDON, a parish of England, in Staffordshire; 4 miles north-north-east of Stafford. Population 480.

SANDORICUM, in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order monogynia.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, tubular, five-toothed, short. Corolla: petals five, lanceolate, spreading. Nectary: tube cylindrical, length of the petals, with a ten-toothed mouth. Stamina: filaments none; anthers ten, oblong, within the mouth of the nectary. Pistil: germ globular, superior. Style filiform, length of the nectary. Stigma thickish, grooved, ten-rayed; the rays recurved. Pericarp: berry (drupe) roundish, depressed, five-lobed, succulent, one-celled. Seeds five, large, convex on one side, angular on the other.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-toothed. Petals five. Nectary cylindrical, truncate, bearing the anthers at its mouth. Drupe filled with five nuts.

Sandoricum Indicum.—This is a tree with an ash-coloured bark, and the wood red in the middle. Leaves alternate, on long petioles, ternate. Leaflets petioled, roundish-ovate, acuminate, veined, quite entire, smooth above, ferruginous-tomentose beneath. Petioles tomentose. Panicle narrow, axillary, longer than the petiole, naked.—Native of the Philippine and Molucca Islands. The fruit is acid. It is called *Hantol* in the Philippine Islands.

SANDOWN, a village of England, in the Isle of Wight, situated on a bay of the same name. Here is a fort, which was erected by Henry VIII. to command the bay. It is a regular square, flanked by four bastions, and encompassed by a wet ditch; 2 miles south of Brading.

SANDOWN CASTLE. See SANDWICH.

SANDRART (Joachim de), was born at Franckfort, in 1606, and at the age of 15 went to Prague, where he was instructed by G. Sadelee, in engraving; but was advised by him to become a painter. He therefore placed himself with G. Houthorst, at Utrecht, and under his instruction acquired considerable power. He went to Rome and Venice, and at the latter place copied several pictures of Titian and P. Veronese. At the former, he was employed by the prince Justiniani and the cardinal Barberini, and after a long residence there returned to his native country. Towards the latter part of his life, he resided at Nuremberg, where he established an academy, and composed several works on art, particularly his lives of the painters, under the title of "Academia Artis Pictoriæ," in 1683. By this work, he is better known than by his paintings, which possess no striking degree of character. He died at Nuremberg, in 1688, aged 72.

SANDRIDGE, a parish of England, in Hertfordshire; 3 miles north-east of St. Alban's. Population 649.

SANDSTING, a parish of Shetland, united to that of Aithsting.

SA'NDSTONE, *s.* Stone of a loose and friable kind, that easily crumbles into sand.—Grains of gold in *sandstone*, from the mine of Costa Rica, which is not reckoned rich; but every hundred weight yields about an ounce of gold. *Woodward.*

The grains or particles of sandstone are generally quartz, sometimes intermixed with felspar or particles of slate. When the cementing matter is lime, such sandstones are called calcareous sandstones: frequently the cementing matter is oxyd of iron intermixed with alumine. The particles of sand in sandstones vary greatly in size, some being so minute as scarcely to be visible. In other sandstones, the grains or particles are of considerable magnitude. Geologists have generally admitted, that all sandstones have been formed mechanically, from the debris of pre-existing rocks, broken down and cemented together; but this opinion appears to have been too hastily formed. Some sandstones are highly crystalline, and the particles adhere closely without any visible cement: we have no more authority for considering such rocks to be mechanical formations, than we have for considering granite to be so, which is universally admitted to be the result of a crystalline process. In fact, some very small-grained granites differ little from sandstone; and amongst the rocks which have been classed as primary, there are some which alternate with a fine-grained granular quartz-rock, differing in no respect from some of the crystalline sandstones occurring among secondary rocks. Indeed, when we consider that quartz, felspar, and mica togegether, or two of these substances, frequently form fine-grained

grained granular rocks, there is no difficulty in admitting that quartz, or felspar alone, may form rocks of a similar kind, which is known to be the fact. The highly crystalline sandstone occurring amongst the rocks called secondary, may be classed with the preceding, and called crystalline sandstone. There are other sandstones which are, in a considerable degree, crystalline, but contain also fragments and water-worn pieces of other rocks: these must be regarded as partly of mechanical formation. The third kind of sandstones contains smooth rounded pebbles, and fragments united by a friable cement: such sandstones have evidently been formed mechanically from the sand and materials of former rocks cemented together. It might, perhaps, be proper to call such rocks tertiary, as some geologists have proposed. Sandstone is generally distinctly stratified, and some kinds which contain a considerable quantity of mica split into thin laminæ, which are used for slates in some parts of England, particularly in the West Riding of Yorkshire.

Siliceous sandstones frequently contain organic remains; but these are principally of vegetables, and the substance of the plant is entirely penetrated with silex.

Sandstone forms a very considerable part of rocks denominated secondary, and generally alternates with beds of coal and shale in coal districts.

The lowest of the principal beds of sandstone has been called by Werner, and the German geologists, the old red sandstone. It generally rests on rocks of slate or greywacke, and is covered by thick beds of lime-stone. It is frequently coarse-grained, consisting of particles of quartz, and sometimes of felspar, cemented by iron-shot clay, that gives it the red colour from which its name is derived. According to many geologists, the red sandstone, which extends on the western side of England, from Penrith in Cumberland to Shropshire, belongs to this formation.

The number and variety of sandstones in the secondary strata, are very great; and the diversity of quality fits them for the various purposes of building-stones, grind-stones filtering-stones, &c.

SANDTOWN, a village of the United States, in Gloucester county, New Jersey; 13 miles south-south-east of Philadelphia.

SANDTOWN, a township of the United States, in Rockingham county, New Hampshire; 29 miles west-south-west of Portsmouth. Population 504.

SANDVLIET, a small town and fortress of the Netherlands, in the province of Antwerp, on the Scheldt. Population 1100; 11 miles north-north-west of Antwerp.

SANDVOE, a bay on the north coast of the island of Shetland. Lat. 60. 53. N. long. 1. 47. W.

SANDUSKY RIVER, a river of the United States, in Ohio, which runs north-east into Sandusky bay, at the town of Sandusky, in Lat 41. 40. N. long. 82. 30. W. Length 70 miles. This river is navigable, and is connected with the Great Miami by a portage of 9 miles, and with the Scioto by one of 4 miles. The river has rapids, below which there is a very valuable fishery. Bordering upon this river are the Sandusky Plains, which are extensive tracks of champaign and almost perfectly level country, a great part of which is destitute of trees, and in the summer covered with grass five or six feet high.

SANDUSKY, a town of the United States, in Huron county, Ohio, on the south shore of Sandusky bay; 3 miles from its entrance; 25 miles north-east of Fort Stephenson. It was handsomely laid out in 1817, on a beautiful situation; and a steam-boat wharf has been erected.

SANDUSKY, Lower, a township of the United States in Ohio, on the river Sandusky, a few miles from its mouth; 115 miles north of Columbus.

SANDUSKY, Upper, a post township of the United States, in Delaware county, Ohio, on the river Sandusky; 40 miles south of Lower Sandusky.

SANDUSKY LAKE, or Bay, at the south-western side of Lake Erie; 20 miles long, and 24 broad, is a gulf shaped like a shoe, and entered from the lake by a very short and narrow strait. From the north-west part of this lake there is a passage of only a mile and a quarter to Portage river, a small river which runs into Lake Erie. The fort stands opposite to the gulf. Lat. 41. 51. N. long. 83. 3. 30. W.

SANDWICH, a market, borough, and sea-port town of England, in the county of Kent, one of the Cinque Ports, and formerly a place of considerable trade and business, but now much decayed, on account of the choaking up of its harbour with sand. It stands on the river Stour, about two miles from the coast, where that river falls into the sea between the North and South Foreland. The situation, and the country to a considerable distance around the town, is extremely low and flat. The town is very irregularly built, and has the appearance of greater age than any other town perhaps in the county. The streets and lanes are mostly narrow and incommodious; but considerable improvements have taken place under the act of 1787, for new paving, lighting, and cleansing them. Great part of the walls of the town still remain, and, till of late years, five gates of entrance were standing also, which have now, however, been all pulled down, except the Fisher-gate opening towards the water. Near it is the bridge, with a drawbridge in the centre. Sandwich contains three parish churches, viz., St. Clement's, St. Peter's, and St. Mary's, corresponding to the three parishes into which it is divided. St. Clement's is a spacious building, consisting of a nave, chancel, and aisles, with a massive tower of Norman architecture, rising from four semicircular arches in the centre of the building, and supported on strong piers. The nave is separated from the aisles by pointed arches, and has a cieling of oak planks. St. Peter's church appears to be the work of different periods; part of it is of considerable antiquity; but the tower and south aisle having fallen down in 1661, were rebuilt soon after that period, chiefly with the old materials. St. Mary's church is a large building, consisting of a nave, chancel, and north aisle: the south aisle has been destroyed. Southward of this church formerly stood a chapel, dedicated to St. Jacob, or rather perhaps St. James: it is now demolished, but the cemetery continues to be used as a burial place. Sandwich had formerly a priory on a large scale, which was suppressed in the reign of Henry VIII. Two of the hospitals, St. Thomas's and St. Bartholomew's, still remain. The latter was founded in the 12th century. The buildings belonging to it occupy a large plot of ground, of a triangular form, and are adapted to accommodate 16 residents. Of the other public buildings in the town, the guild-court hall was built in 1679, and consists of two stories, the lower of which is the court hall, and the upper the council chamber. The free grammar school was founded by subscription in the reign of Elizabeth, chiefly through the exertions of Sir Robert Manwood, then recorder of Sandwich, and afterwards chief baron of the exchequer, who bequeathed to it a considerable endowment in lands, for its perpetual support. Several other individuals have contributed large donations for the same purpose. Sandwich has also a charity school, founded about the year 1711, in which 30 boys and a like number of girls are educated. The town is supplied with water from the Stour, and a small stream which is conveyed into the town by a canal about three miles long, called the Delf, which was formed under letters patent of Edward I. In sinking, however, into the ground, in all parts round the town, a plentiful stream of fine water rises from under a stratum of flint, 40 or 50 feet deep. Though the haven of Sandwich has much declined, and is now little more than the outlet of the Stour, the exports and imports are considerable. The exports consist of corn, grain, flour, seeds, hops, wool, malt, apples, pears, leather, oak-bark, ashes, &c. The imports are grocery, furniture, linen, woollen, and other shop goods from London; iron, plank, spars, timber, lead, coals, salt, wine, spirits, glass, grindstones, &c. from Wales, Scotland, Sweden, Norway, and the Baltic. Ship-building, rope-making, &c. are carried on in the town. Sandwich was first incorporated by Edward III. by the style of the mayor, jurats, and commonalty of the town and port of Sandwich. The charter under

under which it is now governed was granted by Charles II. The corporation consists of a mayor, 12 jurats, 24 common-councilmen, a steward, recorder, town-clerk, and inferior officers. All the principal elections, decrees, and ordinaries, are made by the whole corporate body, at a common assembly convened by the sound of a brass horn of great antiquity. Two regular and fixed common assemblies are held annually, to elect the mayor and officers; all other meetings of the corporation are held at the pleasure of the mayor. The court of general session and jail delivery sat here formerly quarterly, but now only half-yearly. Sandwich, as one of the Cinque Ports, sends two members to Parliament, usually styled barons, and has enjoyed this privilege since the 42d of Edward III. The right of election is vested in the mayor, jurats, and freemen resident, and also non-resident provided they receive no alms. The number of voters is about 850, and the mayor is the returning officer. As a Cinque Port, Sandwich has the following members belonging to it:—Fordwich, Ramsgate, Reculver, Sarre, Stonar, and Walmer. It is a place of great antiquity, and seems to have arisen from the decay of the Pontus Rutupensis, in the fifth and sixth century, from which period it gradually advanced in importance. In the reign of Edward IV. it had become of such consequence, that that monarch caused the town to be new walled, ditched, and fortified with bulwarks, against the invasions of the French and other enemies, from whom it had greatly suffered. The town had then 95 ships belonging to it, and 1500 sailors; and the crown drew from the customs 16,000*l.* or 17,000*l.* a-year. In the reign of Henry VII., however, the harbour began to be blocked up; the evil was greatly augmented in the following reign, by the sinking at the mouth of it, of a large vessel; and all the attempts which were subsequently made to improve it, failed of their effect, so that the haven was never afterwards capable of admitting any vessels but those of small burden. The settlement here, however, of a colony of Flemish manufacturers, in the reign of Elizabeth, proved a new source of prosperity to the town, and contributed greatly to prevent the total decline which the loss of the haven threatened to occasion. About 13 years after their arrival, the queen made a visit to the town, to inspect the manufactories, and continued here three days. Subsequently, however, this business declined, and the descendants of the Dutch and Walloon manufacturers, though they still remained here, discontinued their manufactures, and mixed with the rest of the inhabitants in the general occupations of the town. Population returns, according to the Act of 1811, 2735. Houses, 517. Market on Wednesday and Saturday; 13 miles east of Canterbury, and 67 east-by-south of London. Lat. 51. 16. N. long. 1. 20. W.

SANDWICH, a town of Lower Canada, situated on the river Detroit, and containing about 100 houses, a church, and jail. There are some wharfs along the river side, where vessels may be safely laid up during the winter; it is 14 miles north of Amherstburgh.

SANDWICH, a township of the United States, in Strafford county, New Hampshire, north of Squam lake. Population 2232. In the north part of the township there is a mountain near 3000 feet high.

SANDWICH a township of the United States, in Barnstable county, Massachusetts, on Barnstable bay; 54 miles south-south-east of Boston. Population 2382.

SANDWICH, a small river of the United States, at the bottom of Barnstable bay, in Barnstable county, Massachusetts.

SANDWICH BAY, a large bay on the east coast of the island of Georgia, in the South Atlantic ocean, which lies between Cooper's isle and Cape Charlotte.

SANDWICH, CAPE, a cape on the north-east coast of New Holland. Lat. 18. 28. S. long. 2. 13. 45. W.

SANDWICH ISLANDS, a cluster of islands in the Pacific Ocean, discovered by Captain Cook and Captain King in the year 1778, and which the latter navigator, after having visited them again in 1779, thus describes:—This group consists of eleven islands, extending in latitude from 18. 54. to 22. 15. N. and in longitude from 199. 36. to 205. 6. E. They are called by the natives, 1. Owhyhee; 2. Mowhee; 3. Ranai or Orania; 4. Morotinnee, or Morokinnee; 5. Kahourowee, or Tahoorowa; 6. Morotoi, or Morokoi; 7. Woahoo, or Oahoo; 8. Atooi, Atowi, or Towi, and sometimes Kowi; 9. Neheehow, or Oneeheow; 10, Oreehoua, or Reehoua; and 11. Tahoora: and are all inhabited, excepting Morotinnee and Tahoora. Besides the islands above enumerated, we were told by the Indians that there is another, called Modoopapapa, or Kamodoopapapa; lying to the west-south-west of Tahoora, which is low and sandy, and visited only for the purpose of catching turtle, and sea-fowl; and as Capt. King could never learn that they knew of any others, it is probable that none existed in their neighbourhood. They were named by Captain Cook "The Sandwich Islands," in honour of the Earl of Sandwich, under whose administration he had enriched geography with so many splendid and important discoveries.

The latitude and longitude of the Sandwich Islands, and also the number of inhabitants contained in each of them, will appear in the following table:—

		Latitude.	Longitude.	Number of Inhabitants.
Owhyhee	North point	20° 17′	204° 2′	150,000
	South point	18 54	204 15	
	East point	19 34	205 6	
	Karakakooa bay	19 28	214 0	
Mowhee	East point	20 10	204 4	65,400
	South point	20 34	203 48	
	West point	20 54	203 24	
Morokinnee		20 39	203 33	uninhabited
Tahoorowa		20 38	203 27	
Ranai, south point		20 46	203 8	20,400
Morotoi, west point		21 10	202 46	36,000
Woahoo, anchoring place		21 43	202 9	60,200
Atooi, Wymoa bay		21 57	200 20	54,000
Oneeheow, anchoring place		21 50	199 45	10,000
Oreehoua		22 2	199 52	4,000
Tahoora		21 43	199 36	uninhabited

The climate of the Sandwich Islands differs very little from that of the West India islands which lie in the same latitude: upon the whole, perhaps, it may be rather more temperate. The thermometer, on shore, in Karakakooa bay, never rose higher than 88., and that but one day; its mean height at noon was 83. In Wymoa bay, its mean height at noon was 76., and when out at sea 75. The mean height of the thermometer at noon in Jamaica is about 86., at sea 80. Nor are they subject to the same dreadful hurricanes which desolate the West Indies. "During the four winter months (says Captain King) that we remained amongst these islands, there was more rain, especially in the interior parts, than usually falls during the dry season in the islands of the West Indies. We generally saw clouds collecting round the tops of the hills, and producing rain to leeward: but after they are separated from the land by the wind, they disperse and are lost, and others succeed in their place. This happened daily at Owhyee, the mountainous parts being generally enveloped in a cloud, successive showers falling in the inland country, with fine weather and a clear sky at the sea shore. The winds in general were from east-south-east to north-east, though they sometimes varied a few points each way to the north and south; but these were light, and of short duration. In the harbour of Karakakooa, we had a constant land and sea breeze every day and night. The currents seemed very uncertain, sometimes setting to windward, and at other times to leeward, without any regularity. They did not appear to be governed by the winds, nor any other cause that I can assign: they frequently set to windward against a fresh breeze. The tides are very regular, flowing and ebbing six hours each. The flood comes from the eastward; and it is high

high water, at the full and change of the moon, forty-five minutes past three, apparent time. Their greatest rise is two feet seven inches; and we always observed the water to be about four inches higher when the moon was above the horizon, than when it was below.

"The quadrupeds in these, as well as in all other islands that have been discovered in the South Sea, are confined to three sorts—dogs, hogs, and rats. The number of dogs in these islands did not appear to be nearly equal, in proportion, to those in Otaheite; but, on the other hand, they abound much more in hogs; and the breed is of a large and weightier kind. The supply of provisions of this kind which we got from them, was really astonishing: we were near four months either cruising in the harbour, or off Owhyee; during all this time, a large allowance of fresh pork was constantly served to both crews; so that our consumption was computed at about sixty puncheons, of five hundred-weight each. Besides this, and the incredible waste which, in the midst of such plenty, was not to be guarded against, sixty puncheons more were salted for sea store. The greatest part of this supply was drawn from the island of Owhyee alone, and yet we could not perceive that it was at all drained, or even that the abundance had any way decreased."

The birds of these islands are beautiful and numerous, though not various. There are four which seem to belong to the *trochili*, or honey-suckers of Linnæus. There is a species of thrush, with a grey breast; and a small bird of the fly-catcher kind, a rail with very short wings and no tail, which, on that account, we named *rallus ecaudatus*. Ravens are found here; but they are very scarce: their colour is dark brown, inclining to black, and their notes differ from the European. Here are also owls; plovers of two sorts, one very like the whistling plover of Europe; a large white pigeon; a bird with a long tail, whose colour is black, the vent and feathers under the wing (which is much longer than is usually seen in the generality of birds, except birds of paradise) are yellow; and the common water or darker hen.

"Their vegetable productions are nearly the same with the rest of the South Sea islands. The bread-fruit trees thrive here, not in such abundance, but produce double the quantity they do on the rich plains of Otaheite. Their sugar canes are of a very unusual size: one of them was brought to us at Atooi, measuring eleven inches and a quarter in circumference, and having fourteen feet eatable. At Oneeheow they brought us several large roots, of a brown colour, shaped like a yam, and from six to ten pounds in weight. The juice, which it yields in great abundance, is found to be an excellent substitute for sugar."

The inhabitants of the Sandwich Islands are undoubtedly of the same race with those of New Zealand, the Society and Friendly islands, Easter islands, and the Marquesas; a race that possesses, without any intermixture, all the known lands between the latitudes of 47° south, and 20° north, and between the longitudes of 184° and 260° east. They bear strong affinity to some of the Indian tribes that inhabit the Ladrones and Caroline islands; and the same affinity may again be traced amongst the Battas and the Malays. The natives of these islands are in general above the middle size, and well made; they walk very gracefully, run nimbly, and are capable of bearing great fatigue; though, upon the whole, the men are somewhat inferior, in point of strength and activity, to the Friendly islanders; and the women less delicately limbed than those of Otaheite. Their complexion is rather darker than that of the Otaheiteans, and they are not altogether so handsome a people; however, many of both sexes had fine open countenances: and the women, in particular, had good eyes and teeth, and a sweetness and sensibility of look which rendered them very engaging. Their hair is of a brownish-black, and neither uniformly straight, like that of the Indians of America, nor uniformly curling, as amongst the African Negroes, but varying in this respect, like the hair of Europeans. One striking peculiarity in the features of every part of this great nation, Capt. King does not remember to have seen any where mentioned; which is, that, even in the handsomest faces, there is always a fulness of the nostril, without any flatness or spreading of the nose, that distinguishes them from Europeans. It is not improbable that this may be the effect of their usual mode of salutation, which is performed by pressing the ends of their noses together. Instances of deformity are frequent among them. Squinting is also very common. Besides these particular imperfections, they are, in general, very subject to boils and ulcers, which are attributed, says Captain King, to the great quantity of salt they eat with their flesh and fish. The "Erees" are very free from these complaints, but many of them suffer still more dreadful effects from the immoderate use of the ava. Those who were most affected by it had their bodies covered with a white scurf, their eyes red and inflamed, their limbs emaciated, the whole frame trembling and paralytic, accompanied with a disability to raise the head. Although this drug does not appear universally to shorten life; yet it invariably brings on an early and decrepid old age. It was found, however, that by discontinuing the use of this root, the noxious effects of it soon subsided. The whole number of inhabitants cannot be less than 400,000. They appear to live in the utmost harmony and friendship with one another. The women who had children were remarkable for their tender and constant attention to them; and the men would often lend their assistance in the domestic offices, with a willingness that does credit to their feelings. It must, however, be observed, that they fall very short of the other islanders in that best test of civilization,—respect to the women. Here they are not only deprived of the privilege of eating with the men, but the best sorts of food are *tabooed*, or forbidden them. These people are distinguished by the hospitality and kindness which they exercised towards our voyagers. Whenever, says Captain King, we came on shore, there was a constant struggle, who should be most forward in making us little presents, bringing refreshments, or shewing some other mark of their respect. Their natural capacity seems in no respect below the common standard of mankind. Their improvements in agriculture, and the perfection of their manufactures, are certainly adequate to the circumstances of their situation, and the natural advantages they enjoy. "The eager curiosity with which they attended the armourer's forge, and the many expedients they had invented, even before we left the islands, for working the iron they had procured from us, into such forms as were best adapted to their purposes, were strong proofs of docility and ingenuity. Two instances were met with of persons disordered in their minds, the one a man at Owhyhee, the other a woman at Oneeheow. From the particular attention and respect paid to them it appeared, that the opinion of their being inspired by the Divinity, which obtains amongst most of the nations of the East, is also received here." Though the custom of eating the bodies of their enemies be not known by positive evidence to exist in any of the South Sea islands, except New Zealand, yet it is extremely probable that it was originally prevalent in them all. The sacrificing human victims, which seems evidently to be a relic of this horrid practice, still obtains universally amongst these islanders; and it is easy to conceive why the New Zealanders should retain the repast, which was probably the last act of these shocking rites, longer than the rest of their tribe, who were situated in more mild and fruitful climates. As the inhabitants of the Sandwich Islands certainly bear a nearer resemblance to those of New Zealand, both in their persons and dispositions, than to any other people of this family, so it was strongly suspected by Mr. Anderson, that, like them, they still continue to feast on human flesh, but this is clearly not the case.

The inhabitants of these islands differ from those of the Friendly isles, in suffering, almost universally, their beards to grow. There were indeed a few, amongst whom was the old king, that cut it off entirely, and others that wore it only on the upper lip. Both sexes wear necklaces, made of strings of small variegated shells; and an ornament, in the form of the handle of a cup, about two inches long, and half an inch broad, made of wood, stone, or ivory, finely polished, which

which is hung about the neck by fine threads of twisted hair, doubled sometimes a hundred fold. Instead of this ornament, some of them wear on their breasts a small human figure, made of bone, suspended in the same manner. The fan, or fly-trap, is also an ornament used by both sexes: the most ordinary kinds are made of the fibres of the cocoa-nut, tied loose in bunches to the top of a smooth polished handle: the tail feathers of the cock, and of the tropic bird, are also used in the same manner; but the most valuable are those which have the handle made of the arm or leg bones of an enemy slain in battle, and which are preserved with great care, and handed down from father to son, as trophies of inestimable valuable. The custom of tattooing the body they have in common with the rest of the natives of the South Sea islands; but it is only at New Zealand and the Sandwich islands that they tattoo the face. There is also this difference between the two last, that in the former it is done in elegant spiral volutes, and in the latter in straight lines, crossing each other at right angles. The hands and arms of the women are also very neatly marked; and they have a singular custom amongst them, that of tattooing the tip of the tongues of the females. The dress of the men generally consists only of a piece of thick cloth, called the *maro*, ten or twelve inches broad, which they pass between the legs, and tie round the waist. This is the common dress of all ranks of people. Their mats, some of which are beautifully manufactured, are of various sizes, but mostly about five feet long, and four broad. These they throw over their shoulders, and bring forward before; but they are seldom used, except in time of war, for which purpose they seem better adapted than for ordinary use, being of a thick and cumbersome texture, and capable of breaking the blow of a stone, or any blunt weapon. Their feet are generally bare, except when they have occasion to travel over the stones, when they secure them with a sort of sandal, made of cords twisted from the fibres of the cocoa-nut. Such is the ordinary dress of these islanders; but they have another, appropriated to their chiefs, and used on ceremonious occasions, consisting of a feathered cloak and helmet, which, in point of beauty and magnificence, is, perhaps, nearly equal to that of any nation in the world. These feathered dresses seemed to be exceedingly scarce, appropriated to persons of the highest rank, and worn by the men only. The common dress of the women bears a close resemblance to that of the men. They wrap round the waist a piece of cloth, that reaches half way down the thigh; and sometimes in the cold of the evening they appeared with loose pieces of fine cloth, wrapped several times round the waist, and descending to the leg, so as to have exactly the appearance of a full short petticoat. The hair is cut short behind, and turned up before, as is the fashion of the Otaheiteans and New Zealanders. The food of the lower class of people consists principally of fish and vegetables, such as yams, sweet potatoes, plantains, sugar-canes, and bread. To these, the people of a higher rank add the flesh of hogs and dogs, dressed in the same manner as at the Society islands. They also eat fowls of the same domestic kinds with ours; but they are neither plentiful, nor much esteemed by them. The way of spending their time appears to be very simple, and to admit of little variety. They rise with the sun, and after enjoying the cool of the evening, retire to rest a few hours after sun-set. The making of canoes and mats forms the occupation of the erees; the women are employed in manufacturing cloth; and the towtows are principally engaged in the plantations and fishing. Their idle hours are filled up with various amusements. Their young men and women are fond of dancing; and, on more solemn occasions, they have boxing and wrestling matches. Their music is also of a rude kind, having neither flutes nor reeds, nor instruments of any other sort, except drums of various sizes. The following description is from Ellis's Tour:—" The musicians, seven in number, seated themselves on the sand; a curiously carved drum, made by hollowing out a solid piece of wood, and covering the top with shark's skin, was placed before each, which they beat with the palm or fingers of their right hand. A neat little drum made of the shell of a large cocoa nut, was also fixed on the knee, by the side of the large drum, and beat all the while with a small stick held in the left hand. When the musicians had arranged themselves in a line across the beach, and a bustling man, who appeared to be master of the ceremonies, had, with a large branch of cocoa-nut tree, cleared a circle of considerable extent, two interesting little children (a boy and a girl), apparently about nine years of age, came forward, habited in the dancing costume of the country, with garlands of flowers on their heads, wreaths around their necks bracelets on their wrists, and buskins on their ancles. When they had reached the centre of the ring, they commenced their dance to the music of the drums; cantilating all the while, alternately with the musicians, a song in honour of some ancient chief." Their songs, which they sung in parts, and accompanied with gentle motion of the arms, in the same manner as the Friendly islanders, had a very pleasing effect. —It is very remarkable, that the people of these islands are great gamblers. They have a game very much like our draughts; but if we may judge from the number of squares, it is much more intricate: it is called *konane*. The konane board is generally two feet long, and contains upwards of two hundred squares, usually fourteen in a row. It is a favourite amusement with the old men; and Mr. Ellis has known one game, commenced early in the morning, hardly concluded on the same day. Their cloth is made of the same materials, and in the same manner, as at the Friendly and Society islands. Their fishing-hooks are made of mother-of-pearl, bone, or wood, pointed and barbed with small bones, or tortoise-shell. They are of various sizes and forms; but the most common are about two or three inches long, and made in the shape of a small fish, which serves as a bait, having a bunch of feathers tied to the head or tail. Those with which they fish for sharks are of a very large size, being generally six or eight inches long. Their instruments of war are spears, daggers called *pahooas*, clubs and slings. The people of these islands are manifestly divided into three classes: the first are the *erees*, or the chiefs of each district; one of whom is superior to the rest, and is called at Owhyhee, *eree-taboo*, *eree-moee*; the second class are those who appear to enjoy a right of property, without authority; the third are the *towtows*, or servants, who have neither rank nor property. It is pretty clear that the government is hereditary; which also makes it very probable, that the inferior titles and property itself descend in the same course. The religion of these people resembles, in most of its principal features, that of the Society and Friendly islands. Their morals, their whattas, their idols, their sacrifices, and their sacred songs, all of which they have in common with each other, are convincing proofs, that their religious notions are derived from the same source.

The Sandwich Islands were thrice visited by Vancouver, in 1792, 1793, and 1794, who maintained the most friendly intercourse with the natives, was frequently on shore amongst them, and was, besides, on the best terms with Tamaahmah, one of their most powerful princes. He agrees with Cook in the superiority of the Sandwich islanders to the Otaheiteans, in agriculture and in manufactures. Their anxiety to learn the European arts and manufactures is extreme, and they generally let no opportunity pass for procuring instruction. In the course of their excursions through some of the islands, Vancouver and those who accompanied him, were astonished at the ingenious and laborious cultivation which they observed. It is remarked by Vancouver, in one of his excursions—" We found the land in a high state of cultivation, mostly under immediate crops of taro, and abounding with a variety of wild fowl, chiefly of the duck kind, some of which our sportsmen shot, and they were very fine eating. The sides of the hills, which were at some distance, seemed rocky and barren; the intermediate valleys, which were all inhabited, produced some large trees, and made a pleasing appearance. The plains, however, if we may judge from the labour bestowed on their cultivation, seem to afford the principal proportion of the different vegetable productions on which the inhabitants depend for their subsistence. The soil,

soil, though tolerably rich, and producing rather a luxuriant abundance, differs very materially from that of Matavai, or the other parts of Otaheite. At Woahoo, nature seems only to have acted a common part in her dispensations of vegetable food for the service of man, and to have almost confined them to the taro plant, the raising of which is attended with much care, ingenuity, and manual labour. In the several parts of its culture, the inhabitants, whether planting, weeding, or gathering, must, during the whole of these operations, be up to their middle in mud, and exposed to the rays of a vertical sun." In their agriculture, it is necessary to have an abundant supply of water for the irrigation of their lands; and in some cases, when they are above the level of the rivers which pass through them, they resort to the most ingenious contrivances, in order to distribute the necessary supply of water over the thirsty soil. On one occasion, while Captain Vancouver and some others were making an excursion through the country, they were astonished to see the lands so abundantly watered, not observing any stream from which a supply could be drawn. "As we advanced (he observes), a lofty perpendicular cliff presented itself, which, by rising immediately from the river, would effectually have stopped our further progress into the country, had it not been for an exceedingly well-constructed wall of stones and clay, about twenty-four feet high, raised from the bottom by the side of a cliff, which not only served as a pass into the country, but also as an aqueduct, to convey the water brought thither by great labour from a considerable distance; the place where the river descends from the mountains affording the planters an abundant stream, for the purpose to which it is so advantageously applied. This wall, which did no less credit to the mind of the projector than to the skill of the builder, terminated the extent of our walk; from whence we returned through the plantations, whose highly improved state impressed us with a very favourable opinion of the industry and ingenuity of the inhabitants." These islands, since they were first visited by Captain Cook, have been involved in a series of most destructive wars, in consequence of the struggles of rival chiefs, for the undivided sovereignty of the whole. These contests, and the spirit of ambition in which they originated, have been greatly promoted by the possession of fire-arms and gunpowder, with which they have been supplied by European traders, in lieu of refreshments. Vancouver made use of all his influence, and every persuasion in his power, to induce these rival chiefs to suspend their animosities, and conclude a general peace; but he found their demands so ambitious and exorbitant, as to preclude all chance of accommodation. The result of these contests threw the chief dominion into the hands of Tamaahmah, whose vigour and sagacity improved all his advantages, and soon gave him a prospect of acquiring that universal dominion to which his ambition had anxiously directed him.

This Tamaahmah was a very intelligent sovereign. With the assistance of Young and Davies, two Englishmen, who were found settled in the island by Vancouver, he encouraged his subjects to prosecute with vigour and perseverance, all the most useful European trades, and he procured American and European artificers about him of every description. He was thus enabled to increase his navy, a favourite object with him. It was only in 1794 that Vancouver laid down the keel of Tamaahmah's first vessel; but so effectually had he applied himself to the establishment of a naval force, that when Captain Turnbull was at the island in 1802, he had upwards of 20 vessels of different sizes, from 25 to 70 tons; some of them were copper bottomed. His palace was built after the European style, of brick, had glazed windows, and was defended by a battery of ten guns. He had also between 200 and 300 body guards to attend him, independently of a numerous retinue of chiefs, who are required to accompany him in all his journies and expeditions. His body guards, who may be considered in some respects as regularly disciplined troops, went on duty not unfrequently with the drum and fife, and relieved each other as in Europe, calling out, "all is well" at every half hour, as on board of ship. Their uniform at this time was simply a blue great coat, with yellow facings. He was very attentive to trade; but his subjects were held in the most abject submission. Some convicts from Botany Bay having effected their escape to the Sandwich Islands, were encouraged by Tamaamah, on account of the services which they rendered him. Having contrived, however, to extract a sort of spirit from the sugar-cane which they raised, they began to indulge in licentiousness and quarrelling. Tamaahmah, finding that his work was interrupted by these riots, made some remonstrances on the subject, which not producing the desired effect, he gave them to understand that any future rioting or quarreling would draw upon them vengeance and punishment, and in this manner he soon reduced them to more orderly habits. So bent was this Indian chief on the pursuit of political greatness, that, though he was at one time strongly addicted to drunkenness, yet on the remonstrances of Young and Davies, the two English seamen who were residents on these islands, and had acquired his confidence, he gave up all excess, and practised ever after the greatest moderation.

The navy of Tamaahmah not only secured to him a decided superiority over the frail canoes of his neighbours, but the means of transporting his warriors to distant parts. Some of his vessels were employed as transports in conveying provisions from one island to another, to supply his warriors; while his largest were used as men of war, and occasionally mounted with a few light guns. The Sandwich islanders in the territories of Tamaahmah, frequently made voyages to the north-west coast of America, and thereby acquired sufficient property to make themselves easy and comfortable, as well as respectable among their countrymen. The canoes of the Sandwich Islands far surpassed any that captain Turnbull had seen in other parts of the world, not only in solidity and strength, but in the neatness and skill of workmanship. These canoes were so well calculated for speed, that the natives can work them along with their short paddles, at the rate of 11 or 12 miles an hour, and fairly run them under water. Turnbull remarks, "Though they have these excellent canoes in abundance, the natives, both men and women, often dispense with the use of them, and swim to vessels approaching the island, with no other support than a thin feather-edged slice of wood; with these they play a thousand tricks, tumbling and plunging under water, then rising to the surface, and plunging again, like so many inhabitants of the deep. Their fondness for the water is indeed singular. They may at times be seen extended and lolling indolently on the surface for the whole day, without any occupation, and as much at their ease as if it was their native element. Instances are very rare of a Sandwich islander being drowned; and their boldness and dexterity in diving is perhaps unrivalled in any part of the world. Some of them, who were employed by Captain Turnbull to assist in certain operations in the ship, would dive in fifteen fathoms water, and clear the cable, however entangled in the pointed rocks at the bottom. Mr. Young, the English resident in the island, mentioned that Tamaahmah, in the early part of his career, being one day on board a vessel, requested an anvil of the captain, an article of which he stood in great need. To have a specimen of the spirit and skill of the natives, Tamaahmah was told that he should have one, on condition that his divers should bring it up from the depth of ten fathoms. To this he instantly agreed, and the anvil was thrown into the sea. Tamaahmah immediately sent some of his people down after it, expecting to raise it without difficulty; but they found it somewhat too heavy. Unwilling, however, to abandon so great a treasure, they continued their efforts, and after long and repeated exertions, succeeded in rolling the anvil along the bottom of the sea, for about half a mile, relieving each other alternately till they gained the beach, and were received by their countrymen with the loudest applause. These, and similar exertions, although never declined by the divers, are often attended with dangerons consequences to their health. On their re-appearing on the surface, their faces are greatly swelled,

swelled, their eyes red and much inflamed, and blood discharges profusely from their nose and ears. In a short time, however, they recover their usual state, and are ready to repeat the same exertion, and incur the same or greater injury."

The recent visit of Tamaahmah, king of the Sandwich Islands, his gracious reception at our court, and subsequent unfortunate death, are matters still, no doubt, fresh in the recollection of our readers. This excellent prince was succeeded by his nephew Riho-riho, who is accordingly the present king.

SANDWICH ISLAND, an island in the Eastern seas, opposite to the island of New Ireland. It is not considerably elevated, is covered with trees, and its general appearance is picturesque and pleasing. Lat. 2. 59. 26. S. long. of the most westerly point, 50. 54. 15. E.

SANDWICH LAND, a name given by Captain Cook to the most southerly land discovered in the South Atlantic ocean, otherwise called *Southern Thule*. Lat. 59. 30. S.

SANDWICK, a parish of Shetland, united to Dunrossness and Cumingsburgh.

SANDWICK AND STROMNESS, a united parish in Orkney, situated at the west end of the island of Pomona; 9 miles long, and from 2½ to 5½ broad, Population 3219.

SANDWITH, a hamlet of England, in Cumberland; 3 miles south-by-west of Whitehaven.

SA'NDY, *adj.* Abounding with sand; full of sand.

I should not see the *sandy* hourglass run,
But I should think of shallows and of flats. *Shakspeare.*

Consisting of sand; unsolid.—Favour, so bottomed upon the *sandy* foundation of personal respects only, cannot be long lived. *Bacon.*

SANDY, a parish of England, in Bedfordshire, where there is an extensive rabbit warren, the property of Sir Philip Monnoux, the produce of which is prized as the most delicate in the kingdom. Population 937; 3 miles north-by-west of Biggleswade.

SANDY, a town of Hindostan, province of Oude, and district of Khyrabad. It is remarkable that the soil of this place exactly resembles that of Sandy, in Bedfordshire; that both are celebrated for cultivation of cucumbers, melons, &c. In the vicinity of this place is an extensive lake, covered with water fowl during the winter season. Lat. 27. 18. N. long. 79. 58. E.

SANDY, a township of the United States, in Stark county, Ohio. Population 198.

SANDY, a river of North America, which falls into Lake Michigan, at the north end of Green bay.

SANDY BAY, a bay in the north-east coast of New Zealand, between North cape and Knuckle point.

SANDY BAY, a bay of South America, in the straits of Magellan. Lat. 53. 10. S. long. 72. 13. W.

SANDY BAY, a bay on the west coast of Newfoundland; 43 miles south of Point Rich.

SANDY BAY, a bay on the north coast of the island of St. Christopher's; 1 mile east-south-east of Diep Town.

SANDY BAY, a bay in the north-east part of Lake Ontario.

SANDY BAY, a bay on the east coast of Jamaica.

SANDY BAY, a bay on the north-west coast of Jamaica.

SANDY BAY, or Cove, a bay of the United States, on the coast of Massachusetts, north of Cape Ann. Lat 42. 41. N. long. 70. 38. W.

SANDY, Big, a river of the United States, in Ohio, which falls into the Tuscawara, in Stark county.

SANDY, Cape, a cape of the eastern point of Harvey's bay, on the east coast of New Holland. Long. according to Flinders, 153. 16. E. Lat. 24. 42. S.

SANDY CREEK, a township of the United States, in Mercer county, Pennsylvania. Population 327.

SANDY DESERT, an extensive and barren track of Hindostan, province of Gujerat, belonging to different chiefs. It was in this track that the army of the celebrated Mahmoud of Ghizne was nearly lost. After the taking of the temple of Diu, in the year 1025, one of the priests disguised, offered himself as a guide to the sultan; and having purposely led them into the heart of the desert, then boasted of his success, for which he was instantly put to death.

SANDY FORK, a post village of the United States, in Mecklenburg county, Virginia.

SANDY HALL BAY, a bay on the north-east coast of the island of St. Christopher, a little to the westward of Windward point.

SANDY HARBOUR, a port on the south-east point of the island of St. Lucia.

SANDY HILL, a post village of the United States, in Kingsbury, New York, on the east side of the Hudson. It is delightfully situated, just above Baker's Falls, and is a regularly laid out, well built, and very flourishing village. It contains a woollen manufactory, a court-house, a bank, an academy for young ladies, and about 80 houses. The courts for Washington county are held alternately here and at Salem; 50 miles north of Albany.

SANDY HILL POINT, a cape on the north coast of the island of Barbadoes.

SANDYHILLS, a village of Scotland; 3 miles east from Glasgow.

SANDY HOOK, a small island of the United States, on the coast of New Jersey, in the township of Middletown; 7 miles south of Long Island, and 25 south of New York. It was formerly a peninsula. Sandy Hook, or Point, forms a capacious harbour. Here is a light-house on the north point of the Hook, in Long. 72. 2. W. Lat. 40. 2. N.

SANDY HOOK, a post village of the United States, in Culpeper county, Virginia.

SANDY INLET, a channel of the United States, between two small islands near the coast of North Carolina. Lat. 34. 19. N. long. 77. 50. W.

SANDY ISLAND, one of the smaller western islands of Scotland. Lat. 57. 2. N. long 6. 27. W.

SANDY ISLAND, an island in the eastern seas. Lat. 10. 40. N. long. 112. 48. E.

SANDY ISLAND, a small island near the west coast of Sumatra. Lat. 17. 4. N. long. 100. 18. E.

SANDY ISLAND, a small island near the west coast of Antigua. Lat. 1. 50. S. long. 67. 37. W.

SANDY ISLAND, a small island near the south coast of Antigua; 1 mile south of Willoughby.

SANDY ISLAND, a small island in the Spanish Main, near the Mosquito shore. Lat. 14. 37. N. long. 82. 10. W.

SANDY ISLAND, a small island in the Indian ocean, near the eastern coast of Africa. Lat. 16. 40. S.

SANDY ISLAND, a small island in the Chinese sea, near the coast of Cochin-china. Lat. 12. 28. N. long. 109. 12. E.

SANDY KEY, a rocky islet near the south coast of Cuba. Lat. 21. 25. N. long. 81. 25. W.

SANDY LAKE, a township of the United States, in Mercer county, Pennsylvania. Population 403.

SANDY LAKE, a lake of North America, near the source of the Mississippi, about 25 miles in circumference. It has a number of rivers running into it, one of them entitled to particular attention, viz., the Savannah, which by a portage of three miles and three quarters, communicates with the river of St. Louis, which flows into the Lake Superior, at the Ford de Lac, and is the channel by which the north-west company bring all their goods for the trade of the Upper Mississippi. Game is very scarce in the neighbourhood, and the rigour of the climate is extreme. Lat. 46. 9. 20. N.

SANDY LAKE RIVER, a river of the United States, which falls into the Mississippi. It is large, but short, connecting the lake of the same name with the Mississippi, by a strait only six miles in length.

SANDY LICK, a river of the United States, in Pennsylvania, which runs into the Allegany; about 15 miles below Toby's creek.

SANDY POINT, a cape of the United States, on the north point of Nantucket island. Lat. 41. 22. N. long. 69. W.

SANDY

SANDY POINT, the south-east extremity of Massachusetts, in the United States. Lat. 41. 34. N. long. 69. 55. W.

SANDY POINT, a cape in the straits of Magellan. Lat. 53. 10. S.

SANDY POINT, a town on the south-west coast of the island of St. Christopher. It is a port of entry, and is defended by two forts, both near the town. Lat. 17. 27. N. long. 62. 45. W.

SANDY POINT, a cape of the Island of Tobago. Lat. 11. 6. N. long. 60. 37. W.

SANDY POINT, the south-east extremity of the Island of St. Lucia.

SANDY POINT, the south-east extremity of Antigua.

SANDY RIVER, a river of Canada, which runs into Lake Superior; 30 miles south of Cape Chaillons.

SANDY RIVER, a river of the United States, in Maine, which runs into the Kennebeck; 6 miles above Norridgewock.

SANDY RIVER, Big, a river of the United States, which rises in the Laurel mountains. Its sources interlock with those of Cumberland, Clinch, Kenhaway, Kentucky, and Licking rivers. It forms part of the boundary between Virginia and Kentucky, and runs north-north-west into the Ohio; 40 miles above the Scioto. It has a course of about 130 miles, and is 200 yards wide at its mouth.

SANDY RIVER, Little, a river of the United States, in Kentucky, which runs into the Ohio; 20 miles below Big Sandy.

SANDY SPRING, a post village of the United States, in Montgomery county, Maryland.

SANDYNESS, the northern extremity of the Island of Rum. Lat. 57. 3. N. long. 6. 18. W.

SANDYS (or, as it is sometimes spelt, Sandes, Edwin), a learned prelate of the church of England, son of William Sandys, Esq., a magistrate in the county of Lancaster, was born in the year 1519. He received his academical education at St. John's College, Cambridge, where he was admitted to the degree of B. A. in 1539, and to that of M. A. in 1541. In the following year he filled the office of junior proctor of the university. In 1547 he proceeded to the degree of B. D., and was soon after elected master of Catharine-Hall. In 1548 he was vicar of Haversham; and in 1549 he was presented with a prebend in the church of Peterborough, and took his degree of D. D. In 1552 he was nominated by king Edward to a prebend in the cathedral church of Carlisle; and at the death of that monarch in the following year, he was vice-chancellor of the university of Cambridge. On this event Dr. Sandys, who had been zealously affected towards the Protestant religion, took a zealous part in raising lady Jane Grey to the throne. He preached a sermon before the university, maintaining her right and title to the crown. He was desired by the duke of Northumberland and others, who heard it, and at whose desire it was preached, to print it, with which he readily complied; before, however, it could be written out, a change took place, which his friends thought required him to seek his safety by flight. But while others either fled, or readily abandoned their principles, he refused either alternative; and when he was desired to proclaim queen Mary in the market-place at Cambridge, he said it was so contrary to the opinions lately maintained by him in the pulpit, that he would not consent to act so inconsistently: the consequence of which was, that he was immediately stripped of his preferments, and it was resolved that he should be committed to the Tower. Of this resolution he was informed by Mr. Thomas Mildmay, one of the duke of Northumberland's party, who said, he was surprised that a learned man like Dr. Sandys could have spoken so unadvisedly, and still more, that he would not turn with the stream: to which the worthy doctor replied; "I have not yet learned to change without conviction, and shall not be ashamed of bonds. But if I could act as Mr. Mildmay acts, I need fear no bonds; for you came down against queen Mary, and armed in the field, and now return for queen Mary;—before a traitor, and now a zealous friend. I cannot with one mouth blow hot and cold after this sort." He was accordingly immured within the walls of the Tower seven months, and was then released from that prison, and sent to the Marshalsea. It was while he was in this situation that Wyatt came at the head of his insurgents to Southwark, and invited Dr. Sandys to join him with his company and counsel; but this he declined. Having been about two months in the Marshalsea, he obtained his liberty; but was nearly committed a second time, through the zeal of Gardiner, who was informed that Dr. Sandys was one of the greatest heretics in England, and one of the principal corrupters of the university. The doctor was apprised of the intentions of his enemies, and went to Antwerp, where he arrived in the month of May, 1554: from thence he was obliged to set off to Augsburg, to avoid the persecution of king Philip, who had given orders to apprehend him wherever he might be found in the territories over which he had any influence. At Strasburgh he was joined by his wife, whom he shortly after lost by a decline, as he did a child by the plague. Towards the end of 1558 he went to Zurich, where he resided several weeks in the house of Peter Martyr, with whom he ever afterwards maintained a friendly correspondence. Upon the death of the queen he returned to Strasburg, and from thence he came to England, where he arrived in January, 1558-9. In the following March queen Elizabeth appointed him one of the nine Protestant divines who were to hold a disputation with an equal number of the Popish clergy, before both houses of parliament, at Winchester. He was also chosen one of the commissioners who were selected to prepare a new liturgy, and to deliberate on other matters for the reformation of the church. In 1559 he was nominated to the bishopric of Carlisle, which he thought proper to decline; but accepted of that of Worcester, and was consecrated on the 21st of December. At this period Dr. Sandys was decidedly averse from the use of Popish habits; but finding the queen a great stickler for these, and for certain images, he submitted rather than lose her majesty's favour, and his own high preferment. On the bishop's first visitation in 1560, he was informed that several of the priests indulged themselves in licentious practices, which were generally scandalous to good morals. He therefore took occasion, in a sermon which he preached at the cathedral, to shew how necessary it was that priests should be allowed to marry. When, about the year 1565, it was determined that a new translation of the bible should be made, Dr. Sandys, on account of his great skill in the original languages, was one of the bishops who were appointed to undertake that work; and he had allotted to him the first and second books of Kings, and the first and second books of Chronicles. In the year 1570, upon the translation of Grindal from the bishopric of London to the archbishopric of York, Dr. Sandys was appointed by the queen to the vacant see, which he seemed at first desirous of declining, but which at length he accepted. In 1571 he was ordered by the queen to assist the archbishop of Canterbury in the ecclesiastical commission against the Papists and Puritans, the duties of which office he performed with great severity. He charged the Puritans particularly with sedition; and because they steadily justified themselves, he called upon his coadjutors to agree to their banishment from the city of London. He also laid claim to the superintendance of the Dutch church in London, which occasioned some uneasiness between him and the congregation. In 1576 he was translated to the archbishopric of York, which involved him in some serious disputes respecting the temporalities of the see, and in others with his successor, the new bishop of London, concerning the rents and dilapidations. In 1577 archbishop Sandys resolved to visit his whole province, in order, if possible, to put an end to all non-conformity. In pursuance of this resolution, he proceeded in the first instance to Durham, where the dean, Dr. Whittingham, was the principal person under the bishop, who had a secret and strong inclination to Puritan principles, and who had not been ordained according to the form of the English service book. Accusations were preferred against him;

him; but instead of answering them, he claimed his privileges, and insisted on the right of the church of Durham: he even denied the archbishop's power in visitation, upon which the archbishop, without hesitation, excommunicated him. Dr. Whittingham appealed to the queen, who appointed a commission to inquire into the merits of the case. Of this commission the president and another of the members were friendly to the Puritans, so that Whittingham escaped without censure. The archbishop was not at all satisfied that the matter should thus have terminated, and he made some other attempts to harass the object of his enmity, which created against the prelate a great degree of odium. His eagerness also to find out Papists, and prevent their pernicious designs, rendered him very obnoxious to persons of that communion. His life was thus rendered a scene of perpetual contention and warfare, in which he had of course numerous enemies, by whom many attempts were made to ruin his reputation and interest. One scheme, which was planned with this view, is thus related. In May, 1582, he slept at an inn in Doncaster, where, through the contrivance of Sir Robert Stapleton and other persons, his enemies, the innkeeper's wife was, in the middle of the night, and while he was asleep, conveyed into his bed. At the same moment, and according to a preconcerted plan, the husband rushed into the room with a drawn dagger, threatening to avenge an injury which he pretended to have sustained. By the disturbance, Sir Robert Stapleton was supposed to have been awaked, and coming into the room, and seeming to give credit to the charge, advised the prelate to satisfy the innkeeper rather than suffer such a report to be noised abroad. The archbishop protested his innocence. Admitting the fact, said the cunning Stapleton, still the credit of religion requires that the suspicion should not for a moment get abroad. The archbishop unwarily followed the advice, and was accordingly laid under heavy contributions for a considerable time. At length he, by some means, discovered the hypocrisy of Stapleton, and brought the affair into the star-chamber; and after a full examination of the business, he was declared innocent, and Sir Robert, with his accomplices, were sentenced to an imprisonment and heavy fines. He died, after a life of toil and trouble, in July, 1588, in the 69th year of his age. Several Letters, and other papers written by him, are inserted in Strype's "Annals," in his "Life of Archbishop Whitgift," and in Burnet's "History of the Reformation." In the year 1616, twenty-two of his discourses were collected together, and printed in a small quarto, under the title of "Sermons of the Most Rev. Father in God, Edwin, Archbishop of York."

SANDYS (George), a traveller and poet, born in 1577, was the youngest son of the preceding. He was educated at Oxford, and in 1610 set out on his travels, which, after he had visited the principal parts of Europe, he extended to Greece, Turkey, Palestine, and Egypt. On his return, he employed himself in digesting the observations which he had made, and which he published in 1615, in a folio volume. His descriptions chiefly relate to the Eastern countries, and to Italy. The book was extremely popular for some considerable time after it was published. In 1673 it had reached to the seventh edition. The author next distinguished himself as a poet. He died in 1643. He was regarded as an accomplished gentleman, as well as a man of great worth, learning, and ability. His chief works, as a poet, are "Ovid's Metamorphoses Englished, Mythologized, and represented in Figures;" to which was subjoined, "An Essay to the Translation of the Æneis." In 1636 he published "A Paraphrase on the Psalms of David, and upon the Hymns dispersed throughout the Old and New Testament." In 1640 he published "Christ's Passion," a translation of Grotius's sacred drama, "Christus Patiens." He was thought by Dryden and Pope to have contributed very much to the improvement of English poetry. He passed the latter years of his life chiefly with Sir Francis Wyatt, of Bexley, in Kent. He was intimately acquainted with the excellent Lord Falkland, who addressed some poems to him, which are printed in Nichols's "Select Selections."

SANDYX, a kind of minium, made of cerusse, or rather lead, calcined and rubefied; called also *factitious sandarach.*

It is little use in painting; the real minium, or red lead, to which it is substituted, making a much better, brighter, and more durable colour.

Though the generality of authors have taken this to be only a name for the fine red colour, some have plainly used it for a blueish-green.

Strabo tells us, that the colour used by painters in his time, and called *armenium pictorium*, was of a blueish-green colour, and that it was called *sandycis metallum* by some. Thus the word *zarnich* was made to express the same two things with the addition of the yellow orpiment; and Avicenna describes them altogether, telling us, that zarnich is yellow, red, or green. The two first of these colours are natural to zarnich, as the name of orpiment; and there is, indeed, a greenish zarnich now also known in the world, but that was unknown in his time; and we find that he meant the *lapis armenus* by the *green zarnich.*

SANE, *adj.* [*sanus*, Lat.] Sound; healthy. Baynard wrote a poem on preserving the body in a *sane* and sound state. *Todd.*

SANE, a small river of Prussia, in the province of Brandenburg. It falls into the Spree; 12 miles above Berlin.

SANFORD, a post township of the United States, in York county, Maine; 98 miles north-north-east of Boston. Population 1492.

SANFRE, or SANFRONT, a town of the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont, province of Alba, situated on an eminence not far from the Po. It contains 3800 inhabitants, and has a fine castle.

SANFY, in Agriculture, a provincial term signifying wet, as land in a rainy season; soft pulpy ground unfit for being wrought.

SANG. The preterit of *sing.*—Then *sang* Moses and Israel this song unto the Lord. *Ex.* xv.

SANG-FROID, *s.* [Fr.] Coolness; freedom from agitation.—He could with the most perfect *sang-froid* lock up this admirable piece in his desk, and wait with philosophic patience for a favourable season to produce it. *Sheridan.*

SANGA, a sea-port of Japan, in the island of Ximo, regularly built, with wide streets, and defended by a citadel; 40 miles north-east of Nangasaki.

SANGALHOS, a small town of Portugal, in the province of Beira, on the Agueda, containing 1000 inhabitants; 10 miles west-by-north of Aveiro.

SANGALLAN, or CAPE GALLAN, called Cangallan by the British seamen, is situated on the coast of Peru, north-north-west of the Island of Lobos, and 3 miles north-west of Carette Island. On the south side of the cape is a very good harbour, much frequented by the coasting ships from Panama and Lima. Off this cape the weather is very blustering and stormy.

SAN-GALLO (Antonio de), a celebrated architect, was born in the 15th century, in the territory of Florence. His father, Antonio Picconi, was a cooper by trade, and Antonio was brought up to the business of a joiner. Having, however, two uncles, Giuliano and Antonio San-Gallo, architects of considerable reputation at Rome, he placed himself under their tuition, and assumed their name. He soon exhibited considerable talents, and his progress in the arts made him known to Bramante, who, in 1512, entrusted to him the execution of several works. He soon obtained employment from some cardinals; and in the pontificate of Leo X., when his uncle Giuliano quitted Rome, he was appointed his successor as architect of St. Peter's, in conjunction with Raphael. He also manifested great skill as an engineer, and Leo adopted a plan which he gave for the fortification of Civita Vecchia. Under Clement VII. he was employed in enlarging and embellishing the Vatican palace, and in repairing the fortifications of Parma and Placentia. He is also celebrated for the construction of a remarkable well

well at Orvietto, which had two staircases for the descent and ascent of beasts of burden. He enjoyed the favour of Paul III., who employed him in many important works as architect and engineer; and when Charles V. visited Rome after his Tunisian expedition, San-Gallo had the planning of the triumphal decorations with which he was received. The Pauline chapel, and the magnificent staircases by which the chapels of the Vatican communicate with St. Peter's, were of his construction. The grandest effort of his genius was a wooden model of St. Peter's, which, however, was not closely followed. As he was noted for the solidity of his building, he was employed in strengthening the foundations of the Vatican, and of the great columns which support the cupola of St. Peter's. Being engaged by the pope to survey the inundations of the lake of Marmora, the heat and the exhalations from the foul water caused a disease, of which he died in the year 1546. *Gen. Biog.*

SANGAMA, a river of Western Africa, which crosses the country of Waree, and falls into the Atlantic, near Cape Formosa.

SANGAMAIN, a river of the United States, in Illinois, which unites with the Illinois, and is navigable for boats 150 miles.

SANGAMSERE, a town of Hindostan, province of Bejapore, district of the Concan, and situated on the banks of the Jaigur river. It has been recently taken from the Mahrattas by the British. Lat. 17. 11. N. long. 73. 15. E.

SANGANEER, a town of Hindostan, province of Ajmeer, district of Kotah. It is fortified by a strong stone wall and ditch, and garrisoned by the troops of the rajah of Kotah. The adjoining territory is desolate, having been frequently overrun by the Mahratta armies. One of the British detachments encamped at this place in January, 1818. It is situated near the upper part of the Chumbul river. Latitude not ascertained.

SANGAR, a town of Hindostan, province of Malwah, belonging to the Mahrattas. Latitude not ascertained.

SANGARA, a town of Hindostan, province of Bejapore, district of Nandere, belonging to the Nizam. It is situated at the junction of the Manzora with the river Godavery. Lat. 18. 49. N. long. 78. 12. E.

SANGARIUS, or SANGARIS, in Ancient Geography, a river of Asia Minor, which proceeded from mount Didymus towards Pessinante, in the borough of Sangarus. The Euxine commences to form a small gulf at the mouth of this river, the town of Heraclea being its other boundary. This river was famous in antiquity. It is mentioned by Livy and Strabo. According to Plutarch, it had borne the name of Xerabates. Venus had a temple or chapel on the banks of this river, with a statue of the goddess.

SANGAY, a mountain of South America, in Quito, and in the province of Quixos and Macas. It rises to the height of 16,122 feet, and its north side is constantly covered with snow. From its summit, flames, smoke, and metallic and calcined matter, are seen continually to burst forth, accompanied with astonishing explosions, which are sometimes heard at Quito, though 135 miles distant. The country adjacent to this volcano is totally barren, occasioned by the enormous quantity of stones and cinders continually ejected from the mountain.

SANGAY, a river of the same province and kingdom, which rises at the foot of the above mountain, from the melted snows, and uniting itself with the Upano, forms the Paira, which enters the Amazons with an abundant stream. —There is a settlement of the same name on its shores.

SANGAY, a river of Eastern Africa, which falls into the chaunel of Mosambique. Lat. 13. 22. S.

SANGBARAH, a town of Hindostan, province of Gujerat, belonging to the Guicowar Mahrattas. Lat. 23. 37. N. long. 74. 13. E.

SANGERFIELD, a township of the United States, in Oneida county, New York. It is considerable, and contains a printing-office, from which is issued a weekly newspaper.

SANGERSHAUSEN, a town of Prussian Saxony, in Thuringia, near the Hartz mountains. It is surrounded wit a wall, is neatly built, has saltpetre works, and some trade in corn. In 1758, a corps of Hessians was defeated by the French near this town. Population 3600; 36 miles north-north-east of Erfurt, and 44 west-by-north of Leipsic.

SANGIR, an island in the Eastern seas, between 36 and 40 miles in length, and between 10 and 15 miles in breadth. It is of an oblong form, extending in a direction north-north-west. It is broadest towards the north; towards the south it grows narrower, and has several good bays. It is surrounded by 40 smaller islands of various dimensions. From the sea the land appears high and well wooded; and the coast has better harbours, and is less dangerous from hidden rocks and shoals, than most of the Eastern islands. The country is well inhabited, and affords refreshments of various kinds, such as bullocks, hogs, goats, and poultry; and cocoa-nuts are in such plenty, that an oil is expressed from them and exported. Spices are also procured, with which a trade is carried on to Magindanao. The principal town and bay are about the middle of the west coast, and called Taroona, in Lat. 3. 28. N. long. 125. 44. E. The anchorage is within a mile of the shore, in 60 fathoms, near a small river or watering-place. There is also another town, called Tabockang, nearly opposite, on the east coast. On anchoring, the canoes come off in great numbers with goats, fowls, yams, cocoa-nuts, and various other fruits and vegetables, for which they prefer white metal buttons to any other commodity: of money they have scarcely an idea. This and the neighbouring islands abound with cocoa-nuts; a fathom of brass wire will purchase 100; an ordinary knife 300; and four knives, a ballet or 60lbs. of cocoa-nut oil, and other articles in proportion. Water is procured from the river, but must be rafted off, which requires great caution, as the tides run very rapidly near the island. The inhabitants are numerous, and appear mild and benevolent; many of them are habited like Chinese, of which it is probable there is a colony on the island. Besides Taroona and Tabockang there are many other harbours towards the south end of this island, along the middle of which runs a ridge of high mountains, terminated to the northward by a lofty volcano, from which there was a great eruption in 1711. Sangir was formerly under the influence of the Dutch, who had a small garrison here. By the exertions of the missionaries, who preached in the Malay tongue, and by the help of several black preachers, Christianity was propagated among the natives with considerable success. The population is estimated at above 12,000. Lat. 3. 28. N. long. 125. 44. E.

SANGRALOVE, a river of Brazil, in the territory of Matto Grosso, which runs south-south-west, and then turns west, to enter the Guapore.

SANGRO, a river in the south part of the kingdom of Naples, in the Abruzzo Citra, which falls into the Adriatic.

SANGUESA, a small town of the north-east of Spain, in Navarre, on the river Arragon; 25 miles south-south-west of Pampeluna, and 51 north-west of Saragossa. Population 2600.

SANGUIFEROUS, *adj.* [*sanguifer*, Lat.] Conveying blood.—The fifth conjugation of the nerves is branched to the muscles of the face, particularly the cheeks, whose *sanguiferous* vessels it twists about. *Derham.*

SANGUIFICATION, the conversion into blood of the materials which supply the losses experienced by that fluid in nutrition, growth, secretion, and the other vital processes to which it is subservient. The composition of animal bodies is constantly changing; their particles are subject to an incessant motion of composition and decomposition. The old materials are removed from them by the absorbents, and new matter is supplied from the blood by the capillary vessels. Various secretions and exhalations occurring constantly in many parts of the body, require a corresponding supply of new matter. The source of the supplies required for the purposes just specified is the food, which is converted by the action of the stomach, and small intestines, into chyle. This chyle, instead of being immediately applied to the nourishment of parts, &c., is conveyed into the blood; which,

which, therefore, is a common receptacle, receiving all the new matter, and furnishing all that is necessary for growth, nutrition, secretion, &c. The food of animals then undergoes a threefold change, being converted first into chyle, then into blood, and lastly into the various constituents of our frame. It is the second of these changes which constitutes sanguification; by virtue of which the blood, receiving on one side, and giving out on the other, remains always the same; that is, the same in external appearance and obvious properties; animal chemistry not being yet sufficiently advanced to detect the differences, which different kinds of food, and different states of the system, in all probability produce in this fluid.

What then is the nature of the process by which the white milky fluid, the chyle, and the transparent lymphs of the absorbing vessels, are converted into blood? What are the agents of this change? Does it occur in the large or small vessels? Is it produced by respiration, by the addition of any thing from the air, or the separation of any thing from the blood? We do not know. The process of sanguification is still a mystery, of which little has hitherto been unveiled.

SA'NGUIFIER, *s.* [*sanguis* and *facio*, Lat.] Producer of blood.—Bitters, like choler, are the best *sanguifiers*, and also the best febrifuges. *Floyer.*

To SA'NGUIFY, *v. n.* [*sanguis* and *facio*, Lat.] To produce blood.—At the same time I think, I command: in inferior faculties, I walk, see, hear, digest, *sanguify*, and carnify, by the power of an individual soul. *Hale.*

SANGUIN, a sea-port on the Grain coast of Africa, where the English had once a factory, and the Dutch carried on a considerable trade, but both have now abandoned it, in consequence of differences with the natives.

SANGUIN-TAL-GUIN, a lake of Chinese Tartary; 30 miles long, and 12 broad. Lat. 49. 8. N. long. 38. 36. E.

SANGUINARA, a small river of Italy, in the Popedom, Patrimonio di San Pietro. It falls into the Tuscan sea.

SANGUINARIA [from its bloody-coloured juice], in Botany a genus of the class polyandria, order monogynia, natural order of rhoeadæ papaveraceæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth two-leaved, ovate, concave, shorter than the corolla, caducous. Corolla: petals eight, oblong, blunt, spreading very much: alternately interior and narrower. Stamina: filaments very many, simple, shorter than the corolla. Anthers simple. Pistil: germ oblong, compressed. Style none. Stigma thickish, two-grooved with a streak, height of the stamens, permanent. Pericarp: capsule oblong, ventricose, sharp at both ends, two-valved. Seeds very many, round, acuminate.—*Essential Character.* Calyx two leaved. Corolla eight-petalled. Silique ovate, one-celled.

Sanguinaria Canadensis, Canadian sanguinaria, blood-wort, or puccoon.—Root tuberous, thick, fleshy, not unlike that of Tormentilla, placed transversely, with several slender fibres descending from it; of a reddish saffron colour, and yielding a juice of the same hue, from whence its name of Sanguinaria; this juice is bitter and acrid, and it flows also from the leaves and footstalks when cut. In the spring the root puts forth slender round smooth stems, pale green or brownish tinged with purple, each terminated by a little conical head, which expands into a white flower of eight petals, at first concave, then flat, and finally rolled back so as to be convex, marked with slender streaks. Filaments white with saffron-coloured anthers. Germ glaucous. —The woods of Canada and other parts of North America produce this plant in abundance.

Propagation and Culture.—This plant is hardy enough to live in the open air in England, but it should be planted in a loose soil and a sheltered situation, not too much exposed to the sun. It is propagated by the roots, which may be taken up and parted every other year; the best time for doing of this is in September, that the roots may have time to send out fibres before the hard frost sets in.

SA'NGUINARY, *adj.* [*sanguinarius*, Lat. *sanguinaire*, Fr. from *sanguis*, Lat.] Cruel; bloody; murderous.—The scene is now more *sanguinary*, and fuller of actors: never was such a confused mysterious civil war as this. *Howell.*

SA'NGUINARY, *s.* [*sanguis*, Lat.] An herb. *Ainsworth.*

SA'NGUINE, *adj.* [*sanguin*, Fr. *sanguineus*, from *sanguis*, Lat.] Red; having the colour of blood.

This fellow
Upbraided me about the rose I wear;
Saying, the *sanguine* colour of the leaves
Did represent my master's blushing cheeks. *Shakspeare.*

Abounding with blood more than any other humour; cheerful.—Though these faults differ in their complexion as *sanguine* from melancholy, yet they are frequently united. *Gov. of the Tongue.*—Warm; ardent; confident.—A set of *sanguine* tempers ridicule, in the number of fopperies, all such apprehensions. *Swift.*

SA'NGUINE, *s.* Blood colour.

A griesly wound,
From which forth gush'd a stream of gore, blood thick,
That all her goodly garments stain'd around,
And in deep *sanguine* dy'd the grassy ground. *Spenser.*

The blood-stone, with which cutlers sanguine their hilts. [*sanguine*, Fr.] *Cotgrave.*

To SA'NGUINE, *v. a.* To make of a sanguine colour; to varnish with sanguine.

I would send
His face to the cutler's then, and have it *sanguin'd*;
'Twill look a great deal sweeter. *Beaum.*

To stain with blood.

Nor you, ill *sanguin'd* with an innocent's blood!
Which my dear mistress' side so rudely rent,
Brothers in ill, shall 'scape your punishment. *Fanshaw.*

SA'NGUINELY, *adv.* With sanguineness; ardently; confidently.—Statesmen and beauties are very rarely sensible of the gradations of their decay; and, too, *sanguinely* hoping to shine on in their meridian, often set with contempt and ridicule. *Ld. Chesterfield.*

SA'NGUINENESS, or SANGUI'NITY, *s.* Ardour; heat of expectation; confidence.—*Sanguinity* is perhaps only used by Swift.—Rage, or phrensy it may be, in some perhaps natural courage, or *sanguineness* of temper in others; but true valour it is not, if it knows not as well to suffer as to do. That mind is truly great, and only that, which stands above the power of all extrinsick violence; which keeps itself a distinct principality, independant upon the outward man. *Decay of Chr. Piety.*

SANGUI'NEOUS, *adj.* [*sanguineus*, Lat. *sanguin*, Fr.] Constituting blood.—This animal of Plato containeth not only *sanguineous* and reparable particles, but is made up of veins, nerves, and arteries. *Brown.*—Abounding with blood.—A plethorick constitution, in which true blood abounds, is called *sanguineous.* *Arbuthnot.*

SANGUINEROLA, in Ichthyology, a name given by the Italians to the phoxinus, or minnow. Artedi makes this a species of cyprinus.

It has the Italian name from the blood-red colour which displays itself under its belly.

SANGUINETTO, a small but well-built town of Austrian Italy, situated in a marshy district; 19 miles south-south-east of Verona.

SANGUINEUS, in Botany, a name given by some of the ancients to the birch-tree, from the deep reddish-black colour of its twigs. Pliny calls it *sanguineus frutex*, and not understanding that it was the same with the birch, mentions the name of that tree immediately after it, as if different from it. The Italians still call the birch *sanguino*; and some authors, from the redness of the twigs of some species of the alaternus, have called that shrub the *sanguineus albus.* Some have supposed that this name was used to express the birch-tree also, but erroneously; for though the bark of the body of that tree is sometimes white, there was no

no reason for adding that epithet to the word *sanguineus*, which not being used for any other tree, could need no distinction. The Romans, and many other nations, used this tree as we do, for the punishment of children's faults; and it is possible that the name *sanguineus* might be given it on this occasion. *Pliny*, lib. xvi. cap. 26.

SANGUIPURGIUM, a name given by some authors to a slight species of fever, which was judged salutary, as only serving to purge and cleanse the blood.

SANGUIS, in our Ancient Customs, denotes a right or power, which the chief lord of the see anciently had to judge and determine cases where blood was shed. "De murderia et raptu, de igne, de sanguine, &c." Monast.

SANGUIS *Draconis Herba*, in Botany, a name by which some authors call the *lapathum sangwineum*, or bloody dock.

SANGUINEM, *Emere*, was an obligation which the inhabitants of some manors, as that of Grendon, were under, to buy and redeem their villain-blood, or tenure, and make themselves free men.

SANGUIS *Caprinus*, or *Hircinus*, the blood of the he-goat, either wild or tame. This used to be prepared, with great precaution, to be used in medicine, and was supposed by many to have very extraordinary qualities.

SANGUISORBA [from its supposed medical qualities, in stopping hæmorrhages: quod sanguineos fluxus sistat et sorbeat], in Botany, a genus of the class tetrandria, order monogynia, natural order of miscellaneæ *(Lin.)* rosaceæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth two-leaved; leaflets opposite, very short, caducous. Corolla: one-petalled, wheel-shaped; tube subglobular; border four-cleft, flat; segments subovate. Stamina: filaments four, almost the length of the corolla. Anthers simple. Pistil: germ roundish within the tube of the corolla. Style filiform; length of the corolla, permanent. Stigma simple. Pericarp: capsule globular, one-celled, cut transversely. Seeds very many, roundish, very small.—*Essential Character.* Calyx two-leaved, inferior. Corolla superior. Germ between the calyx and corolla.

1. Sanguisorba officinalis, or great burnet.—This is a hardy plant, from eighteen inches to two feet and a half in height. Stem upright, almost naked, branching towards the top. Leaves unequally pinnate, consisting of four, five or six pairs of leaflets, which are ovate-oblong, near two inches long, and an inch broad at the base. Spikes thick, blunt, of a dark blood red, the upper flowers expanding first, and being commonly without stamens, or only an imperfect one.

It differs from the next species, in having ovate, not cylindrical spikes; and smooth calyxes, not ciliate at the edge.—Native of many parts of Europe.

2. Sanguisorba media, or short-spiked burnet.—The spikes of the flowers are cylindrical and longer; the stamens also are longer than in Sanguisorba officinalis.—Native of Canada.

3. Sanguisorba Canadensis, or Canadian burnet.—Spikes very long.—This has leaves like those of the common sort, but a little stiffer, composed of four or five pairs of leaflets; those on the lower part of the midrib stand alternate, but the two upper pairs are opposite; they are of a light green colour, and deeply serrate.—Native of North America and Siberia.

Propagation and Culture.—The burnets are very hardy perennial plants, and will thrive in almost any soil or situation. They may be propagated either by seeds or parting of the roots.

SANGUR, a town and fortress of Hindostan, province of Allahabad, and district of Bundelcund. It is governed by a native chief, but tributary to the Mahrattas. Lat. 23. 50. N. long. 78. 5. E.

SANHEDRIM, SANHEDRIN, or *Synedrium*, among the ancient Jews, the supreme council, or court of judicature, of that republic; in which were dispatched all the great affairs, both of religion and policy.

The word is derived from the Greek, συνεδριον, a *council, assembly*, or company of people sitting together; from συν, *con, together*, and εδρα, *seat.*

Many of the learned agree, that it was instituted by Moses, Numbers, chap. xi., and consisted at first of seventy elders, who judged finally of all causes and affairs; and that they subsisted, without intermission, from Moses to Ezra. (See Deut. xxvii. 1. xxxi. 9. Josh. xxiv. 1. 31. Judges, ii. 7. 2 Chron. xix. 8. Ezek. viii. 11.) Others will have it, that the council of seventy elders, established by Moses, Numb. chap. xi. was temporary, and did not hold after his death; adding, that we find no sign of any such perpetual and infallible tribunal throughout the whole Old Testament; and that the sanhedrim was first set up in the time when the Maccabees, or Asmoneans, took upon themselves the administration of the government under the title of high-priests, and afterwards of kings, that is, ever since the persecution of Antiochus.

The Jews, however, contend strenuously for the antiquity of their great sanhedrim; M. Simon strengthens and defends their proofs, and M. le Clerc attacks them.

Whatever may be the origin and establishment of the sanhedrim, it is certain it was subsisting in the time of our Saviour, since it is spoken of in the gospels, Matth. v. 21. Mark, xiii. 9. xiv. 55. xv. 1. and Acts of the Apostles; and since Jesus Christ himself was arraigned and condemned by it: that it was held at Jerusalem; and that the decision of all the most important affairs among the Jews belonged to it. The president of this assembly was called *Nasi*, or prince; his deputy was called *Ab-beth-din*, father of the house of judgment; and the sub-deputy was called *Chacan*, the wife: the rest were denominated *tzekanim*, elders or senators. The room in which they sat was a rotunda, half of which was built without the temple, and half within; i. e. one semicircle of the room was within the compass of the temple; and as it was *never allowed to sit down in the temple*, they tell us this part was for those who stood up; the other half, or semicircle, extended without the holy place, and here the judges sat. The nasi, or prince, sat on a throne at the end of the hall, having his deputy at his right hand, and his sub-deputy at his left; the other senators were ranged in order on each side.

The sanhedrim subsisted until the destruction of Jerusalem, but its authority was almost reduced to nothing, from the time in which the Jewish nation became subject to the Roman empire.

The rabbins pretend, that the sanhedrim has always subsisted in their nation, from the time of Moses to the destruction of the temple by the Romans; and they maintain that it consisted of seventy counsellors, six out of each tribe, and Moses as president; and thus the number was seventy-one; but six senators out of each tribe make the number seventy-two, which, with the president, constitute a council of seventy-three persons, and therefore it has been the opinion of some authors that this was the number of the members of the sanhedrim.

As to the personal qualifications of the judges of this court, it was required that they should be of untainted birth, and they were often of the race of the priests or Levites, or of the number of inferior judges, or of the lesser sanhedrim, which consisted of twenty three judges. They were to be skilful in the written and traditional law; and they were obliged to study magic, divination, fortune-telling, physic, astrology, arithmetic, and languages. It was also required, that none of them should be eunuchs, usurers, decrepid or deformed, or gamesters: and that they should be of mature age, rich, and of good countenance and body. Thus say the rabbins.

The authority of the sanhedrim was very extensive. This council decided causes brought before it by appeal from inferior courts. The king, high-priest, and prophets were subject to its jurisdiction. The general officers of the nation were brought before the sanhedrim. How far their right of judging in capital cases extended, and how long it continued, have been subjects of controversy. Among the rabbins it has

has been a generally received opinion, that about forty years before the destruction of Jerusalem, their nation had been deprived of the power of life and death. And most authors assert that this privilege was taken from them ever since Judea was made a province of the Roman empire, that is, after the banishment of Archelaus. Others, however, maintain that the Jews had still the power of life and death; but that this privilege was restricted to crimes committed against their law, and depended upon the governor's will and pleasure.

In the time of Moses, this council was held at the door of the tabernacle of the testimony. As soon as the people were in possession of the land of promise, the sanhedrim followed the tabernacle, and it continued at Jerusalem, whither it was removed, till the captivity. During the captivity it was kept at Babylon. After the return from Babylon, it remained at Jerusalem, as it is said, to the time of the Sicarii, or Assassins; afterwards it was removed to Jamnia, thence to Jericho, to Uzzah, to Sepharvaim, to Bethsamia, to Sephoris, and last of all to Tiberias, where it continued till their utter extinction. Such is the account which the Jews give of their sanhedrim. But many learned persons are of a different opinion. Petau (De Doctrin. Temp. lib. ii. c. 26.) fixes the beginning of the sanhedrim to the period when Gabinius was govenor of Judea, by whom were erected tribunals in the five cities of Judea, viz.: Jerusalem, Godara, Amathus, Jericho, and Sephoris. Grotius agrees in the date of its commencement with the rabbins, but he fixes its termination at the beginning of Herod's reign. Basnage places it under Judas Maccabæus and his brother Jonathan. Upon the whole, it may be observed, that the origin of the sanhedrim has not been satisfactorily ascertained; and that the council of seventy elders, established by Moses, was not what the Hebrews understood by the name of sanhedrim. It has been also alleged, that this establishment cannot be perceived under Joshua, the Judges, or the Kings, nor after the captivity, till the time of Jonathan Maccabæus: to which purpose it has been suggested, that the tribunals erected by Gabinius were very different from the sanhedrim. It was in being, however, as we have already mentioned, in and after the time of our Saviour; but the Jews themselves inform us, that it had not then the power of life and death. *John* xviii. 31.

Before the death of our Saviour, two very famous rabbins had been presidents of the sanhedrim, viz.: Hillel and Schammai, who entertained very different opinions on several subjects, and particularly upon that of divorce. This gave occasion to the question which the Pharisees put to Jesus Christ upon that head. (Matt. xix. 3.) Before Schammai, Hillel had Menahem for his associate in the presidency of the sanhedrim. But the latter afterwards deserted that honourable post, and joined himself, with a great number of his disciples, to the party of Herod Antipas, who promoted the levying of taxes for the use of the Roman emperors with all his might. These were probably the Herodians mentioned in the Gospel, Matt. xxii. 16. To Hillel succeeded Simeon his son, who is supposed to have been the person who took Jesus Christ in his arms (Luke ii. 28), and publicly acknowledged him to be the Messiah. If this be the case, the Jewish sanhedrim had for president a person, that was entirely disposed to embrace Christianity. Gamiel, the son and successor of Simeon, seems to have been also of the same disposition and character.

There were several inferior sanhedrims in Palestine, all depending on the great sanhedrim at Jerusalem. The inferior sanhedrim consisted each of twenty-three persons; and there was one in each city and town. Some say, that to have a right to hold a sanhedrim, it was requisite there were one hundred and twenty inhabitants in the place. Where the inhabitants came short of the number of one hundred and twenty, they only established three judges.

In the great as well as the inferior sanhedrim were two scribes; the one to write down the suffrages of those who were for condemnation; the other to take down the suffrages of those who were for absolution.

Selden has a learned work on the subject of the Jewish sanhedrim, "de Synedriis," printed at London, in 1635, in 3 vols. 4to.

SANI, in Mythology, the Hindoo regent, or the personification of the planet Saturn. He is represented in the Indian zodiac of a blue colour, mounted on a raven; sometimes on an elephant, in a yellow dress, and holding a bow and arrow. Sometimes he has four arms, at others only two. He is the fabled offspring of Surya, or the sun; and, as in our arrangement, Saturday is the day of the week over which he astrologically presides.

Explanatory of the mythological character and attributes of Sani, and comprising some other points, we give the following extract from the Hindoo Pantheon of Major Moore:—

"Sani is described in some passages of the Puranas, as 'clad in a black mantle, with a dark turban loosely wrapped round his head; his aspect hideous, and his brows knit with anger; a trident in one of his four hands, a scimitar in a second, and in the other two a bow and shafts.' The elephant has been thought an appropriate vehicle for the sluggish, 'slow-moving son of Surya,' as referring to the immense scope of Saturn's orbit, and the apparent slowness of his motion. And Sani being, among the astrologers of India, as well as with their sapient brethren in Europe, a planet of malignant aspects, the ill-omened raven may also be deemed a fit *vahan*, or vehicle, for such a dreadful being. But this is not, I think, a sufficient reason for the introduction of the raven into the mythological machinery of the Hindoo system, so accurate, so connected, and so complete in all its parts; although the investigations that it hath hitherto undergone have not fully developed or reached such points of perfection. Now let me ask the reason, why, both in England and in India, the raven is so rare a bird? It breeds every year like the crow, and is much longer lived: and while the latter bird abounds every where to a degree bordering on nuisance, a pair of ravens, for they are seldom seen single or in trios, are not found duplicated in any place. Perhaps take England or India over, two pair of ravens will not be found on an average extent of 500 or 1000 acres. I know not, for I write where I have no access to books, if our naturalists have sought the theory of this; or whether it may have first occurred to me, which it did while contemplating the character and attributes of Sani, that the raven destroys its own young. If this notion be well-founded, and on no other can I account for the rareness of the annual-breeding long-lived raven, we shall at once see the propriety of symbolizing it with Saturn, or Kronos, or Time, devouring or destroying his own offspring."

The following astrological allegory, connected with Sani, exhibits a specimen of the mythological veil, through which even scientific facts must be viewed in the relations of Hindoo writers.

In the reign of Dasaratha, the mortal father of Ramachandra, in whose person Vishnu became incarnate, it happened that Sani, in his celestial journey, threatened a most inauspicious conjunction; and it was foretold the king, by the sage Vasishtha, that unless he attacked the regent of the planet, neither Indra, nor Brama himself, could divert the continuance of a distressing drought, consequent to such aspects, for twelve years. Dasaratha attacked, and after a violent conflict subdued Sani, extorting from him a promise, that he would not again, by a similar transit or passage (entering the Hyades, the Rohini of the Hindoos, from the Nakshatra, or lunar mansion Kritika, their Pleiades; this passage of Sani being called Sakatabeda, or the section of the wain), threaten so unhappy a conjunction: a promise that he would keep till about our year 1796, which the Hindoo astrologers had long predicted would be peculiarly inauspicious, as the noxious planet would then approach the wain of Rohini. And in this age we cannot, they say, look for a hero like Dasaratha, in a miraculous car of pure gold, to place himself at the entrance of the wain, blazing like his progenitor the sun, and drawing his bow, armed with the tremendous arrow Sanharastra, which attracts all

all things with irresistible violence; even Sani, "the slow-moving son of Surya, dressed in a blue robe, crowned with a diadem, having four arms, holding a bow, a spiked weapon and a scimitar." Thus, according to Mr. Wilford, Asiat. Res. vol. iii., he is described in the Brahmanda Purana. The astrologers add, that Mangala, or Mars, the child of Prithvi, has also been prevented from traversing the wain of Rohini; but that Vrihaspati, Sukra, and Budha, or Jupiter, Venus, and Mercury, pass it freely and innocently; while it is the constant path of Soma, of whom the beautiful Rohini is the favourite consort.

This astronomical fable, in which may be discovered traces of scientific facts, is perhaps too loosely related in the Puranas to admit of any useful calculus being grounded on it: otherwise, as it refers to a particular position of certain celestial bodies in the reign of Dasaratha, that did not occur again till about the year 1796, the times of these coincidences might possibly lead us to nearly the era of Ramachandra; a very important point in respect both to the history and chronology of the Hindoos.

The planet Sani, or Sauturn, is appropriated more especially by Hindoo astrologers to Brahma, who is said to direct its motions; as Vishnu is feigned to shine in the sun, and Siva in Vrihaspati, or Jupiter. With the Egyptians, Saturn was an object of abhorrence and dread, they not daring to pronounce his true name, and abominating all animals with red hair, because it was his colour; so in India red is the colour of Brahma, he being physically a personification of the earth or matter; and symbolized in the skies by the slow-moving heavy Sani, and below by the sluggish goose, his vahan or vehicle. Some enthusiastic individuals among the Hindoos will not eat carrots, which appear indigenous all over India, and have a distinct name in many languages, because, as it said, they look red like beef; but possibly the objection may have a more remote origin.

The day of Saturn, or Sani, is of course very inauspicious in India, where most people, Hindoo or Mahommedan, are very superstitious on the point of lucky and unlucky days. This feeling has been, and in some degree is still felt in all parts of the world. It cannot be said to be extinct in England. Not only would an Hindoo avoid marrying, commencing a journey or a building, naming a child, &c., on Saturday, but dates are altered to avoid naming the unlucky day, and records of events chronologically falsified with the like view.

SANICLE, in Botany; see SANICULA. SANICLE, bastard American; see MITELLA. SANICLE, bear's ear; see CORTUSA. SANICLE, water; see GEUM. SANICLE, Yorkshire; see PINGUICULA.

SANICULA [Dimin. a sanando vulnera. From its supposed quality of healing wounds], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order digynia, natural order of umbellatæ or umbelliferæ.—Generic Character. Calyx: umbel universal with very few rays (often four); partial with very many, clustered, sub-capitate. Involucre universal halved, placed outwardly; partial surrounding, shorter than the floscules. Perianth scarcely observable. Corolla: universal uniform; floscules of the disk abortive. Proper of five compressed inflexed petals, closing the flower. Stamina: filaments five, simple, twice as long as the corollets, erect. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germ hispid, inferior. Styles two, awl-shaped, reflexed. Stigmas acute. Pericarp none. Fruit ovate acute, rugged, bipartile. Seeds two, convex and muricate on one side, flat on the other.—*Essential Character.* Umbels clustered, sub-capitate. Fruit rugged. Flowers of the disk abortive.

1. Sanicula Europæa, common or European sanicle.—Root perennial, with long branched fleshy fibres. Stem from twelve to eighteen inches high, upright, round, grooved, smooth; the leaflets lanceolate acute, entire. Flowers sessile, heaped, white or reddish: the petals all nearly equal, entire. The central ones are male, having no style, but in its place a concave glandular nectary, similar to what crowns the germ in the fertile florets. The female florets have elongated, acute calycine teeth, but no petals.—Native of Europe, in woods and thickets, flowering in May.

2. Sanicula Canadensis, or Canadian sanicle.—Root-leaves compound, leaflets ovate.—This is so similar in structure to the preceding, that there is scarcely any difference except that it is frequently ten times as large in all its parts.—Native of Virginia.

3. Sanicula Marilandica, or Maryland sanicle.—Male flowers peduncled, hermaphrodites sessile.—Root perennial. The whole plant smooth. Stem annual, erect, about two feet high, the thickness of a quill, with alternate branches, trichotomous at top.—Native of Virginia and Maryland.

Propagation and Culture.—Part the roots, any time from September to March; but the best time is in autumn. In a moist soil, and a shady situation they will thrive exceedingly.

SANIDIUM, the name of a genus of fossils, of the class of the selenitæ, but neither of the rhomboidal nor columnar kinds, nor any other way distinguishable by its external figure, being made up of several plain flat plates.

The word is derived from the Greek σανιδιον, *tabella*, a flat thin plate or table, and expresses a body made up only of such plates. And the selenitæ of this genus are of no determinate form, nor consist of any regular number of planes or angles, but are merely flat, broad, and thin plates or tables, composed of other yet thinner plates, like the talcs, but distinguished from those bodies by this, that these plates are made up of arrangements of slender fibres, disposed obliquely, but in uninterrupted lines across the body.

The selenitæ having been always esteemed (when meant of this class of bodies, for some have applied the word to certain spars and other substances) regularly figured fossils, this genus has been overlooked by authors, and the specimens of it which occurred, looked on as bodies of a different class, as spars or talcs. Their not fermenting with acids, however, determines them not to be spars; and their obliquely striated structure, their want of elasticity, and their ready calcining in the fire, distinguish them from the talcs, and shew them to be the true and genuine selenitæ.

Of this genus, there are only two known species; the one colourless and pellucid, the other whitish and opaque. The first is found pretty frequently about Oxford, as also in Northamptonshire, Yorkshire, and other counties; the other is very common in all parts of Germany, and is found also in Leicestershire, and some other parts of England, but with us it is not common. *Hill's Hist. of Fossils.*

SA'NIES, *s.* [Lat.] Thin matter; serous excretion.—It began with a round crack in the skin, without other matter than a little *sanies*. *Wiseman.*

SA'NIOUS, *adj.* [from *sanies*, Lat.] Running a thin serous matter, not a well digested pus.—Observing the ulcer *sanious*, I proposed digestion as the only way to remove the pain. *Wiseman.*

SANIS, Σανις, among the Greeks, a kind of punishment, inflicted by binding the malefactor fast to a piece of wood.

SA'NITY, *s.* [*sanitas*, Lat.] Soundness of mind.—How pregnant, sometimes, his replies are! a happiness that often madness hits on, which *sanity* and reason could not be so prosperously delivered of. *Shakspeare.*

SANJORE, a town of Hindostan, province of Ajmeer, district of Sarowy, tributary to the rajah of Joudpore. It is situated on the east side of the Bah river. Lat. 25. 3. N. long. 72. 16. E.

SANK. The preterit of *sink.*—As if the opening of her mouth to Zelmane had opened some great floodgate of sorrow, whereof her heart could not abide the violent issue, she *sank* to the ground. *Sidney.*

SANKAN, a town of Yemen, in Arabia, near the coast of the Red Sea; 35 miles north-north-west of Abu-Arisch.

SANKARACHARYA, a very celebrated Sanscrit author, whose excellent works on theology and philosophy are much admired by many sects of Hindoos, particularly those of the sect

sect of Saiva, and the followers of the Vedanta theory, of which he is reckoned the restorer. He tarnished the brilliancy of his reputation by his intolerance and bigotry, which induced him to stir up and foment a furious persecution against the heretical sect of Jaina, and others. For this he was canonized by this own followers; though by others, especially by the descendants of the objects of his holy vengeance, his name is held in deserved abhorrence. His pious fury was so excessive, that his abettors judged it to be more than mortal, and that a portion of the avenging deity must have inspired him; and it is accordingly fabled that he was a manifestation, or avatara, of the god Siva, one of whose names is Sankara; *acharya* being a surname denoting literary celebrity. A biographical account of this extraordinary man would afford a fine moral lesson. His literary works would do honour to any name of any country, and his actions are indelibly disgraceful. To the compunctious visitings of his conscience may perhaps be attributed the mode of his departure from this world, which was by the expiatory process of a meritorious species of suicide, called karshagni. This consists in casing the body with a thick covering of cow-dung, lubricated with cow's urine, which, when dry, ignites speedily, and burns rapidly with a beautifully pure blue flame. This being set on fire, quickly consumes, they say, both sin and sinner. His commentary on the Veda is held in great respect by the literati of the East. Its popular title is the *Bashea*. He flourished in the year 1000 of our era.

SANKARI, a town of Manding, in Central Africa, in the vicinity of which rises a river, which has been supposed to be the head of the Niger; but geographers have recently been led to place this farther to the eastward.

SANKEY, Great, a village of England, in Lancashire; 4 miles west-by-north of Warrington. Population 466.

SANKYA, the name of one of the six principal schools, or theories of philosophy among the Hindoos. It is attributed to a philosopher of the name of Kapila, who by some is said to have upheld tenets leading to materialism. The Sankyas, however, profess to believe in the existence of two eternal substances or beings: the one they call Parusha, or male; the other Prakriti, or nature. As far as this Sankya theory can be seen somewhat freed from personification, it seems to teach that Parusha, or the male essence, exists in an eternal state of rest, impassible, and a mere spectator of the motions of the universe. This state of their supreme being they illustrate by the popular figure of a lotus, or water-lily; which, after the water passes over it, is left in its original condition: for the Hindoos find in the lotus illustrations of almost every obscurity. The argument by which the Sankyas support the tenet just ascribed to them, is not very clear. "Spirit is life; effect and cause are inseparably united; consequently a cessation of effect involves a cessation of the cause; therefore agency cannot be predicable of the Supreme Being. The idea that he acts arises from the union of life and understanding." Hindoo metaphysicians profess to find no difficulty in fully comprehending such arguments as these; and they endeavour to illustrate them by saying, that "life here denotes its simple abstract nature, divested of the qualities of thought, feeling, action, &c. This simple abstract life is the Supreme Being. Understanding (which denotes the active and sensitive principles of beings) arises from the operations of nature; and the union of understanding, or the active faculties, with life, which is the Supreme Being, produces the idea that he is the agent in the motions of the universe." In opposition to the Vedanti theory, affirming that understanding is the termination or completion of the one being, the Sankya asserts that it is the completion of nature. "Nature is eternal, but it is upheld by Life, the Supreme Being. When the universe disappears, Nature remains in an invisible seminal state; but at the desire of the Supreme Being, it assumes a visible form, and becomes the creator of the world." If we put this sentence into another shape,—the shape, indeed, in which it would appear in its original metaphysical language, it will assume a mythological air, and admit of easy personification and application. Thus, "Prakriti is eternal, but it or she is upheld by Parusha. At a mahapralaya, Prakriti assumes an invisible seminal state; but by the volition of Parusha, or Brahm, a Kalpa occurs, and Prakriti assumes a visible form, and becomes Brahma the Creator." Mahaprayala denotes a periodical destruction, or change, of all things; Kalpa, a reorganization of matter; and matter is personified in Brahma."

The soul, or sensitive part of living beings, proceeds, by the Sankya theory, from the organization of nature, but is formed of its more refined parts. This affords an opening for the charge of materialism. But, continue the Sankyas, in common with the Vedantes, by the efficacy of virtuous actions, men are cleared from the effects of Maya, passion, or delusion, and united to the supreme spiritual essence.

SAN-LI-KIAO, a town of Chinese Tartary; 18 miles south-south-west of Ning-yuen.

SANN. See Sannah.

SANNA, a river of the north-west of European Turkey, in Bosnia, which joins the Unna, at a small town called Novi.

SANNAK, a cluster of islands in the North Pacific Ocean, near the south coast of Alashka. Lat. 54. 50. N. long. 196. 29. E.

SANNAZARO (Jacopo), an eminent Italian and Latin poet, was born at Naples, in 1458. He received his classical education in the school of Giuniano Maggio, and the academy of Pontano, and upon entering the latter, he changed his baptismal name into Actius Sincerus, which he always used in his Latin works. He was first inspired as a poet by Carmosina Bonifacia, a lady who became the theme of his verse. Finding himself overwhelmed in this passion, he quitted his native country, and passed some time in France: being, however, unable to endure a very long absence from the object of his attachment, he returned; before he could arrive, his Carmosina had died in the bloom of her youth. His poetical reputation was now considerable, and he became known to king Ferdinand I. and princes Alfonso and Frederic: he was admitted into their train, and accompanied them in several military expeditions. For the entertainment of his patrons, he composed some dramatic pieces in the Neapolitan dialect, which became extremely popular. In the subsequent revolutions of the kingdom of Naples, and amidst all the vicissitudes undergone by the house of Arragon, Sannazaro remained faithfully attached to its members, and, upon the succession of Frederic to the throne, he was rewarded with a pension of 600 ducats, and the present of the pleasant villa of Mergoglino, so much celebrated in his poems under the name of Mergillina. When this prince lost his crown, and was obliged to retire to France, Sannazaro, after selling the remainder of his hereditary possessions, to relieve the necessities of his sovereign, followed him, and continued attached to his service till he died, in 1504. Sannazaro then returned to Italy, where he devoted himself to poetry and letters, preserving his gaiety and the gallantry of a courtier to advanced years. He had, at length, the mortification to witness the destruction of his Mergillina by the imperial army under Phillibert, prince of Orange; and though his revenge was in some degree gratified, by the intelligence that this leader was soon slain in battle, he himself did not long survive. He died near Naples, in 1530, at the age of 72. The name of Sannazaro stands very high in Italian and Latin poetry. In the first, he is accounted one of the purest and most elegant composers of his age, and if he had not employed his mature powers upon Latin verse, it has been thought that he might have attained to the highest rank in vernacular poetry. The most celebrated of his works in this class, is entitled "Arcadia," a pastoral, consisting of dialogues in verse, each preceded by an introduction in a sort of poetical prose. It was, at the time of publication, so very popular, that it went through many editions,

editions, and in the 16th century sixty editions had appeared. He was author, likewise, of sonnets and lyrical pieces, of which the best editions are those by Comino, in 1723, and by Remondini, in 1752. The Latin poems of Sannazaro are highly commended for the finished elegance of their style and versification: they consist of piscatory eclogues, elegies, epigrams, and a sacred poem "De Partu Virginis." This last piece consists of 1500 lines, containing many fine passages, and exhibiting great command of the Latin language, in adapting it to such a subject. Erasmus has justly censured the poet for his invocation of the muses and Phœbus; for his representing the Virgin as intent upon the Sybilline verses, instead of the Jewish prophecies; and for the general air of heathenism given to the whole work. *Roscoe's Leo X.*

SANNERTS, a village of Germany, in Hesse-Cassel; 14 miles south of Fulda. Population 1000.

SANNI, in Ancient Geography, a people of Asia, near the Lesser Armenia, and near Trebizond and Pharnacia. *Strabo.*

SANOK, a circle of Austrian Galicia, on the borders of Hungary, between the circles of Jaslo and Sambor. Its area is about 1800 square miles; its population 211,000. The San traverses this circle in a very winding direction, but in general from south to north. Its course being slow, its navigation is easy, and its occasional inundations contribute to improve the fertility of the soil. The Wisloka and several smaller streams cross the circle in a similar direction. The surface of this province is level, except towards Hungary, where it becomes hilly. Salt mines are found at several places.

SANOK, a small town of Austrian Galicia, on the San; 104 miles east-south-east of Cracow. It is the chief town of a circle, and has a high school. Population 1600.

SANORE. See SHAHNOOR.

SANQUEL, one of the largest rivers of Patagonia, in South America, which has its rise in the snowy mountains of the Cordillera, on the east side, of which it is one of the principal drains. It derives its name from a thorny, thick, and rough reed, called sanquel, in the idiom of the Pehuenches, with which the marshy country between this river and the first Desaguero abounds. It is not formed in the marshes, but rushing from between the deep chasms of the mountains, passes through them, and is augmented by their waters. It makes its first appearance at a place called Diamante, whence the Spaniards sometimes call it the Rio del Diamente. The river Lolgen, which also comes from the Cordillera, and joins the Sanquel, has such equal pretensions in point of magnitude, that the Indians indifferently call their joint streams the Sanquel and the Lolgen Leuvu. Broad and rapid from the first, it is greatly increased by the moist country through which it runs, for the space of 300 miles; and taking almost a direct south-easterly course, it enters into the Rio Negro by a very wide and open mouth, occasioning by the influence, dangerous and innumerable whirlpools.

SANQUHAR, a parish of Scotland, in Dumfries-shire, of an irregular figure, 15 miles in length, and from 9 to 10 in breadth. It contains mines of lead and coal. The produce of the former is upwards of £20,000 annually; of the latter, £6000. Population, including the town, 2709.

SANQUHAR, a royal burgh of Scotland, in the county of Dumfries. It is seated on the river Nith, and is 27 miles from Dumfries in the southern, and 33 from Ayr in the western direction, being both ways nearly equidistant from the sea. It has only one principal street, and is about half a mile in length. Near the head of the town stands the town or council-house, with a school-house and prison connected. This handsome building, with a beautiful spire, was built under the plan and design of Mr. Adam, and given as a present to the town by the late Charles, Duke of Queensberry, in the year 1734. In the year 1774, an excellent town clock was in like manner given as a present to the town, by the same public spirited nobleman: it stands in the council-house, and is both useful and ornamental. About half a mile south-east from the council-house, on an eminence, stands the old castle of Sanquhar, once the residence of the family of Crichton. It has been a building of considerable magnitude and extent, with towers, and surrounded by a deep fosse. It was in the possession of the English in the reign of Edward I., but was recaptured by Sir William Douglas, of Douglasdale, who put the garrison to the sword. The east end of the parish church of Sanquhar is supposed to have been built by the Picts. It appears to be of remote antiquity, and to have been a place of worship in the times of Popery, as the choir is still entire. There is a figure of a man as large as life near the entrance to it, cut out in stone, which vulgar tradition calls the Saint of the Choir. Besides the parish church, there are two meeting-houses for the United Secession church, and one for Baptists. The knitting of stockings was formerly carried on to a considerable extent in Sanquhar, but this branch of industry received a great check from the American war, the stockings being chiefly exported to Virginia. Different branches of carpet manufacture are carried on here, though not to the extent that might be supposed from the situation of the town, almost in the centre of a country, the staple commodities of which are sheep and wool; touching the head of Galloway on the one hand, bordering on Ayrshire, the head of Clydesdale, and contiguous to Annandale and Tweedale on the other. Sanquhar was erected into a burgh or barony in 1484, prior to which period it had been a burgh of the same kind from time immemorial. At the instance of Robert Crichton, Lord of Sanquhar, it was erected into a royalty in 1596, by king James VI. It is governed by a provost, three baillies, a dean of guild, a treasurer, and 11 councillors. The revenue of the burgh for a number of years past, has been very considerable, arising from a lordship upon coal: some years it has amounted to £400 sterling. It joins with the burghs of Dumfries, Annan, Kirkcudbright, and Lochmaben, in electing a representative to Parliament. Population nearly 2000; 16 miles south of Muirkirk, 33 south of Kilmarnock, 57 south of Glasgow, 13 north-west of Thornhill, and 56 from Edinburgh.

SANS, *prep.* [Fr.] Without. *Out of use.*

> Last scene of all,
> That ends this strange eventful history,
> Is second childishness and mere oblivion,
> *Sans* teeth, *sans* eyes, *sans* taste, *sans* every thing.
>
> *Shakspeare.*

SANSA, a small river of New Granada, in the province of San Juan de los Llanos, which runs east, and enters the Ariari.

SANSANDING, a large town of Bambarra, in Central Africa. It is situated on the Niger, and is the theatre of a very considerable trade, particularly in salt. The arrangements made here for the convenience of trade, and the minute subdivision of labour, exhibit a maturity of commercial improvement, such as we could little have expected to find in the heart of Africa. The market-place is an extensive square, constantly crowded with people, and where the different articles are exposed on stalls, shaded by mats from the heat of the sun. Each stall contains generally only one article; some beads only; some indigo in balls; others wood-ashes in balls; others Houssa and Jinnie cloth; and one was observed on which there was nothing but antimony in small pieces. The currency is in cowries, 3000 of which go to a monkalli of gold, valued at 12*s.* 6*d.* sterling; 25 miles north-east of Sego.

SA'NSCRIT, *s.* [Written *sanserit*, *sanskrit*, *sanskreet*, *sanskerrit*, and *shanserit*, by Europeans; and said to be compounded of *san* or *sam*, a preposition signifying completion, and *skreeta*, for *kreeta*, done, made, finished. See Wilkins's Heetopades, 1787, p. 294. The Indians write it *samskrit*, *samskret*, *somserudam*, or *samsered*, as we learn from the voyage of Paolino to the East Indies, where he resided several years, till 1789.] The learned language of the Bramins of India; the parent of all the Indian languages.—One Burzuvia, a physician, who had a surprising talent in learning several languages, particularly the *sanskerrit*, was introduced

introduced to him as the properest person to be employed to get a copy thereof. *Fraser.*

SANSEVIERA [named by Thunberg, in honour, as we presume, of some botanist], in Botany, a genus of the class hexandria, order monogynia, natural order coronariæ, asphodeli *(Juss.)* — Generic Character. Calyx none. Corolla inferior, of one petal, funnel-shaped, permanent; tube cylindrical; limb in six deep, revolute, nearly equal segments. Stamina: filaments six, awl-shaped, inserted into the tube at the base of the segments, and equal to them in length; anthers oblong, erect. Pistil: germen superior, ovate; style awl-shaped, the length of the stamens; stigma three-cleft. Pericarp: berry globose, of three cells. Seeds: roundish, solitary.—*Essential Character.* Calyx none. Corolla of one petal; tube cylindrical; limb in six deep revolute segments. Stamens inserted at the base of each segment. Berry of three cells. Seeds solitary.

The first two species have been described under their Linnæan name, ALETRIS. Thunberg has added,

3. Sanseviera carnea, or flesh coloured sanseviera.—Leaves smooth, two-ranked, lanceolate sword-shaped, keeled. Flowers solitary, sessile.—Native of China, introduced by the late Mr. Evans, of Stepney. It flowers in the greenhouse at various seasons. This is a smaller plant than either of the preceding. The leaves are ribbed, of an uniform green, and rise much above the pale pink spike of flowers, which are solitary, not aggregate.

4. Sanseviera lanuginosa, or wooly-leaved sanseviera.—Leaves linear-lanceolate, with woolly ribs. Style the length of the stamens. Flowers aggregate, stalked, without bracteas.—Native of sandy ground in Malabar. A doubtful species, most allied perhaps to our zeylanica, but Willdenow, on the authority of Rheede, has distinguished it. The flowers are said to be reddish externally, greenish within, and the fruit green. No bracteas are represented; which, if correct, affords a sufficient distinctive character.

SANSIGO, a small island in the gulf of Quarnero, in the gulf of Venice, belonging to the district of Fiume, in Austrian Illyria.

SANSONATE, a district and town of Guatimala, to the southward of Suchitepec, having for its capital La Trinidad or Sansonate, situated on the river Sansonate, at its mouth. This town is a sea-port, and is situated 120 miles south-east of the city of Mexico, with about 2000 inhabitants, of whom 400 are whites. The population of the district is about 40,000, consisting almost entirely of Indians, mulattoes, and negroes.

SANSON (Nicholas), a celebrated French geographer in the 17th century, was born at Abbeville, in Picardy, in the year 1600. He was educated in the Jesuits' college of Amiens, and discovered an early inclination for that science, in which he afterwards excelled, and which was cultivated by his father, who had published several maps. At the age of 18 or 19, he had drawn a map of ancient Gaul, on four sheets, and compiled a Latin explanatory treatise to accompany it, but he was persuaded to defer the publication of this work, in order that he might render it more perfect, and by the apprehension that, on account of his youth, it might be ascribed to his father. He commenced his career in life in merchandize, but having met with considerable losses, he determined to devote himself wholly to the pursuits of science. In 1627 he published his map of ancient Gaul, which met with so favourable a reception, that he had the greatest encouragement to proceed in the career in which he had embarked. His next work made its appearance in 1636, under the title of "Græciæ Antiquæ Descriptio Geographica," which was followed, in the same year, by a curious piece, entitled "Britannia, or an Enquiry into the Antiquity of Abbeville." In 1637 he distinguished himself by "A Treatise on the Roman Empire," with 15 maps. His attention in the meantime was not only engrossed by his geographical productions, but directed to the fortifications of Abbeville, for which he was engaged in the capacity of engineer to the king. In 1641 he published a map of the rivers of France, and in 1644 he gave the public another work, entitled "France delineated," on five Latin Maps, comprising the ancient Itineraries, and five French ones, and accompanied with different illustrative treatises. Soon after this he published similar maps, both in Latin and French, of "The British Isles," "Spain," and "Italy:" with the last he gave "A Treatise on the Sovereign Princes of Italy;" and from this time he directed his labours to a more particular delineation of France, in which he proceeded, till it was, at length, extended to nearly 120 folio sheets. For the great services which he thus rendered to the interest of science, he was appointed not only geographer to the king, but had a pension of 2000 livres settled upon him. This appointment made it necessary for him to remove to Paris; and some time after his settlement there, in 1646, he published nine maps of the course of the Rhine, with an alphabetical table of all the cities, their situations, &c. In 1647 he engaged in a controversy with father Labbe, who, in his "Pharus Galliæ Antiquæ," had attacked the notes accompanying M. Sanson's map of the Gauls, and yet copied them in a variety of places without making any acknowledgment of his obligations. On this occasion M. Sanson published his "Disquisitiones Geographicæ in Pharum Galliæ Antiquiæ," in which he fully established his charge of plagiarisms against Labbe, and also convicted him of a vast number of geographical blunders. In 1649 he published "Remarks on the map of Ancient Gaul at the time of Cæsar;" and in a few years afterwards he gave to the public his "Asia," in 14 new maps, illustrated by several geographical and historical dissertations, which was a very popular work. He next published "Geographia sacra ex Veteri et Novo Testamento desumpta, et in Tabulas quatuor concinnata, &c. Additæ sunt descriptio Terræ Chanaan, sive Terra Promissæ, Jesu Christi, et Apost. Petri et Pauli Vitæ; tum et in omnes eas Tabulas et Descriptiones, Animadversiones et Index Geographicus." Of this work an edition was printed by Le Clerc, in 1704, with notes and an additional preface by the editor. In 1656 M. Sanson published his "Africa," consisting of 19 maps, and afterwards his "America," in 16 maps; each set being accompanied with geographical and historical treatises. He was author of a great variety of other maps, in Latin and French, which, together with his works, form a large atlas, in two vols. folio, accompanied by a set of "Methodical Tables," containing a comparison of ancient with modern geography. M. Sanson died in 1667, in the 67th year of his age. He left three sons, each of whom possessed a portion of their father's genius, and obtained the post of geographer to the king. The eldest, Nicholas, was killed during the baricades of Paris in 1648, while defending the chancellor Seguier against the populace. He was author of a work entitled "Europe," written in the form of a dialogue, and illustrated with 20 French and nine Latin maps, and of many other works. William, the second son, who died in 1705, was author of Latin notes against the geographical dictionary of Baudrand; also, of "An Introduction to Geography." The youngest son of M. Sanson, Adrian, died in 1718.

SAN-SOUCI, a town of the Middle Mark of Brandenburg, near Potzdam, where is a royal palace, which has no claim to grandeur of external architecture.

SANSOVINO (Jacopo), an eminent sculptor and architect, whose family name was *Tatti*, was born in 1479, at the town of Sansovino, in Tuscany, from which place he took his usual appellation. He became a disciple of the famous Florentine sculptor, Andrea Contucci, also called Sansovino. At an early age he contracted an intimacy with the painter Andrea del Sarto, and a mutual communication of studies and ideas took place between them. He was first taken to Rome by the architect Giuliano da San-Gallo, where he was employed in designing and modelling antiques. After passing some time at Rome, his want of health obliged him to return to Florence, where he was engaged in several works. In 1514 he was employed to design the triumphal arches erected for the entrance of Leo X., and his plans were so much approved by that pope, that he ordered him to give a model for an intended marble front of the church

church of San Lorenzo. It was approved, but the execution of the work being assigned to Michael Angelo, Sansovino left Florence and returned to Rome. He there executed many works in sculpture and architecture, among the latter of which was the magnificent church of St. John the Baptist. On the sack of Rome in 1527, Sansovino retired to Venice with the intention of proceeding to France, but the reception which he met with there, determined him to remain in that capital. He was appointed architect to the republic, and was immediately engaged in some of the splendid works which have inseparably connected his name with the decorations of Venice. He died at Venice in the year 1570, at the age of 90. As a sculptor he was distinguished by the expression and action of his figures, and the singular lightness of his draperies. He displayed in his art great powers of invention, directed by much good taste. *Gen. Biog.*

SANSOVINO (Francesco), son of the preceding, was born at Rome, in 1521. He accompanied his father to Venice, where he was instructed in classical literature by the best masters. It being his father's design to fit him for advancement in the court of Rome, he was sent to study the law at Padua; but the more agreeable studies in which he had been initiated, gave him a distaste to severer pursuits, and instead of attending the schools, he procured an admission into a newly founded academy. With this step his father was so much offended, that going to Padua he refused to see his son; and Francesco upon this, to appease his father, consented to remove to Bologna, where he went through all the process of a legal graduation. But though he had taken a doctor's degree, he declined following the profession, and devoted himself to literature. Upon the election of Julius III., who was his godfather, to the papal throne, in the year 1550, he flew to Rome full of hopes, but obtaining no valuable preferment, he returned to Venice, and devoted himself to literary occupations. He composed a multiplicity of works of various kinds, but they were written in great haste, and were not at all calculated for duration. The two that have been most known are entitled "L'Origine e Fasti delle Famiglie illustri d'Italia," and "Il Ritratto delle piu nobili Citta d'Italia."

SANS PAREILLE, in Conchology, the name of a particular species of buccinum, which has its mouth opening a contrary way to that of all other buccina. This is a single species among the recent buccina, but we find more than one kind with this peculiarity among the fossile shells, and that in great abundance in many places in England.

SANTA, a division of the province of Lima, in Peru, about 40 leagues in length from north to south, and from 10 to 12 wide from east to west. It is bounded east by the province of Guailas, north by that of Truxillo, south-east by that of Caxatambo, and west by the Pacific Ocean. Along the coast there are different safe and commodious harbours. The chief commerce of Santa consists of wool-bearing animals, cotton, and hogs'-lard, for which the merchants find a ready market at Lima. There are some sugar-houses and distilleries established in the capital. The climate in this district is rather warm. It abounds with mines containing load-stones.

SANTA, the capital of the above province, founded in a valley, and on a river of the same name. It was formerly situated on the sea-coast, where it was destroyed by one of the buccaneers in 1685, and it has since been rebuilt half a league inward. In 1761, it was inundated by a high tide; and it is much infested with musquitoes; 210 miles north-north-west of Lima. Lat. 0. 9. S. long. 78. 30. W.

SANTA, a river of the same province, which rises in the mountains of the province of Huailas, and after passing the settlement of that name, enters the Pacific Ocean. It is about one-fourth of a league broad at the ford, which is near the town of that name, and forms five principal streams, which run during the whole year with great rapidity

SANTA, a small island of the Pacific Ocean, at the mouth of the above river. It is uninhabited.

SANTA ANA, a mission of California, celebrated on account of the astronomical observations of Velasquez.

SANTA BARBARA, a sea-port on the coast of North America, in New California, where a presidio and mission is established by the Spaniards, and which has much more the appearance of civilization than some of the other Spanish establishments on the coast. The buildings are regular and well constructed, the walls are clean and white, and the roofs of the houses are covered with a bright red tile. The presidio is seen above a grove of small trees, and produces, with the rest of the buildings, a very picturesque effect. The bay is open, and without any kind of interruption whatever. The soundings, on approaching it, are regular, from 15 to 3 fathoms, the former from half a league to two miles, the latter within a cable and a half of the shore. The shores of the roadstead are for the most part low, and terminate in sandy beaches, with the exception of the western point, which is a steep cliff, moderately elevated, to which Vancouver, who visited this settlement in 1793, gave the name of Point Felipe, after the commandant of the settlement, from whom he experienced great civility and kindness. The interior country, a few miles only from the sea-coast, is composed of rugged, barren mountains, which rise in five distinct ridges, behind and above each other, a great distance inland towards the east, which space is at present neither occupied by Spaniards nor Indians. It is mentioned by Vancouver, that the sheep and poultry at this settlement exceed, both in size and delicacy of flavour, those of any of the other settlements which he visited. Santa Barbara was founded in 1786, and contains 1100 inhabitants. It is garrisoned by about 60 soldiers, out of which it affords guards also to the mission of the same name. These soldiers are all expert horsemen, and well qualified to quell any insurrection among the natives. Lat. 34. 24. N. long. 240. 43. E.

SANTA BARBARA, a small island in the North Pacific Ocean, about 40 miles from the coast of New California, or New Albion. Lat. 33. 24. N. long. 241. 16. E.

SANTA BARBARA, a small island in the Atlantic Ocean, near the coast of Brazil.

SANTA BARBARA, a settlement in the island of Cuba; 10 miles south of Bayamo.

SANTA BARBARA, a sea-port on the south-east coast of the island of Curacoa, with a good harbour.

SANTA BARBARA, Bay of, on the south coast of Terra del Fuego. Its south-east point was named by Captain Cook, Cape Desolation, and is in Lat. 54. 55. S. long. 72. 12. W.

SANTA BARBARA, Canal de, a strait which runs along the coast of New Albion, in North America, and which is formed by some isles on the one side, and by the continental shore on the other. It extends from Lat. 33. to 34. 30. N.

SANTA CATALINA, one of Solomon's islands, in Lat. 10. 53. 50. S. long. 162. 31. 30. E.

SANTA CATALINA, Island of, an island in the North Pacific, which lies about 40 miles off the west coast of New California, or New Albion. Lat. 33. 22. N. long. 242. 7. E.

SANTA CLARA, an island on the coast of Peru, in the bay of Guayaquil. It is commonly called Amortajo or Muerto, from its resembling the figure of a corpse; 12 miles north-west of the west point of Puna island. Lat. 3. 15. S., long. 80. 14. W.

SANTA CLARA, a mission of Franciscan friars, on the west coast of North America, intended for the conversion and instruction of the Indians in New Albion, under the Spanish government. The fathers have a guard, consisting of a corporal and six privates. The situation is in a fertile soil, and they cultivate wheat, maize, pease, and beans; 40 miles south-south-east of St. Francisco.

SANTA CRUZ, a sea-port, capital of the island of Teneriffe, and residence of the governor of the Canaries. It is also the centre of the trade of these islands, through which

which their intercourse is maintained, not only with Europe, but with America, and other parts of the world. Here reside all the consuls and commissaries of foreign powers, settled for commercial purposes. This port may be considered, moreover, as a great caravansary on the road between America and the Indies, most of the European vessels destined for these distant settlements touching there for water and refreshments. Santa Cruz is situated on a plain, surrounded by bleak and barren mountains. Its only advantage is in its road, which affords safe anchorage in deep water, and where ten or twelve ships of war may find convenient accommodation. Amole stretches out into the sea, which is rounded at the extremity, to afford a landing place; but the surf breaks so heavily against it, as to render this neither convenient nor even perfectly safe. The mole is ascended by a stair, at the top of which is placed the custom-house, which it is thus impossible to avoid. The streets of Santa Cruz are tolerably broad and straight, and many of the houses are well built. They have all a wide court in the interior, and the apartments are large to an uncomfortable degree, though coolness is thus promoted. The society consists chiefly of merchants, as the gentry of the island prefer residing at Laguna. Travellers remark the vast number of ecclesiastics to be seen in the streets; they complain also of the crowd and importunity of beggars. Debauchery, and the maladies consequent upon it, are said to be very prevalent, in consequence of the great concourse of seamen and soldiers, which renders it prudent for the captain of a vessel to limit as much as possible the intercourse of his crew with the natives. The population is stated at about 8400.

SANTA CRUZ, a river of Morocco, which falls into the Atlantic near Cape Aguer.

SANTA CRUZ DE LA SIERRA, a province of the viceroyalty of Buenos Ayres, already described under the title of Cruz. It is also the name of the capital of the province, which was founded in 1558, and afterwards removed 150 miles more to the south, to the place where it now stands, in Lat. 14. 20. S. at the foot of a chain of mountains, which bounds the country of the Chiquitos Indians to the north, and thence runs in a north-east direction to Lake Xarayes. It was at first called San Lorenzo, and it still retains that name in some public instruments. The reason of the removal has not been ascertained, nor did it please many of the Spanish inhabitants of the old town, some of whom remained amongst the Chiquitos, and formed a little town at the foot of a mountain, which they called St. Francis; others retired amongst the Moxos, and some having embarked on the Mamore, fell down that river to the Amazons, and thence passed into Spain. The city stands on the banks of the Guapay, which forms a semicircle round it. It is pretty large and populous, but ill built. It was erected into a bishopric in 1605, but the bishop resides at the town of Misque. The houses are of stone, and are thatched with palm-leaves.—N. B. Such towns beginning with Santa, as are not inserted under S, will be found under the title which follows, as SANTA CRUZ. See CRUZ, SANTA.

SANTA CRUZ, an island of the Pacific Ocean, discovered and so named by Mendana in 1595. It was afterwards called Egmont island by Captain Carteret, which see.

SANTA CRUZ, a small island among the Philippines near the south coast of Lucon. Lat. 13. 42. N. long. 121. 52. E.

SANTA CRUZ, a town on the west coast of the island of Mindoro. Lat. 13. 5. N. long. 120. 51. E.

SANTA CRUZ, a small island among the Philippines, near the south-west coast of Mindanao. Lat. 6. 40. N. long. 122. 12. E.

SANTA ELENA, PUNTA DE, a settlement in South America, in the province and government of Guayaquil, and kingdom of Quito. It is situated on the coast, and has a good port, which is much frequented by vessels carrying on an illicit trade.

SANTA FE, a town of Mexico, in the intendancy of Guanaxuato, situated in a narrow defile, hemmed in by mountains on either side. It is regularly and well built, and has several handsome buildings, among which is the parish church. It contains about 5000 families of mestizoes and mulattoes; 60 leagues west-north-west of Mexico. Lat. 22. 4. N.

SANTA MARIA. See ST. MARY.

SANTA PEDRO, BAY OF, an extensive bay on the coast of New California or New Albion. Its two extreme points, to the north and south, namely, point Dume and Point Vincente, lie about 26 miles asunder.

SANTA ROSA, a town of Mexico, in the province of Cohahuila, about 38 miles to the north-west of Montelovez. It is represented to be the most healthy situation in the province, and to have the best water and fruit. It is situated near the source of the river Millada, and its population is estimated at 4000.

SANTA ROSA, a small island in the North Pacific Ocean, about 80 miles from the coast of New Albion. Lat. 33. 58. N. long. 240. 22. E.

SANTA TIAGO, a town on the west coast of the island of Lucon. Lat. 16. 32. N. long. 120. 47. E.

SANTA YSABEL, a settlement of the island of Cuba; 70 miles south-west of Havannah.

SANTA YSABELLA, a settlement of the island of Cuba, on the north coast; 135 miles west-south-west of Havannah.

SANTABUCA, a settlement of the island of Cuba; 10 miles north-north-west of Spiritu Santo.

SANTALACEÆ, in Botany, a natural order of plants, selected by Mr. Brown, Prodr. Nov. Holl. v. i. 350, from the Elæagni and Onagræ of Jussieu, and named from SANTALUM, which is one of this tribe. The order in question belongs to the Dicotyledones apetalæ, and has the following characters:—Perianth superior, in four or five segments, half coloured; the segments before expansion parallel. Stamens four or five, opposite to the segments of the perianth, and inserted into the base of each. Germen of one cell, with from two to four seeds, which are inserted near the top of the central receptacle, and pendulous. Style one. Stigma often lobed. Pericarp dry and pulpy, with one perfect seed. Albumen fleshy, the shape of the seed. Embryo dicotyledonous, central, inverted, round. Stem arboreous or shrubby. Leaves alternate, or imperfectly opposite, undivided, without stipulas; occasionally minute, and like stipulas in appearance. Flowers small, somewhat spiked: rarely umbellate, or solitary.

SANTALUM, in Botany, a genus of the class tetrandria, order monogynia, natural order of Onagræ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth margin superior, four-toothed. Corolla: petals four, placed on the segments of the calyx, straight. Glands four, smaller than the petals, alternate with them. Stamina: filaments four, growing on the tube of the calyx. Anthers simple. Pistil: germ inferior. Style length of the stamens. Stigma simple. Pericarp berry. Seed one.—*Essential Character.* Calyx four-toothed. Corolla four-petalled, with the petals growing on the calyx, besides four glands. Berry inferior, one-seeded.

1. Santalum album, or white and yellow sandal-wood.—This tree has the appearance of a myrtle, with stiff brachiate branches, every where jointed. In habit, leaves, and inflorescence, resembling the privet.—Leaves opposite, on short petioles, spreading, lanceolate, entire. Stipules none. Flowers small, red, erect. Calyx superior, bell-shaped, four-cleft. Nectary four-leaved, inserted into the mouth of the calyx. Stigma four-lobed. Berry globular, size of a large pea, juicy, black when ripe.

This valuable tree is a native of many parts of India. In the Circar mountains, where it is wild, it is but of a small size, and the wood of little value. On the Malabar coast, it is much larger, and the wood of the best sort.

Birds eat the berries, by which means it is propagated extensively.

2. Santalum ovatum, or ovate-leaved santalum.—Leaves elliptic-

elliptic-ovate, acute, veiny, four times as long as the footstalks. Flower-stalks undivided or three-cleft. Stem arboreous.—Gathered by Mr. Brown in the tropical part of New Holland. He remarks that it is nearly related to the former, but distinct.

3. Santalum venosum, or veiny-leaved santalum.—Leaves oval-oblong, bluntish, glaucous, slightly veiny, twice as long as broad. Clusters brachiate, undivided. Stem arboreous.—From the same country.

4. Santalum oblongatum, or oblong-leaved santalum.—Leaves oblong, narrow, obtuse, coriaceous, glaucous, slightly veiny above, four times as long as broad. Cluster, brachiate, simple or divided.—Gathered by Sir Joseph Banks, in the tropical part of New Holland.

5. Santalum lanceolatum, or lanceolate-leaved santalum.—Leaves lanceolate, elongated, acute at each end, glaucous, coriaceous, without veins. Clusters brachiate. Stem shrubby.—Found by Mr. Brown in the same country.

6. Santalum obtusifolium, or blunt-leaved santalum.—Leaves oblong-oval, obtuse, coriaceous, veinless; glaucous beneath; the upper ones here and there alternate. Clusters of few flowers. Stem shruby.—Gathered by Mr. Brown near Port Jackson, New South Wales.

SANTANDER, or St. Andero, a small province of Spain, called properly Las Montanas de Santander and de Burgos, or simply Las Montanas. It lies along the southern shore of the Bay of Biscay, between Asturias, Old Castile, and Biscay proper. It consists of steep mountains and valleys, the former extending in many parts to the shore. The produce varies greatly, according to the elevation; for while the highest peaks are covered with snow during great part of the year, the valleys produce maize; and the pasturage, whether on the plains or on the slope of the hills, is in general very good. This country contains mines of iron of the best quality; there are foundries of artillery and of steel at two small towns in the interior, called La Cavada and Lierganes. The coast has several excellent harbours, such as St. Vincent de la Barquera, Santillana, Castro de Urdiales, Santander, Laredo, and above all, Santona. Ships of war are built at Guarnizo, near Santander. This province formed part of the ancient Cantabria, which the Romans found so difficult to subdue, and which subsequently withstood all the efforts of the Moors.

SANTANDER, the capital of the foregoing canton, is situated on the declivity of a hill, in a circular peninsula, to the east of Santillana. Its port is commodious, well sheltered, and of an easy access for merchant vessels of all sizes; frigates of 40 guns must wait the flow of the tide before they can pass the bar. The harbour is protected by two forts or castles, and the entry of vessels into the inner basin is facilitated by a fine pier 30 feet wide. Santander has long been one of the ports called habilitados, i. e. authorised to carry on a free trade with Spanish America. It has also a traffic with the north of Europe, exporting, among other articles, considerable quantities of wool. Its population is about 10,000: its suburbs are inhabited solely by fishermen. Since 1754 it has been the see of a bishop; 50 miles north-west of Bilboa, and 79 north of Burgos. Lat. 43. 28. 20. N. long. 3. 40. 15. W.

SANTANDER, New, Province of. See Potosi, San Luis.

SANTANILLA, or Swan Islands, two small islands in the bay of Honduras, surrounded with rocks. Lat. 17. 20. N. long. 85. 30. W.

SANTARELLI (Giuseppe), cavaliero, cappellano di Malsa, and meastro di cappella, to the pope in 1770. In his youth he had been an opera singer of the first class; but after his admission into the papal chapel, he had rendered himself not only a profound contrapuntist, but deeply read in the history of his art, and had employed many years in compiling the following curious work: "Della Musica del Santuario, e della Disciplina de' suoi Cantori;" or, "A Treatise on the Music of the Pontifical Chapel, and the Discipline of its Singers."

This work, divided into centuries from the time of our Saviour, as secolo primo, sec. 2do. sec. terso, &c., gives authorities for all its assertions throughout, from ecclesiastical history.

The first volume was printed in 1764, but never published; the MS. of the second was in great forwardness in 1770; and seemed to supply all the deficiencies of another curious work on the same subject, published in 1711, entitled "Osservazioni per ben regolare il Coro della Capella Pontificia;" or, "Rules for conducting the Choir of the Pope's Chapel," by Andrea Adami. But the historical part of this book beginning only at the year 1400, and ending in 1711, wants such a complete work as that of Santarelli, which begins with the first ages of the church, and continues to the middle of the last century, for the gratification of such curious lovers of church music as wish to trace it from its source.

SANTAREM, a considerable town of Portugal, on the right bank of the Tagus; 37 miles north-east of Lisbon. It is very pleasantly situated in the midst of a fine plain, and is divided into the Lower Town, which extends towards the river, and the Upper Town, which stands on an eminence. Though not fortified, the nature of the ground makes it a good position for an army. It contains 8000 inhabitants, with 13 parish churches, and 14 monasteries. It is of great antiquity, and was a place of note under the Romans, who called it *Præsidium Julium*. In the early history of Portugal it also makes a conspicuous figure, and was the residence of the courts of several kings. An academy of history and antiquities was established here in 1747. Lat. 39. 17. N. long. 8. 9. W.

SANTEE, a river of the United States, in South Carolina, formed by the union of the Congaree and Wateree. It runs into the sea by two mouths, North and South Santee, 20 miles below Georgetown. This river affords a navigation at some seasons nearly 300 miles, as high up as Morgantown, North Carolina. It is connected with Cooper river by a canal. The main branch in North Carolina, is called Catawba. Lat. 33. 12. N. long. 79. 51. W.

SANTELMO, an island in the Pacific Ocean, discovered by Quiros, in 1606. Lat. 28. S. long. 152. 25. E.

SANTEN. See Zanten.

SANTENAY, a small town in the island of Majorca. Population 2900; 30 miles east-south-east of Palma.

SANTENAY, a large village in the east of France, in Burgundy, department of the Cote d'Or. The wine raised in the neighbourhood is in high repute. Population 1200; 9 miles south-west of Beaune.

SA'NTER. See Saunter.

SANTERNO, a river of the east of Italy, and the Ecclesiastical States, province of Romagna. It rises in the Appennines, and falls into the Po d'Argento, about 14 miles north of Comacchio.

SANTEUL, or, as it is sometimes spelt, Santeuil (John Baptist), a modern Latin poet, was born at Paris in 1630. He studied in the Jesuits' college, and at the proper age entered among the canons-regular of the abbey of St. Victor, and devoted himself to a literary life. He acquired a considerable name by his productions in Latin poetry, in which he sung the praises of several great men, and he furnished the city of Paris with a number of inscriptions for public edifices. His character was very singular: he was violent, capricious, and impatient. He composed in a sort of enthusiasm, with strange grimaces and distortions, and he had the highest opinion of his own performances. His moral conduct was very open to reproof, yet he had his fits of devotion, and none of his productions were more admired than his hymns. Those which he composed for the breviary of the church of Paris were so much applauded by the devout, that many other churches wished to employ him in the same task. At this time Santeul was living in the great world, being much patronized by the two princes of Conde, the duke of Bourbon, and other men of rank and consequence. He was also noticed by Lewis XIV., who granted him a pension. He was, however,

however, the subject of raillery, and the manner of his death affords a proof of the liberties that were taken with him. Having accompanied the duke of Bourbon to Dijon at the assembly of the states of Burgundy, some inconsiderate person, in the way of a joke, cast a quantity of snuff into his wine, which, as soon as he had swallowed, threw him into great agonies, that put a period to his life in 14 hours. He died in 1697, at the age of 67. In his last moments a page came to him and announced a message from his highness the duke of Bourbon, upon which he exclaimed, "Tu solus altissimus," raising his eyes to heaven. He is thought to have displayed more of the true poet than most of those who have distinguished themselves by modern Latin verse. Of his works a complete edition was published in three vols. 12mo. at Paris, 1729.

SANTEUL (Claude), elder brother of the preceding, an ecclesiastic in the seminary of St. Magloire, at Paris, was also an eminent Latin poet. He was as gentle in manners as his brother was impetuous. He died in 1684, at the age of 57.

SANTIA, a town of the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont, containing 2900 inhabitants, and carrying on a brisk traffic: 28 miles north-east of Turin.

SANTIAGO. See Jago.

SANTIAGO, a river of the Caraccas, in the province of Cumana, which runs into the Manapire.

SANTILLANA, a small town of the north of Spain, in the district called Las Montanas, or the mountains of Santander. It contains 1600 inhabitants, and has a large and fertile territory; 14 miles west-south-west of Santandar, and 92 east by north of Oviedo.

SANTILLIEN, a small town of the south of France, in the department of the Ardeche. Population 2100.

SANTIPONCE, or Santiponte, a village of Spain, on the right bank of the Guadiana. It occupies part of the site of the ancient Italica, a celebrated city under the Romans, and the birth-place of the Emperor Trajan. Here are still some antiquities, particularly an amphitheatre, capable of containing 10,000 spectators, which, though injured by an earthquake, is still in such preservation as to show its original size and construction. The ruins of the city may be traced to a great extent; 4 miles north-north west of Seville.

SANTIPORE, a town of Bengal, district of Kishenagur. It is situated on a sandy soil, about 2 miles east of the Bhagurutty river. The East India Company have here a celebrated factory for the purchase of muslins, saunahs, sugar, and rum, under the superintendance of one of their civil servants. It is esteemed one of the healthiest places in Bengal. Lat. 23. 13. N. long. 28. 34. E.—There is another place of the same name in the province of Allahabad.

SANTIVANES, a small town of the north of Spain, in the province of Burgos, remarkable only for a large pin-manufactory; 7 miles north-north-west of Burgos.

SANTO STEFANO, a small port on the north side of the Ionian island of Corfu, frequented by small vessels.

SANTOLINA [Dimin. q. sanctolina. *Holy herb;* so named on account of its supposed medical qualities], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia æqualis, natural order of compositæ discoideæ, corymbiferæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: common hemispherical, imbricate: scales ovate-oblong, acute, pressed close. Corolla: compound uniform, longer than the calyx. Corollets hermaphrodite, equal, numerous; proper one petalled, funnel-form: border five cleft, revolute. Stamina: filaments five, capillary, very short. Anther cylindrical, tubulous. Pistil: germ four-cornered, oblong. Style filiform, length of the stamens. Stigmas two, oblong, depressed, truncate. Pericarp: none. Calyx unchanged. Seeds: solitary, oblong, four-cornered. Down none. Receptacle chaffy, flattish: chaffs concave.—Santolina Alpina differs in having no female florets.—*Essential Character.* Calyx imbricate, hemispherical. Down none. Receptacle chaffy.

1. Santolina chamæcyparissus, or common lavender-cotton.—Common lavender-cotton has a shrubby stalk, dividing into many woody branches; with slender hoary leaves, indented four ways, and having a rank strong odour when handled. The branches divide towards the top into several slender stalks, the lower parts of which have a few small leaves of the same shape as the others, but naked above, and terminated by a single flower, composed of sulphur-coloured fistular florets, without any ray.—Native of the South of Europe; as Spain and Italy.

There are three varieties.—Lavender-cotton is acrid, bitter, and aromatic; and has much the same qualities as southernwood.

2. Santolina rosmarinifolia, or rosemary-leaved lavender-cotton.—Peduncles one-flowered, leaves linear, tubercled at the edge. This plant is herbaceous, scarcely suffruticose.—Native of Spain.

3. Santolina fragrantissima, or sweet-smelling lavender-cotton.—Flowers corymbed, leaves ovate, crenulate—Stem hoary, with alternate branches.

4. Santolina Alpina, or Alpine lavender-cotton.—Peduncles one-flowered, leaves bipinnate, stems simple.—The flowers are without any female florets. It is herbaceous.—Native of Tuscany. Flowering in June.

5. Santolina anthemoides, or chamomile-leaved lavender-cotton.—Peduncles one-flowered, leaves bipinnate, stem very much branched, and villose.—This plant is a palm in height.—Native of Spain, Italy, and Siberia.

6. Santolina maritima, or sea-lavender cotton.—Peduncles corymbed, leaves oblong, blunt, crenate, densely woolly.

Propagation and Culture.—These are hardy plants, which will thrive in the open air; a poor dry soil suits them best. They may be cultivated so as to become ornaments to a garden, particularly among evergreen shrubs. They may be propagated by planting slips or cuttings during the spring, in a border of light fresh earth, watering and shading them in dry weather until they have taken root; after which they will require no farther care.

SANTO'N, *s.* [*Santoun*, old Fr. petit soint.] One of the Turkish priests; a kind of dervis, regarded by the vulgar as a *saint. Lacombe.*—The dervis and other *santoons* or enthusiasticks, being in the crowd, express their zeal by turning round so long together, and with such swiftness, as will hardly be credited. *Sir T. Herbert.*

SANTON, a village of England, in Cumberland, near Egremont.

SANTON DOWNHAM, a village of England, in Suffolk, on the banks of the Ouse; 2 miles from Brandon.

SANTONA, a harbour in the north of Spain, on the coast of the district called Las Montanas; 18 miles east of Santander, and 4 west-north-west of Laxedo. The entrance from the sea is easy, and the basin of sufficient depth to admit ships of the first rate. It was, however, neglected till the late war in Spain, when the French occupied the adjoining village and fort, and defended them in 1813, with a considerable garrison.

SANTONGA, a river on the eastern coast of Madagascar, which falls into the sea. Lat. 18. 55. N.

SANTORINI, Santorin, St. Erini, or St. Irene, formerly "Thera," and more anciently "Callista," signifying "the handsome," and deriving its present name from "St. Irene," to whom it was dedicated under the emperors of the east, is, in proportion to its extent, the richest and most populous of all the islands of the Archipelago. Emerged from the bottom of the sea, it was afterwards partly swallowed up in the year 237, B. C. and separated from Therasia, a small island now called "Aspronisi." The space contained between these two islands, and at present filled up by the sea, made, as it is supposed, a part of the island of Thera, or of the large island, which, at the time of this revolution, assumed the form of a crescent. Indeed, the coast of that gulf, composed of steep rocks, black, calcined, and towering upwards of 300 feet above the level of the sea, appears to be the edge of an enormous crater, the bottom of which has never been fathomed.

Olivier observes, that if we reflect on the considerable changes

changes which Santorin has experienced in consequence of the effects of a volcano, that has acted in it from a very remote era, we may discover four principal periods, very distinct from one another. At the first period the island was limited to mounts St. Stephen and St. Elias, as far as the environs of Pyrgos and Messaria, the only places that are not volcanized. The second was the formation of the rest of the island as far as Therasia or Aspronisi. The roadstead did not then exist, and the island was as large again, of a rounded or oblong form. The third period was that of the sudden and extraordinary depression, which took place in the middle of the island, from which has resulted the roadstead. The fourth and last period was that of the formation of those islands, which have successively issued from the bottom of the sea. If we consider what Santorin must have been at its second period, from what it is still at this day, we shall easily be persuaded, that it must have been one of the finest and the most fertile islands of the Archipelago. Its circular form, a soil susceptible of culture, which rose by degrees from the border of the sea, in the form of a calotte, flattened at its top, St. Stephen and St. Elias, situated at one of the extremities, covered perhaps with verdure and wood; every thing concurred to render Santorin, if not a very beautiful island, at least one of the most agreeable of the Archipelago; for on the supposition that this mountain was covered with vegetables, it contributed to the embellishment of the island; it furnished the inhabitants with wood, and probably afforded them a very copious spring of water. At the present day, notwithstanding the small extent of its territory being estimated at seven or eight leagues in circuit, though it wants a good harbour, and has only cistern water, Santorin is still the most populous and the richest of all the small islands of the Archipelago. On the south part of Santorin was built, on the summit of a mountain, now called St. Stephen's mountain, a flourishing town, the capital of the island, bearing the name of Thera. Its ruins still attest its ancient magnificence. Here was a temple dedicated to Neptune, and another to Apollo, to whom the whole island was consecrated. Several inscriptions and monuments, and particularly two large statues, erected in honour of the emperors Marcus Aurelius and Antoninus, are mentioned by those who have visited the island, and indicate the populous and flourishing state of this island under the Roman empire. On this island are reckoned five principal villages, in each of which is a primate; viz., Pyrgos, Apanomeria, Scauro, Emborio, and Acroteri. The primates, distinguished by the name of "Epitropi," are charged with the police of their respective districts, with convoking the inhabitants for public purposes, &c.; they are renewed every year, and appointed by the general assemblies of the people. Besides these five principal villages, there are several others of less note, such as Merevelli, Vourvoulo, Phiro-Stephani, Phira, Gonia, Carterado, Votona, Messaria, and Megalo-Chorio. The population, according to Sonnini, consists of 8000 or 10,000 inhabitants, but according to Olivier, exceeds 12,000 souls; almost all of the Greek church. In Tournefort's time, the number of Roman Catholics amounted to one-third of the inhabitants; but at present they do not form one-sixth. Here are two bishops, the one Latin and the other Greek, and two convents of nuns of the same description. The Greek priests are numerous and poor. The inhabitants share, in common with several other islands, the advantage of having no Turks among them. They are very laborious, diligent, and temperate. They apply themselves with incredible activity to the culture of the vine and that of cotton. The women manufacture cloth of different qualities; they also knit caps and stockings, which they sell to strangers, and send to Russia, and to some towns of Italy. Wine forms the principal revenue of the island; and the most esteemed is that known under the name of "vino santo." At a proper age it is preferable to the best Cyprus wine. The quantity of wine annually exported is reckoned at a million of okes. Hence is also exported a small quantity of brandy. Although the soil of the island is very dry, and far from fertile, the cotton-tree and the vine thrive extremely well. The land is not good enough for wheat. Only a little barley and some legumes are gathered. Fruit-trees are very scarce; the fig-tree and the almond-tree are almost the only ones cultivated. A few sheep, goats, and hogs are bred. Asses and mules are made use of for draught; oxen are seldom employed for ploughing. No fuel is used besides wood and charcoal, which are brought from the coast of Asia, or the lentisk, which the inhabitants cut at Hiera, and on some neighbouring islands. The partridge and the hare, though common in most islands of the Archipelago, are very scarce at Santorin; but quails are very plentiful; and these they are in the habit of parboiling, and preserving through the winter in vinegar, or in vino santo.

The villages situated on the summit of the intersected ground of the roadstead present a very singular aspect. The houses are cut into the pumice-stone, half built on the outside of it, and placed one above the other, according to the disposition of the ground. The part which is elevated on the outside is levelled at the top like a terrace, by means of a mixture of lime-stone and pumice-stone sifted. The poorest villages are merely an assemblage of caverns made in the pumice-stone. Pyrgos is the most considerable, the best built, and the richest village of the island; the air is pure and the prospect agreeable. All the houses have a cistern, which cisterns are carefully filled in the rainy season, as the inhabitants have no other water to drink or to give to their cattle. From the top of the mountains of Santorin may be discovered the island of Candia, distant about 18 leagues.

The road of Santorin is about seven miles in length from north to south, and six in breadth from the little harbour of Phira to the island of Aspronisi. It would be one of the best ports of the Archipelago, if ships could anchor there; boats anchor at San Nicolo. Two leagues to the south-west of Santorin lie two islets, little known and uninteresting. They are named the "Great and Little Christiana." Lat. 36. 28. N. long. 25. 36. E. *Sonnini. Olivier.*

SANTOS, a town and port of Brazil, in the captaincy of St. Paul's. It is a place of considerable trade, being the storehouse of the province, and the resort of many vessels trading to the Rio de la Plata. It is tolerably well-built, and its population, consisting chiefly of merchants, shopkeepers, and artificers, amounts to 6 or 7000. The situation is by no means healthy, as the country around is low, woody, and frequently deluged with rain, by reason of the high mountains in its vicinity, which impede the passage of the clouds. Several rivulets flowing from the foot of these mountains intersect the land in various directions, and unite in one great river, a little above the town of Santos. The rice of this district, which is grown in great quantities, is considered the best in Brazil, and the bananas are equally noted.

From this port the Spanish territories, as well as Rio Grande, receive a great proportion of their sugar, coffee, rum, rice, mandioca, indigo, &c.; in return they bring hides and tallow, which are generally exported hence to Europe. The Portuguese send much of their produce to the Spanish colonies, and are generally ill-paid; but the shortness of the voyage, and the want of other markets, tempt many young men to speculate, notwithstanding the heavy duties, and the numberless petty obstacles, with which their neighbours have impeded and encumbered this commerce. As Santos is the embarking place of St. Paul's, its intercourse with that town is very considerable. In the course of a day several hundred mules frequently arrive, laden with the produce of the country, and return with salt, iron, copper, earthenware, and European manufactures. For the traffic of its immediate vicinity, it has the convenience of water-carriage, its river being navigable about 20 miles, up to Cuberton, where an officer with a guard of soldiers is stationed to receive the king's duties, for the repair of the roads and other public purposes. The harbour of Santos has a safe entrance, and is very secure; it is a strait, having the island of St. Vincent to the left, for the extent of half a mile, when it takes a different direction. Here is situated the port, which has good anchorage, with regular soundings towards the shore, which shoals

shoals gradually. The currents and eddies cause some inconvenience, and the high land occasions much variation in the winds, which perplexes mariners on their entrance into the narrows; but as the water is not deep, and the current far from strong, a ship is safe the moment her anchor is let go, and by means of a boat and kedge she may be placed in any situation the pilot chooses. The part called the narrows is defended by two forts, on passing which there is a kind of lagoon of three or four leagues in length, almost full of mangroves, terminated by the town. Lat. 23. 59. 30. S. long. 46. 21. W.

SANTOS, a town of South America, in the province of Panama, on the west side of the bay of Panama. It is of a hot temperature, very abundant in cattle, with which, and with salted meats, cheese, and other articles, it supplies the city of Panama. The inhabitants are a mixture of Spaniards and Indians. Lat. 8. N. long. 81. 8. W.

SANTOS. See Bahia de Todos.

SANTOS, an island on the west coast of Brazil, about six leagues in circumference. Lat. 24. S.

SANTOS, a settlement of South America, in the kingdom of Quito, and province of Jaen de Bracamoros.—It is also the name of several other insignificant settlements.

SANTOS, Los, a settlement of South America, in the province of Tucuman.

SANTRIEH, a district of Africa, in the southern part of Tripoli, and the north of Siwah, consisting chiefly of sandy desert.

SANVITALIA [so named by Lamarck], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia-superflua, natural order of compositæ oppositifoliæ; corymbiferæ *(Juss.)* —Generic Character. Common calyx hemispherical, imbricated, with ovate, concave scales. Corolla compound, radiated: florets of the disk tubular, perfect, with an erect, five-cleft limb; those of the radius about fourteen, female, ovate, emarginate, spreading. Stamina: in the perfect florets, filaments five, capillary, very short; anthers united into a cylinder. Pistil: germen in the perfect florets, oblong, compressed; style simple; stigmas two, spreading: germen in the female ones prismatic, triangular, acute at the base, crowned at the top with three small spines, the innermost of which is erect, the rest reflexed: style and stigma as in the former. Pericarp none, except the unchanged calyx. Seeds, of the radius, prismatic, smooth, crowned with two reflexed, and one erect, bristles; those of the disk wedge-shaped, compressed, encompassed with a vertical, membranous, toothed border, which gradually disappears as the seeds approach the radius. Receptacle chaffy.—*Essential Character.* Receptacle chaffy. Seeds of the radius crowned with three bristles; those of the middle of the disk winged. Calyx imbricated.

1. Sanvitalia procumbens, or trailing sanvitalia.—Stem procumbent Leaves ovate, entire.—Native of Mexico, from whence it was brought to the Spanish gardens, and from thence introduced to those of France, England, Germany, &c. The plant proves a hardy annual, flowering in July and August. The stem is much branched in an opposite manner, downy, like the stalked, opposite, three-ribbed leaves. Flowers terminal, solitary, encompassed with a few leaves; their disk purple, almost black; their radius yellow; so that they resemble some of the smaller Rudbeckiæ.

2. Sanvitalia helianthoides, or upright sanvitalia.—Stem erect. Leaves ovate-oblong; serrated at the extremity.—Native of Peru. The flowers of this are said to be as large as those of Helianthus giganteus.

SANUTO (Marino, surnamed Torsello), a noble Venetian and traveller, was born in the 13th century at Rivo-Alto, in the state of Venice. He passed his youth in five different voyages to the East; in which he visited Armenia, Egypt, Cyprus, Rhodes, Palestine, and the neighbouring countries. Upon his return to Venice, he composed a work, entitled "Liber Secretorum Fidelium Crucis:" in this he gave an exact description of these provinces, with the manners of the people; also a relation of the changes of government, and the wars undertaken to recover them from the infidels. When his work was completed, he travelled through Europe, with the view of engaging its sovereigns to concur in a new attempt. In 1321, he offered his book to pope John XXII. at Avignon, with four maps of the parts described, but it was not accepted. He was living in the year 1329, but it is not known how much longer he survived. The work of Sanuto, with his letters, was published in 1611 by Bongars, in the "Gesta Dei per Francos." The information contained in it has always been considered as highly valuable, and by some writers it has been regarded as "a complete treatise of the commerce and navigation of that age, and even of remoter times." There was another person of celebrity of the same name, who lived to the year 1535, and was much employed in public affairs by the republic of Venice. He wrote an ample chronicle of that state from its origin to 1501, which has been published in Muratori's Collection of the Italian Historians.

SANXAYS, a small town in the west of France, department of the Vienne, situated on a hill near the Von with 1700 inhabitants; 9 miles north of Lusignan.

SAN-YA, a town of Corea; 13 miles west of Tsin-cheou.

SAN-YAM-LION, a town of Chinese Tartary. Lat. 41. 7. N. long. 103. 3. E.

SAN-YENG, a Portuguese town of Kayor, in Western Africa.

SAN-YUEN, a town of China, of the third rank, in Shensee.

SANZA, a small town of Italy, in the Principato Citra. Population 2400; 7 miles north of Policastro.

SANZIO (Raffaello). See Raphael.

SAO, a town of China, of the third rank, in Sechuen.

SAOLO, or Paulo, a small town of Italy, in the south of the kingdom of Naples, in Calabria Citra, near the sea. It has extensive manufactures of earthenware.

SAON, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Drome, near the Rubion, with 1500 inhabitants.

SAONA, a small river on the north-west of the kingdom of Naples, in the Terra di Lavoro, which falls into the sea at Gaeta.

SAONA, an island in the West Indies, situated to the south-east end of the main-land of Hispaniola. From the sea it has a low long level appearance, is 21 miles in extent, and 7 wide. Its nearest or north-west part is only half a league from Point Palmilla; the passage then widens, but is rocky, and a good pilot only carries seven feet through. The flats and rocks around the island are perfectly visible, even at a great depth, from the limpid state of the water. Its best harbour is in the west end, and both points are remarkable when near, from being distinguished by two elevations, as also by a range of small hills in the middle, facing the south, which temper the climate, and fertilise the soil with gushing springs. It abounds in fish, and terrestrial and aquatic wild birds of various species, particularly the pigeon, that here comes in annual migration, undisturbed, to produce her young; which done, she again returns with her brood, and in immense flocks to the other parts of the island, in search of those grains, seeds, and berries, on which she feeds, and proceeds periodically to those parts where they are successively produced, and most abound.

Saona, called by the natives Adamancy, once boasted a cacique, and subjects independent of Haiti, and was afterwards held in the right of the body of Jesuits, who improved its fertile soil, and had several settlements and pasture lands upon it. At present Saona lies unnoticed and unknown, trodden only by a few solitary fishermen, who annually visit it, to collect tortoise-shell, or ensnare the wild cattle that abound and procreate in the solitude. It was discovered by Columbus, in 1794. Lat. 18. 8. N. long. 69. 42. W.

SAONE, a large river of France, which rises among the Vosges mountains, passes by Chatillon, Gray, Auxonne, Verdun, Chalons, Macon, &c., and after a course of about 200 miles, joins the Rhone at Lyons. In its course it receives the waters of Doubs, Ouche, and other streams, and is navigable as far as Auxonne. It gives name to the departments of the Upper Saone and Loire.

SAONE, Upper, a department in the east of France, including the northern part of Franche Compte, and inclosed on the north by the department of the Vosges, and on the east by that of the Upper Rhine. Its superficial extent is about 2500 square miles; its population 312,000. Its surface is mountainous, being intersected by some branches of the Vosges chain. The principal rivers are the Saône, the Oignon, the Drugeon, and the Amance. The climate is temperate. The soil is in general stony, but in some places highly fruitful. The principal products are corn, hemp, wine, fruit, and wood. Of mineral products, iron and coal are the most important; the former is worked to a large extent. The department belongs to the sixth military division, and to the jurisdiction of the *cour royale* of Besançon. It is divided into three arrondissements, 27 cantons, and 640 communes. The chief town is Vesoul.

SAONE AND LOIRE, a department in the east of France, comprehending the southern part of Burgundy, and bounded by the departments of the Jura, the Rhone, and the Allier. It has a superficial extent of 3500 square miles, and a population of 471,000. Its surface is very uneven, being covered with mountains, hills, and forests, separated, however, by extensive plains and valleys. The principal rivers are the Saone, the Loire, the Arroux, the Doubs, and the Seille. This department contains also a canal which joins the Saone and Loire, forming a water communication between the Atlantic and the Mediterranean. The climate is temperate and salubrious; the soil is in some places stony and sandy, in others rich and fertile. The chief productions are corn, hemp, vines, and various kinds of fruit. Iron, marble, alabaster, crystal, coal, and other minerals, are also abundant in this hilly region. The wine of this department, particularly that of Macon, is celebrated. The department belongs to the 18th military division, to the diocese of Autun, and to the jurisdiction of the *cour royale* of Dijon. It is divided into the five arrondissements, Macon (the capital), Autun, Chalons, Charolles, and Louhans.

SAORGIO, a well-built town of the Sardinian states, in the county of Nice, situated on the summit of a rocky mountain, on the road to Piedmont. It has a strong castle, and contains a population of 3100; 21 miles north-east of Nice.

SAP, *s.* [sæpe. Saxon; *sap*, Dutch.] The vital juice of plants; the juice that circulates in trees and herbs.

Wound the bark of our fruit trees,
Lest, being over-proud with *sap* and blood,
With too much riches it confound itself. *Shakspeare.*

See the articles Botany, and Vegetable Physiology.

To SAP, *v. a.* [*zappare*, Ital.] To undermine; to subvert by digging; to mine.

Their dwellings were *sapp'd* by floods,
Their houses fell upon their household gods. *Dryden.*

To SAP, *v. n.* To proceed by mine; to proceed invisibly.—For the better security of the troops, both assaults are carried on by *sapping*. *Tatler.*

SAP, *s.* In military language, a sort of mine.

SAP, a small town in the north of France, in the department of the Orne. Population 1200; 30 miles north-east of Alençon.

SAPA, St. Michael de, a village in the valley of Arica, in the province of Charcos, in Peru. It is a small place, but famous for the quantity of Guinea pepper produced in its vicinity. This will not thrive in mountainous parts, but is cultivated in the valleys. The inhabitants of this village sell annually no less than 80,000 crowns worth of it; 6 miles east of Arica. Lat. 17. 30. S. long. 78. 10. W.

SAPACURI, a village of Western Africa, in the country of Sierra Leone.

SAPADILLAS, two small islands in the Spanish Main, near the coast of Veragua. Lat. 9. N. long. 81. 55. W.

SAPAROUA, one of the small Amboyna isles, about 35 miles from Amboyna, with a fort on the south side. This island is extremely fertile in cloves, and, along with Noosa, (formerly Laut), yielded to the Dutch East India Company, one half of all the cloves furnished from the Amboyna isles. It is about 20 miles in circumference. Lat. 3. 40. S. long. 28. 40. E.

SAPATA ISLE, or Pula Sapata, so called by the Portuguese, from its resemblance to a horse-shoe. It is small, elevated, and barren, and from the sea has a perpendicular appearance, and white, like the cliffs of Dover, with innumerable flocks of sea fowl hovering and screaming over it. Lat. 10. 4. N. long. 109. 10. E.

SAPATOCA, San Joaquin de, a settlement of New Grenada, in the province of Tunja.

SAPCOTE, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 4 miles east-by-south of Hinckley. Population 692.

SAPERSDEN, a parish of England, in Gloucester; 4 miles from Stroud.

SAPEY OVER, a parish of England, in Herefordshire; 7 miles north-north-east of Bromyard.

SAPEY PRITCHARD, or Lower, a hamlet of England, in Worcestershire; 12 miles west-north-west of Worcester.

SAP-GREEN is a yellow green prepared from the concreted juice of buckthorn-berries, and used in water-painting.

Sap-green is very useful for some purposes as a washing colour, as it makes a strong and pretty bright stain. It may be prepared in the following manner:—Take any quantity of buckthorn-berries before they are ripe, and press out the juice in such a press as is used for making cyder or verjuice, or by any other method. Strain this juice through flannel, and then let it stand to settle; and when it has stood for a proper time, decant off the clearer part of the fluid from the sediment. Put this juice into a stone or earthen vessel, and evaporate it till it begins to become of a thick consistence; then remove it into a similar vessel, such as is used for heating cochineal, French berries, Brazil and other woods, &c., and finish the operation in balneo mariæ; collecting the matter into one mass, as it acquires a proper consistence. The marks of goodness in sap-green are the transparency, brightness, and strength of colour it appears to have, when rubbed on paper.

SAPHENA, in Anatomy, a name given to certain veins of the lower extremities. See Anatomy.

SAPHETA, in Architecture, is the board over the top of a window, placed parallel and opposite to the window-stool at the bottom.

SAPHEY KEY, a small island in the bay of Honduras, near the coast of Mexico. Lat. 17. 10. N. long. 88. 40. W.

SAPHIES, an African term which denotes certain charms or amulets, which the negroes constantly wear about them. These saphies are prayers, or rather sentences from the Koran, which the Mahometan priests write on scraps of paper, and sell to the simple natives, who regard them as possessing very extraordinary virtues. Some of the negroes wear them to guard themselves against the bite of snakes or alligators; and in this case, the saphie is commonly inclosed in a snake's or alligator's skin, and tied round the ankle. Others have recourse to them in time of war, to protect their persons against hostile weapons; but the common use to which these amulets are applied is to prevent or cure bodily diseases; to preserve from hunger and thirst, and generally to conciliate the favour of superior powers under all the circumstances and occurrences of life.

Similar charms or amulets are common in all parts of Africa, under the different denominations of *domini*, *grigri*, *fetiche*, &c. &c.

SA'PHIRE. See Sapphire.

SAPHT, a village of Upper Egypt, to the south of Gizeh.

SA'PID, *adj.* [*sapidus*, Lat.] Tasteful; palatable; making a powerful stimulation upon the palate.—Thus camels, to make the water *sapid*, do raise the mud with their feet. *Brown.*

SAPI'DITY, or Sa'pidness, *s.* Tastefulness; power of stimulating the palate.—As for their taste, if their nutriment be air, neither can it be an instrument thereof; for the body of that element is ingustible, and void of all *sapidity*. *Brown.*

SA'PIENCE, *s.* [*sapientia*, Lat.] Wisdom; sageness; knowledge.

knowledge.—By *sapience*, I mean what the ancients did by philosophy; the habit or disposition of mind which importeth the love of wisdom. *Grew.*

Sapience and love
Immense, and all the Father in him shone. *Milton.*

O sovran, virtuous, precious of all trees
In Paradise! of operation blest
To *sapience*. *Milton.*

SA'PIENT, *adj.* [*sapiens*, Lat.] Wise; sage.—Where the *sapient* king held dalliance. *Milton.*

SAPIE'NTIAL, *adj.* [from *sapientia*, Lat.] Affording lessons of wisdom.

SAPIENTIAL, or SAPIENTIALIS, is also an epithet applied to certain books of Scripture, calculated for our instruction and improvement in prudence, or moral wisdom: they are thus called in contradistinction to the historical and prophetical books.

The sapiential books are Proverbs, Canticles, Ecclesiastes, the Psalms, and Job; though some reckon this last among the historical books.

SAPIENZA, three small islands of Greece, on the south coast of the Morea, opposite to Modon, and only a few miles from the shore. The largest, anciently called *Sphacteria*, was famous for a naval victory obtained there by the Athenians, over the Lacedemonians.

SAPINDI [so called from one of the leading genera, *sapindus*], in Botany, is the 65th natural order in Jussieu's system, the 5th of his 13th class. The order is thus defined.

Calyx either of many leaves; or of one leaf, often deeply divided. Petals four or five, inserted into the receptacle of the flower; sometimes naked; sometimes villous or glandular in the middle, on the inner side; occasionally bearing an internal scale, called by Linnæus a nectary. Stamens mostly eight, with distinct filaments, inserted into the receptacle of the flower. Germen simple; style one or three; stigma one, two, or three. Fruit either drupaceous or capsular, with one, two, or three cells; or of one, two, or three single-seeded grains or lobes. Seeds attached to the inner corner of each cell. Corculum destitute of albumen, the radicle incurved upon the lobes. Stem arboreous or shrubby, rarely herbaceous. Leaves alternate.

Sect. 1. Petals double, or bearing an internal scale upon the inner side of the claw.

Cardiospermum; Paullinia; Seriana; Sapindus; Talisia of Aublet; and Aporetica of Forster.

Sect. 2. Petals simple.

Schmidelia; Ornitrophe of Commerson; Euphoria of Commerson, which is Scytalia of Gærtner; Melicocca; Toulicia of Aublet, which is Schreber's Ponæa; Trigonis of Jacquin; Molinæa of Commerson, referred by Lamarck to Cupania; and Cossignia of Commerson.

Sect. 3. Genera akin to Sapindi.

Matayba of Aublet, which is Schreber's Ephielis; Enourea of Aublet; Cupania; Pekea of Aublet, which is Rhizobolus of Gærtner and Schreber.

Aesculus, though referred by Jussieu to his next order Acera, is, as he remarks, nearly allied to the Sapindi.

SAPINDUS [q. *Sapo Indus*; the rind of the fruit serving for soap], in Botany, a genus of the class octandria, order trigynia, natural order of tribilatæ sapindi *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth four-leaved, spreading: leaflets subovate, almost equal, flat, spreading, coloured, deciduous; two of them exterior. Corolla: petals four, ovate, clawed; two of them more approximating. Nectary of four oblong, concave, erect leaflets, inserted into the base of the petals. Glands four, roundish, inserted also into the base of the petals. Stamina: filaments eight, length of the flower. Anthers cordate, erect. Pistil: germ triangular. Styles three, short. Stigmas simple, obtuse Pericarp: capsules three, fleshy, globular, connate, inflated. Seed: nut globular (two-celled, G.) The three capsules seldom all come to maturity: Houston remarks that two are commonly abortive. It seems allied to paullinia and cardiospermum.—*Essential Character.* Calyx four-leaved. Petals four. Capsule fleshy, connate, ventricose.

1. Sapindus saponaria, or common soap-berry tree.—This sort grows naturally in the islands of the West Indies, where it rises with a woody stalk from twenty to thirty feet high, sending out many branches towards the top, which are garnished with winged leaves, composed of three, four, or five pair of spear-shaped leaflets, which are from three to four inches long, and an inch and a quarter broad in the middle, drawing to a point at both ends. The midrib has a membranaceous or leafy border running on each side, from one pair of leaflets to the other, which is broadest in the middle between the leaflets; they are of a pale green colour, and are pretty stiff; the flowers are produced in loose spikes at the end of the branches; they are small and white, so make no great appearance. These are succeded by oval berries as large as middling cherries, sometimes single, at others two, three, or four are joined together; these have a saponaceous skin or cover which incloses a very smooth roundish nut of the same form, and of a shining black when ripe. These nuts were formerly brought to England for buttons to waistcoats, some were tipped with silver, and others with different metals; they were very durable, as they did not wear, and seldom broke. The skin or pulp which surrounds the nuts, is used in America to wash linen, but it is very apt to burn and destroy, if often used, being of a very acrid nature.

2. Sapindus longifolius, or long-leaved soap-berry tree.—Leaves pinnate, leaflets lanceolate, smooth, one terminating, rachis simple. Unarmed. Leaflets five pairs. Flowers clustered, on very short pedicels. Calyx tomentose-hoary, four-leaved: leaflets ovate, acute.—Native of the East Indies.

3. Sapindus spinosus, or thorny soap-berry tree.—Leaves abruptly pinnate, stem very thorny. This species is very remarkable for the prickliness of its trunk, which seldom exceeds seven or eight feet in height, and two or three inches in diameter.—Native of Jamaica; called there the Licca Tree.

4. Sapindus laurifolius, or bay-leaved soap-berry tree.—Leaves pinnate, leaflets ovate-oblong, attenuated, smooth, rachis simple, petals tomentose at the edge. Branches round, striated, smooth.—Native of Malabar.

5. Sapindus emarginatus, or notch-leaved soap-berry tree.—Leaves pinnate, leaflets oblong, emarginate, villose beneath, rachis simple, petals tomentose at the edge. Unarmed. Branches round, almost as thick as the little finger, smooth, gray. Raceme terminating, superdecompound, large. Peduncles and pedicels spreading, pubescent.—Native of the East Indies.

6. Sapindus rubiginosus, or rusty soap-berry tree.—Leaves pinnate, leaflets oblong, lanceolate, acute, villose beneath, rachis simple, petals smooth. Trunk perfectly erect, of considerable length and thickness. Branches numerous, ascending. Panicle terminating, large, erect, composed of simple racemes.—Native of the East Indies.

7. Sapindus tetraphyllus, or four-leaved soap-berry tree.—Leaves pinnate, leaflets lanceolate-oblong, smooth, rachis simple, racemes almost simple, petals smooth. Unarmed. Branches round, smooth, gray.—Native of the East Indies.

8. Sapindus rigidus, or ash-leaved soap-berry tree.—Leaves pinnate, leaflets ovate-oblong, rachis simple, corollas and fruits smooth. Unarmed. Branches round, gray, smooth. Raceme terminating, superdecompound, a foot long: branches and branchlets spreading.—Native of the West Indies.

9. Sapindus arborescens, or arborescent soap-berry tree.—Leaves pinnate, leaflets ovate, acuminate, smooth, panicle axillary, simple. A tree of about seven or eight feet in height, and branching at the top: diameter eight or nine inches: bark rough and gray; wood whitish: branches knotty, and subdivided; spreading on all sides.—Native of Guiana.

10. Sapindus frutescens, or frutescent soap-berry tree.—Leaves pinnate, leaflets alternate, lanceolate, acuminate, smooth,

smooth, panicle axillary, simple. A tree of about eight feet in height, with a straight stem of about two inches in diameter, and leafy at the top: bark rough and ash-coloured: wood brittle and whitish.—Grows at Cayenne.

11. Sapindus edulis, or esculent soap-berry tree, or Chinese lee-chee.—Unarmed, leaves pinnate, leaflets lanceolate-oblong, rachis simple, berries cordate, scaly. Unarmed. Branches round, smooth, with a dotted bark. Racemes terminating, decompound; peduncles and pedicels slightly tomentose.—Native of China, Tunquin, and Cochin-china.

12. Sapindus mukorossi, or Japan soap-berry tree.—Leaves alternate, unequally pinnate, leaflets sub-sessile, ovate, or lanceolate, entire. The branches, petioles and leaves of this tree are smooth.—Native of Japan.

13. Sapindus abruptus, or abrupt-leaved soap-berry tree.—Unarmed, leaves abruptly pinnate, leaflets lanceolate, quite entire, smooth. This is a large tree, with spreading unarmed branches. Flowers pale, in large sub-terminating racemes.—Native of China, about Canton.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants are propagated by seeds, obtained from the countries where they naturally grow; set in small pots filled with rich fresh earth, and plunged into a hot-bed of tanner's bark. The pots must be frequently watered, and in five or six weeks the plants will appear. In a month or six weeks they will be fit to transplant, when they must be shaken out of the pots, and carefully parted, so as not to injure their roots, and each planted into a separate small pot, filled with light rich earth, and then plunged into the hot-bed again, observing to shade them from the sun every day, until they have taken new root; after which time they must have free air admitted to them every day when the weather is warm, and will require to be frequently watered. A moderate degree of heat will be sufficient.

The last sort is much more hardy, and may be placed in a green-house in the autumn, where it will live through the winter, and in summer should be exposed to the open air in a sheltered situation, where it will thrive very well.

SAPINUS, in Botany, a name given by some of the modern botanical writers to the fir-tree. This does not seem, however, to have been the tree so called by the ancients. Some of those writers have plainly described the pine-tree under this name, and Pliny makes it the denomination of the pitch-tree, such as was cultivated in his time.

SAPISTON, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 9 miles north-east of Bury St. Edmund's.

SAPIUM [a name adopted by Browne, as it seems, from Pliny, who uses it for a sort of fir, abundant in resin], in Botany, a genus of the class monoecia, order monadelphia, natural order tricoccæ; euphorbiæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Male, Calyx: perianth of one leaf, bell-shaped, coloured, divided half way down into two roundish, concave, obtuse, converging segments. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments two, thread-shaped, combined at the base, spreading upwards, twice as long as the calyx, on whose segments they lie; anthers oblong, of two lobes, divaricated at the base.—Female, in the lower part of the same spike, Calyx: perianth inferior, of one leaf, small, bell-shaped, coloured, closely embracing the germen, three-toothed at the margin. Corolla none. Pistil: germen ovate, longer than the calyx; style erect, very short; stigma three-cleft, acute, reflexed, very large. Pericarp: capsule roundish, with three slight furrows, obtuse, three-lobed, of three cells and three valves, which separate at the top into two parts. Seeds solitary, orbicular, compressed, rugged, unequally toothed at the margin.—*Essential Character.* Male, Calyx divided. Corolla none. Stamens two, combined.—Female, Calyx three-toothed. Corolla none. Style very short. Stigma three-cleft. Capsule three-grained.

1. Sapium aucuparium, or two-glanded sapium.—Leaves oblong, pointed, minutely serrated. Footstalks crowned with two glands.—Native of the West Indies: sometimes seen in our stoves. An elegant tree, thirty feet high, from whose trunk, when wounded, a kind of bird-lime exudes. The leaves are smooth and shining, about four inches long, with two conspicuous glandular tubercles on the top of their footstalks. Spikes terminal, many-flowered, long and slender, of a yellowish-green. Calyx dark purple. Anthers red.

2. Sapium Indicum, or East Indian sapium.—Gathered by Dr. Roxburgh, in the East Indies. Leaves two inches, or rather more, in length, with two impressions at their base. Footstalks half an inch long. Capsule the size of a medlar.

3. Sapium ilicifolium, or holly-leaved sapium.—Leaves ovate, with three spinous teeth at each side.—Native of South America. The spikes, by Plumier's figure, appear to be compound, at least in the male portion. Fruit like the first species.

SAPLESS, *adj.* [ræpleaȝ, Saxon; *saploos*, Dutch.] Wanting sap; wanting vital juice.

Pithless arms, like to a whither'd vine,
That droops his *sapless* branches to the ground.
Shakspeare.

Dry; old; husky.

If by this bribe, well plac'd, he would ensnare
Some *sapless* usurer that wants an heir. *Dryden.*

SA'PLING, *s.* A young tree; a young plant.

Look how I am bewitch'd; behold, mine arm
Is, like a blasted *sapling*, whither'd up. *Shakspeare.*

SAPMEER, a large village in the north-east of the Netherlands. Population 2100; 10 miles south-east of Groningen.

SAPOCAI, a river of Brazil, in the province of San Vicente, which runs west, and enters the Parana.

SAPONACEA TERRA, in Natural History, a term used by some to express a kind of native alkali salt, of the nature of the nitre, or natron, of the ancients, which is found on the surface of the earth, mixed with dirt, &c., in the neighbourhood of Smyrna, and thence called by some *Smyrna earth.*

It is found principally in two places near Duraclea, a large open village, about six leagues to the eastward of Smyrna; and in a very flat plain, about a league westward from the river Hermus. It is, at first gathering, a fine whitish salt, which of itself boils up, as it were, out of the ground. It is always gathered before sun-rise, and only in mornings in which there falls no dew; so that a stock sufficient for the whole year must be laid in during the summer months. It comes up in some places an inch or two above the surface of the ground; but when the sun rises upon it, it dries and falls down again. The earth producing it lies low in both places, and in winter is washy. It is thinly covered with grass.

The people of the place make soap with this earth in the following manner:—they mix three-fourths of this earth with one-fourth of lime, and then pour boiling water upon this mixture; they stir this with a stick, and there arises to the top a thick brownish substance, which they scum off; they save this in vessels by itself. They use both this and the clear liquor in making soap, but this is much stronger than the liquor. They put fifty quintals of oil into a larger copper boiling vessel, and kindling a large fire under it, they let the oil boil a little, and then throw in by little and little first the scum of the ley, and afterwards the liquor itself; though sometimes they use only the one, or only the other. They continue adding more and more of these, till the oil acquires the consistence of soap, which is often several days. The fire must be all this time kept up very strong. The scum of the ley, and the stronger part of the ley itself, mix with the oil in the boiling, and the weaker part unmixing itself, sinks to the bottom, and is let out by a cock prepared for that purpose. This is not thrown away, but is let run upon fresh lime and earth, to make a ley for future use; and when the soap is perfectly made, it is ladled out, and put upon a brick or lime floor to harden.

The common proportion in the making of the soap is two loads of earth, five quintals each, to fifty quintals of oil, and the produce is between seventy and eighty quintals of soap.

The

The earth is bought at a dollar a load, and the soap at six and a half a quintal. There are employed annually, in making soap at Smyrna, at least ten thousand quintals of oil. The bringing of the soap-earth to Smyrna employs a thousand camels, or fifteen hundred, for eight months of the year, the four summer months being too hot for camels to travel in. A common soap-house produces, at a medium, a thousand dollars a-year clear profit. *Phil. Trans.* N° 220, p. 230.

SAPONA'CEOUS, or SAPONARY, (which is not so good,) *adj.* [from *sapo*, Latin, soap.] Soapy; resembling soap; having the qualities of soap.—By digesting a solution of salt of tartar with oil of almonds, I could reduce them to a soft *saponary* substance. *Boyle.*

SAPONARA, a small town in the west of the kingdom of Naples, in the Principato Citra. In the neighbourhood are the ruins of the Roman town of Grumentum, and of an amphitheatre, with some ancient buildings. Population 3200: 20 miles north-east of Policastro.

SAPONARIA [from *sapo*, soap. The leaves lathering with water, like soap], in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order digynia, natural order of caryophyllei, caryophylleæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, naked, tubular, five-toothed, permanent. Corolla: petals five. Claws narrow, angular, length of the calyx: border flat, with the plates wider outwards, blunt. Stamina: filaments ten, awl-shaped, length of the tube of the corolla, alternately inserted into the claws of the petals, five later. Anthers oblong, blunt, incumbent. Pistil. germ sub-cylindrical. Styles two, straight, parallel, length of the stamens. Stigmas acute. Pericarp: capsule length of the calyx, covered, one-celled, oblong. Seeds numerous, small. Receptacle free. The figure of the calyx differs in the different species.—*Essential Character.* Calyx one-leafed, naked. Petals five, clawed. Capsule oblong, one-celled.

1. Saponaria officinalis, or common soapwort.—Root perennial, striking deep and spreading wide, and creeping by runners. Stems a foot and a half in height, smooth, often reddish, panicled at top. Leaves opposite, connate, three-nerved, smooth. Panicle hemispherical, many-flowered, bracteolate. Corolla rose-coloured, varying to white, smelling sweet. Petals entire, crowned at the throat. Seeds blackish, with a granulated surface.—Native of Europe, but not in the very northern parts. In England not uncommon, in pastures and hedges: flowering from July to September.

A variety with double flowers is preserved in gardens, but has the same fault with the single one, of spreading very much at the root.—There is also another variety.

2. Saponaria vaccaria, or perfoliate soapwort.—Calyxes pyramidal, five cornered, leaves ovate, acuminate, sessile. This is an annual plant, rising with an upright stalk, near a foot and a half high, branching out upwards into several divisions; these always are by pairs opposite, as are also the leaves; they sit close to the stalks, are smooth, and of a gray colour. The flowers are produced at the end of the branches, each standing upon a long naked foot stalk.—Native of Germany, Switzerland, France, and Italy.—This has also a variety.

3. Saponaria Cretica, or Cretan soapwort.—Calyxes five-cornered, striated, stem erect, sub-dichotomous, leaves awl-shaped. Petals small, entire.—Native of Candia or Crete, in dry places,

4. Saponaria porrigens, or hairy soapwort.—Calyxes cylindrical, pubescent, branches very much divaricate, fruits pendulous. Stem two feet high, erect, jointed, stiffish, below smooth, above pubescent and viscid. Peduncles axillary, one-flowered. Stigmas simple.—Native of the Levant.

5. Saponaria Illyrica, or Illyrian soapwort.—Calyxes sub-cylindrical, stem erect, viscid, purplish, branches alternate, corollas dotted. This is an upright plant, a span high. Leaves linear-lanceolate, smooth.—Found in Illyria by Arduini.

6. Saponaria ocymoides, or basil-leaved soapwort.—This is an elegant plant, with a perennial root, and many prostrate or procumbent stems, which are dichotomous, knotted and pubescent. Leaves opposite, entire, pubescent: the lower ones ovate; the upper ones lanceolate. Flowers numerous, in terminating corymb. Peduncles villose, filiform. Calyx tubular, with five blunt teeth. Petals rose-coloured.—Native of Italy, Austria, Switzerland, France, and Barbary, on mountains, covering the rocks with beautiful large tufts of flowers.

7. Saponaria orientalis, or small annual soapwort.—Like the preceding, but with linear-lanceolate leaves. Calyxes of the fruit ovate, with raised dots bearing hairs scattered over them.

It is a low annual plant, seldom rising more than four inches high; dividing into spreading branches by pairs from the bottom. Flowers single from the axils.—Native of the Levant.

8. Saponaria lutea.—Calyxes round, both they and the stem rough-haired, petals obovate, quite entire, flowers corymbed, leaves linear-lanceolate, channelled.—Native of the mountains of Switzerland and Savoy.

9. Saponaria bellidifolia.—Calyxes round, rough-haired, stem smooth, petals linear, crenate, leaves spatulate.—Found on the summits of some mountains in Italy.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants are easily propagated by seeds, sown in autumn, in dry ground, where they are to remain, kept clean from weeds, and thinned where they are too close.

The double variety will increase fast enough by its creeping roots, and will thrive in any situation.

The hollow-leaved soapwort is easily propagated by parting the roots in autumn, and loves a moist shady situation.

SAPONARIA TERRA, in Mineralogy, a name given by some authors to the common fuller's earth.

SAPONARIA TERRA ALBA, a name given by some authors to the common tobacco-pipe-clay.

SAPONIES, Indians who inhabit a north branch of the Susquehannah river.

SAPOR I. and II., kings of Persia. See PERSIA, pp. 664, 665. &c.

SA'POR, *s.* [Lat.] Taste; power of affecting or stimulating the palate.—There is some *sapor* in all aliments, as being to be distinguished and judged by the gust, which cannot be admitted in air. *Brown.*

SAPORIFIC, *adj.* [*saporifique*, Fr.] Having the power to produce tastes.

SA'POROUS, *adj.* Savoury.—In philosophy, *saporous* bodies are such as are capable of yielding some kind of taste. *Bailey.*

SAPOTA, in Botany, the West Indian name of several sorts of fruit, somewhat resembling a plum.

SAPOTÆ, or SAPOTEÆ, a natural order of Jussieu's, the 48th in his system, the 15th of his 8th class. The order is thus defined:—

Calyx divided, permanent. Corolla regular; its segments in some instances agreeing in number with those of the calyx, but at the same time accompanied by an equal number of intermediate appendages; in other instances twice as numerous, without any such appendages. Stamens opposite to the segments of the corolla, and agreeing therewith in number; or else twice as numerous, the appendages in that case bearing anthers. Germen one; style one; stigma mostly simple. Fruit either a berry or drupa, of one or many cells, each containing a solitary seed, which is bony and polished, marked with a lateral scar. Corculum flat, enveloped in a fleshy albumen. Stem shrubby or arboreous. Leaves alternate, for the most part undivided and entire. Flowers numerous, axillary; their stalks single-flowered. The plants are milky.

The genera placed here by Jussieu are Jacquinia; Manglilla, see Sideroxylum; Bassiæ; Mimusops; Imbricaria of Commerson; Chrysophyllum; Lucuma, a genus, with a Peruvian name, founded by Jussieu and Dombey upon Achras mammosa; and Achras.

The following are subjoined, as allied to the true Sapotæ: Myrsine; Inocarpus; Olax; and Leea.

Mr.

Mr. R. Brown, Prodr. Nov. Holl. v. 1. 529, points out the affinity of this order to the Ebenaceæ, and augments it with a new genus, Sersalisia. At the same time he establishes the order of Myrsineæ; and proposes to remove to its leading genus, Myrsine, amongst other things, Samara coriacea of Swartz; pentandra of Ait. Hort. Kew.; and floribunda of Willdenow.

SAPPAN, a river in the peninsula of Malacca, which falls into the straits. Lat. 2. 37. N. long. 101. 47. E.

SAPPAN, in Botany. See CÆSALPINIA.

SAPPAN, a name used by some authors for the wood of the arbor Campechiana, or logwood, used in dyeing. See HÆMATOXYLUM CAMPECHIANA.

SAPPARE of Saussure and Kirwan, *Cyanite* or *Kyanit* of Werner, *Disthene* of Haüy, in Mineralogy, a species of the crystallaceous genus, the colour of which is milk-white, pearl-grey, blueish-grey, or smalt-blue, Prussian blue, or sky-blue. It sometimes occurs entirely blue, but more frequently spotted, striped, or clouded with this colour. It is found in mass, disseminated, and crystallized in long oblique four-sided prisms, truncated on the lateral edges. The crystals are imbedded or intersect one another, and vary from middle-sized to very small. Its external and internal lustre is bright-shining pearly. Its fracture is broad, diverging, and intersecting radiated, passing into curved-foliated. The fracture of the crystals is foliated in three directions. Its fragments are slaty and sometimes imperfectly rhomboidal. In mass, it is usually translucent; the crystals are for the most part transparent. Its hardness is about equal to that of fluor spar. It has a slight degree of flexibility, and feels somewhat greasy. Sp. gr. 3.51 to 3.62.

It is infusible *per se* before the blowpipe. Its component parts, according to Theodore de Saussure, are—silex, 29.2; alumine, 55; lime, 2.25; magnesia, 2; oxyd of iron, 6.65; water and loss, 6.9: Total, 102.00.

It occurs in primitive mountains, imbedded in micaceous schistus, and accompanied by grenatite.

It is found near Banchory, in Aberdeenshire, and in the largest of the Shetland islands; also in Norway, the Swiss Alps, the Pyrenees, the Tyrol, Carinthia, Bavaria, France, and Siberia.

The very pale varieties of this mineral are sometimes mistaken for tremolite; they may be distinguished, however, by the blue tinge, which, even the palest are not entirely free from: besides, tremolite is found chiefly in granular limestone, but cyanite in micaceous schistus. The transparent varieties of a Prussian blue colour are sometimes, when cut and polished, sold for sapphires; from which, however, they are readily distinguished by their inferior hardness and specific gravity. *Kirwan's El. of Mineralogy*, vol. i. *Aikin's Dict.*

SA'PPER, *s.* [*sappeur*, Fr.] A kind of miner.—These are instruments and tools belonging to pioneers, *sappers*, diggers, and labouring men. *Transl. of Boccalini.*

A brigade of sappers generally consists of eight men, which form two equal parties; whilst one party is advancing the sap, the other furnishes the necessary materials; and thus they alternately relieve each other.

SA'PPHIC, *adj.* [*Saphique*, Fr. *Sapphicus*, Lat. from *Sappho*, who invented or particularly used this kind of metre.] Denoting a kind of verse used by the Greeks and Latins, consisting of eleven syllables, or five feet and a half, of which the first, fourth, and fifth are trochees, the second a spondee, and the third a dactyl, in the first three lines of each stanza which closes with a fourth consisting of a dactyl and spondee.—I choose to call this delicate *Sapphick* ode the first original production of Mr. Gray's muse. *Mason.*

SA'PPHIRE, *s.* [*sapphirus*, Latin: so that it is improperly written *saphire*.] A precious stone of a bright blue colour.—*Saphire* is of a bright blue colour. *Woodward.*

In enroll'd tuffs, flow'rs purfled, blue, and white,
Like *saphire*, pearl, in rich embroidery. *Shakspeare.*

The sapphire is next in hardness and value to the diamond. The more common colour of the sapphire is blue, in various shades. It is sometimes red, and has been mistaken for the ruby, but it is harder, and scratches the latter gem. The primitive form of the crystal is a rhomboid, nearly rectangular, the angles being 96° and 84°.

The sapphire is infusible *per se* by the blowpipe, but it loses its blue colour in the fire. The constituent parts of the sapphire, as given by Klaproth, are—alumine, 98; oxyd of iron, 1; lime, 0.5.

Thus, it appears, that the principal part of the sapphire is pure clay or alumine; and Klaproth observes, "what a high degree of cohesive power must nature command, to be able to transform such a substance as common clay into a body, so eminently distinguished and ennobled by its hardness, brilliancy, and resistance to the action of the fire or acids, and the effects of all destroying time." *Klaproth's Essays.*

The method of making the counterfeit sapphires in paste, is this:—take of crystal prepared, two ounces; minium, or common red lead, six ounces; zaffer prepared, five grains; manganese prepared, seven grains; mix all the powders perfectly together, and put them into a crucible; cover it with a strong lute, and put the whole into a potter's kiln, to stand in the hottest place for twenty-four hours; it will be of a most beautiful deep sapphire colour. Blue pastes of two other degrees of blue are also made in the following manner:—for a sky-blue, take crystal prepared, two ounces; red lead, six ounces; prepared zaffer, twenty-one grains; mix all well together, and bake them as before. For a deep violet-blue, take crystal, two ounces; red lead, four ounces, and four grains of painter's blue smalt; mix all, and bake together in the kiln.

SAPPHIRE-RUBIES, or the SAPPHIRO-RUBINUS, are certain precious stones, between blue and red; which, in effect, are nothing but rubies, whose colour is mixed with blue.

SA'PPHIRINE, *adj.* [*sapphirinus*, Lat.] Made of sapphire; resembling sapphire.

She was too *sapphirine* and clear for thee;
Clay, flint, and jet now thy fit dwellings be. *Donne.*

SAPPHO, a celebrated Greek poetess, was a native of Mitylene, in the Isle of Lesbos, and flourished about the year 610 B.C. She married a rich inhabitant of Andros, by whom she had a daughter, and it was not, probably, till after she became a widow, that she rendered herself so distinguished by her poetry and amours. Her verses were chiefly of the lyric kind, and love was the general subject, which she treated with so much warmth, and with such beauty of poetical expression, as to have acquired the title of the tenth muse. Her compositions were held in the highest esteem by contemporary poets, the Roman as well as the Grecian, and no female name has risen higher in the catalogue of poets. Her morals have been as much depreciated, as her genius has been extolled. Besides her desperate passion for Phaon, she has been accused of an unnatural attachment to some of her own sex. She is represented by Ovid, as very far from handsome; and as she was probably no longer young when she became enamoured of the beautiful Phaon, his neglect of her is not at all to be wondered at. Unused to neglect, and unable to bear her disappointment, she repaired to the famous precipice of Leucate, popularly called the Lover's Leap, and throwing herself into the sea, terminated her life and her love. Of the poems of Sappho, two pieces are only left, viz. "An Ode to a Young Female," and "A Hymn to Venus," with some fragments quoted by the scholiasts. These have been very frequently published with the works of Anacreon, and with the other minor Greek poets. Catullus has given an elegant translation of the ode: and Ambrose Phillips has published an English version of the hymn. Some writers have mentioned two persons of the name of Sappho, one of Eresca, the other of Mitylene; the first the lover of Phaon, the second the poetess: but they are generally regarded as the same.

Sappho invented the mixolydian mode, which was the highest of the five original modes, having its lowest sound, or proslambanomenos, upon F sharp, the fourth line in the base of the Guido scale. The mixolydian was still higher, by

by half a tone; the hypermixolydian a minor third higher; and the hyperlydian a fourth higher. Plato, desirous of simplifying music, and of keeping the scale within moderate bounds, complains, in the third book of his Republic, of the licentiousness of these acute modes. Now if the only difference in the modes was the place they occupied in the great system, with respect to gravity or acuteness, the invention, as it was called, of this mixolydian mode, may have been suggested to Sappho, by her having a voice of higher pitch than her predecessors; she was, perhaps, the Agujari of her time, and could transcend the limits of all former scales with equal facility. But though nature may have enabled this exquisite poetess to sing her verses in a higher key than any one had done before, yet, as it is allowed but to few to surpass the common boundaries of human faculties and talents, it is probable that her successors, by attempting, with inferior organs, to ascend those heights, had given offence to Plato, and determined him to prohibit the use of this mode in his Republic, as indecorous, and too effeminate even for women. If, however, it be true, that the characteristic of the modes depended partly, if not principally, upon the rhythm or cadence, it seems not an improbable conjecture, that, besides the difference of pitch, the novelty of Sappho's mixolydian mode might, in a great measure, consist in her first applying to melody the measure called Sapphic, from her invention of it.

Horace adopted the Sapphic measure in many of his odes: among others, *Jam satis terris nivis*, &c.

Besides the structure of verse called Sapphic, she invented the Æolic measure, composed elegies, epigrams, and nine books of lyric poetry.

SA'PPINESS, *s.* The state or the quality of abounding in sap; succulence; juiciness.—Much of their brush or small wood I observed to be very sappy, so that when we brake a twig of it, there would come a substance out of some of it like unto milk; and the *sappiness* of that underwood may, as I apprehend it, be ascribed in part to the fatness of that soil. *Terry.*

SAPPO, a village of the kingdom of Yani, in Western Africa, on the south side of the Gambia. Lat. 13. 30. N. long. 14. 5. W.

SA'PPY, *adj.* [ræpiȝ, Saxon.] Abounding in sap; juicy; succulent.—Herbs for their smell, and *sappy* plants to bear. *Shakspeare.*

The *sappy* parts, and next resembling juice,
Were turn'd to moisture for the body's use,
Supplying humours, blood, and nourishment. *Dryden.*

Young; not firm; weak.—This young prince was brought up among nurses, till he arrived to the age of six years; when he had passed this weak and *sappy* age, he was committed to Dr. Cox. *Hayward*—[σηπω, Gr. to become rotten. It is written *sappy* in our old lexicography, but *sapy* in Lemon's etymological dictionary.] Musty; tainted; reasty. *Barret.*—*Sapy* [denotes] a moisture contracted on the outward surface of meats, which is the first stage of dissolution. *Lemon.*

SAPRI, a small town in the west of the kingdom of Naples, in the Principato Citra, situated on the sea-coast, with a harbour, and 1500 inhabitants. It is built on the ruins of the ancient Sipron.

SAPURI, a small river of Guiana, which runs east, and enters the Caura.

SAPY STRAITS. These are formed between the east end of the island Sumbawa and the west side of Commodo, or Rotten Island. The southern entrance is in Lat. 8. 40. S. long. 119. 20. E.; and from the facility with which wood, water, and refreshments are procured, it has frequently been preferred to the other straits east of Java. The principal place is Sapy bay, on the Sumbawa side. Numerous small islands are interspersed throughout the strait, separating it into small channels, which by running rapid tides, makes the navigation dangerous.

SARA, a small river of Italy, in the Campagna di Roma, which falls into the Tuscan sea, in the kingdom of Naples.

SARA, a river of Quito, in the province of Moxos, which runs north-north-west, and enters the lake Mamore.

SARABA, a river of Quito, in the province of Mainas, which runs north, and enters very abundantly into the ancient Maranon.

SARABACUS, or SABARACUS, in Ancient Geography, a town of India, on the other side of the Ganges. *Ptolemy.*

SARABAITES, SARABAITÆ, a name anciently given by the Egyptians to vagabond and strolling monks, who travelled through various cities and provinces, and gained a maintenance by fictitious miracles, by selling relics to the multitude, and other similar frauds.

The word is derived from the Hebrew, *sarab*, to rebel.

St. Benedict gives a frightful idea of these Sarabaites in the first chapter of his rule. Cassian does not speak a whit more favourably of them in his fourteenth conference; nor St. Jerom in his letter ad Eustochium.

Cassian calls them, "Renuitæ; quia jugum regularis disciplinæ renuunt."

SA'RABAND, *s.* [*çarabande*, Spanish; *sarabande*, Fr.] A Spanish dance.—The several modifications of this tune-playing quality in a fiddle, to play preludes, *sarabands*, jigs, and gavots, are as much real qualities in the instrument as the thought is in the mind of the composer. *Arbuthnot.*

The saraband was formerly danced with castanettes. At the latter end of the 17th century, and the beginning of the last, the saraband constantly constituted a part of every concerto, sonata, solo, and suite of lessons for the harpsichord.

The saraband is said to be derived originally from the Saracens, as well as the chacone. It had its name, according to some authors, from a comedian called Sarabande, who first danced it in France. Others derive the name from the Spanish *sarao*, a ball.

SARABARA, among the Ancients, a Medish or Babylonish garment, which reached only to the knees.

SARABAT, a considerable river of Asia Minor, which rises in the Morad Dag, and passing by Sart and Magnesia, falls into the gulf of Smyrna. Lat. 38. 40. N.

SARABITA, a large and abundant river of New Granada, which rises about 22 miles south-west of the lake Fuquene, and runs north with a slight inclination to the east, until it unites itself with the Chichamocha, or Sogamoso.

SARACA, in Botany, a genus of the class diadelphia, order hexandria, natural order of lomentaceæ.—Generic Character. Calyx none. Corolla one-petalled, funnel-form; border five-parted; segments ovate, spreading, the upper one more remote; throat with an elevated rim. Stamina: filaments six, setaceous, declined, placed on the throat: three on each side, connate at the base. Anthers furnished with a keel. Pistil: germ pedicelled, oblong, compressed, length of the stamens. Style awl-shaped, declined, length of the germ. Stigma blunt. Pericarp: legume.—*Essential Character.* Calyx none. Corolla funnel-form, four-cleft. Filaments three on each side the throat. Legume pedicelled.

Saraca Indica.—This is a tree, with alternate, abruptly pinnate leaves: leaflets three or four-paired, oblong, petioled. Flowers in panicles, composed of alternate racemes or spikes; with sub-imbricate ovate-lanceolate bractes, opposite by two and two. It is a lomentaceous plant.—Native of the East Indies.

SARACE, a river of New Granada, in the province of San Juan de los Llanos, which rises in the mountains of Bogota, and running east-north-east, enters the Cazanare.

SARACEN. Much diversity of opinion exists respecting the etymology of the word Saracen: that from Sarah, the wife of Abraham, is ridiculous: that from Sarakee, a small village, improbable: and those from the Arabic words, signifying respectively an eastern situation, and a thievish habit, too vague and general to be admitted. The same objection appears to us to apply to the Arabic word Saraini, a pastoral people; and to Zahara, a desert. Mr. Gibbon asserts, that the appellation Saraceni, was imposed by strangers; and hence infers, that it must be found, not in the Arabic, but in a foreign language. On what authority he makes this assertion

assertion we do not know; but it is evident that he, as well as most other writers on the subject, regard the appellation as much more recent than, in our opinion, it is. Ammianus Marcellinus expressly refers to a passage in this work, which is lost, in which he had described the manners of the Saracens as early as the reign of the emperor Marcus Antoninus; and as that period is very little posterior to the age of Pliny, there is good reason to consider the Arraceni of this writer, as the Saraceni of later times. To this opinion we know but of two objections; that the additional letter S proves them distinct appellations; but a great number of proper names, both in the Greek and Latin writers, have sometimes an S, and sometimes a vowel for their initial letter; as Elana and Selana, Amnitæ and Samnitæ, &c.; the other objection is, that Pliny places the Arraceni in the middle of the desert; whereas Ptolemy extends their territory to the confines of Egypt; and Marcianus describes it as adjoining Persia. But we think these representations rather confirm than weaken the opinion, that the Arraceni of Pliny are the formidable and powerful Saracens of later ages, as they prove the gradual extension of their territory. The inference we should draw, therefore, is, that as the appellation of Saraceni existed long before this people attracted the particular notice or excited the fears of other nations, and when, as Pliny expressly states, they were a small tribe in the centre of the desert, it is in vain to search for any etymology of the appellation, while it is necessary to fix the first notice of them earlier than is generally done. *Westminster Review.*

SARACEN'S CONFOUND, in Botany. See SOLIDAGO.

SARACEN'S CONFOUND, TRUE. See SENECIO.

SARACE'NIC, or SARACE'NICAL, *adj.* Denoting the architecture of the Saracens, or the modern Gothic.—The arch of the first church is Roman, being part of a circle; that of the additional building is pointed, and therefore Gothick or *Saracenical. Johnson.*

SARACHINUS, in Ichthyology, a name given by Charleton and others to the fish called by the generality of authors the *thrissa*, by us the *shad.*

SARACUS, a name given by some authors to a species of sea-fish of the herring kind, more usually called *agonus*, and by many suspected to have no essential difference from the *alausa*, or shad, but to be the same fish in another state.

SARAGOSSA, or ZARAGOZA, by ancient Spanish authors written *Caragoça*, in Geography, an ancient, large, and wealthy city of Spain, the capital of Arragon, was founded, as some have said, by the Phœnicians, who gave it the name of *Salduba* or *Saldivia.* It was in a flourishing state under the Romans, and being colonized by Augustus, it was called *Cæsarea*, or *Cæsarea-Augusta*, of which the present name is a corruption. The Goths, conducted by Euric, their king, became masters of it about the year 470. The Saracens, under Musa, their general, drove the Goths from it in 712, and took possession of it in the name of the caliph of Damascus; but in 753 it was taken by the Moor Zuzif, Governor-general of Spain. The inhabitants, attempting to shake off the yoke of the new empire, formed a republic in 825, but they were soon compelled to implore the clemency of the Moorish king. At length this town became, A.D. 1017, the capital of a small empire, about the time when the several governors in different parts of Spain usurped supreme power. The governor of Saragossa assumed kingly power, and transmitted his crown to his posterity, who retained it till Alphonso I., king of Arragon, made himself master of the town in December, 1115, after a siege of eight months: he then made it the capital of his kingdom, and the residence of the princes who succeeded him. It remained the capital of Aragon, until that country became, in the 16th century, simply a province of the Spanish monarchy, by the marriage of its king Ferdinand, the Catholic, with Isabella, heiress of the kingdoms of Leon and Castile.

Saragossa is situated on a fertile plain, on the Ebro, at the conflux of two other rivers, the Galego and the Huerva, one running from the north, the other a considerable stream, descending from the mountains of the south. The Ebro separates the town from its suburbs, and is navigable; the other two rivers concur in fertilizing the neighbouring country. The new canal of Arragon passes through the lands in its vicinity. The adjacent fields are well cultivated, and its extensive gardens are very productive; and its climate is moderate, between the extremes of heat and cold. Although this town is one of the largest in Spain, its population does not correspond to its size. From an enumeration made in 1787, it has been estimated at the number of 42,600 persons. It has eight gates, besides the four old ones in the wall of Augustus, and two bridges over the Ebro, one of wood, and another of stone. The streets of Saragossa are, for the most part, narrow, irregular, and paved with rough pebbles. Some, however, are straight, long, and spacious; and particularly that called Calle Santa, or Holy-street, because it was the place of the martyrdom of the first victims of the faith in Saragossa: this street is also denominated Calle del Corso. The houses are generally old, but regularly built; and here are several edifices, which deserve attention; particularly the new tower, called the leaning tower, resembling that of Pisa (see PISA); the church of San Cayetano, and those of the Cordeliers, of St. Lucia, of the Faretas, of the Convalescents, of St. Paul, of Notre Dame del Portillo, and of the Barefoot Augustines; the college of La Manteria; the convent of the Dominicans; the palace of the Inquisition; the convent of the Jeronymites, called Santa Engracia; and the metropolitan church, called La Seu, distinguished by its beautiful front and its high tower. The church of Nuestra Donna del Pilar is also a grand and superb building; the principal altar is in the Gothic style, constructed almost wholly of alabaster, and exhibiting a mixture of different kinds of sculpture. The arts, it is said, have combined to decorate the interior of this church. In the centre of this cathedral there is an edifice, which is strikingly beautiful. The principal front is a chapel of our Lady of the Pillar, who appeared upon this very pillar to St. James, and afterwards gave to him the image, which is worshipped at her altar. Over this there is a dome, corresponding to the great dome, under which it stands, serving by way of canopy to the image of the Virgin. The three other fronts of this elegant tabernacle are in like manner chapels. Besides the great dome, there are many smaller domes surrounding it, each with elegant paintings in compartments, the subjects of which are historical, taken from the sacred writings, or from the legends of the saints, to whom the chapels and altars are dedicated. These are executed by Don Francisco Bayen, first painter to the king; and the architect, under the inspection of whom these domes have been constructed, is Rodriguez, of whose taste and judgment these decorations and improvements will remain a lasting monument.

The wealth of this cathedral is inestimable, in silver, gold, precious stones, and rich embroidery, sent by all the Catholic sovereigns of Europe to deck its priests, and to adorn its altars. Many of these presents, being modern, are worthy of attention for their elegance, as well as for the value of their pearls, diamonds, emeralds, and rubies. In a word, whatever wealth could command, or human art could execute, has been collected to excite the admiration of all who view the treasures of this church.

The Lonja, i. e. the resort of the merchants, or the Exchange, round which are the busts of most of the kings of Aragon, deserves to be mentioned: its large hall is the place where the municipal body assembles. Opposite to this is the Hotel of the Deputation, serving for the sittings of the royal audience. Saragossa has a number of pleasant promenades. This city has a see, which was at first episcopal under the Goths; it was abolished under the Moors, and re-established by king Alphonso I. It was at last raised to an archbishopric, containing several suffragans, 365 parishes, one cathedral chapter, and two collegiate ones. This town has 17 parishes, 24 convents of monks, four houses of regular clergy, 13 convents of nuns, a house of Baguine nuns, a college of virgins, a house of penitents, four churches and houses exempt from the jurisdiction of the ordinary, five hospitals, and a seminary occupied by ecclesiastics, who chiefly devote themselves to missions. The House of Pity, for which an

an edifice was finished in 1792, is an excellent establishment, containing 700 persons, of all ages and of both sexes, who are maintained and employed in spinning silk, in carding and spinning wool, and in making camlets and some silk stuffs. The clergy of various descriptions are very numerous. Saragossa is the place of residence of the general chapter of the kingdom of Arragon, the chief place of the intendant's jurisdiction, and the seat of the royal audience, which is the supreme court of this province. The civil government of this town is carried on by a criminal judge, and by a certain number of magistrates. It has two alcade mayors, who administer justice in concurrence with the judge, a tribunal of the inquisition, an university, an academy of the fine arts, a society of the friends of the country, a school for drawing, one for agriculture, and one where mathematics, moral philosophy, the law of nations, and the elements of commerce and public economy are taught. The university contains near 2000 students, and for their instruction the doctors constantly residing are, 40 in theology, 20 for the canon law, 36 for civil law, 17 for medicine, and 8 for arts. The foundation of this seminary was laid A.D. 1118, on the expulsion of the Moors; but the university was not incorporated till A.D. 1474, and from that period it has constantly been cherished and protected by the sovereigns of Arragon.

At Saragossa are two public libraries, which are open for the studious, who owe both to the beneficence of two individuals; one is in the convent of St. Ildefonso, belonging to the Dominicans, and contains 1600 volumes, which were given by the Marquis de la Compuesta; it has no modern books. The other is in the seminary, and is the ancient library of Don Emanuel da Roda, formerly a secretary of state, who began to collect it at Rome, and augmented it at Madrid during his ministry; it is handsome, numerous, and well-chosen, and contains valuable collections.

The inhabitants of Saragossa indulge to no great degree expense or luxury in their dress or amusements; the former is in general plain and simple; and the latter are restricted and partial. Although it is one of the handsomest cities in Spain, extensive, delightfully situated, under a temperate sky, and capable of being amply supplied with all the conveniences of life, it is without industry and without commerce. It is said, that the clergy possess the greatest portion of the wealth of the place. However that be, Laborde observes, that all here is serious and regular, not to say dull and monotonous: here are no society, no parties, nor any kind of entertainment. It seems quite destitute of every resource, because the inhabitants make no effort to obtain any; accustomed to this state of apathy and languor, they have not an idea of the possibility of delivering themselves from it. A canal has been lately made near the town, designed for forming a communication by the Ebro from sea to sea, between S. Ander, in the Bay of Biscay, and Tortosa, on the borders of the Mediterranean; a distance of more than one hundred Spanish leagues. It was begun in 1529, by order of Charles I., suspended in 1538, recommenced in 1566, by order of Philip II., again abandoned, and again began in 1770, under Charles III. It has already cost a very large sum; but Arragon has experienced the advantage of it, and agriculture has assumed a new appearance in the countries which are watered by the canal. Saragossa is distant 160 miles north-east from Madrid. Lat. 41. 44. N. long. 0. 48. W.

SARAGURO, a settlement of South America, in the kingdom of Quito, and province of Loxa, situate on the royal road which leads from Quito to Lima; 38 miles south of Cuença.

SARAGURO, a river of Quito, in the province of Loxa, which runs west, and being enlarged by various tributary streams, receives the name of Amarillo, after which it passes through the city of Zamora, and enters the woods and unknown countries to form the Tumbez; which see.

SARAH, Point, a cape on the west coast of North America, and eastern point of entrance into Desolation Sound. Lat. 50. 4. N. long. 235. 25. E.

SARAISK, a small town of the interior of European Russia, in the government of Riasan, on the river Ostr, with 3700 inhabitants; 40 miles west-north-west of Riazan.

SARALBE, a small town in the north-east of France, department of the Moselle, at the influx of the Albe into the Sarre. Population 2000. In the neighbourhood are salt springs; 39 miles east-by-south of Metz.

SARAMA, a small river of Guiana, which runs north, and enters the Caura.

SARAMBIRA, a small river of New Granada, in the province of Choco, which enters the Pacific Ocean, opposite the island of Gorgona.

SARAMONT, a small town in the south of France, department of the Gers, on the Gimone. Population 1000; 14 miles south-east of Auch.

SARANAC, a river of the United States, in New York, which, after a north-east course of 65 miles, flows into Lake Champlain, at Plattsburg.

SARAND, the former name of a small county of Hungary, lying on the west frontier of Transylvania, and now united to the county of Arad; which see.

SARANGÆ, Sarangæi, or Zarangæ, a people who inhabited the north-east part of Persia, near the Chorasmii, Cantali, and Attasini, according to Pliny. This country corresponded to that part of Persia, which was comprehended under the present province of Segestan or Seistan. The Sarangeans composed a part of the army of Xerxes. They were dressed in splendid and varied coloured habits, and armed with bows and javelins. They were the Euergetæ of the Greeks; a title bestowed upon them by Cyrus, in gratitude for the relief which they afforded him, on his return from an unsuccessful expedition into Scythia.

SARANGPORE, a district of Hindostan, province of Malwah, situated about the 24th degree of northern latitude, and belonging to the Mahrattas. It is a fertile track, being intersected by the Sopra and Gilly Sinde rivers. The principal towns are Sarangpore, Rajegur, and Sher.

SARANGPORE, the capital of the above-mentioned district, situated on the north side of the Sopra river. Lat. 23. 38. N. long. 76. 30. E.

SARANGUR, a town of Hindostan, province of Gundwaneh, possessed by a native chief, who is tributary to the Mahrattas. Lat. 19. 40. N. long. 82. 26. E.

SARANSK, a town of the east of European Russia, in the government of Penza, on the rivers Insara and Saranja. It contains 8000 inhabitants, and has numerous manufactures of soap and leather, in which, with foreign silk, wool, and wine, it carries on a large trade. It has a yearly fair on the 16th of August; 68 miles north of Pensa. Lat. 54. 30. N. long. 54. 23. E.

SARAPILLY, a town of Hindostan, province of the Carnatic, district of Nelloor. Lat. 14. 14. N. long. 79. 58. E.—There is another place of this name within 30 miles of Hyderabad.

SARAPIQUI, a river of the kingdom of Guatimala, in the province of Costa Rica, which runs north, and enters the Desaguero, in the lake of Nicaragua.

SARAPUL, a town of the east of European Russia, in the government of Viatka, on the river Kama; 188 miles south-east of Viatka. It contains 6000 inhabitants, but it has no manufactures, except a few soap-works and tanneries on a small scale. It has, however, a large annual fair, and vast rafts of fire-wood are constructed here, and sent down the Kama and the Wolga to Astracan, wood being scarce in all the country round that city.

SARARE, St. Nicolas de, a settlement of New Granada, on the shore of the river of its name. It contains 1200 inhabitants, partly Spaniards, Indians, mestizoes, and negroes.

SARARE, a river of the Caraccas, in the province of Venezuela, which, uniting itself with other streams, enters the Portuguesa.

SARARE, a river of New Granada, in the province of St. Juan de los Llanos, which rises in the mountains of Pamplona, to the south of this city. It runs south-east about

about twenty miles, and afterwards turning east, enters the Apure.

SARARE, a small river of Brazil, in the province of Matto-Grosso, which rises near the settlement of San Francisco Xavier of the Chiquitos Indians in Peru, and enters the Itenes.

SARASIN (John Francis), was born in 1604, at Hermanville, near Caen. In this place he was educated; he then came to Paris, where his wit, gallantry, and pleasing manners rendered him a general favourite. He became particularly attached to the Prince of Condé who appointed him his secretary. He resided a considerable time in Germany, and acquired the esteem of the princess Sophia, daughter of the king of Bohemia. A variety of works in prose and verse made him known in the literary world. He died in 1654, and very soon after this event his works were published collectively by Menage, in 1656. The prose consists chiefly of "A History of the Siege of Dunkirk, by the Prince of Condé;" "The History of the Walstein Conspiracy:" "A Dialogue on Love:" and "Opinions on the Name and Game of Chess," The poetical pieces consist of eclogues, elegies, sonnets, epigrams, and other short pieces. All his works are said to display facility and vivacity, with much delicacy of sentiment, but not under the discipline of a correct taste and judgment.

SARASWATI, in Mythology, the name of the consort of the Hindoo deity Brahma. The Asiatic Miscellany, vol. i. and the last volume of the works of Sir Wm. Jones, contain a hymn by that elegant writer addressed to Saraswati.

"Sweet grace of Brahma's bed;
Whose sigh is music, and each tear a pearl."

From the argument prefixed to it we extract some passages descriptive of this interesting subject of Eastern fable, and generally of its mythology.

"The Hindoo goddesses are uniformly represented as the subordinate powers of their respective lords: thus Lakshmi, the consort of Vishnu the preserver, is the goddess of abundance and prosperity; Bhavani, or Parvati, the wife of Siva, is the general power of fecundity; and Saraswati, whose husband is the creator Brahma, possesses the powers of imagination and invention, which may justly be termed creative. She is, therefore, adored as the patroness of the fine arts, especially of music and rhetoric; as the inventress of the Sanscrit language, and of the sciences which writing perpetuates; so that her attributes correspond with those of Minerva Musica, in Greece or Italy, who invented the flute, and presided over literature. In this character she is addressed in the hymn; and particularly as the goddess of harmony, since the Indians usully paint her with a musical instrument in her hand. The seven notes, an artful combination of which constitutes music, and variously effects the passions, are feigned to be her earliest production; and the greatest part of the hymn exhibits a correct delineation of the Ragmala, or necklace of musical modes, which may be considered as the most pleasing invention of the ancient Hindoos, and the most beautiful union of painting with poetical mythology, and the genuine theory of music.

SARATI, a river of South America, in the province of Panama, the shores of which are cultivated and covered with estates. It enters the sea in the gulf of Panama, Lat.8. 21. N.

SARATOGA, a county of the United States, in New York, bounded north by Warren county, east by the Hudson, which separates it from Washington and Rensselaer counties, south by Albany county, south-west by Schenectady county, and west by Hamilton and Montgomery counties. It was erected into a county from Albany county, in 1791. It is washed on the east by the Hudson, to an extent of about 70 miles; and various smaller streams are so spread over the county, as to supply a profusion of sites for mills. The county of Saratoga, or certainly all that part lying south of Greenfield, is underlaid by a soft blue fetid clay, at various depths, surmounted by slatestone or limestone, and in some places by flint. Tracks of sandy loam, resting on clay, or on stones of slate or lime, are of great extent; and a large portion of the southern half may be denominated a sandy plain, originally wooded with white, yellow, and pitch pine. There are considerable tracks of pebbly gravel, and of gravelly loam, but these are principally confined to the river hills of the Hudson; while the alluvial flats of the Hudson in this county are composed principally of clay or argillaceous mould. The northern part is considerably hilly, and some part mountainous, interspersed with valleys of alluvion, or marshes and bogs yielding dwarf shrubbery and sedge-grass. The agricultural products of this county are considerable. This county is noted for its excellent mineral springs, which are spread over a track of country about 12 miles in extent, and are known by different local names. The most noted are those of Saratoga, and Ballston, which are the most celebrated mineral waters in the United States. They are strongly impregnated with carbonic acid, and contain also carbonate of soda, muriate of soda, super-carbonated lime, and a carbonate of iron. They are much frequented during the warm months, by gay and fashionable people, as well as by invalids. Population 33,147. Chief town Ballston.

SARATOGA, a township and village of the United States, in Saratoga county, New York, on the west side of the Hudson. The village is large, handsome, and flourishing, and has a post-office, a Presbyterian church, and boarding-houses, which afford excellent accommodations to the visitors who frequent the baths. Saratoga is memorable as the place where General Burgoyne surrendered the British army to General Gates, October 17th, 1777.

SARATOV, a great province or government of Russia, situated partly in the south-east of Europe, partly in Asia. It lies along both sides of the Wolga, in the form of a triangle, having on the one side the country of the Don Cossacks, on the other that of Astracan. Though containing an area of 91,000 square miles, greater than that of England and Scotland together, its population is so thin, as not to exceed 1,000,000; a consequence of a barrenness of soil caused not by an unpropitious climate, but by a great part of the track to the east of the Wolga being so impregnated with salt, as to be, in many parts, unfit for the growth of vegetables. Of the various salt lakes in this quarter, the most productive is that of Elton or Jelton. The exports from it are carried, it is said, into no less than 16 provinces. The country lying to the west of the Wolga is less level, but has no hills of great height. It is fitted partly for tillage, partly for pasturage. The great danger to its products is from the visitation of locusts, swarms of whom often appear in summer, and destroy in a few days the hopes of the husbandman. Attempts were made in the last century, by the Russian government, to improve particular spots of this province by German settlers. These colonists, and their descendants, form the chief merchants and manufacturers of the country; but their success has been very limited, and their numbers are inconsiderable, except at Sarepta, a Moravian settlement near the banks of the Wolga.

SARATOV, a town of European Russia, and the capital of the above government, stands on the Wolga. It is surrounded by a wall and ditch, is neatly built, with wide straight streets; but the houses are mostly of wood. It contains 5000 inhabitants, and has an active trade, which is promoted by the position of the place between Moscow and Astracan, and by the command of water carriage on the Wolga. The principal articles of traffic not derived from these two cities are fish, caviar, and salt; 374 miles north-by-west of Astracan, and 465 south-east of Moscow. Lat. 51. 31. 28. N. long. 46. 0. 15. E.

SARATOVKA, a village of European Russia, on the Neva, between St. Petersburg and Schlusselburg, inhabited by a German colony, who send large quantities of butter, milk, garden herbs, and poultry, to the capital.

SARAUT, a village of Aerat, in Persia; 66 miles south-south-east of Hamadan.

SARAWAN, the most northerly division of Baloochistan,

composed entirely of vast mountains and deserts. It is divided into districts, and these districts into *kheils* or clans, each of which furnishes its quota to the army of Mahommed Khan. There is a town of the same name in the heart of the sandy desert.

SARAX, in Botany, a name given by some authors to the whole class of the ferns.

SARA-YACU, a river of Peru, in the province of Guanuco, which, after many windings, enters the Ucayale, in Lat. 6. 45. S.

SARAZIN (James), a sculptor who had a considerable share in forming the most eminent artists of that class in France, was born at Noyon, in 1590. He received the elements of his art at Paris, from thence he went to Rome, where he contracted an intimate friendship for Domenichino, the celebrated painter, who, with himself, was employed at Frescati, and who assisted him with his advice. He resided at this city eighteen years, and, returning through Florence and Lyons, he revisited Paris about the year 1628. Here he soon rose into notice, and was engaged in various works by Cardinal Richelieu and other persons of distinction. His reputation at court caused him to be employed by queen Anne of Austria, on a very singular occasion. When pregnant of her first child, Lewis XIV., she vowed an offering to the shrine of Loretto of a statue of pure gold of the weight of the child, provided it should prove a male. The condition being performed on the part of the Virgin, Sarazin was ordered to cast a silver angel, three feet and a half high which should be in the act of presenting to her the little golden dauphin, whose weight was just six pounds. Sarazin, after this, executed several works, which gave greater scope to his genius, of which one of the most admired was a group of two children and a goat at Marli. His principal piece was the mausoleum of Henry de Bourbon, prince of Condé, consisting of a number of emblematical figures, forming a grand composition. His works are characterized by elegance and grace; but his figures are said to be deficient in dignity and correctness, and his draperies want lightness. Sarazin died at Paris in 1660, at the age of 70. His school was the most famous in France during that period, and produced many distinguished sculptors.

SARBATCHOU SAHA, a small island near the coast of Corea, in the sea of Japan. Lat. 42. 54. N. long. 131. 37. E.

SARBE, a large and abundant river of New Granada, in South America.

SARBIEWAKI (Matthias-Cassimer), a Jesuit distinguished for his Latin poetry, was born in 1595, of an illustrious family, in the duchy of Masovia, in Poland. He entered into the society of Jesus in 1612, and being sent to Rome, devoted himself to the study of whatever is connected with classical antiquity and poetry. Some odes which he presented to Urban VIII. caused him to be employed by that pope in the correction of the hymns for his new breviary. On his return to Poland, he was made professor at Wilna in various departments of learning; and when he took the doctor's degree, Ladislaus V. assisted at the ceremony, and put his own ring on his finger. That prince afterwards nominated him his preacher, and made him his companion in all his journies. He died in the year 1640. The Latin poems which he left behind him consist of odes, epodes, dithyrambics, epigrams, and miscellaneous pieces. His reputation as a poet depends altogether on his lyrics. Grotius, Heinsius, and some other competent judges, have thought him occasionally equal to Horace. Some of his odes relate to events in the history of his country, which are touched with true poetic spirit and fire. His works have been several times reprinted; the best edition is that of Barbou in 1759, 12mo.

SARBO, an island in the Red Sea, near the coast of Abyssinia. Lat. 15. 8. N.

SARBURG, or SARREBOURG, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Meurthe, on the Sarre. Population 1500; 38 miles east of Nancy.

SARCA, a river of the Austrian empire, which rises in the Tyrol, and falls into the lake of Garda at its northern extremity. On flowing out of the lake, it takes the name of the Mincio; which see.

SA'RCASM, *s.* [*sarcasmus*, Lat. σαρκάζω, Gr. "décharner un os, et par métaphore, montrer les dents à quelqu'un, lui faire la nique, dérivé de σαρξ, chair." *Morin.* Our word seems to be of no great date. Burton uses the Latin form: "Many are of so petulant a spleen, and have that figure *sarcasmus*, so often in their mouth, so bitter, so foolish." Hammond is the earliest writer, whom I have found, of *sarcasm. Johnson.*] A keen reproach; a taunt; a gibe.—Rejoice, O young man, says Solomon, in a severe *sarcasm*, in the days of thy youth, and walk in the ways of thy heart; but know, that for these things God will bring thee into judgment. *Rogers.*

SARCA'STIC, or SARCA'STICAL, *adj.* Keen; taunting; severe.—What a fierce and *sarcastic* reprehension would this have drawn from the friendship of the world, and yet what a gentle one did it receive from Christ. *South.*

SARCA'STICALLY, *adv.* Tauntingly; severely.—He asked a lady playing with a lap-dog, whether the women of that country used to have any children or no? thereby *sarcastically* reproaching them for misplacing that affection upon brutes, which could only become a mother to her child. *South.*

SA'RCENET, *s.* [supposed by Skinner to be *sericum saracenicum*, Lat.] Fine thin woven silk.—Why art thou then exasperate, thou idle, immaterial skein of sley'd silk, thou green *sarcenet* flap for a sore eye, thou tassel of a prodigal's purse? *Shakspeare.*

SARCHAD, a town of Syria, in the district beyond Jordan, situated near a range of mountains to which it gives name; 45 miles south-south-east of Damascus.

SARCITES, in Surgery, an anasarca.

SARCITES, the Flesh-stone, in Natural History, a name given by some authors to the cornelian, from its being of the colour of flesh, as it is very exactly in some pieces.

SARCITES, or SUARITES, is also a stone supposed to be found in the belly of a lizard; it seems to have been a species of pale cornelian. Pliny mentions it, but gives no description of it.

SARCIUM, in Surgery, a caruncle.

To SA'RCLE, *v. a.* [*sarcler*, Fr. *sarculo*, Lat.] To weed corn. *Ainsworth. Obsolete.*

SARCOCE'LE, *s.* [σαρξ and κηλη, Gr.; *sarcocele*, Fr.] A fleshy excrescence which sometimes grows so large as to stretch the scrotum much beyond its natural size. See SURGERY.

SARCOCOLLA [Σαρκοκολλα, Gr.], a gum-resin oozing out of an oriental vegetable, either with or without incisions.

It has been the opinion of many writers of the middle ages, that this was the gum of the peach-tree. The origin of this opinion may be traced to Dioscorides, who, treating of sarcocolla, says, that it is the gum of a Persian tree. The words *Persian-tree* and *peach-tree* are the same both in Greek and Latin; and hence, what he said of a tree growing in Persia, has been attributed to the peach-tree; and this gum, so very different from the gum of that tree, has been supposed to flow from it. Linnæus supposes that it is produced by the Penæa mucronata, an Æthiopian shrub of the order conglomeratæ. Others have, in this instance, doubted his authority, and the fact remains undecided.

Neither authors nor merchants are agreed as to the place where it grows: some say it is in Persia; others in Arabia Deserta. It is a concrete juice, that comes from Persia and Arabia either in grains, or in tears of different colours; sometimes white, sometimes yellow, and sometimes red; but the whitest are preferred, as being the freshest.

The taste is bitter, accompanied with somewhat of a disagreeable sweetness, and an odour resembling, in some degree, that of aniseed. It softens in the mouth, bubbles, and catches flame from a candle, dissolves almost wholly in water, and the greatest part of it in rectified spirit. It does not crystallize: treated with nitric acid it yields oxalic acid.

SARCOCOLLA,

SARCOCOLLA, in Botany. See PENÆA.

SARCODUM [from the Gr. σαρκωδης, *fleshy*], in allusion to the substance of the legume, is a genus of Loureiro's, of the diadelphous class. He says it agrees with lotus in its turgid, or full, legume, but differs in its half-truncate calyx, with three teeth; flat, not converging, wings; ascending standard; and kidney-shaped seeds. The stem is shrubby, climbing. Flowers rose-coloured, in simple terminal spikes. Leaves pinnate, of numerous woolly leaflets.

SARCOEPLIPLOCELE [from the Gr. σαρξ, *flesh;* επιπλοον, *the omentum;* and κηλη, *a tumour;*], in Surgery, an omental hernia, together with a sarcocele.

SARCOLITE, in Mineralogy, a red variety of zeolite, crystallized in cubes, with each of the solid angles replaced by eight planes.

SARCOLOGY, *s.* A discourse on the flesh, or the soft parts of the human body.

Anatomy is divided into two principal parts; *osteology* and *sarcology:* the first of which treats of the bones and cartilages; the second of the flesh and soft parts.

SARCO'MA, *s.* [σαρκωμα, Gr.] A fleshy excrescence, or lump, growing in any part of the body. See SURGERY.

SARCOMPHALON [from the Gr. σαρξ, *flesh;* and ομφαλος, *the navel;*], a fleshy excrescence at the navel.

SARCOMPHALUS, in Botany, so called by Browne, Hist. of Jam. 179, in allusion to the fleshy navel-like rim which crowns the germen. See RHAMNUS.

SARCO'PHAGOUS, *adj.* [σαρξ and φαγω, Gr.] Flesh-eating; feeding on flesh.

SARCO'PHAGUS, *s.* [Latin; *sarcophage*, Fr. de σαρξ, σαρκος, Greek, chair, et φαγω, manger, parce qu'on prêtend que ces tombeaux étoient faits d'une certaine pierre caustique, qui consumoit promptement les corps; ou plutôt parce que les tombeaux devorent, pour ainsi dire, les cadavres humains qu'on y dépose." *Morin.* It is observable, that we had, nearly two centuries since, the word in its French form. "*Sarcophage*, a grave, a sepulchre."] A sort of stone coffin or grave, in which the ancients laid those bodies which were not to be burned.—I have observed the same device upon several *sarcophagi*, that have enclosed the ashes of men or boys, maids or matrons. *Addison.*

The word, as derived from the Greek, literally signifies *flesh-eater;* because, at first, they used a sort of stones for the making of these tombs, which quickly consumed the bodies. The quarries from whence they dug them were near a city of Troas, named Assum. They had the faculty to waste away a body to nothing, save the teeth, in forty days.

This stone resembled a reddish pumice-stone, and had a saltish taste; they also made vessels of it to cure the gout, into which they put their feet.

SARCO'PHAGY, *s.* [σαρξ and φαγω, Gr.] The practice of eating flesh.—There was no *sarcophagy* before the flood; and, without the eating of flesh, our fathers preserved themselves unto longer lives than their posterity. *Brown.*

SARCOPHYIA [from the Gr. σαρξ, *flesh;* and φυω, *to grow;*], a sarcoma.

SARCOTHLASMA, in Surgery, a bruise.

SARCO'TICK, *s.* [from σαρξ, Gr. *sarcotique*, Fr.] A medicine which was supposed to fill up ulcers with new flesh; the same as incarnative.

SARCULA'TION, *s.* [*sarculum*, Lat.] The act of weeding; plucking up weeds. *Johnson. Unused.*

The sarculum was a sort of narrow and long hoe, with which they rooted up the weeds among plants growing irregularly. We have the same kind of instrument in use at this time in some places for hoeing between the plants of flax; but one way of sowing, in rows, at present, has prevented the necessity of having recourse to so inconvenient and troublesome an instrument in other cases.

SARCULATURA, in our old Writers, weeding of corn; whence *una sarculatura* was the tenant's service of one day's weeding for the lord. "Tenet in bondagio, et debet unam sarculaturam, &c."

SARD, a small town of the south-west of Hungary; 134 miles south-south-east of Vienna, and 27 south-by-east of Keszthely.

SARDA, in Ancient Geography, a large port of the Mediterranean, on the coast of Mauritania, between Tritum and Cæsarea. *Strabo.*

SARDA, in Natural History. See CORNELIAN.

SARDA, in Ichthyology, a name by which some call the fish, more usually known by the name of *pelamys*, or *pelamys sarda;* a fish resembling a young tunny, but having larger and longer teeth, and no scales.

SARDACHATES, the name of a species of agate, found frequently at this time on the shores of rivers in the East Indies, and seeming to contain an admixture of the matter of the common red cornelian.

It is a very elegant and beautiful species, and is often found of a considerable size. It is of a pale, whitish ground, and has no veins or other variegations, except a multitude of minute spots, of a pale red, and of the matter of a red cornelian; these are scattered very sparingly in some parts of the mass, but in others they are so clustered together, as to make small clouds of an elegant red. It is very hard, and is capable of an elegant polish. Our lapidaries do not much esteem it, but in some other places it is wrought into toys, which are much esteemed.

SABDAN. See ZAARDAM.

SARDANAPALUS, a king of Assyria, whose name is proverbial for effeminate luxury, lived in an age so remote from the period of authentic history, that the circumstances of his reign are only known from doubtful narrations. Chronologists differ much in the era to which they assign him, but Blair gives the date about 740 before Christ. He was probably a prince endowed with great riches and power, in proof of which it was inscribed on his tomb, that he built the cities of Tarsus and Anchiale in one day, which it is impossible to understand literally. He was reduced to the lowest rank by gross sensuality, and is said so far to have degraded himself as to have assumed a female habit, and frequently to take a place among his female concubines. Under such a character, the fall of the Assyrian monarchy could not be a matter of surprise. Public discontent was fomented by Arbaces, a Median satrap, and Belesis, a Babylonian priest, who brought a great army of revolters to overthrow the government. Sardanapalus, sensible of the dangers to which he was exposed, assembled all the troops upon which he could rely, and defeated the insurgents in three different actions. Thinking himself perfectly secure, he resumed the dissolute course to which he had been habituated, and while he was preparing a great festival for his victorious army, Arbaces, reinforced by the Bactrians, fell upon them in the night, and forcing the camp, pursued the fugitives with great slaughter to the gates of Nineveh. In this famous place the king shut himself: the height and strength of its walls enabled him to hold out two years: but at length, an inundation of the Euphrates having made a large breach in the walls, Sardanapalus finding that all hopes of future defence must be abandoned, burnt himself, his treasures, his concubines, and his eunuchs. This event is supposed to have happened about the year B. C. 720, and in the 20th of his reign. *Univer. Hist. Blair's and Playfair's Chronol.*

SARDANUS, the name of a fish of the harengiform kind, caught in the Mediterranean, and common in the markets of Rome and Venice. Its body is broader than that of the pilchard, and its back green; and the line which runs along the belly is much less rough than in that fish. It is indeed easy to distinguish it from the pilchard, but not so easy to shew in what it differs from the common herring more than in size. It seems very probable, that it is no distinct species of fish; but that the herring, like the pilchard, is always smaller in the Mediterranean than the ocean. *Willughby.*

SARDAR [Turkish], the title of an officer chosen from among the caias of the janizaries on some particular occasion; such as to head a detachment sent to war, or on any other occasion.

The

The word is of Persian origin, and is derived from *sar*, which, in that language, signifies a *head* or *chief*.

This officer is a colonel of a detached body; he is attended in his expedition by his deputy, and two secretaries, and his office expires at his return from the business he was dispatched on.

SARDARA, a town in the island of Sardinia, in the Capo di Cagliari, noted for its mineral baths.

SARDE, in Mineralogy, a variety of chalcedony. It has an orange-yellow colour, sometimes inclining to brown: by transmitted light it is blood-red.

SA'RDEL, SA'RDINE STONE, or SA'RDIUS, *s.* A sort of precious stone.—He that sat was to look upon, like a jasper and a *sardine stone*. *Rev.* iv. 3.

SARDELLA, in Ichthyology, a name by which some have called the pilchard of the Mediterranean sea, supposing it different in species from that of the ocean; but it seems, in reality, to be no other than the common pilchard, only not growing so large there as in the ocean.

SARDIAN, SARDOIN, or LAPIS SARDIUS, a precious stone, of a blood colour, semi-transparent; the same with what we otherwise call a *cornelian*.

The most beautiful sardians are those brought from about Babylon: those of Sardinia, whence they take their name, are in the second class. There are others, and those no contemptible ones, found near St. Mauro, in Albania; and others, very small ones, about the Rhine, in Bohemia, Silesia, &c. To give them the greater lustre, it is usual, in setting them, to lay silver-leaf underneath. The sardian is most used for seals, as graving easily, yet taking a fine polish.

SARDICA, or SERDICA, a town which was the capital of the Eastern Illyria. Geographers have differed concerning both the orthography and position of this place. Ptolemy places it among the Mediterranean towns of Thrace; others place it in Dacia, i. e. the Aurelian Dacia, on the other side of the Danube.

Sardica appears to have been the capital of the second Illyria; it was a considerable town, having been enlarged by Trajan. The Bulgarians gave it the name of Triaditza. The emperor Basil laid siege to it in 981, according to Zonaras, which he afterwards discontinued. Some remains of Sardica appear near Sophia.

SARDINA, the same as SARDANUS.

SARDINAS, a river of South America, in Terra Firma, which rises near the point of San Blas, and enters the Atlantic Ocean.

SARDINAS, a river of South America, in New Granada, which runs nearly south, and enters the Sulia, just before this joins the lake Maracaibo.

SARDINAS, a river of Quito, in the province of Mainas, which rises in the confines of the province of Quixos, runs east, and enters the Aguarico, or as others say, the Orinoco.

SARDINATA, a river of New Granada, in the province of Maracaibo, which rises north of the city of Las Palmas, and enters the Sulia.

SARDINIA, the name of a kingdom in the south of Europe, composed in part of the island of Sardinia, but in a much greater proportion of Piedmont, Savoy, and the territory of Genoa. The extent and population of its component parts are as follow:—

Divisions.	Superficial Extent.	Population.
The island of Sardinia	9,250	520,000
Piedmont, including the county of Nice	7,900	1,750,000
Savoy	3,780	450,000
Genoese territory	2,360	534,000
Sardinian part of Milanese territory	3,310	560,000
Duchy of Montferrat	900	186,000
Total of Sardinian dominions	27,500	4,000,000

The religion of the state and of the royal family is the Roman Catholic. The residence of the court is at Turin. The royal title is King of Sardinia, Cyprus, and Jerusalem, and Duke of Genoa; the title of the crown prince is Prince of Piedmont. The constitution is a monarchy, with few definite limits, except the privileges guaranteed to particular states, on their incorporation with the rest of the kingdom. Here, as in the other monarchies of Europe, the appointments of the judges, governors, and public functionaries, is vested in the crown. As to the administration of justice, the laws are in an undigested state, consisting of an accumulation of royal ordinances, and of precedents deduced from judicial decisions. Reference is had to the Roman law, when that of the country is found insufficient. The high courts of justice are held at Turin, Genoa, Chambery, Nice, Cagliari, and Sassari. There are also a number of courts of the second rank, forming a medium between the high courts and the petty tribunals established in the small towns and villages.

The reigning family is descended from the counts of Savoy, who are of great antiquity, and are mentioned in authentic history, in the early part of the 11th century. A branch of that house possessed the principality of Piedmont, and becoming extinct in 1418, their dominions were added to Savoy, then governed by Amadeus, whose title had been shortly before changed by the emperor of Germany, from count to duke of Savoy. The dominions of this house were progressively extended by purchase, conquest, or donation; one of the chief acquisitions was the duchy of Montferrat, obtained in 1631. The political importance of this state was much increased by the contest between France and Austria for the north of Italy, in the latter part of the 17th, and beginning of the 18th century. The vacillating conduct of the reigning duke, who took part at one time against, and at another time in favour of the allies; the siege of Turin by the French in 1706, and their signal defeat by the allies under prince Eugene, are all matters of notoriety and interest in the history of that age. The eventual successes of the allies led to an increase of the dominions of this power, and obtained for the reigning duke, Victor Amadeus II., the island of Sicily, in 1713. In 1720 he exchanged it for Sardinia, and assumed the present royal title. After a peace of thirty years, this state became involved in the war between France and Austria, which was closed by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle in 1748; but it had no part in the war of 1756, the operations of which did not extend to Italy. After a peace of full half a century, the kingdom of Sardinia took part in the war of the French revolution. This contest began in 1792, and was maintained, with the aid of Austrian troops and an English subsidy, with varied success, until 1796, when the assumption of the command by Buonaparte led to the overthrow of the allied forces in the course of a few weeks, and to the conclusion of an unfavourable treaty of peace. This treaty was, as might have been foreseen, followed in the course of two years, by the removal of the royal family to Sardinia, and the incorporation of their continental states with the French territory. The successes of the allies in 1799, opened at one time a prospect of reinstatement, but it was completely overcast by the battle of Marengo, and the subsequent retreat of the Austrians. The continental territory was parcelled out anew into departments of the French empire, and was not restored to the legitimate sovereign until the overthrow of Buonaparte in 1814. The Genoese territory was added to it by the congress of Vienna, in 1815.

For an account of late events that have occurred in Sardinia, and especially of the abortive attempt at a revolution, we refer the reader to the article PIEDMONT.

The revenue of this kingdom is estimated at about one million and a half sterling. The standing army is nearly 60,000, and the national militia about 40,000.

The religion of the king, and of all his states, is Catholic; but the consent of the king is necessary to the promulgation of any papal bull or mandate. Courts of justice are held at Turin, Genoa, Chamberry, Nice, Cagliari, and Sassari.

Principal

Principal towns on the continent, with their populations:—

Genoa	76,000	Coni	17,000
Turin	65,000	Vercelli	17,000
Alessandria	30,000	Mondovi	14,000
Nice	19,000		

In Sardinia.

Cagliari	35,000	Sassari	25,000

SARDINIA, a large island of the Mediterranean, situated to the south of Corsica, between Lat. 38. 55. and 41. 17. N. and long. 7. 57. and 9. 51. E. The geographical division is into the two nearly equal parts of Capo di Cagliari and Capo di Sassari; the former being the southern, the latter the northern part of the island. The political divisions are into marquisates, counties, baronies, &c. The form of the island is oblong; its length from north to south is 162 miles, its breadth between 60 and 70; its superficial extent, including the islets on the coast, amounts to 9250 square miles; its population, by a late return, does not exceed 520,000.

The surface of the island presents a pleasant variety of hill and dale. The hills entitled to the name of mountains extend from north to south, inclining a little to the western coast. In the south the hills are of little elevation. Two rivers, the Oristano and Flumendoso, are of considerable size, and there are various small streams throughout the island. On the sea-coast is a number of small fresh water lakes, and, as in the south of France, a number of *etangs* or bays of the sea, nearly inclosed by the land. The larger bays or gulfs of the sea are those of Cagliari and Santa Rosa in the south of Algheri, and Oristano on the west, and of Sassari on the north coast. The promontories are Capo Falcone on the north coast, Capo Mulgarin on the west, Capo Teulada and Carbonara on the south, and Capo Monte Santo and Comino on the east.

The climate of Sardinia, like that of most islands, has less intensity of heat or cold than is common in continental countries under the same parallels of latitude. The winter is mild, snow falling only in the mountains, and seldom lying long. In summer, the heat is felt to excess only during a few months, so that the unhealthiness is local, and produced, as in other half cultivated countries, by marshy vapours. The soil, with the exception of a few sandy tracks along the coast, is in general fertile, affording, even under a wretched system of agriculture, a return of from 15 to 20 for the seed of wheat; in some places much more. Several of the mountains contain valuable minerals, particularly lead and silver. The vines of Sardinia may be compared to those of Spain; and in favourable years, quantities of grapes are lost for want of casks to receive the liquor. The olive also forms a great object of rural economy; and in a less degree, the mulberry, the lemon, the orange, the fig, and in the warmest situations, the pomegranate and palm tree. Sugar, cotton, coffee, and indigo, might be cultivated in the warmer valleys; but all is backward in this country, the interior of which contains extensive tracks of desert, and still more extensive forest of aged oak, chesnuts, and cork trees. Even horses range in a wild state in these unfrequented spots. The domestic breed of horses and horned cattle would be good, were attention paid to the pasture; but meadows and artificial grass are here as yet only in their infancy. Hogs, sheep, and goats, are uncommonly numerous. The wild animals in the woods are stags, wolves, hares, and foxes, as in the rest of Europe.

Sardinia is very favourably situated for commercial intercourse, having a number of good harbours, while no part of the island is above 40 miles distant from the sea; but the want of wads, the thinness of population, the deficiency of capital, and the general ignorance and indolence of the people, have as yet prevented a beneficial operation of these advantages. The best harbours are those of Palmas, Nova, and Cagliari. In the last, or rather in its bay, whole fleets may lie at anchor in any kind of weather. But this island can boast of no manufactures, except some coarse linens and woollens; no exports unless raw produce, such as corn, cattle, salted provisions, the proceeds of the tunny fishery, hides and skins, fruit, some wine and brandy, but above all, large quantities of salt. The climate is favourable for the evaporation of salt water; and vast quantities of salt are shipped in the bay of Cagliari, at the moderate price of 6*d.* per cwt. The total annual exports from Sardinia may be averaged at half a million sterling.

Inhabitants.—The interior of this island exhibits a degree of barbarism which can with difficulty be believed to exist in Europe. The shepherds, and others who do not live in towns, are in the habit of wearing a covering of tanned leather, or of shaggy goat or sheep skin. They go constantly armed to protect themselves from the banditti in the mountains: they roam with their flocks over the uninhabited tracks, enjoying a bare existence, and acquainted with no laws but those of their own formation. They make large quantities of cheese for sale, and sometimes sow small patches of wheat and barley around their temporary dwellings; but they subsist chiefly on fruit, game, and the produce of their flocks, each family constituting as it were a patriarchal association. Though this part of the population is inoffensive, the number of banditti in the mountains renders it unsafe for any one, whether a foreigner or Sardinian, to venture far into the interior without an escort. The wars in former ages for the possession of the island, the ignorance of the government, the absence, as in Ireland, of the chief landholders, and the uninstructed character of the clergy, are the causes of this great backwardness in so rich a country. In the towns, and along the sea-coast, the inhabitants are very different, being pleasant in person and manners, and though of little information, by no means deficient in sensibility or vivacity. There are two universities in the island, viz., Cagliari in the south, and Sassari in the north; but their course of education is very imperfect. The Sardinian language has Italian for its basis, with a mixture of Spanish, Latin, Greek, and French words and idioms. In some parts a dialect of the Spanish is spoken; but the higher class acquire and speak habitually good Italian. One of the great disadvantages of the island, is the strange mode of administering justice, the judges being paid by an allowance on each sentence, which prevents them from having an interest in discouraging delinquencies, and gives undue advantages to persons of fortune.

Sardinia is unknown in history, until the time of its occupancy by the Carthaginians, who doubtless confined themselves to a few maritime stations, from which they were expelled by the Romans in the first Punic war. We must put no faith in the flattering pictures of this island, drawn by some of the ancient geographers and historians, except in regard to its natural fertility. The Romans, after establishing themselves here two centuries before the Christian era, continued in possession of the island until the decline of the empire, when it was invaded by the Saracens. The sea-ports were subsequently recovered by the commercial republics of Genoa and Pisa; but the sovereignty of the island was acquired by the king of Arragon, and retained by the crown of Spain until the early part of the 18th century. In the diplomatic arrangements of 1719, it was given, in lieu of the island of Sicily, to the duke of Savoy; but though it had the honour of conferring the regal title, it continues to be governed as a province.

SARDIS, or SARDES, a town of Asia Minor, the metropolis of Lydia, and the seat of king Crœsus. It was situated between the Cayster to the south, and the Hermus to the north, on the banks of the Pactolus, at the foot of Mount Tmolus. The citadel was placed on a craggy mountain, abounding with precipices, south-east of the town, and, on account of its situation, was thought to be impregnable. Sardis was a rich and splendid city. Florus calls it the second Rome. The kings of Lydia selected it as the place of their residence. Strabo represents it as an ancient city, not inferior in magnificence to any in Asia; but he considers it as posterior to the siege of Troy. Herodotus relates that this city was taken by the Cimmerians, who were driven from

from their country by the Scythian Nomades, under the reign of Ardys, whose reign commenced 680 years B. C. It remained in possession of the Cimmerians until the reign of Alyattes II., who ascended the throne 619 years B. C., took possession of the capital, and drove the Cimmerians out of Asia. Strabo informs us that the Tyrians and Lycians took possession of it, and it became subject to the Persians in the year 584 B. C. It was in the plain before this city that Cyrus gained a victory over Crœsus, king of Lydia, and then took the city after a resistance of 14 days. The Persians thought Sardis of such consequence after they gained possession of it, that Xerxes hearing that it was taken by the Grecks, commanded one of his attendants to cry aloud every day while he was at dinner, "The Greeks have taken Sardis;" a practice which was continued till he recovered the city.

In the year 504 B. C., Aristagoras, lieutenant of the sovereign of Miletus, revolted against the Persians, who had remained in possession of Sardis from the destruction of the kingdom of Lydia. Sardis was taken without resistance, but the citadel was defended by Artaphernes with a good garrison. On this occasion a soldier set fire to a house, which communicated itself to other buildings, and occasioned a conflagration that spread through almost the whole city. The temple of Cybele was burnt. The city was afterwards rebuilt, and passed under the dominion of the Greeks. In the year 333 B. C., after the battle of Granicus, Sardis, which was considered as the strongest place occupied by the Persians near the sea-coast, surrendered to Alexander; who left it free, and allowed it to be governed by its own laws.

In the war carried on by Seleucus against Lysimachus, he took possession of Sardis in the year 283 B. C.; the citadel, with all the treasures of Lysimachus, having been delivered to him by Theodotus, the governor. In the year 214 B. C., Antiochus the Great made himself master of the city and its citadel, and kept possession of it for 25 years. It served for the place of his retreat after having lost the battle of Magnesia in Sipylus, 190 years B. C. When this prince left Sardis to join his son Seleucus, he committed the custody of it to Zenon, and entrusted the government of the rest of Lydia with Timon. The inhabitants of Sardis delivered themselves up to the Romans, in whose possession it remained. Under the reign of the emperor Tiberius, Sardis was almost wholly destroyed by an earthquake; but the emperor gave orders for rebuilding it at a great expense. The emperor Adrian was also a very considerable benefactor to this city; and hence he obtained the title of Neocorus. Antonine, his adopted son and successor, was particularly honoured by the inhabitants of Sardis. This city is represented on some medals as the metropolis of Asia; and it is said to have been the only city of proconsular Asia which had assumed this denomination. A medal of Augustus, however, gives reason for concluding that it had been a metropolis under this prince. At Sardis were exhibited every five years some particular games, called "Chrysanthius," on account of gilded flowers, which composed the crown assigned to the victor. Sardis was one of the first towns which embraced Christianity, having been proselyted, as it is said, by the apostle John; and some have thought that Clement, a disciple of St. Paul, was its first bishop. It has been also reckoned among the number of the seven churches, mentioned in the Revelation; but others have thought that this honour belonged to a village in its vicinity. The territory of Sardis was renowned for several valuable productions. The precious stone called sardonyx, is said to have derived its name from this city; and it is supposed that the first mines were discovered in this place. Pliny says that the tree which yielded a fragrant incense, grew in great abundance in the environs of Sardis, where the kings of Asia had made these plantations. The inhabitants were industrious and active, and celebrated for many valuable manufactures. Pliny relates that the first woollen manufactures were established at Sardis; and Athenæus informs us, that the inhabitants composed a variety of precious perfumes. The imperial medals of Sardis are very numerous, but those struck in honour of the city are not so many. It appears by an inscription reported by M. Spon, that Jupiter was particularly honoured at Sardis; he was there called the protector of the city. Here are still to be seen the ruins of a large palace, with two magnificent churches, with a great many pillars and cornices of marble, the remains probably of a temple, and also of the citadel. Near this city was to be seen, in the time of Herodotus, the sepulchre of Alyattes, the father of Crœsus; the foundation of which was stone, but the whole superstructure of earth, being 6 furlongs 200 feet in circumference, and 1300 feet in breadth.

SARDOA, Sardoum, or Sardonia Herba [so called from its growing plentifully in Sardinia], in Botany, a name given by the ancients to the water-crowfoot.

SARDOAL, a small town in the central part of Portugal, in Estremadura; 3 miles north of Abrantes. Population about 3000.

SARDONES, in Ancient Geography, a people who inhabited the western part of Gallia Narbonnensis, according to Pliny. These people occupied that part which is now called Roussillon, in the environs of Ruscino.

SARDO'NIAN, or Sardo'nic, *adj.* [from *sardon*, a herb of *Sardinia*, resembling smallage; which, being eaten by men, is said to contract the muscles, and excite painful and dangerous laughter.] Forced or feigned, as applied to laughter, smiles, or grin.

The villain—with *Sardonian* smyle
Laughing on her, his false intent to shade,
Gan forth to lay his bayte her to beguyle. *Spenser.*

SA'RDONYX, *s.* A precious stone.—The onyx is an accidental variety of the agate kind: 'tis of a dark horny colour, in which is a plate of a bluish white, and sometimes of red: when on one or both sides the white there happens to lie also a plate of a reddish colour, the jewellers call the stone a *sardonyx*. *Woodward.*

Sardonyx is composed of a milk-white variety of chalcedony, intermixed with sarde, or cornelian. It is frequently in larger masses than cornelian, and is much valued by engravers of cameos.

SARE, a small town of Corsica, with 700 inhabitants. It is not far from Ajaccio.

SARECTO, a small town of the United States, and the chief town of Duplin county, North Carolina, situate on the west side of the north-east branch of Cape Fear river, which affords water for rafts to the town.

SAREDON, Great and Little, two hamlets of England, in Staffordshire; 6 miles north-north-east of Wolverhampton.

SARENA, a port on the coast of Chili, in South America, on the South Pacific Ocean. Lat. 29. 40. S. long. 71. 15. W.

SARENTHAL, a large village of Austria, in Tyrol, on the Telfenbach, a small river which falls into the Eisach, near Botzen.

SARENTO. See Sorrento.

SAREPE, a river of South America, in the New Kingdom of Granada, and province of San Juan de los Llanos, which turns north-north-east, and enters the Enecaramu by the south part.

SAREPTA, a small town of the south-east of European Russia, on the Wolga; 222 miles south-by-west of Saratov. It was founded in 1765, by a colony of Moravian brethren, and now contains 800 inhabitants, who belong to that community, and act as manufacturers and missionaries.

SARFA, a town of Nedsjed, in Arabia; 63 miles south-west of Kariatain.

SARFAR, a name given by some of the chemists to iron.

SARFE, in Ichthyology, the red-eye.

SARFEND, or Sharfend, a village of Palestine, near the sea-coast, supposed to be the ancient Sarepta; 8 miles south of Saida.

SARGANS, a small town in the north-east of Switzerland, in

in the canton of St. Gall, consisting of a single street. In its vicinity is a productive iron mine; 45 miles east-south east of Zurich, and 42 south of Constance.

SARGARAUSENA, in Ancient Geography, a country of Cappadocia, which had the title of prefecture, and comprehended six towns.

SARGATII, a people of Sarmatia in Europe; who inhabited the territory between the Alauni and the Amanobii. *Ptolemy.*

SARGAZO, or SARGASO, in Botany, a name for the plant commonly called *sea lentils:* a small sea-plant found among the rocks, and sometimes at open sea, and supposed to be a good diuretic.

SARGE, a small town in the central part of France, department of the Loir and Cher, situated at the junction of the rivers Greisne and Bray. Population 1600.

SARGEL, a small sea-port of Algiers, near which Andrew Doria was beaten by Barbarossa. Lat. 36. 30. N. long. 2. 15. W.

SARGETIA, in Ancient Geography, a river of Dacia, which watered the town of Zernizagathusas, since called Ulpia-Trajana, and ran into the Rhadon. *Dion Cassius.*

SARGO, in Ichthyology, a name used for the CYPRINUS TESES.

SARGUEMINES, or SARREGUEMINES, a small town in the north-east of France, in Lorraine, department of the Moselle, at the junction of the Sarre and the Blase. It has considerable manufactures of hemp stuffs. Population 3200; 9 miles south of Saarbruck. Lat. 49. 8. N. long. 7. 11. E.

SARGUS, the name of a fish well known, and much esteemed, among the ancients, and not uncommon at this time in the markets of Rome, Venice, &c. being caught in the Mediterranean and Adriatic in considerable quantities.

It something resembles the sparus in figure, but its nose is longer and more pointed, and turns up a little, and its fore-teeth are shaped like two human teeth, which stand in the same part of the mouth. It has no tubercles in the hinder part of the jaws, as the sparus has; and its whole body is variegated with brown transverse rings, resembling the variegations of the pearch, and has only one fin on the back, the anterior rays of which are prickly, the hinder ones not at all so. See SPARUS SARGUS.

SARGUS is also the name of a river fish, called by others *gardon*, *sardus*, and *cephalus*. See CYPRINUS JESES.

SARHAUT, a town of Bengal, district of Birbhoom. Lat. 24. 14. N. long. 86. 51. E.

SARHOU HOTUN, a town of Chinese Tartary; 392 miles east-north-east of Peking.—There is another town of the same name in the government of Kirin. Lat. 44. 44. N. long. 129. 21. E.

SARI, a town of Mazanderan, in Persia, on the southern coast of the Caspian. It is a very ancient city, frequently alluded to by the poet Ferdusi; and when visited by Hanway, contained four or five temples of the ancient Persians, built of solid materials, and in the shape of rotundas, about 30 feet in diameter, and raised to a point near 120 feet in height. Sari is now the residence of one of the princes of Persia, who has a small but neat and commodious palace. It is well fortified, being surrounded with a good wall and deep ditch. Though not large, it is crowded with inhabitants; and a society of Armenians is established in its vicinity. Here are many considerable merchants, who carry on a brisk trade with Astracan and the interior of Persia. The country in the vicinity of the town is flat, woody interspersed with streams, and bounded on the north-west and south-west by a range of hills. Lat. 35. 35. N. long. 52. 58. E.

SARI, a village of Irak, in Persia; 160 miles north-west of Ispahan.

SARIATIM, a village of Anatolia, in Asiatic Turkey; 21 miles south-west of Kiangari.

SARIBUS, in Botany, a name given by Rumphius to a species of CORPHYA. See that article.

SARIGOL, a small town of European Turkey, in Macedon, situated on the river Inichori. It is a modern place, built since the conquest of the country by the Turks, and is the capital of a very fertile and rich district.

SARIGOY, in Zoology, a name by which some call the creature we know by the name of the opossum.

SARINENA, a small town in the north-east of Spain, in Arragon, where the Christians were defeated in a general engagement with the Moors in 1133; 23 miles south-west of Balbastro.

SARINHAYM, a river of Brazil, on the south-east coast, and opposite to the island of Alero, which runs into the Atlantic. Lat. 8. 50. S.

SARIO, in Ichthyology, a term used by some authors for the salmon when in the middle state of its growth, when it is past its younger state, in which it is properly called *salar*, and is not yet arrived at what is properly called a *salmon*. See SALMO.

SARISSA, in Antiquity, a very long spear used by the Macedonians. Ælian says, that by the ancient usage they ought to be sixteen cubits in length; but that in fact they were but fourteen, two cubits being allowed for the handle, and the other twelve to cover their bodies.

SARISSUS, in Botany. See HYDROPHYLAX.

SARIZKO, a village of Tobolsk, in Asiatic Russia; 400 miles north of Turuchansk.

SARJEW RIVER. See GOGGRAH.

SARK, *s.* [ȳrnc, ȳrc, Sax.] A common word, in our northern counties, for a shirt or shift.—Flaunting beaus gang with their breasts open, and their *sarks* over their waistcoats. *Arbuthnot.*

SARK, or SERK, a small island in the English channel, dependent on Guernsey. It is situated near the coast of France, extends about two miles in length, and as much in breadth, and contains about 300 inhabitants. The air here is serene, and remarkably healthy; and the soil, though generally hot and sandy, affords every necessary for the inhabitants, particularly apples, which make excellent cyder; also turnips, carrots, and other roots, with most kinds of grain. The pasture on the island, though short, is very sweet, and the mutton is fine. Milk and butter are produced to serve the island; but cheese is imported from England Ducks, mallards, wood-cocks, teal, and other wild fowl, abound here; and at some seasons the cliff pigeons almost cover the island. Here is great plenty of rabbits, and also a variety of sea fish. The knitting of stockings, gloves, and waistcoats, or Guernsey jackets, is much practised by the inhabitants, and forms the only manufacture of the island. With these a trade is carried on to Bristol and some of the western ports, a supply of necessaries being brought back in return. Several small vessels are employed in this traffic. This island was seized, and in possession of the French, till the reign of queen Mary. Lat. 49. 30. N. long. 2. 52. W.

SARK, a small river of Scotland, in Dumfries-shire, which has its rise in the western boundary of the parish of Canoby, and discharges itself into the Solway frith, about a mile from the place where the Esk runs into that arm of the sea. The Sark forms the boundary between the two kingdoms for some miles.

SARKAD, a small town of the east of Hungary; 8 miles north-north-east of Gyula, and 117 east-south-east of Peru. Lat. 46. 44. 30. N. long. 21. 22. 23. E.

SARKFOOT, a small village of Scotland, in Dumfries-shire, at the mouth of the river Sark. It has a good harbour, which admits vessels of 120 tons burden.

SARKHOLM, a petty island of the Baltic, in the gulf of Riga. It consists of a calcareous rock, covered with earth.

SARLAT, a town in the south-west of France, the capital of an arrondissement in the department of the Dordogne, situated on the river Sarlat. Except a few remains of Roman antiquities, it has nothing interesting; the houses being ill built, the streets narrow, and the adjacent country unproductive. Before the revolution, it was the seat of a bishop. Population 6000; 30 miles south-east of Perigueux, and 98 east-by-north of Bourdeaux.

SARLEINSBACH,

SARLEINSBACH, a small town of Upper Austria; 23 miles west-north-west of Lintz. Large quantities of linen are made here.

SARLO, or SALLO NAGY, a small town of the south of Hungary, in the county of Barsch. Lat. 46. 6. N. long. 18. 33. 11. E.

SARMATIA, a large portion of Europe and Asia, which was divided into European and Asiatic Sarmatia. *Sarmatia Europæa*, or Sarmatia in Europe, was bounded on the north by the Sarmatic Ocean, and immense tracts of land, and extended from the Vistula, now the Weissel, parting it from Germany, to the Euxine Sea, the Bosphorus Cimmerius, the Palus Mæotis, and the Tanais, dividing it from Asia and the Asiatic Sarmatia. The mountains of European Sarmatia, according to Ptolemy, were the Peuca, Amadoci, Boudinus, Alaunus, Carpatus, the Vindelician, and the Riphæan mountains. The towns in the interior of the country were Carcina, Torocca, Pasiris, Ercabum, Tracana, and Naubarum, all near the river Carcinis; those near the Borysthenes were Azagarium, Amadoca, Sarum, Serimum, and Olbia, the metropolis, called also Borysthenes; near the river Axius was Ordesus; towards the place where the Borysthenes made a bend were Leinum, Sarbacum, and Niossum; near Dacia, on the Tyrus or Danaster, were Carrodunum, Mætonium, Clepidava, Vibanta Varium, and Fractum; and near the mouth of the Tanais, was the island Alopecia, or of Foxes.

Sarmatia of Asia had towards the north unknown boundaries, towards the west European Sarmatia as far as the sources of the Tanais, and this river itself as far as its mouth in the Palus Mæotis, and this Palus to the Bosphorus. The mountains in this part of Sarmatia were the Hippici, Ceraunii, Corax, Alexandri Columnæ, Pylæ Sarmaticæ, and Albaniæ Pylæ. The towns were Exopolis, Naxarius, Tanais, &c. &c.

Cellarius has collected the opinions of the ancients concerning the European and Asiatic Sarmatia; and M. d'Anville has, with his usual skill and accuracy, applied them to modern geography.

In the immense tract of land called Sarmatia, comprehending the present Poland, Russia, and a great part of Tartary, dwelt, besides many others, the names of whom it is unnecessary to enumerate, the following people: viz. the Burgiones, Cariones, Sudeni, Geloni, Hamaxobii, Agathyrsi, Borusæ, Melanchlæni, Alauni or Alani, Jazyges, Roxolani, Bastarnæ, Carpi or Carpates, Sidones, Borani, and Venedi, called by Jornandes Winidæ and Vinidi. The five last-named nations are thought to have come originally from Germany, especially the Bastarnæ; for even in the time of Tacitus, who is at a loss whether he ought to place them among the Germans or the Sarmatians, they agreed with the former in dress and language. The Gelonians were, according to Herodotus, of Greek extraction; but had, even in his time, adopted, in a great measure, the customs and manners of the Budini, among whom they had settled, especially the custom of painting their bodies, as we are informed by Virgil and Claudian. The Budini dwelt near mount Budinus, from which sprung the Borysthenes, now called the Dnieper, or Nieper. The other nations abovementioned were Gothic. See GOTHS. These various tribes were blended by the Romans under the common name of *Sauromatæ;* and sometimes by both, under the denominations of Scythæ or Scythians, and Getæ. Each of them seems to have had its own king; for history mentions the kings of the Roxolani, of the Bastarnæ, and of the Jazyges. Ammianus Marcellinus describes the Sarmatians in general as a savage people, infamous for their lewdness. The Melanchlæni are reproached, both by Ammianus and Herodotus, as cannibals, who fed on human flesh, and are hence called by them, as well as by Mela and Pliny, anthropophagi and androphagi.

The Sarmatians, says Mr. Gibbon, seem to unite the manners of the Asiatic barbarians with the figure and complexion of the ancient inhabitants of Europe. According to the various accidents of peace and war, of alliance or conquest, the Sarmatians were sometimes confined to the banks of the Tanais; and they sometimes spread themselves over the immense plains which lie between the Vistula and the Wolga. The care of their numerous flocks and herds, the pursuit of game, and the exercise of war, or rather of rapine, directed the vagrant motions of the Sarmatians. The moveable camps or cities, the ordinary residence of their wives and children, consisted only of large waggons drawn by oxen, and covered in the form of tents. The military strength of the nation was composed of cavalry; and the custom of their warriors, to lead in their hand one or two spare horses, enabled them to advance and to retreat with a rapid diligence, which surprised the security, and eluded the pursuit, of a distant enemy. (Ammian. l. xvii. c. 12.) The Sarmatian horses were castrated, to prevent the mischievous accidents which might happen from the noisy and ungovernable passions of the males. Their poverty of iron prompted their rude industry to invent a sort of cuirass, which was capable of resisting a sword or javelin, though it was formed only of horses' hoofs, cut into thin and polished slices, carefully laid over each other in the manner of scales or feathers, and strongly sewed upon an under-garment of coarse linen. The offensive arms of the Sarmatians were short daggers, long lances, and a weighty bow with a quiver of arrows. They were reduced to the necessity of employing fish-bones for the points of their weapons; but the custom of dipping them in a venomous liquor, that poisoned the wounds which they inflicted, is alone sufficient to prove the most savage manners; since a people impressed with a sense of humanity, would have abhorred so cruel a practice, and a nation skilled in the arts of war would have disdained so impotent a resource. Whenever these barbarians issued from their desarts in quest of prey, their shaggy beards, uncombed locks, the furs with which they were covered from head to foot, and their fierce countenances, which seemed to express the innate cruelty of their minds, inspired the more civilized provincials of Rome with horror and dismay.

Ovid, in the nine books of poetical epistles which he composed during the first seven years of his melancholy exile among these monsters of the desart, after their settlement near the Danube, describes in lively colours the dress and manners, the arms and inroads of the Getæ and Sarmatians, who were associated for the purposes of destruction; and from the accounts of history, there is some reason to believe that these Sarmatians were the Jazygæ, one of the most numerous and warlike tribes of the nation. The allurements of plenty engaged them to seek a permanent establishment on the frontiers of the empire. Soon after the reign of Augustus, they obliged the Dacians, who subsisted by fishing on the banks of the river Teyss or Tibiscus, to retire into the hilly country, and to abandon to the victorious Sarmatians the fertile plains of the Upper Hungary, which are bounded by the course of the Danube and the semicircular inclosure of the Carpathian mountains. The Sarmatian Jazygæ were settled on the banks of the Pathissus, or Tibiscus, when Pliny, in the year 79, published his Natural History. (See l. iv. c. 22.) In the time of Strabo and Ovid, sixty or seventy years before, they appear to have inhabited beyond the Getæ, along the coast of the Euxine. In this advantageous position they watched or suspended the moment of attack, as they were provoked by injuries or appeased by presents; they gradually acquired the skill of using more dangerous weapons; and although the Sarmatians did not illustrate their name by any memorable exploits, they occasionally assisted their eastern and western neighbours, the Goths and the Germans, with a formidable body of cavalry. They lived under the irregular aristocracy of their chieftains; but after they had received into their bosom the fugitive Vandals, who yielded to the pressure of the Gothic power, they seem to have chosen a king from that nation, and from the illustrious race of the Astingi, and who had formerly dwelt on the shores of the Northern Ocean.

The Sarmatians first began to threaten the Roman empire in the reign of Nero, about seventeen years after Thrace had been

been reduced to a Roman province by Claudius; Thrace, till its reduction, having served as a barrier on that side between the Sarmatians and the Romans. Soon after the latter became possessed of it, the Sarmatians appeared in great numbers on the confines, with a seeming purpose of making themselves masters of that province; but the Roman general having defeated the king of the Bastarnians and Roxolanians, the rest soon dispersed. Six years after this transaction, A.D. 69, the Roxolanians, having entered Mœsia and defeated two Roman cohorts, ravaged the country. The Jazygians, another Sarmatic nation, offered to join Vespasian in the first year of his reign, immediately after his accession to the empire; but soon altering their purpose, broke into Mœsia, and, having killed the governor, laid waste the country: but in several encounters with a Roman general, expeditiously dispatched against them by the Roman emperor, many of them were cut to pieces, and the rest were obliged to re-cross the Danube.

The Sarmatians in Europe broke into Illyricum with great fury in the year 119, the second of Adrian's reign; which obliged that prince to quit Rome, and march against them in person. Upon his arrival at Mœsia, they repassed the Danube with great precipitation, and encamped on the opposite bank; but the Roman cavalry swimming across the river, in order to attack them, the Sarmatians were struck with such terror, that they immediately submitted.

The princes of the Sarmatians quarrelled afterwards among themselves, and chose Adrian for their umpire, who composed their differences to the general satisfaction of the contending parties. On this occasion, the king of the Roxolanians complaining to the emperor, that his pension had been reduced, Adrian ordered the sum which had been formerly allowed him, to be paid without the least deduction. In the year 135, the Jazygians sent ambassadors to Rome, to renew their alliance with Adrian, who received them in a very obliging manner, introduced them to the senate, and, having granted them their request, sent them back loaded with rich presents.

All the nations inhabiting Sarmatia conspired with the Marcomans against M. Aurelius; but were in the end subdued, and almost extirpated. Being afterwards abandoned by the Marcomans and their other allies, they were reduced to great extremity, and suing for peace, they obtained it upon conditions that were humiliating, and with which they were under a necessity of complying. The prisoners, whom they dismissed on this occasion, amounted, as it is said, to 100,000, though they had sold to other nations many of those whom they had taken during the war. The 8000 Jazygian horse were by the emperor sent into Britain. To the other Sarmatic nations lands were allotted in Pannonia, Mœsia, Germany, and even in Italy. The Jazygians lived, it seems, some time in peace and amity with the Romans; for in 180, one of the articles of the peace concluded between the emperor Commodus and the Alemans was, that they should not make war upon the Jazygians, Burians, or Vandals. Besides, no mention is made by historians either of them, or the other Sarmatic nations, till the year 215, when the emperor Caracalla is said to have gained some advantages over the Sarmatians, and to have assumed, on that account, the surname of Sarmaticus.

In the year 228 the Carpi, a people of Sarmatia, dwelling next the Carpathian mountains, which separate Hungary and Transylvania from Poland, demanded an annual pension, similar to that which was granted to the Goths; and their demand being rejected, they made several irruptions into the empire. Aurelian, afterwards emperor, gained a signal victory over the Sarmatians and Sueves in the reign of Claudius. In the year 278, Probus marched against them in person, but they obtained peace upon a promise to remain beyond the Danube, and to supply the Roman armies with a certain number of troops. As soon as they heard of the death of Probus, they invaded Illyricum, but were defeated with great slaughter by the emperor Carus, who cut in pieces 16,000 of them, and obliged the rest to repass the Danube. About seven years after this event, they returned with a numerous army, and committed great ravages in Thrace and Illyricum; but Dioclesian defeated them with great slaughter. In process of time the Sarmatians, dwelling near the Palus Mæotis, broke into the country of the Lazians in Colchis, and having pillaged a great part of Pontus, advanced as far as the Halys, a river of Paphlagonia. Constantius, then only tribune, but soon afterwards declared Cæsar, was sent by Dioclesian to restrain their ravages; the inferiority of his army, however, allowed his doing no more than preventing them from passing that river. The emperor Galerius made war on the Sarmatians, and gained over them a complete victory. About this time the Carpi, having been several times overcome, and reduced to great distress by Galerius, submitted to the Romans. Dioclesian transplanted the whole nation into the Roman territories, especially into Pannonia, where great numbers had been allowed to settle in the reign of Aurelian. Constantine the Great, in the 17th year of his reign, gained a great victory over the Sarmatians, and having several times defeated them, he killed their king, laid waste their country, and returned with a very large number of captives. The Sarmatian sports, which were annually celebrated about the latter end of November, probably took their rise from this victory.

In the year 332 Constantine espoused their cause against the Goths, and gained a complete victory over the latter; for in this war near 100,000 Goths perished either by the sword, or by famine. Unmindful, however, of their obligations to Constantine, the Sarmatians turned their arms against their friends and benefactors, but the Romans under Constantine severely punished them for their ingratitude, by entering their country, and ravaging it with fire and sword. Two years afterwards the Sarmatians were again attacked by the Goths. This war lasted some years, but at last the Sarmatians were totally defeated on the banks of the Marisus, in Dacia. In this battle they lost their king, Wisimar, and with him the flower of their nobility, and such numbers of men, that they were obliged to arm their slaves; but these, turning their arms against their masters, drove them quite out of their native country, and seized on their lands and possessions. These slaves are by Ammianus and St. Jerom styled "Limigantes," whereas the free-born among the Sarmatians were distinguished by the name of "Acaragantes." The Sarmatians, thus expelled by their slaves, had again recourse to Constantine, who received 300,000 of them into the empire, incorporated some among his troops, and allowed to the others lands in the provinces bordering on the Danube, and even in Italy itself. Those who took refuge among the Quadians, made an irruption, A. D. 355, into Pannonia, in conjunction with the Quadi; and having pillaged both that province and Upper Mœsia, returned unmolested with an immense booty. Two years after this expedition, they laid waste the same provinces, while the Suevi committed dreadful ravages in Rhætia, and the Quadi in Valeria, a province of Illyricum. Constantius hastened from Rome to oppose the Barbarians, who threatened Italy itself; but hearing of his arrival at Milan, they retreated with precipitation. The emperor, however, advanced as far as Sirmium, and had several conferences with the chiefs of the nations dwelling in the vicinity of the Danube, who all promised to live in peace and amity with the empire. In the following winter they forgot their promises, and finding the Danube frozen, they seized the opportunity of entering Mœsia and Pannonia, and pillaging those provinces. Constantinus marched in person against the Sarmatians, who had been joined by the Quadians; and having passed the Danube on a bridge of boats, he entered their country, and laid it waste to a great extent. At length they concluded a peace with Constantius. The Limigantes, whom we have already mentioned, after suffering a dreadful massacre, were obliged to submit to the Romans, and to accept the severe terms that were offered them. These were, that

that they should quit the country, on which they had seized and which they had unjustly held, and retire to another at a greater distance from the empire. The country which they abandoned was restored by Constantius to the ancient proprietors, who settled there again, 24 years after (A. D. 358) they had been driven out by their rebellious slaves. For these great achievements the victorious emperor Constantius took the surname of Sarmaticus. The Sarmatians, notwithstanding their great obligations to the Romans, a few years after broke into Pannonia, and laid waste that province, while the Roman troops were employed against the Alemans in Rhætia. In the year 374 they joined the Quadians, and, in conjunction with them, committed dreadful ravages in Pannonia, and from thence advanced into Upper Mœsia; but they were there defeated with great slaughter by Theodosius, afterwards emperor. In the year 376, Athanaric, one of the chiefs of the Goths, being forced by the Huns to abandon his own country, retired with his people to a place called Caucalanda, dispossessing the Sarmatians, to whom it belonged. In 378 the Sarmatians, informed that the Goths, who had been admitted by Valens into the empire, had taken up arms against the Romans, resolved to pass the Danube, and join them; but Theodosius, afterwards emperor, meeting them in Thrace, defeated them with great slaughter. The victory is said to have been so complete, that Gratian, then emperor, could not believe the account which Theodosius himself gave upon his return to court, till he was informed of the truth by persons sent on purpose to view the field of battle. In the year 407, they entered Gaul, with the Vandals, Sueves, Franks, Burgundians, and other Barbarians, and committed dreadful devastation. Those who remained in Sarmatia were afterwards subdued by Attila, and served, with their princes, in his army, when he invaded Gaul in 451. Upon that prince's death, they shook off the yoke; and, having recovered their ancient liberty, submitted to Marcian, then emperor, who allowed them to settle in Pannonia, Mœsia, and the other provinces bordering on the Danube, where they continued quiet, till they were reduced by the Goths. Those who resided among the Goths became, in process of time, one nation with them. From those who remained in Sarmatia, the present Poles and Tartars are thought to have sprung. *Univ. Hist.* vol. xvii. *Gibbon's Hist. Rom. Emp.* vol. iii.

The Sarmatians, after the example of most other idolatrous nations, had gods both natural and animated. Those of the first sort were the Sun and Moon, Pogwid or the Air, Taffa or Jupiter, Lacto or Pluto, Nia or Ceres, Marzane or Venus, and Zicuonia or Diana. Among their animated deities were Lelus and Politus, which, according to the Polish historians, were the same with Castor and Pollux, whose names were retained by the Sarmatians, after their worship was abolished, and they had embraced Christianity, and which they pronounced with expressions of joy at their feasts. The Sarmatians, according to Vossius, were led into an acquaintance with these divinities by holding commerce with the people settled on the banks of the Danube.

SARMATICA LUES, in Medicine, a name given by some authors to the *plica Polonica.*

SARMENIUS LAPIS, a name given by the writers of the middle ages to a stone said to be used in the polishing of gold, and to have virtues in medicine also; such as preventing abortion, and the like.

It seems to have been only a corrupt way of spelling *samius lapis,* a stone to which Pliny has attributed the same virtue.

SARMENTACEÆ, in Botany, the eleventh natural order among the *fragmenta* of Linnæus, nearly answering to Jussieu's *Asparagi.* The name alludes to the long twining or trailing stems prevalent in this order, and the genera are Glodiosa, Erythronium, Alströmeria, Uvularia, Convallaria, Ruscus, Asparagus, Medeola, Tullium, Paris, Smilax, Dioscorea, Tamus, Raiania, Menispermum, Centella, Cissampelos, Aristolochia, Asarum and Cytinus.

SARMENTOSUS CAULIS, in Botany, a trailing or twining stem.

SARN, *s.* A British word for pavement, or stepping-stones, still used in the same sense in Berkshire and Hampshire.

SARNABITIVA, a small river of Brazil, in the province of Porto Seguro, which runs east, and enters the Atlantic Ocean.

SARNAU, or SARNOWO, a small town of Prussian Poland, containing 1500 inhabitants; 53 miles south of Posen, and 37 north of Breslau.

SARNELLI (Pompey), a learned Italian prelate in the 17th and 18th centuries, was born at Polignano in the year 1649. Being destined for the clerical profession, he was sent from the schools of his native country to pursue his studies at Naples. He commenced his career as an author about the year 1668, and published some pieces connected with the belles-lettres department, which met with a very favourable reception. In the year 1675, after he had been admitted to priests' orders, pope Clement X. gave him the appointment of honorary prothonotary. Four years after this, he became an inmate with cardinal Maria-Vincent Orsini, bishop of Manfredonia, and upon the translation of that prelate to the church of Cesena, in the Romagna, in 1679, he appointed Sarnelli his grand vicar. He continued with the cardinal after he had been promoted to the archbishopric of Benevento, and accompanied him to the conclaves which were held after the deaths of pope Innocent XI. and Alexander VIII. He obtained considerable preferment in the church, and died in the year 1724. He was author of "Lettere ecclesiastiche," in 9 vols. 4to.; "Il Clero secolare nel suo Splendore, overo della vita commune clericale;" "Bestiarum Schola ad Homines erudiendos ab ipsa rerum natura provide instituta, &c., decem et centum Lectionibus explicata;" and many pieces of a biographical, chronological, and topographical nature.

SARNEN, a small town of Switzerland, the chief place of the upper division of the canton of Unterwalden, situated on the Aa, where it falls into the lake of Sarnen. It is tolerably built, has a neat church and council-house, and contains 2000 inhabitants; 9 miles south of Lucerne.

SARNESFIELD, a parish of England, in Herefordshire; 2½ miles west-by-south of Weobley.

SARNEY, NORTH and SOUTH, two villages of England, in Gloucestershire, near Cirencester.

SARNIA, SARMIA, SARMA, or ARMIA INSULA, in Ancient Geography, an island situated in the sea which separates the Gauls from Great Britain.

SARNO, a small river in the west of the kingdom of Naples, in the Principato Citra, which takes its rise near the town of Sarno, and falls into the sea, opposite the island of Revigliano.

SARNO, an inland town in the west of the kingdom of Naples, in the Principato Citra, near the eastern base of Mount Vesuvius. It has 12,000 inhabitants, but is remarkable for little except the superior quality of the silk raised in its environs. It has an old castle belonging to the Barberini family, who bear the title of dukes of Sarno. It is the see of a bishop; 20 miles east of Naples, and 12 north-by-west of Salerno.

SARON, in Greek Mythology, was regarded as the particular god of the sailors, and the Greeks, for that reason, gave him a name from an arm of the sea of Corinth, or from the Saronic gulf.

SARONIA [Σαρωνια], among the Greeks, a festival kept in honour of Diana, surnamed Saronia, from Saro, the third king of Trœzene, by whom a temple was erected, and this festival instituted to her.

SARONICUS SINUS, or SARONIC GULF, in Ancient Geography, a gulf of the Ægean sea. It was situated between the two promontories of Sunium in Attica, and Scylleum in the Argolide. There are not less than twenty islands in it; but only

only three of them are inhabited, viz., Calauvna, Ægina, and Salamis.

SARONIDES, in Ancient History, ministers of religion among the Gauls, whose province it was to instruct the youth, and to instil into their minds virtuous sentiments.

SARONILLA, or SERRANELLA, shoals off the island of Jamaica; 25 leagues west of Pedro shoals, and 37 west of Portland point. The middle of them lie in Lat. 16. 10. N. long. 80. 45. W.

SAROS [Σαρος], a period of two hundred and twenty-three lunar months. *Suidas in voc.* Σαρος. *Mem. Acad. Inscrip.* tom viii. p. 283.

The etymology of the word is said to be Chaldean, signifying restitution, or return of eclipses; that is, conjunctions of the sun and moon in nearly the same place of the ecliptic.

SAROS, or SCHAROS, a county in the north of Hungary, bordering on Austrian Galicia, from which it is separated by the Carpathians. Its area is about 1400 square miles, and its population 142,000, a mixed race of Sclavonian, German, and Rusniac descent. It contains several lofty mountains, the chief of which are called Simonka and Oblik. The mineral springs are numerous; but there are as yet few metallic mines. On the other hand, there are some salt mines; also a mine of opals at Czervenitz. The cold is rather intense, on account of the vicinity of the mountains; but corn succeeds very well, and vines are cultivated in particular situations. The chief town is Eperies.

SAROS, NAGY or GREAT, a small town of Hungary, in the county of Saros, to which it gives name. It was formerly a place of strength, but is now decayed, and has only 2000 inhabitants. Large yearly fairs are, however, held here; 6 miles north-west of Eperies.

SAROSD, a small town in the west of Hungary; 14 miles south-south-east of Stuhlweissenburg.

SAROSEL, in the Glass Trade, the name of the room into which the mouth of the leer opens, and in which the glass vessels are placed, when taken out of the leer.

The men who attend to do this are called the sarole men.

SAROS-PATAK, a considerable town of the north-east of Hungary, on the Bodrog. It is well built, contains 8000 inhabitants, and has a Catholic, a Calvinist, and a Greek church. Here is also a Calvinist college, on a large scale, containing a valuable library, a set of philosophical instruments, and a large collection of minerals; 14 miles north-by-east of Tokay, and 125 east-north-east of Pest. Lat. 48. 18. 50. N. long. 21. 34. 28. E.

SAROTHRA [Σαρωθρον, Gr. a broom], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order trigynia, natural order of rotaceæ, caryophylleæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, five-parted, erect, permanent: segments linear, acute. Corolla: petals five (commonly), lanceolate-linear, obtuse, patulous, a little longer than the calyx, deciduous. Stamina: filaments five, filiform, length of the corolla. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germ ovate. Styles three, filiform, length of the germ. Stigmas simple. Pericarp: capsule oblong, acute, one-celled, three-valved, coloured. Seeds numerous, kidney-form, very small, fastened to the sutures of the capsule.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-parted. Corolla five-petalled. Capsule one-celled, three-valved, coloured.

Sarothra gentianoides.—This is an annual plant, and looks extremely like the whortle-berry bushes of America when they first begin to look green, and whilst the points of the leaves are yet red. Stem and branches very much branched, leaves very small, narrow and awl-shaped. Flowers axillary, solitary, sessile. Capsule small, membranaceous, ferruginous-red, sub-cylindrical, but very much attenuated and acuminate at the top, tubercled all over with the impressions of the seeds. Seeds sub-cylindrical, very finely striated both lengthwise and across, pale sulphur-coloured, hanging from the inner margins of the valves, by setaceous umbilical cords.—Native of Virginia, Pennsylvania and Philadelphia, growing abundantly in the fields and under the bushes, in a dry sandy ground, near the capital of the latter province.

SAROWY, an extensive district of Hindostan, province of Ajmeer, situated principally between the 25th and 26th degrees of northern latitude. It is possessed by several Rajpoot chiefs, who are all tributary to the rajah of Joudpore The country is hilly and unproductive, although watered by the Bah and Banass rivers.

SAROWY, the capital of the above-mentioned district. It is the residence of the chief, who is one of the many tributaries of the rajah of Joudpore. Lat. 25. 32. N. long. 73. 20. E.

SARP, or SARPEN, a small town in the south of Norway, province of Christiansand. Near this is a cataract, of such a depth of fall that the noise of it is heard at the distance of several miles. In former ages criminals under sentence of death were precipitated into it; 10 miles west-south-west of Frederickstadt.

SARPA, in Ichthyology, the name by which the salpa, a very beautiful fish of the Mediterranean, is known in the Italian Markets.

SARPA, a river of Russia, which runs into the Wolga, near Tzaritzin.

SARPA, a river in the east of European Russia, which joins the Wolga at Sarepta.

SARPICULA, among the Romans, a term used by the old Roman writers to signify a pruning-hook.

SARPLAR of Wool, a quantity of wool, otherwise called a pocket, or half sack; a sack containing eighty tod, a tod two stone, and a stone fourteen pounds.

In Scotland it is termed *sarpliath*, and contains eighty stone.

SA'RPLIER, *s.* [*sarpilliere*, French.] A piece of canvas for wrapping up wares; a packing-cloth. *Bailey. Unused.*

SARPOLE, in Ichthyology, a name given to the fish called by most authors salpa.

SARRACENIA [so named by Tournefort, in honour of Dr. Sarrazin, regius professor of anatomy and botany, who sent this plant to him from Canada], in Botany, a genus of the class polyandria, order monogynia, natural order of succulentæ.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth double: lower three-leaved; leaflets ovate, very small, deciduous: upper five-leaved; leaflets sub-ovate, very large, coloured, deciduous. Corolla: petals five, ovate, bent in, covering the stamens: claws ovate-oblong straight. Stamina: filaments numerous, small. Anthers simple. Pistil: germ roundish. Style cylindrical, very short. Stigma clypeate, peltate, five-cornered, covering the stamens, permanent. Pericarp: capsule roundish, five-celled. Seeds numerous, roundish acuminate, small.—*Essential Character.* Calyx double, three-leaved and five-leaved. Corolla five-petalled. Capsule five-celled, with the style having a clypeate stigma.

1. Sarracenia flava, or yellow side-saddle flower.—Leaves near three feet high, small at the bottom, but widening gradually to the top: they are hollow, and arched over at the mouth like a friar's cowl. The flowers grow on naked pedicels, rising from the root to the height of three feet, and are of a green colour.—Native of Carolina, Virginia, &c., upon bogs, and in shallow standing waters.

2. Sarracenia minor, or small side-saddle flower.—Leaves smaller, tubular, erect; valve concave, nodding:

3. Sarracenia rubra, or red side-saddle flower.—Leaves erect, tubular, valve flat; erect.—Both natives of Carolina, in bogs and wet places.

4. Sarracenia purpurea, or purple side-saddle flower.—Leaves cowled, bellying, patulous, bowed.—This grows naturally upon bogs in most parts of North America; it has a strong fibrous root, which strikes deep into the soft earth, from which arise six or seven leaves, about five or six inches long, hollow like a pitcher, narrow at their base, but swelling out large at the top; outer sides rounded, inner side a little compressed, having a broad leafy border running longitudinally the whole length of the tube; to the rounded part of the leaf there is on the top a large appendage or ear standing erect, of a brownish colour. From the centre of the root, between the leaves, arises a strong naked foot-stalk, about a foot high, sustaining

sustaining one nodding flower; the leaflets of the upper calyx obtuse, bent over the corolla, so as to cover the inside of it; purple on the outside, green within, having purple edges: the petals are of a purple colour, and hollowed like a spoon. Germ large, channelled: stigma green, with the five corners stretched out beyond the brim, each cut into two points and purplish. Anthers target-shaped, furrowed, of a pale sulphur colour. Capsule large, covered by the permanent stigma.

The hollow parts of the leaves have always water standing in them, and the top or ear is supposed in hot dry weather to shrink, and fall over the mouth of the tube, and serve as a lid to prevent the exhalation of the water. In great droughts birds and other animals repair to these plants. In spring the leaves are of a dark green colour, but gradually change purplish, and towards autumn become dark brown.

The English, who first settled in North America, gave this plant the name of side-saddle flower, from the resemblance of the stigma to a woman's pillion.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants are esteemed for the singular structure of their leaves and flowers, which have little resemblance of any yet discovered.

The best method to obtain these plants is from the places of their natural growth, and to have them taken up with large balls of earth to their roots, and planted in tubs of earth; they must be constantly watered during their passage, otherwise they will decay before they arrive; for there is little probability of raising these plants from seeds, so as to produce flowers in many years, if the seeds do grow; so that young plants should be taken up to bring over, and such are more likely to stand here, than those which have flowered two or three times. When these plants are brought over, they should be planted into pretty large pots, which should be filled with soft spongy earth, mixed with rotten wood, moss, and turf, which is very like the natural soil in which they grow. These pots should be put into tubs or large pans which will hold water, with which they must be constantly supplied, and placed in a shady situation in summer; but in the winter they must be covered with moss, or sheltered under a frame, otherwise they will not live in this country; for as the plants must be kept in pots, so if these are exposed to the frost, it will soon penetrate through them, and greatly injure, if not destroy the plants; but when they are placed under a common frame, where they may have the open air at all times in mild weather, and be sheltered from hard frost, the plants will thrive and flower very well.

SARRAINS, a small town in the south of France, department of the Vaucluse, on the river Folette. Silk is cultivated largely in the neighbourhood. Population 2000; 14 miles north-east of Avignon.

SARRAN, a small town in the south of France, department of the Gers, on the small river Sarrainpion. Population 1000.

SARRANA, a species of ancient flute, of which the tones were acute and shrill, resembling those of a flute. Some imagine that Sarrana implied Tyrian.

SARRANCOLIN, a petty town in the south-west of France, in the department of the Upper Pyrenees; 6 miles south of La Barthe de Nestes.

SARRASIN, or SARRAZIN, in Fortification, a kind of portcullis, otherwise called a herse, which is hung with ropes over the gates of a town or fortress, and let fall in case of a surprize.

SA'RRASINE, *s.* A kind of birth-wort. *Bailey.*

SARRAT, a parish of England, in Hertfordshire; 3½ miles north-by-west of Rickmansworth. Population 378.

SARRE, a small village of England, in the county of Kent, situated in the isle of Thanet, about half way between Thanet and Canterbury. It is a member of the port of Sandwich, and was formerly a sea-port of some repute, and much more populous than at present. In Bede's time, two ferry-boats were employed here, which were occupied in transporting men and cattle from the isle of Thanet to East Kent, the water being then about 3 furlongs wide. Here are two good inns; and an excellent pack of hounds is kept here by subscription of several gentlemen in the neighbourhood. The village is regulated by a deputy from the mayor of Sandwich.

SARRE, or SAAR, a river of the west of Germany, which rises among the Vosges mountains, in the French territory, flows through the Prussian government of Treves, and joins the Moselle at Consarbruck.

SARRE, the name of one of the four departments added under Buonaparte to the French empire, at the expense of the German. The country is watered by the river Sarre, and comprises what was once the duchy of Deux Ponts, the archbishopric of Treves, and part of the Palatinate. In 1814 it was separated from France, and the chief part of it added to the Prussian territories on the Rhine.

SARREBOURG, a small town in the north-east of France, department of the Meurthe. It is situated on the Sarre, and has 1500 inhabitants; 14 miles west of Savern, and 38 east of Nancy.

SARREGUEMINES. See SARGUEMINES.

SARRIA, a small town of the north-west of Spain, in Galicia, on the river Lugo; 14 miles south-south-east of Lugo.

SARRITION, or SARRITIO, in Roman authors, the term used to express what we call hoeing in husbandry, or something analogous to it; that is, a way of stirring up the earth about young plants, and destroying the weeds that would grow among them. When the plants had been some time come up, they stirred the land with wooden rakes or harrows, and then went over the fields, and pulled up the weeds by hand.

They used two kinds of sarrition; the one was intended only to move the ground, and was done lengthways of the furrows; the other was to cover up the young plants, that they might grow the more strong and vigorous; and was performed by stirring up the earth cross-ways of the furrows.

SARROLA, a village of Fooladoo, in Western Africa.

SARSAPARILLA, or SARSA, in Botany, somewhat altered from the Spanish name *zarza*, red, and *parilla*, a bushy little vine. See SMILAX.

SARSANA. See SARZANA.

SARSE, *s.* [Perhaps because made of *sarcenet*. *Johnson.* —Rather from the Fr. *sassure*, which Cotgrave renders a *searce*. *Todd.*] A sort of fine lawn sieve. *Barret.*

To SARSE, *v. a.* [*sasser*, Fr.] To sift through a sarse or searse. *Bailey.*

SARSINA, a small town in the north-east of Italy, in Romagna, on the Savio, formerly a bishop's see; 20 miles west-south-west of Rimini, and 33 south of Ravenna.

SARSTEDT, a small town of Hanover; 9 miles north-west of Hildesheim, and 8 south-east of Hanover. Population 1100.

SARSURA, in Ancient Geography, Surfeff, a town of Africa Propria, of which Cæsar took possession; situated 6 miles west of Turris Annibalis.

SART, *s.* A piece of woodland turned into arable. *Bailey.*

SART, a small town of the Netherlands, in the province of Liege, with 1900 inhabitants.

SART, a village of Asia Minor, now very small and insignificant, but distinguished by containing on its site the ruins of Sardis, once the splendid capital of Lydia. These ruins are found here confusedly scattered over a verdant plain. Some of the most remarkable are built of bricks, not attached together in the usual loose manner, but so strongly cemented as to make it scarcely possible to detach a specimen. It is supposed that, without some positive violence, they would last for ever, which tends to countenance the prevailing report which refers them to the age of Crœsus.

SARTENE, a small town of the island of Corsica. Population 1900; 22 miles east-south-east of Ajaccio.

SARTHE, or SARTE, a considerable river of France, which takes its rise in the department of the Orne, near Mortague, and joins the Mayenne; 6 miles above Angers. It is navigable from Le Mans.

SARTHE,

SARTHE, or SARTE, a department in the north-west of France, comprising the greater part of the ancient province of Maine, and bounded by the departments of the Orne, the Loir and Cher, and the Mayenne. It is nearly of a circular form, has a superficial extent of 2430 square miles, and a population of 410,000. The surface is level, except in the north-west part, where there are some small hills. The soil is very different in different parts, though lime and sand seem to predominate. Luxuriant fields of corn are often found almost contiguous to barren and neglected heaths. The principal rivers in this department are the Sarthe, the Loir, the Huine. The climate is mild, and the air healthy. The productions are corn, flax, hemp, vines, and various fruits. Here are also some iron mines and marble quarries. Of corn, the department does not always produce enough for the consumption of the inhabitants, but exports largely of wine and fruit. Grazing is likewise followed to a considerable extent. The principal manufactures are of hardware, paper, woollens, and leather. The department belongs to the diocese of Le Mans, and the jurisdiction of the *cour royale* of Angers. It is divided into four arrondissements, Le Mans (the capital), La Fleche, Mamers, and St. Calais.

SARTI (Giuseppe), an Italian composer, born at Faenza, in 1730.

We shall give a list of his principal works for the use of curious collectors, as it is said they are well worth seeking, "being composed in so elegant, natural, and pleasing a style, as is not likely to be soon out of fashion."

For the church, 1. A miserere, accompanied only by a tenor and violoncello in solo parts, and ripieno violini in the chorusses. 2. A motet, *confitebor tibi*, à 6. Soprano and contralto in these solo verses. 3. A *gloria*, in nine parts, for the Russian or Greck church.

For the theatre, twenty-six operas. See their names in GERBER, t. ii. p. 390.

Chamber music printed. Symphonies in nine parts, at Leipsig, 1758. Three sonatas for the harpsichord, with a flute accompaniment, Amsterdam. Three sonatas, in London, 1769. Giulio Sabino characteristica, Vienna, 1787.

SARTILLY, a small town of France, in Normandy, department of La Manche, with 1000 inhabitants; 4 miles north-west of Avranches.

SARTINE ISLANDS, a cluster of islands in the North Pacific Ocean, so named by Perouse. Lat. 50. 56. N. long. 129. 18. W.

SARTIVANA, a small town in the east of the continental Sardinian states, district of Lumello; 25 miles west-by-south of Pavia.

SARTO (Andrea del), the cognomen of a painter of very considerable celebrity, whose real name was Andrea Vanucchi. He was a native of Florence, the son of a taylor, from whence he obtained the appellation of del Sarto. He was born in 1488, and having exhibited at an early age a propensity for engraving, he was placed with a goldsmith to learn the art of drawing on plate. Here he was noticed by a painter called Giovanni Barile, an artist, but little known, with whom he studied for three years, and then entered the school of Pietro Cosimo. His greatest acquirements, however, were obtained by studying the works of Massaccio and Il Ghirlandaio; and afterwards the cartoons of Michael Angelo and Lionardo da Vinci; upon the style of the latter of whom he ultimately built his own. But his progress was not marked by any degree of extraordinary brilliancy or rapidity; being rather the effect of sobriety of judgment, and continued practice, than of that intuitive and active principle by which his great teachers were urged forwards in their career.

On leaving the school of Cosimo, he formed an intimacy with Francesco Bigio; and as there existed a great degree of similarity in their tempers and minds, they agreed to dwell together. They painted many works in conjunction, in the churches and convents at Florence, and obtained considerable reputation. The designs he made for the series of pictures he was engaged to paint in the church of the Scalzi, or barefooted Carmelites at Florence, are preserved in the Palazzo Rinuccini. The subjects are taken from the life of St. John the Baptist. In these the gradual progress he made in his art is extremely observable, and prepared him for the successful prosecution of his next labour, the Life of St. Filippo Benizi, in ten pictures, for the church of the Servi. There his cultivated taste exhibited itself in a more vigorous stretch of imagination; and those pictures are considered as among his most excellent productions.

Although thus occupied, and in high renown at Florence, yet the reputation then acquired by Raphael excited him to visit Rome, where, on his arrival, Vasari says, "that on seeing those works which had been the object of his journey, despair of ever being able to rival them affected his timid disposition so much, that he made haste to leave the city, and returned to Florence." This story, however, appears scarcely credible in its full extent, since in many of his works he evidently appears to have imitated the style of Raphael, which he hardly could so well have done, if he had not taken some time to study his works and principles. After his return from Rome he finished three pictures for the monastery of the Servi; the subjects of which were, the Birth of the Virgin, the Descent of the Holy Ghost, and the Last Supper. Of the beauty of the latter work, Sanzi relates this remarkable occurrence: "that at the siege of Florence, in 1529, some soldiers who attacked the suburb in which the convent was situated, and had destroyed the church and part of the monastery, on coming to the refectory, where this picture was placed, they were so struck with its perfection, that they desisted from their work of ruin:" as in a subsequent period, other mercenaries paid instinctive respect to the power of art, in preserving the works of Parmeggiano, at Rome; and as Demetrius Poliorcetes had done at Rhodes, to the labours of Protogenes.

Of Andrea's power in imitating the work of another, and no less skilful a hand than that of Raphael, Vasari mentions a very remarkable instance. Raphael had painted, for the Cardinal Julio de Medici, the portrait of Leo X. between those of that prelate and Cardinal Rossi, in which the drapery and back-ground were painted by Julio Romano. Frederick, second duke of Mantua, passing through Florence to Rome, requested Clement VII. to make him a present of it; when the pope ordered it to be sent to him. Unwilling to deprive Florence of so great a work of art as that picture, Ottavia de Medici employed A. del Sarto to make a copy of it, which was sent to the Duke of Mantua at the time when Julio Romano was in his service; and such was the spirit and exactness of the copy, that even Julio himself never suspected the deception, till he was informed of it by Vasari, who shewed him del Sarto's private mark.

The fame of Andrea reached the ears of Francis I. of France, who, desirous of embellishing his country by the works of ingenious artists, commissioned him to paint him a picture; and he sent that monarch a dead Christ, with the Virgin, and John, Mary Magdalen, and other figures, which is now in the gallery of the Louvre. In consequence he was invited by the king to the court of France, and being then in penurious circumstances, owing to the troubled state of the country, he gladly accepted so flattering a testimonial of his merits. He was received there with great respect and distinction. The king was pleased with him as a man and an artist; loaded him with attentions; and for a portrait of the dauphin paid him three hundred crowns in gold. He painted a picture of Charity, now in the Louvre, for his majesty, and a great number of works for the nobles about the court; so that he wanted nothing conducive to happiness, as far as esteem, affluence, and honours could gratify him. In the midst of this prosperity, while he was painting a portrait of the queen-mother, and before he had completed it, he received, unfortunately for him, letters from his wife, pressing him to return to Florence. To indulge her wishes, he obtained the king's leave to go, promising to return in a few months with his family, and settle in France. The monarch confided in his integrity; and not only made him several presents with royal liberality, but also entrusted him with

with a large sum of money, to purchase statues, pictures, &c., worthy of a royal collection. Unhappily, on Andrea's return home, he forgot his engagement, broke through all ties of gratitude and honour, and shamefully squandered both the gifts and trust of his generous patron with his improvident wife, and faithless friends. It is almost needless to add, that he never returned to France. At last he fell into that poverty to which, by his prodigality and ingratitude, he seemed justly entitled, and sunk into wretched despondency; when, being deserted by the woman who was principally instrumental in bringing him into this state of misery, he suffered a variety of difficulties and distresses, and died of the plague, which afflicted his native city, in 1530, in the forty-second year of his age.

The most renowned picture of del Sarto is a composition known by the name of the Madonna del Sacco, from the circumstance of St. Joseph, who is near her, reclining on a sack of grain. The simplicity and beauty of this work place him far above his usual rank; and indeed it might well pass for a production of Raphael. In general, his groups have more of common nature, and his expressions border on insipidity. The quality most esteemable in his productions, and which is extraordinary, considering that he was a Tuscan, is the clear and evanescent tones of his colouring, which are as pure and harmonious, if not so luminous, as those of Correggio. The fame, however, which he acquired by a few pictures, has given a value to all those which proceeded from his hand, to which many of them are by no means entitled; and he certainly is not one of those unfortunate sons of genius, who have enjoyed less than their due portions of praise. His compositions are agreeable; his design partakes of the style of Michael Angelo, without his boldness, or breadth, and his execution is light and clear, though sometimes weak. His pictures, when they are brought to sale, bring high prices, and are to be rarely met with in this country.

SARTO'RIOUS, *s.* [from *sartor*, Latin, a taylor.] The muscle which serves to throw one leg across the other.—The *sartorious*, or taylor's muscle, rising from the spine [of the illum] running diagonally across the thigh, and taking hold of the inside of the main bone of the leg, a little below the knee, enables us, by its contraction, to throw one leg and thigh over the other; giving effect, at the same time, to the ball and socket-joint at the hip, and the hinge-joint at the knee. *Paley.* See ANATOMY.

SARTOROE, an island on the west coast of Norway. Lat. 60. 17. N.

SARVAJAYA, in Mythology, a name of the Hindoo goddess Parvati, given to her in her martial character of Durga. The name means "all-conquering."

SARVAMANGALA, a name of the Hindoo goddess Parvati; which see. The name is said to mean "all-preserving," or "all-fostering," alluding to her presiding over the welfare of all nature: an appellation and character that we should rather have deemed applicable to Lakshmi, the consort of the conservative Vishnu; but the functions and appellations of these goddesses are often found to coalesce.

SARVAR, a small town in the south-west of Hungary, at the confluence of the Gunz and the Raab. At present it contains only 800 inhabitants, but it is supposed to have been formerly much larger; 70 miles south-south-east of Vienna, and 62 south of Presburg. Lat. 47. 14. 50. N. long. 16. 55. 21. E.

SARVITZ, a river of the south-west of Hungary, which rises in the county of Veszprim, and flows into the Danube. A canal has been dug along its banks, to drain the neighbouring marshes.

SARUM, or SARON, in Ancient Geography, a town of European Sarmatia, and one of those which Ptolemy places at the mouth of the Borysthenes.

SARUM, OLD, a spot in Wiltshire, England, one mile north of Salisbury, was formerly a city of note, and is still invested with the privilege of a borough town, by sending two members to Parliament, but is now deprived of houses and inhabitants: yet though desolate, and with scarcely a vestige of human habitation, it is peculiarly interesting in its annals and associations to the topographer and to the antiquary. Once a proud, populous, and flourishing city, adorned with a cathedral and other religious edifices, and guarded by lofty bulwarks, towers, and a castle: now displaying nothing of human art, but ditches and banks, which are partly overgrown with wild brush-wood, while the more level land is appropriated to corn and grass. The foundation of Old Sarum is referred, by tradition, and all the early accounts extant, to the Britons, at some era prior to the Roman invasion; and this opinion is considered by most antiquaries to be strongly corroborated by the circular form of the fortifications, and their position on the summit of an eminence. Under this impression, Sir Richard Hoare considers it to have been probably out of those fortresses which was wrested from the Britons in the reign of the emperor Claudius, "when his general, Vespasian, is said to have taken twenty British towns, and to have subdued two powerful nations, one of which is supposed to be the Belgæ, who inhabited the western counties of Hampshire, Wiltshire, and Somersetshire." Whether this city was among the number taken by Vespasian, or was first founded by the Romans, it is universally allowed to have been very early one of the principal stations of that people, and to have been denominated Sorbiodunum, or Sorviodunum: though whether this appellation was originally applied by the Romans, or was a mere modification of the British name, is altogether uncertain; nor is its history under the Romans better ascertained. But that they continued to occupy it for a long time, and probably to the latest period of their residence in Britain, may fairly be inferred from the extent of its works, and from the military roads communicating with it. These roads appear to have been six in number, and communicated with the following stations, &c. One proceeded south-westerly to Durnovaria, Dorchester; a second, easterly to Venta-Belgarum, Winchester; a third, north-easterly to Vindonum, Silchester; a fourth appears to have branched off from the latter to Cunotie, near Marlborough; a fifth south-westerly towards Iscalia, Ilchester; and a sixth to Aquæ Solis, Bath. Some of these military ways, or roads, are still seen in bold ridges in different parts of the neighbouring downs. Soon after the Romans left this island, Old Sarum was occupied by the Saxons.

In the year 552, it was besieged and captured by Kenric, the second king of Wessex; and proved a most important acquisition to the West Saxons, as it put them in possession of a strong post within the dominions of the enemy, in which they could establish magazines, and thereby become enabled to extend their conquests with greater rapidity. We accordingly find, that within a few years, Kenric subdued the whole of Wiltshire, and some districts of the adjoining counties. From this period to the dissolution of the heptarchy, but few notices occur of the history of Old Sarum: it was unquestionably throughout the whole time a royal castle, and was frequently occupied by the West Saxon monarchs. Afterwards, it seems to have been usually committed to some powerful noblemen; but still continued the peculium of the monarch himself. In the time of Alfred, an outer ditch was formed by his order; as appears evident by an original document preserved in the Cottonian library; and which is thus rendered by Sir Richard Hoare, in his "Ancient Wiltshire." "I Alfred, king and monarch of the English, have ordered Leofric of Wiltunshire, not only to preserve the castle of Sarum, but to make another ditch to be defended by pallisadoes, and all who live about the said castle, as well as my other subjects, are immediately to apply to this work." King Edgar convoked a parliament or great council at Sarum, in the year 960, to consult about the best mode of defence for the northern counties, against the depredations of the Danes; and several laws for the better government of the church, as well as the state, appear to have been enacted at the same time. In 1003, Swein, king of Denmark, is said to have pillaged and burnt the castle of Old Sarum:

Sarum: but the injury could not have been very great; for soon afterwards we find that Bishop Herman established his episcopal seat here. He also laid the foundation of a cathedral church, but died shortly after its commencement, and left it to be completed by his successor, Osmund, who was Lord of Say, in Normandy, Earl of Dorset in England, and Lord Chancellor. This prelate was lavish of expense, both in the execution of the building, and in the establishment of the clergy and singers: by his care and assiduity in selecting persons properly qualified, and by his munificence in rewarding merit, his choir surpassed every other in the island. To give greater dignity and permanency to the church, he granted to the dean and chapter a charter, conveying to them for ever many towns, with lands, churches, and oblations. This charter is dated in 1091, was signed by thirty-seven prelates and great dignitaries, and confirmed by the king, William Rufus, as it was also at a subsequent period by Henry II. Osmund was exemplary for his piety and morality in an age peculiarly dissolute, and also for his literary industry. He composed the celebrated form of church service, which was received and adopted in most choirs in England. During his prelacy, several events of great political importance appear to have taken place at Old Sarum; particularly, an assembly of all the nobles, bishops, and landholders in the kingdom, summoned thither by king William, in 1086, to swear allegiance to him, and to introduce that remarkable change in our constitution, the formal and full establishment of the feudal system; whereby the king at once placed the country in strong defence against foreign enemies, and secured the fidelity of his subjects. Another great council was held at Old Sarum, by William Rufus, in 1095 or 1096. On the death of Osmund, which occurred in 1099, Roger was advanced to the see by the favour of king Henry I., who had raised him from obscurity to the highest offices in the state. With the bishopric, the castle of the city was committed to his custody: he environed the whole with a new wall; augmented the strength of the fortifications; and embellished the cathedral in the most costly style. The prelacy of Roger was marked by important national events; king Henry held his court here for some months in 1100, and again in 1106; and in 1116 he assembled here all the nobles and barons of the realm, to swear allegiance and do homage to his son William, as successor to the throne. But William died long before the throne was vacant; and at the death of Henry, Matilda, his only surviving child, became the rightful possessor of the crown. But no sooner had Henry breathed his last, than his nephew Stephen determined to seat himself on the throne. In this object he was principally favoured by the influence of Bishop Roger, whom Henry had left guardian of the realm, and who shamefully betrayed the trust he had sworn to preserve. But Roger soon had cause to repent of his conduct, from the cruel policy and base ingratitude of Stephen; which so strongly affected the bishop's mind, that he died of grief in 1139. After a vacancy of three years, Joceline de Bailul was consecrated, and presided over this diocese for forty-one years, when he retired to a convent and assumed the habit of a Cistercian monk. During the contests between Matilda and Stephen, Sarum appears to have been alternately occupied by each party; and each, when obliged to abandon it, razed the fortifications, that the post might be less tenable by their antagonists. When Henry II., therefore, ascended the throne, he found the castle in a dismantled state. The see was not filled till the year 1189, when Hubert Walter was consecrated; but he being soon advanced to that of Canterbury, the bishopric of Sarum devolved on Herbert Poore, in 1194. During his presiding, the contentions between the castellants and the clergy, which had risen to a great height in the prelacy of Joceline, became more violent and serious; which, joined to the other difficulties attendant on the situation of Old Sarum, determined the bishop and canons to have the see translated to a place of greater freedom and convenience. Leave was obtained from king Richard to build a new church in the valley at some distance from the castle; but the design was relinquished by the bishop, from the idea that the expense would far exceed his abilities. He died in 1217, and was succeeded by his brother, Richard Poore, when the project of translating the church was resumed; and the dean and chapter sent special messengers to Rome to urge the necessity of it. Pope Honorius instituted an enquiry into the grievances complained of, and granted a bull for the desired removal. On the receipt of this indulgence, a general convocation of the bishop and canons was held; and it was solemnly determined that a new church should be built on the scite of the present cathedral at Salisbury. (See SALISBURY, and ARCHITECTURE, p. 92.) This resolution was soon carried into effect; and from that time may be dated the ruin of Old Sarum. For the people soon deserted their ancient habitations, and built others in the immediate vicinity of the new cathedral. Hence no historical event of importance relative to this place occurs subsequent to that period.

The present appearance of Old Sarum, is wild and dreary; the natural feature is a gentle eminence, rising from a valley on the west, and connected with a ridge which extends to the east. This position is artificially raised at the centre, where the keep or citadel was placed, and which was guarded by a deep fosse on the outside, and a lofty rampart or vallum within. The inclosed area is about 500 feet in diameter. On its east side was the principal entrance; where it is supposed there were bastion towers, a bridge across the fosse, and other defensive works. A large area, or outer ballium, surrounded the citadel, which was again circumvallated with a bank and ditch. These inclosed the chief part of the city, measuring, according to Sir Richard Hoare, seven furlongs twenty-six yards in circumference, and comprising an area of twenty-seven acres and a half. On the outer side were the suburbs on the south-east and west parts; chiefly on the latter. The valla of each of the great ditches are nearly of equal height; the former being one hundred and six feet, and the latter one hundred feet. Both are exceedingly steep on the scarp side, particularly the inner rampart; and both were surmounted by massive walls, some foundations of which are still visible, and shew them to have been at least twelve feet in thickness. A large mass of one of these walls, apparently of Roman workmanship, crowns the outer vallum on the north side. The space between the two works is intersected at three places by a ditch and vallum, connecting the two circular banks, and intended for the defence of the remaining portions of the city, should an enemy have succeeded in obtaining possession of one part of it. The two entrances of this fort, mentioned by Leland, are of very curious construction, each passing the sides of a remarkable mount, resembling a rude horn-work, which has a deep ditch and high bank, peculiar to itself. The principal one faces the east; and the other, called the postern-gate, faces the west. Near the latter, a spot is still pointed out where the ancient cathedral stood; but no discriminating vestiges are now extant. On the north side of the large vallum, and immediately at its junction with the transverse vallum, is a subterraneous passage, which was discovered in the year 1795; and, on being explored, was found to extend, in a sloping direction, from the inner area to the outer ditch. The mouth, or entrance, is about four feet in width; thence a covered way of about seven feet broad, and from eight to ten feet high, descends in an angle nearly parallel to the glacis of the side of the hill, to the depth of an hundred and fourteen feet. The descent was by means of steps excavated in the chalk rock, and is said to have been not much worn, which seems to indicate the secrecy of the passage. Nearly on the opposite side of the area is a similar sinking of the ground, which may be considered as denoting the existence of a similar cavity. Within the keep a hollow in the ground may still be observed, which, according to tradition, is the spot where a well was sunk to a great depth; but it is now nearly filled up. Four other wells are mentioned as having

having been situated in the city portion of the works, though none can now be discovered.

The article ARCHITECTURE in this work contains (p. 94), a view and description of the castle of Old Sarum.

The borough of Old Sarum has long been a subject of popular notoriety. Ever since the thirty-fourth year of Edward III. this place has continued to send two members to Parliament; and it was represented in the twenty-third year of Edward I. Whether this privilege, as now exercised, is derived from charter, or is a prescriptive right, does not appear from any published work: but at present the property of the borough is wholly vested in the Earl of Caledon, who purchased it of the late Lord Camelford. The burgage pieces or plots of ground are traditionally said to be the scites of the last houses which remained within the limits of the borough, and amounted to ten or twelve about one hundred years back. The houses appear to have constituted part of a street, which abutted on the Roman road, immediately on the south-west side of the circumvallated city. In the general election in the year 1802, there were five electors assembled here, besides the bailiff, who is the returning officer.

John of Salisbury, one of the most eminent scholars of his age, was born at Old Sarum, in the early part of the twelfth century; but the exact date is not recorded.

Stratford, called Stratford-under-the-Castle, is a parish extending along the valley on the eastern banks of the Avon, and derives its name from its position on the stream where the old Roman road crossed it: and thus was originally called Street-ford. Great part of the church of Stratford was built by an ancestor of the late Lord Camelford. Under an old tree near this church, is the spot where the members for Old Sarum are elected.

SARUMILLA, a settlement of Peru, in the province of Caxamarquilla, where there are silver mines.

SARUN, an extensive and valuable district of Hindostan, province of Bahar, situated about the 26th degree of northern latitude, and on the north-east side of the river Ganges. This district is one of the most prosperous for its size in the British territories: the soil is fertile, and is watered by the Ganges, Gunduck, and several other streams. It is consequently very rich in pasture, and produces excellent cattle, and some horses. A great quantity of the saltpetre exported from Calcutta, is manufactured in this district. The inhabitants are said to be one-fourth Mahometans. Its chief town is Chuprach.

SARWERDEN, or ALTSARWERDEN, a small town in the north-east of France, in the department of the Moselle. Population 500.

SARZANA, or SARSANA, a small but ancient town of the continental Sardinian states, in the Genoese territory, situated on the Magra, 5 miles from its mouth. It is the see of a bishop, and contains 3500 inhabitants. It belonged originally to the grand duchy of Tuscany, but was given to Genoa in the 15th century, in exchange for Leghorn, which was then an inconsiderable place. The fortress of Sarzanello is situated on a mountain in the neighbourhood; 45 miles east-south-east of Genoa. Lat. 44. 9. N. long. 9. 58. E.

SARZEAU, a small town in the north-west of France, department of the Morbihan, containing, with its parish, 5400 inhabitants. It has good fisheries; 7 miles south of Vannes, and 18 west of Roche-bernard.

SARZEDAS, an inland town of the north of Portugal; 8 miles west of Castel Branco, and 117 east-north-east of Lisbon. It contains 3000 inhabitants, and some antiquities, being supposed to be the Oppidum Sarsidense of the Romans. Particles of gold are found in a river at a little distance, called the Liça.

SAS, a small river of Quito, in the province of Quixos and Macas.

SAS DE GAND. See SAS VAN GHENT.

SASANQUA, in Botany, altered from the Japanese name *Sasankwa*, a shrub nearly resembling tea, found in Japan, about Nagasaki; see CAMELLIA and THEA. The leaves of camellia sasanqua, having, when dried, a fragrant smell, are used in the form of a decoction, by the Japanese women, for washing their hair. Thunberg informs us likewise, that these leaves are mixed with those of the tea shrub, to improve the odour of the tea.

SASAWA, a river of the Austrian states, which rises in Bohemia, flows through Moravia, and falls into the March near Hohenstadt, in the circle of Olmutz.

SASCACHAWAN, or SASKATCHIWINE, a large river of North America, which rises in the Rocky Mountains, from whence also flow many of its branches, the two principal of which are denominated North and South branches, which, pursuing very winding courses to the east, for about 440 miles in a direct line, join about 60 miles east of Hudson's House, and their united streams then running north-east through Pine Island lake and Cedar lake, fall into Lake Winnipic, in Lat. 51. 45. N. As far as Cedar lake, the navigation of this river is continually interrupted by falls and rapids; but above this lake it may be considered as navigable for canoes to near its sources in the Rocky Mountains, without a single portage. On this river, five principal factories have been established by the North-west Company; and its banks and the adjacent grounds are inhabited by various tribes of Indians, who live by hunting, and whose numbers are in proportion to their precarious mode of subsistence.

SASCORBARA, a small town of the Popedom, in the duchy of Urbino.

SASERAM, a town of Hindostan, province of Bahar, and district of Rhotas. This place was the favourite residence of Shere Khan, the Afghan, who after having defeated the Moguls in A. D. 1540, mounted the throne of Hindostan, and reigned with great vigour for five years. He was killed at the siege of Callinger, in 1545. His body was conveyed to this place, and buried on an island in the middle of a small lake. A magnificent mausoleum was erected by his successor, which is still in good preservation, and likely to endure for ages. Lat. 25. N. long. 84. 5. E.

SASH, *s.* [Etymology unknown or unsatisfactory.—From the old French word *chassis*, which, Cotgrave says, is "a frame of wood for a window."] A window so formed as to be let up and down by pullies.

She ventures now to lift the *sash;*
The window is her proper sphere. *Swift.*

A belt worn by way of distinction; a silken band worn by officers in the army, and by the clergy over their cassocks; a riband worn round the waist by ladies.—The ephod—did gird the tunick like a *sash.* *Stackhouse*

She sees him now in *sash* and solitaire
March in review with Milo's strut and stare. *Nevile.*

To SASH, *v. a.* To dress with a sash.—They are—so *sashed* and plumed, that they are grown infinitely more insolent in their fine clothes, even than they were in their rags. *Burke.*—To furnish with sash windows.

SA'SHOON, *s.* A kind of leather stuffing put into a boot for the wearer's ease. *Ainsworth.*

SASI, or SASIN, in Mythology, a name of the Hindoo deity Chandra, or Soma, regent of the moon. The name is said by some Sanscrit scholars to be derived from the antelope; some species of this animal being spotted, or marked, something like the face of the moon. Sir W. Jones gives this interpretation in his hymn to Surya, or the sun, in which he thus invokes the lunar orb:

"Thou nectar-beaming moon,
Regent of dewy night——
From yon bright roe that in thy bosom sleeps,
Fawn-spotted, Sasin hight."

SASIGNES, a general name, which, in Mr. Muller's arrangement of the islands between Kamtschatka and America, comprehends the following six; viz. Behring's and Copper islands, and the nearest Aleutians, of which Otma, Samia, and Anatto, are most eminent.

SASINA,

SASINA. See SASSENA.

SASLAVI, a small town of the west of European Russia, in the government of Volhynia. Population 5100; 96 miles west of Zytomiers, and 87 east of Brody, in Austrian Poland

SASMANSHAUSEN, a small town of Prussian Westphalia, in the county of Witgenstein, with large iron works.

SASNEE, a town and fortress of Hindostan, province of Agra. This place was the residence of the zemindar, who, having proved refractory, soon after the British had acquired the province, was expelled, after a desperate resistance, in the year 1803. Lat. 27. 45. N. long. 78. 4. E.

SASO, SASON, SASONIS, or SASSON, in Ancient Geography, an island of the Ionian Sea, towards the coast of Illyria, and encompassed with rocks and sand: thus Silius Italicus says of it:

"Adriatici fugite infaustas Sassonis Arenas."

SASONES, a people of Scythia, who inhabited the territory on this side of the Imaus, and south of the Massæi and Alani mountains, according to Ptolemy.

SASPOS, a small river of the province of Buenos Ayres, which runs south, and then turns to enter the Uruguay.

SASRAM, a small island in the gulf of Siam, near the coast of Cambodia. Lat. 10. N. long. 103. 48. E.

SA'SSAFRAS, *s.* A tree. The wood is medicinal. See LAURUS SASSAFRAS.

SASSAFRAS, a river of the United States, in Maryland, which runs west into the Chesapeak; 6 miles south of Elk river.

SASSAFRAS, a village of the United States, in Kent county, Maryland, near the head of the Sassafras; 17 miles south of Elkton.

SASSANO, a town of Italy, in the west of the kingdom of Naples, in the Principato Citra, with 3700 inhabitants.

SASSARI, a large town of the island of Sardinia, near the north-west coast, the capital of the province of Capo di Sassari, and of the northern half of the island, as Cagliari is of the southern. It stands on an elevated plain, is well built, surrounded with a wall, and is said to contain a population of 30,000. Its environs produce abundance of wine, oranges, lemons, and other fruit; also silk. They contain a number of shady walks, bordered with fountains, which are decorated with marble. The fountain called Rosello is said to rival the most magnificent of those of Rome. Sassari is the seat of the provincial government and courts of justice, as well as of an university, erected in 1775. Here are also several lesser seminaries. Sassari is likewise the see of an archbishop, and contains an unusual number of churches and religious houses. The harbour called Porto Torre, is situated on the gulf of Sassari, about 10 miles from the town, and communicates with it by means of a small river; 64 miles north of Oristano. Lat. 40. 48. N. long. 8. 45. E.

SASSRACH, a neat village in the west of Germany, in Baden, on the west side of the Black Forest. Near this place Marshal Turenne was killed by a cannon ball on 27th July, 1675, and a monument was erected to his memory in 1781, by the cardinal de Rohan. Population 900; 17 miles east-by-north of Strasburg.

SASSE, *s.* [*sas*, Dutch.] A kind of sluice or lock, on navigable rivers. The word occurs in our old statutes.

SASSENA, or SASINA, a small island of European Turkey, in the Adriatic, situated at the mouth of the bay of Avlona, and opposite to the town of that name.

SASSENAGE, a small town in the south-east of France, in Dauphiny, department of the Isere, on the Furon. It has long been noted for its cheese, known by the name of cheese of Sassenage. Population 1300; 4 miles east of Grenoble.

SASSENBERG, a small town of Prussian Westphalia; 14 miles east of Munster, and 28 south of Osnabruck. Population 1300.

SASSENDORF, a village of Prussian Westphalia, in the county of Mark, with a large salt-work; 15 miles north-by-east of Arensberg, and 16 east-by-north of Hamm.

SASSENDORF. See ZASTRUP.

SASSIN, or SASVAR, a small town of the north-west of Hungary; 33 miles north of Presburg. A very extensive cotton manufactory was erected here towards the end of last century, by a Vienna merchant. It employed at one time nearly 20,000 persons in different parts of the kingdom; but at present (1826) it is in a great measure abandoned. Lat. 48. 37. 50. N. long. 17. 7. 3. E.

SASSOFERRATO, a small town of Italy, in the Popedom, in the duchy of Urbino; 35 miles south-west of Ancona.

SASSO-FERRATO (whose real name was Giovanni Batista Salvi), was a native of the territory of Urbino, and born in a castle, from whence he was named Sasso-ferrato, in 1605. He was the son of an obscure painter, who sent him, when young, to study at Rome. He afterwards visited Naples and other places; and having no great power of genius, amused himself by imitating in turn different masters. His compositions were confined to Madonnas and Infants, and are, in general, but heavily executed. His most considerable work is an altar-piece, painted for the church of St. Sabina, at Rome, representing the Virgin and Child, with St. Catharine and St. Dominic. He died at Rome in 1685.

SASSOLIN, in Mineralogy, concrete native boracic acid, so called from having been found on the banks of a hot spring at Sasso, near Sienna, in Italy. It is also found in some of the small lakes in Tuscany. Sassolin is composed of minute brilliant scales, of a pearly-white colour. The taste is slightly acid, and somewhat bitter: it is easily fusible by the blowpipe. It is also mixt with the soil that surrounds these lakes, and presents itself in the form of stalactites, soft and soapy to the touch. The white colour is sometimes spotted with yellow. The lakes which furnish this acid disengage an abundant quantity of gas with a hissing noise. The nature of the gas has not been ascertained.

SASSOROLLA, in Ornithology, the name of a peculiar species of pigeon, the *columba rupicola*, or the rock pigeon.

SASSOSO, a cape on the north coast of the island of Candia, anciently *Promontorium Dion.* Lat. 35. 26. N. long. 24. 56. E.

SASSUOLO, a town of Italy, in the duchy of Modena, near the Secchia. In the neighbourhood is the hill of Zibio, remarkable for its wells of petroleum, and for a small aperture, which frequently throws out sulphureous smoke, flames, and mud, to a great height. Its great eruptions, which happen not unfrequently, are attended with a loud noise, and with a shaking of the neighbouring ground. Population 3100; 8 miles south of Modena. Lat. 44. 30. N. long. 10. 54. E.

SAS VAN GHENT, a small town and fort of the Netherlands, situated on a canal which leads from the city of Ghent to the Scheldt. It is provided with sluices, by means of which the country can be laid under water. Population 1900; 10 miles north of Ghent, and 25 west of Antwerp.

SASVAR. See SASSIN.

SAT. The preterite of *sit.*

The picture of fair Venus, that
For which, men say, the goddess *sat*,
Was lost, till Lely from your look
Again that glorious image took. *Waller.*

SATADOO, a country of Africa, forming one of three parts into which Bambouk is divided. It agrees with that territory in the considerable quantity of gold which is found in its soil and the sands of its rivers, and which is extracted by the natives by the mere process of agitation in water. It extends chiefly along the eastern bank of the Faleme, having Bambouk proper on the north, and Konkodoo on the south. It was formerly considerable, but has of late been much reduced by the inroads of the Foulahs.

SATAGURA, a small town of Austrian Galicia, in the Bukowine,

Bukowine, on the Pruth; 12 miles south-by-east of Zaleszczuki.

SATALAN, Cape, a cape on the southern coast of Borneo. Lat. 4. 13. S. long. 114. 50. E.

SATALDERE, a river of Anatolia, which falls into the sea of Marmora; 8 miles west of Artaki.

SATALIA, Antalia, or, according to Captain Beaufort, more properly Adalia, a city of Caramania, in Asia Minor, situated at the head of a gulf to which it gives name. The place is beautifully situated round a small harbour; the streets appear to rise behind each other, like the seats of a theatre; and on the level summit of the hill the city is inclosed by a ditch, a double wall, and a series of square towers, about 50 yards asunder. In an opening, now closed up, between two of the towers, appear the remains of a splendid gateway, exhibiting 14 columns, the upper parts of which are of the Corinthian order. The inside walls and towers appear to have been substantially and well built. The port is inclosed by two stone piers, which once had towers on the extremities; but they are now in a ruinous state, and the inroads of the sea unite with the neglect of their present possessors, to insure their destruction. The gardens round the town are beautiful, the trees loaded with fruit, and the corn grounds more than commonly productive. The soil is deep, and everywhere intersected by streams loaded with calcareous matter, which, after fertilizing the plain, fall over the cliffs, or turn the corn mills in their descent to the sea. Alternate breezes from the sea and the chain of Mount Taurus, refresh the air in a remarkable manner. The population probably does not exceed 8000, two-thirds of which are understood to be Mahometan, and the other third Greek. It is supposed to be on the site of the ancient Olbia. Lat. 36. 50. N. long. 30. 45. E.

SA'TAN, *s.* [Hebrew; meaning an enemy, a persecutor, an accuser.] The devil.—The great dragon was cast out, that old serpent, called the devil and *Satan*, which deceiveth the whole world. *Rev.* xii. 9.

SATANAGUR, a town of Hindostan, province of Hyderabad, belonging to the Nizam. Lat. 17. 56. N. long. 78. 16. E.

SATA'NIC, or Satanical, *adj.* Belonging to the devil; proceeding from the devil; evil; false; malicious.—The faint *Satanic* host. *Milton.*—His weakness shall o'ercome *Satanic* strength. *Milton.*—Now we are upon the subject of tortures, it is impossible to forget that depth of Satan, the Inquisition. For *Satanical* it is, by the conjunction of three qualities; indefatigable diligence, profound subtilty, and inhuman cruelty. *Trapp.*

SATANICALLY, *adv.* With malice or wickedness suiting the devil; diabolically.

SATANISM, *s.* A diabolical diposition.

So mild was Moses' countenance, when he pray'd
For them whose *Satanism* his power gainsaid. *Eleg.*

SA'TANIST, *s.* A wicked person. *A foolish word.*

SATANOV, a small town of Russian Poland, in Podolia; 40 miles north of Kaminiec. Population 3200.

SATAPA, a town on the south-east coast of the island of Borneo; 69 miles east-north-east of Banjar Massim.

SATARAH, a celebrated town and fortress of Hindostan, province of Bejapore. It is built upon a rock, on the westernmost point of a range of hills, and has only a very narrow passage up to it, admitting but a single person at a time; nevertheless it capitulated, after a very short resistance, to the British, in February, 1818. It was afterwards surveyed by some of their officers, who declared that 200 men might defend it against any force. This fortress was taken from the king of Bejapore, by the Mahratta chief Sevajee, in 1673, and was captured by Aurungzebe in 1690, but was retaken soon after the death of that monarch in 1707, and may now be considered as the capital of the Mahratta state. This place owes its celebrity principally to its having been for a long period the residence or state prison of the Maha rajah, or legitimate sovereign of the Mahrattas. He was confined about the middle of the last century by the peishwa, who usurped the government, but still inserting the name of the rajah in all public records. This practice, with some other forms and ceremonies, was observed to and by the successors of each party, till the late war, when the peishwa compelled the rajah to accompany him to his camp. This circumstance fortunately enabled the British troops to rescue him on the 21st of February, 1818. He was then conveyed to Poona, and after having been declared the sovereign of the Mahrattas, was sent back in great state to his residence at Satarah. The present rajah is about 30 years of age; he is of mild manners, but his education has been very much neglected. His father was only a captain of cavalry, but being of the blood royal, he was seated on the throne by the late peishwa. His mother and two brothers were taken with him, and were present at the ceremony of installation. This is one of the most striking events in the political history of Hindostan, since the downfall of Tippoo Sultan; but no accurate information has yet been received of the division of the Mahratta territory, the greater part of which, it may be observed, was gained by conquests on their part; and but a small proportion of the inhabitants are of that denomination, or by any means friendly to their government, which was that of oppression and extortion. Satarah, spelt also Sattara, stands a few miles north of the river Kistnah, in Lat. 17. 50. N. long. 74. 3. E.

SATAUKET, a post village of the United States, on the north side of Long Island. It contains an elegant Presbyterian and an Episcopal church, and about 70 houses. It is pleasant and healthy, and is the principal harbour for wood vessels on the north side of the island; 65 miles east of New York.

SA'TCHEL, or Sachel, *s.* [*seckel*, Germ. *sacculus*, Lat.] A little bag: commonly a bag used by schoolboys.

The whining schoolboy with his *satchel*,
And shining morning face, creeping like snail
Unwillingly to school. *Shakspeare.*

To SATE, *v. a.* [*satio*, Lat.] To satiate; to glut; to pall.

Sated at length, ere long I might perceive
Strange alteration in me. *Milton.*

SA'TELESS, *adj.* Insatiable.

His *sateless* thirst of pleasure, gold, and fame,
Declares him born for blessings infinite. *Young.*

SA'TELLITE, *s.* [*satelles*, Lat. *satellite*, French. This word is commonly pronounced in prose with the *c* mute in the plural, as in the singular, and is therefore only of three syllables; but Pope has in the plural continued the Latin form, and assigned it four; I think, improperly. *Johnson.*] A small planet revolving round a larger.—Four moons move about Jupiter, and five about Saturn, called their *satellites*. *Locke.*

Ask of yonder argent fields above,
Why Jove's *satellites* are less than Jove? *Pope.*

See Astronomy and Planets.

SATELLITE, an island in D'Entrecasteaux channel, Van Diemen's Land, partly covered with an impenetrable thicket.

SATELLITIOUS, *adj.* [from *satelles*, Lat.] Consisting of satellites.—Their solidity and opacity, and their *satellitious* attendance, their revolutions about the sun, and their rotations about their axis, are exactly the same. *Cheyne.*

SATERLAND, a small district of Westphalia, in the Oldenburg territory, situated between Vechte and Bremen. It is about 14 miles long and 6 broad, composed chiefly of turf bogs, and separated from the adjacent country by marshes very difficult to traverse. Hence, on the part of the inhabitants, an unacquaintance with the rest of the world, the preservation of old customs, and the use of the ancient Friesland dialect. The population, about 2000 in number, live

live in huts, and obtain a scanty subsistence by the sale of their turf.

SATERLEIGH, a village of England, in Devonshire, on the river Bray, south-west of Moulton.

SATERTHWAITE, a village of England, in the north-west angle of Lancashire, between the rivers Fosse and Thurton.

SATGONG, the ancient royal port of Bengal, known to the Romans by the title of *Ganges Reggia*, said to have been a celebrated place of worship, and formerly the residence of the kings of the country. The district belonging to it contained 700 square miles. Unfortunately we have no account of it under the Hindoo government, but it is thus mentioned in De Barro's Portuguese History, supposed to have been written about the year 1530:—"The other river falls into the western branch of the Ganges, a little below another city called Satigong, as great and noble as Chatigong, but less frequented, because its port is not so convenient for the entry and departure of shipping." It is first spoken of by the Mahometan historians we have had access to, in the year 1592, when it was plundered by a detachment of Afghans. Soon after that period it became eclipsed by Hoogly, and after the taking of that town by the Moguls in 1632, the public officers were withdrawn from Satgong, and stationed at the latter, which was then constituted the royal port. The river Dummooda is supposed formerly to have fallen into the Bhagurutty above Satgong; and it is also conjectured that there was a communication by water between that town and Tumbok. Satgong is now reduced to a mere village, although many of the ruins yet exist. It stands two or three miles from the river side, and four from Hoogly. Lat. 22. 57. N. long. 88. 30. E.

SATHMAR, a county of Hungary, lying adjacent to the north of Transylvania, on both sides of the river Szamos. Its territorial extent is 2250 square miles; its population 187,000. Many tracks are of a sandy soil; others are strewed with soda, or covered with marshes, one of which, the marsh of Etsed, is 28 miles in length; yet this county produces, on the whole, a considerable quantity of wheat and maize; also of wine. Particular districts contain mines of salt; others of metals. The chief town is Negy-Caroly, and count Caroly is hereditary palatine or governor of the county.

SATHMAR, or SATHMAR NEMETHI, a considerable town of Hungary, in the palatinate of the same name, situated on the Szamos. It consists of two parts, Sathmar and Nemethi, which stand on the two sides of the river, and previous to 1715 formed two distinct towns. The inhabitants, in number above 10,000, carry on an active trade, and cultivate a large quantity of wine. In the neighbourhood are salt mines; and in the town there is one of the principal government offices for its disposal. Sathmar is a bishop's see, erected in 1806, and has a Catholic seminary and gymnasium, together with one Greek and two Calvinist churches. This town has been frequently besieged in the different wars of which Hungary was the theatre, during the 14th, 16th, and 17th centuries. In 1646, the Protestants held here a national council, and in 1711, Sathmar was the scene of the negociations which terminated the rebellion headed by Rakotzi; 255 miles east of Presburg. Lat. 47. 46. 30. N. long. 22. 53. 25. E.

To SA'TIATE, *v. a.* [*satio*, Lat.] To satisfy; to fill.—Those smells are the most grateful where the degree of heat is small, or the strength of the smell allayed; for these rather woo the sense than *satiate* it. *Bacon.*

The loosen'd winds
Hurl'd high above the clouds; till, all their force
Consum'd, her ravenous jaws th' earth *satiate* clos'd.
Philips.

To glut; to pall; to fill beyond natural desire.—Whatever novelty presents, children are presently eager to have a taste, and are as soon *satiated* with it. *Locke.*—To gratify desire.—I may yet survive the malice of my enemies, although they should be *satiated* with my blood. *King Charles.*—To saturate; to impregnate with as much as can be contained or imbibed.—Why does not salt of tartar draw more water out of the air, than in a certain proportion to its quantity, but for want of an attractive force after it is *satiated* with water? *Newton.*

SA'TIATE, *adj.* Glutted; full to satiety. When it has *with*, it seems a participle; when *of*, an adjective.

Our generals, retir'd to their estates,
In life's cool evening, *satiate of* applause,
Nor think of bleeding ev'n in Brunwick's cause. *Pope.*

SATIA'TION, *s.* The state of being filled.—This term Quantity offereth me a discourse with Lessius, which seemeth to prefer a quantity *ad pondus* of diet, as most conducing to the preservation of health and extension of life, as if *satiation* were the usher of diseases and mortality, as a corruptive cause, which I cannot conceive reasonable. *Whitaker.*

SATIES HEAD, a promontory of Scotland, in Aberdeenshire, near Peterhead.

SATI'ETY, *s.* [*satietas*, Lat.] Fullness beyond desire or pleasure; more than enough; wearisomeness of plenty; state of being palled or glutted.

He leaves a shallow plash to plunge him in the deep,
And with *satiety* seeks to quench his thirst. *Shakspeare.*

The joy unequall'd, if its end it gain,
Without *satiety*, though e'er so blest,
And but more relish'd as the more distress'd. *Pope.*

SATILE, a town of Bambarra, in Central Africa; 160 miles west-north-west of Sego.

SATILLA, GREAT, a river of the United States, in Georgia, which runs east-south-east into the sea, north of Cumberland island.

SATILLA, LITTLE, a river of the United States, in Georgia, which runs into the sea, north of the Great Satilla.

SATILLIEU, a small town in the south of France, department of the Ardeche, on the river Day, with 2100 inhabitants.

SATIMANGALUM, a town and fortress of the south of India, province of Coimbetoor. The fort, which is very strong, was built in the 17th century, by Trimula Naick, governor of the country on the part of the rajah of Madura. It was taken about fifty years afterwards by the rajah of Mysore, and of course became the property of Hyder Aly. It was taken by the British in the year 1792, and was confirmed to them by the peace of 1799. The town contains a temple, dedicated to Vishnu, and is chiefly inhabited by weavers of coarse cotton cloth. A severe battle was fought in the vicinity of this place, between the British and the troops of Tippoo Sultan. Lat. 10. 28. N. long. 77. 20. E.

SA'TIN, *s.* [*satin*, Fr. *drapo di setan*, Ital. *sattin*, Dutch.] A soft close and shining silk.

The ladies dress'd in rich symas were seen,
Of Florence *satin*, flower'd with white and green,
And for a shade betwixt the bloomy gridelin. *Dryden.*

SA'TINET, *s.* A sort of slight satin.

SA'TIRE, *s.* [from Σατυροι, *Satyri*, beings supposed to indulge in drunkenness and scurrilous and lascivious jests.]—A poem in which wickedness or folly is censured.—Proper *satire* is distinguished, by the generality of the reflections, from a lampoon which is aimed against a particular person; but they are too frequently confounded: it has *on* before the subject.

He dares to sing thy praises in a clime
Where vice triumphs, and virtue is a crime;
Where ev'n to draw the picture of thy mind,
Is *satyr on* the most of human kind. *Dryden.*

Critics have not agreed concerning the origin of satire. It seems at first, says Dr. Blair, to have been a relic of the ancient comedy, written partly in prose, partly in verse, and abounding

abounding with scurrility. Ennius and Lucilius corrected its grossness; and at last Horace brought it into that form, which now gives the denomination to satirical writing. As the manners and characters which occur in ordinary life are the subjects of satires, as well as epistles, they require to be treated with somewhat of the ease and freedom of conversation, or in a more familiar style than solemn philosophical poetry; hence it is commonly the "Musa pedestris" which reigns in such compositions. See POETRY.

SATI'RIC, or SATI'RICAL, *adj.* [*satiricus*, Lat.] Belonging to satire; employed in writing of invective.

What human kind desires, and what they shun,
Rage, passions, pleasures, impotence of will,
Shall this *satirical* collection fill. *Dryden.*

Censorious; severe in language.—Slanders, sir: for the *satirical* slave says here, that old men have grey beards; that their faces are wrinkled. *Shakspeare.*

SATI'RICALLY, *adv.* With invective; with intention to censure or vilify.—He applies them *satirically* to some customs, and kinds of philosophy, which he arraigns. *Dryden.*

SA'TIRIST, *s.* One who writes satires.

Yet soft his nature, though severe his lay;
His anger moral, and his wisdom gay:
Blest *satyrist!* who touch'd the mean so true,
As show'd vice had his hate and pity too. *Pope.*

To SA'TIRIZE, *v. a.* [*satirizer*, Fr.] To censure as in a satire.—Should a writer single out and point his raillery at particular persons, or *satirize* the miserable, he might be sure of pleasing a great part of his readers, but must be a very ill man if he could please himself. *Addison.*

SATISDATO, or STIPULATIO, in the Roman Law, answers to our *bail above*, and was mutually given by each litigant party to the other; by the plaintiff, that he would prosecute his suit, and pay the costs if he lost his cause, in like manner as our law still requires nominal pledges of prosecution from the plaintiff; and by the defendant, that he would continue in court and abide the sentence of the judge, much like our special bail, with this difference, that the *fide jussores* were there absolutely bound, *judicatum solvere*, to see costs and condemnation paid at all events; as our special bail may be discharged by surrendering the defendant into custody, within the time ordered by law; for which purpose they are at all times entitled to a warrant to apprehend him.

SATISFACIENDUM, CAPIAS AD. See CAPIAS.

SATISFA'CTION, *s.* [*satisfactio*, Lat.; *satisfaction*, Fr.] The act of pleasing to the full, or state of being pleased.—Run over the circle of earthly pleasures, and had not God secured a man a solid pleasure from his own actions, he would be forced to complain that pleasure was not *satisfaction*. *South.*—The act of pleasing.—The mind, having a power to suspend the execution and *satisfaction* of any of its desires, is at liberty to consider the objects of them. *Locke.*—The state of being pleased.—'Tis a wretched *satisfaction* a revengeful man takes, even in losing his life, provided his enemy go for company. *L'Estrange.*—Release from suspense, uncertainty, or uneasiness; conviction.

Wilt thou leave me so unsatisfied?
—What *satisfaction* can you have? *Shakspeare.*

Gratification; that which pleases.

Of every nation each illustrious name,
Such toys as these have cheated into fame;
Exchanging solid quiet to obtain
The windy *satisfaction* of the brain. *Dryden.*

Amends; atonement for a crime; recompense for an injury.

Die he or justice must; unless for him
Some other able, and as willing, pay
The rigid *satisfaction*, death for death. *Milton.*

SATISFACTION, in Law, is used for the giving of recompense for an injury done; or the payment of money due on bond, judgment, &c. In which last it must be entered on record.

SATISFA'CTIVE, *adj.* [*satisfactus*, Lat.] Giving satisfaction.—By a final and *satisfactive* discernment of faith, we lay the last effects upon the first cause of all things. *Brown.*

SATISFA'CTORILY, *adv.* So as to content.—Bellonius hath been more *satisfactorily* experimental, not only affirming that chameleons feed on flies, but upon exenteration he found these animals in their bellies. *Brown.*

SATISFA'CTORINESS, *s.* Power of satisfying; power of giving content.—The incompleatness of the seraphick lover's happiness in his fruitions, proceeds not from their want of *satisfactoriness*, but his want of an entire possession of them. *Boyle.*

SATISFA'CTORY, *adj.* [*satisfactus*, Lat.] Giving satisfaction; giving content.—An intelligent American would scarce take it for a *satisfactory* account, if, desiring to learn our architecture, he should be told that a pillar was a thing supported by a basis. *Locke.*—Atoning; making amends.—A most wise and sufficient means of redemption and salvation, by the *satisfactory* and meritorious death and obedience of the incarnate Son of God, Jesus Christ. *Sanderson.*

SA'TISFIER, *s.* One who makes satisfaction.—For the transgressions of man, man ought to make satisfaction; but he could not. God could; but he ought not. And therefore, that he might satisfy both that ought and could, it was fit that the *satisfier* should be God and man. *Sheridan.*

To SA'TISFY, *v. a.* [*satisfacio*, Lat.] To content; to please to such a degree as that nothing more is desired.—A good man shall be *satisfied* from himself. *Proverbs.*—I'm *satisfy'd*. My boy has done his duty. *Addison.*—To feed to the full.—Who hath caused it to rain on the earth, to *satisfy* the desolate and waste ground, and to cause the bud of the tender tree to spring forth? *Job.*—To recompense; to pay to content.

He is well paid that is well *satisfied;*
And I, delivering you, am *satisfied*,
And therein do account myself well paid. *Shakspeare.*

To appease by punishment.

Will he draw out,
For anger's sake, finite to infinite,
In punish'd man, to *satisfy* his rigour,
Satisfy'd never? That were to extend
His sentence beyond dust and Nature's law. *Milton.*

To free from doubt, perplexity, or suspense.—Of many things useful and curious you may *satisfy* yourselves in Leonardo de Vinci. *Dryden.*—To convince.—When come to the utmost extremity of body, what can there put a stop and *satisfy* the mind that it is at the end of space, when it is *satisfied* that body itself can move into it? *Locke.*

To SA'TISFY, *v. n.* To give content.—To feed to the full.—To make payment.—By the quantity of silver they give or take, they estimate the value of other things, and *satisfy* for them: thus silver becomes the measure of commerce. *Locke.*

SATIVA, a settlement of South America, in the New Kingdom of Granada, and province of Tunja. The inhabitants, amounting to 1000, are much afflicted with a swelling of the throat; 106 miles north-east of Santa Fé.—There is another settlement of the same name in this province.

SA'TIVE, *adj.* [*sativus*, Lat.] Sown in gardens.—Preferring the domestic or *sative* for the fuller growth. *Evelyn.*

SATNICO, a small but trading town in the north of Austrian Italy, situated on the Oglio, where it issues from the lake of Iseo; 14 miles north-west of Brescia.

SATOGA, or MONTREAL, a river of Canada, which runs into the St. Lawrence; 10 miles above Montreal.

SA'TRAP, *s.* [Persian; σατραπης, Gr. *satrapes*, *satraps*, *satrapa*, Lat.] A governor of a district; a kind of viceroy; a nobleman in power.—His majesty took the petition with a smile

smile of goodness, and delivered it to one of his *satrapes* that he might make his report on it. *The Student.*

The Satrapa, or Satrapes, was generally a governor of a province among the ancient Persians.

King Darius usually walked attended by his principal lords and satrapæ. (Q. Curtius.) The kingdom of Persia was divided into satrapes, or jurisdictions of satrapæ.

The word is originally Persian, signifying strictly, admiral, or commander of a naval armament; but it was afterwards applied indifferently to all governors of provinces. In which sense it was also borrowed by the Greeks, who used the word σατραπης in the same signification.

We also meet with the word in some ancient English charters of king Ethelred, where the lords, who sign next after the dukes, take the title of satrapes of the king. Du-Cange takes the word here to signify ministers of the king.

SA'TRAPY, *s.* The government assigned to a satrap.—The angels themselves are distinguished and quaternioned into their celestial princedoms and *satrapies.* *Milton.*—The temporal government was likewise divided into *satrapies* or dukedoms, which contained in them divers counties. *Spelman.*

SATRIANO, a small town towards the south of the kingdom of Naples, in the province of Basilicata. It was formerly the see of a bishop, now united to that of Compagna; 7 miles south-west of Acerenza.

SATTALIE, or SATELEK, in Commerce, a money of account at Bencoolen in the East Indies; 32 sattalies making 4 soocoos, or a dollar of 5*s.*

SATTIAVERAM, a town of Hindostan, district of Vizagapatam. Lat. 17. 15. N. long. 82. 45. E.

SATTIN. See SATIN.

SATTIN FLOWER, and White sattin, in Botany. See LUNARIA.

SATTIN SPAR, in Mineralogy, fibrous carbonate of lime: it has a pearly lustre, and is generally of a pure white colour: the fibres are minute and frequently waved. It has been used for beads and necklaces, and other ornaments. It is procured from the county of Cumberland.

SATTINET, or SATTINADE, a very slight, thin sort of sattin, chiefly used by the ladies for summer night-gowns, &c., and ordinarily striped. The word is a diminutive of sattin.

SATTINAFF, a cluster of islets and rocks in the Eastern seas. Lat. 5. 24. S. long. 118. 38. E.

SATTIRAM, a town of the south of India, province of Mysore, belonging to the rajah. Lat. 12. 9. N. long. 76. 53. E.

SA'TURABLE, *adj.* Impregnable with any thing till it will receive no more.—Be the figures of the salts never so various, yet if the atoms of water were fluid, they would always so conform to those figures as to fill up all vacuities; and consequently the water would be *saturable* with the same quantity of any salt, which it is not. *Grew.*

SA'TURANT, *adj.* [from *saturans,* Lat.] Impregnating to the full.

To SA'TURATE, *v. n.* [*saturo,* Lat.] To impregnate till no more can be received or imbibed.

> Still night succeeds
> A soften'd shade, and *saturated* earth
> Awaits the morning beam. *Thomson.*

SATURA'TION, *s.* In chymistry.—The impregnation of an acid with an alkali, and *vice versâ,* till either will receive no more, and the mixture becomes neutral. *Chambers.*

SATURDAY, [from the Saxon *Saterne-dæg.*] The last day of the week.—This matter I handled fully in last *Saturday's* Spectator. *Addison.*

SATUREIA [from Satyrus, according to Linnæus], in Botany, a genus of the class didynamia, order gymnospermia, natural order of verticillatæ, labiatæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, tubular, striated, erect, permanent: mouth five-toothed, almost equal, erect. Corolla one-petalled, ringent: tube cylindrical, shorter than the calyx: throat simple: upper lip erect, blunt, acutely emarginate, length of the lower lip; lower lip three-parted, spreading; segments blunt, equal, the middle one a little larger. Stamina: filaments four, setaceous, distant, scarcely the length of the upper lip; the two lower a little shorter. Anthers converging. Pistil: germ four cleft. Style setaceous, length of the corolla. Stigmas two, setaceous. Pericarp none. Calyx converging, containing the seeds in the bottom. Seeds four, roundish.—*Essential Character.* Corolla with segments nearly equal. Stamina distant.

1. Satureia Juliana, or linear-leaved savory.—This has very slender woody stalks, which grow erect, about nine inches high, sending out two or three slender side branches towards the bottom. Leaves linear-lanceolate, opposite, stiff. Flowers in whorls for more than half the length of the stalk, seeming as if they were bundled together. Corolla small and white. The whole plant has a pleasant aromatic smell. —Native of Italy.

2. Satureia thymbra, or whorled savory.—This rises about two feet high with a woody stem, and divides into many branches, so as to form a small bush. Leaves somewhat like those of common savory, having a strong aromatic scent when bruised.—Native of the Island of Candia.

3. Satureia Græca, or Greek savory.—Peduncles subtriflorous lateral, involucrets shorter than the calyx.—The lower leaves are ovate, like those of thyme, purplish beneath, the rest are rather linear; on the upper surface of the leaves appear a sort of sparkling atoms, shining from a few short scattered hairs. Corollas purplish on the outside, on the inside whitish-purple, with three purple spots at the base, the middle one larger than the others. After the first year, the corymbs become solitary.—Native of the Archipelago, and the county of Nice.

4. Satureia montana, or winter savory.—This is well known under the name of Winter Savory; and is a perennial plant, with a shrubby low branching stalk; the branches rise about a foot high, are woody, and have two very narrow stiff leaves, about an inch long, opposite at each joint: from the base of these come out a few small leaves in clusters. Flowers axillary, upon short foot-stalks, shaped like those of the summer savory, but larger and paler.—Native of the South of France and Italy.

5. Satureia hortensis, or summer savory.—Summer savory is an annual plant, with slender erect stalks about a foot high, sending out branches at each joint by pairs. Leaves opposite, about an inch long, and one-eighth of an inch broad in the middle, stiff, a little hairy, and having an aromatic odour if rubbed. Flowers towards the upper part of the branches, axillary; each peduncle sustaining two flowers. Corolla pale flesh-colour.—Native of the South of France and Italy.

6. Satureia capitata, or ciliated savory.—Flowers in spikes, leaves keeled, dotted, ciliate.—This has a low shrubby stalk, which sends out branches on every side, about six inches long, and hoary. The whole plant is hoary, and very aromatic.—Native of the Levant.

7. Satureia spinosa, or thorny savory.—A shrubby species, native of Candia or Crete; distinguished by its thorny branches, and shaggy leaves.

8. Satureia viminea, or twiggy savory.—Peduncles axillary, three flowered, involucres linear, leaves lanceolate-ovate, entire.—A shrub from two to twelve feet in height, with an upright stem, very much branched and loose. Branches four-sided, strict, subdivided, long; with the branchlets four-cornered, directed one way, ferruginous-pubescent.—Native of the cooler mountains of Jamaica; flowering there in autumn.

There are two varieties: one a shrub, smaller and more rigid, with smaller oblong leaves: the other a little tree, twelve or fifteen feet high, with the branches loose and rounder leaves. The whole plant is very sweet-scented, even when dry.

Propagation and Culture.—Winter savory may be propagated by seeds in the same way as summer savory, or by slips, which, if planted in the spring, will take root very freely. It is very hardy, and will continue several years, especially

especially on a poor dry soil, or on a wall: but when the plants are old, the shoots are short, and not so well furnished with leaves; it will be proper, therefore, to raise a supply of young plants every other year.

The other sorts are too tender to live through the winter in the open air in England. They are generally propagated by slips or cuttings, which take root very readily during any of the summer months.

SATU'RITY, *s.* [*saturité*, old French; *saturitas*, from *saturo*, Lat.] Fulness; the state of being saturated; repletion.

He, going to their stately place, did find in every dish
Fat beef, and brewis, and great store of dainty fowl and fish;
Who seeing their *saturity*, and practising to win
His pupils thence, Excess, he said, doth work access to sin.
Warner.

SATURN, *s.* A god among the Romans. He was the eldest of the gods, and usually represented Time. He was the father of Jove. He is represented under the figure of a decrepid old man in fetters, with a long beard, and hoary head; bearing in his right hand a pruning hook or scythe, and in his left a child, which he is about to devour. According to the Roman fable, Saturn, being dethroned by Jupiter, took refuge in Italy, called from him Saturnia, where he introduced several parts of agriculture, particularly the art of pruning and managing the vines, and civilized the people, uniting them to one another in chains of brass, i. e. by brass money, which he invented.

The name Saturn is derived by some *a satu*, from sowing; because he is said to have first taught the art of sowing and tilling the ground, in Italy, and was therefore esteemed the god of husbandry, and called by the Romans *Stercutius*, because he first manured the earth with dung; and on this account he is painted with a sickle. By others his name is derived *a saturando*, from that fulness which is the effect of his bounty; as his wife was called Ops, because she helps the hungry. Others ascribe the name to his being satisfied with the years that he devours; Saturn and Time being the same. Thus Cicero, de Nat. Deorum, *quod ipse saturetur annis quos ipse devorat.* Others again derive the name from *sator* νου, because he is the former of the mind.

Rome, and several other cities of Italy, dedicated temples to Saturn, and paid him religious worship. But it was chiefly among the Carthaginians that he was particularly honoured. Our ancient Gauls and the neighbouring nations were also distinguished votaries of Saturn. Nobody doubts but human sacrifices were offered to him, as well as to Moloch, especially by the Gauls and at Carthage; and this barbarous custom continued in that city till the Romans made themselves masters of it. It was also practised in Italy, though it did not subsist there long. Dionysius of Halicarnassus, who was better versed in the antiquities of Italy than any other author, tells us that Hercules, upon his return from Spain into Italy, abolished it entirely; and having erected an altar to that god upon the Saturnine Mount, offered to him those sorts of victims which the Greeks call Τυμαλα αχνα, which, according to the scholiast on Thucydides, were of paste, figured like animals; or, if we may believe Dionysius Halicarnassus, in the similitude of men.

SATURN, *s.* One of the primary planets; being that which is farthest from the earth, and the sun, whose motion is the slowest, if we except the Georgium Sidus. It is thus characterized, ♄. Its mean diameter is 79042 miles: it revolves round its axis in $10^h\ 16'$, and round the sun, at the distance of 900,000,000 miles, in $10746^d\ 19^h\ 16'\ 15''.5$ tropical revolutions, and $10759^d\ 1^h\ 51'\ 11''.2$ sidereal revolutions.

Saturn shines but with a feeble light, by reason of its distance. See ASTRONOMY.

SATURN, in Chemistry, signifies lead; in regard that metal is supposed to lie immediately under the influence of this planet.

SATURN, in Heraldry, denotes the black colour in the coats of arms of sovereign princes; answering to diamond in the coats of noblemen, and sable in those of gentlemen.

SATURNALIA, feasts celebrated among the Romans, in honour of the god Saturn.

The saturnalia, called in the Greek language Κρονια, were instituted either by Tullus, king of the Romans, or, according to Livy, by Sempronius and Minutius, the consuls. Till the time of Julius Cæsar they were finished in one day, viz. the 19th of December; but then they began to be celebrated in three days, and afterwards in four or five, by order of Caligula; and some say, that they have lasted seven days, and when these days were added to the feast, the first day of celebrating it was the 17th of December.

During this solemnity, the slaves were reputed masters; they were allowed to say any thing; and, in fine, they were served at table by the masters themselves. Every thing ran into debauchery and dissoluteness, and nothing was heard or seen in the city of Rome, but the din, riot, and disorder of a people wholly abandoned to joy and pleasure.

M. Dacier observes, that the Saturnalia were not only celebrated in honour of Saturn, but also to keep up the remembrance of the golden age, when all the world was on a level.

On occasion of this feast, presents were sent from friends to one another; no war was to be proclaimed, and no offender executed; the schools observed holiday; and the senate did not sit.

The Saturnalia were not only observed at Rome, but also in Greece; and were, in reality, much older than Rome itself. Some ascribe their institution to the Pelasgi, who were cast upon the island of Delos; others to Hercules; and others to Janus. Goropius Becanus makes Noah the author of them. (Orig. lib. iv.) Vossius goes still higher, and will have it, that the Saturn, in honour of whom this feast was instituted, was Adam.

SATURNA'LIAN, *adj.* [from the Lat. *Saturnalia.*] Sportive; loose, like the feasts of Saturn.—In order to make this *saturnalian* amusement general in the family, you sent it down stairs. *Burke.*

SATURNESS, a cape on the south coast of Scotland, in the county of Kirkcudbright. Lat. 54. 57. N. long. 3. 38. W.

SATU'RNIAN, *adj.* [*saturnius*, Lat.] Happy; golden: used by poets for times of felicity, such as are feigned to have been in the reign of *Saturn.*—Th' Augustus, born to bring *Saturnian* times. *Pope.*

SATURNI COLUMNÆ, in Ancient Geography, a name anciently given to mountains of Africa and Spain, called also the "columns of Briareus and of Hercules."

SATURNILLIANS. See SATURNINIANS.

SATURNIN, St., a small town in the south of France, department of the Mouths of the Rhone. Population 1500; 5 miles north of Apt, and 15 south-east of Carpentras.

SATURNIN, St., a small town in the central part of France, department of the Puy de Dome, near the Monne. Population 1500.

SATURNIN, St., another small town in the south of France, department of the Aveyron, on the Serre; 18 miles north-east of Rhodez.

SATURNINE, or SATURNIAN, a term applied to persons of dark, sullen, melancholic complexions; as being supposed under the predominancy of Saturn, or at whose births Saturn was the ascendant.

SATURNINIANS, or SATURNILLIANS, a sect of ancient Gnostics; thus called from their chief Saturnillus, or Saturinus, a disciple of Menander, the famous Gnostic.

Saturnillus taught the same errors with his master, in Syria, about the close of the second century; and drew after him many disciples, by the pompous appearance of an extraordinary virtue. He held the doctrine of two principles, from whence proceeded all things: the one a wise and benevolent deity; and the other, matter, a principle essentially evil, and which he supposed under the superintendance of a certain intelligence of a malignant nature. The world and its first inhabitants were, according to the system

system of this raving philosopher, created by seven angels, which presided over the seven planets. This work was carried on without the knowledge of the benevolent deity, and in opposition to the will of the material principle. The former, however, beheld it with approbation, and honoured it with several marks of his beneficence. He endowed with rational souls the beings who inhabited this new system, to whom their creators had imparted nothing more than the mere animal life; and having divided the world into seven parts, he distributed them among the seven angelic architects, one of whom was the god of the Jews; and reserved to himself the supreme empire over all. To these creatures, whom the benevolent principle had endowed with reasonable souls, and with dispositions that led to goodness and virtue, the evil being, to maintain his empire, added another kind, whom he formed of a wicked and malignant character; and hence the difference we see among men. When the creators of the world fell from their allegiance to the supreme deity, God sent from heaven, into our globe, a restorer of order, whose name was Christ. This divine conqueror came clothed with a corporeal appearance, but not with a real body: he came to destroy the empire of the material principle, and to point out to virtuous souls the way by which they must return to God. This way is beset with difficulties and sufferings; since those souls, who propose returning to the supreme being, after the dissolution of this mortal body, must abstain from wine, flesh, wedlock, and, in short, from every thing that tends to sensual gratification, or even bodily refreshment. Mosheim's Eccl. Hist. vol. i. p. 176, Eng. ed. 8vo. 1758.

SA'TURNIST, *s.* One of gloomy or melancholy disposition. *Unused.*

Seating himself within a darksome cave;
Such places heavy *Saturnists* do crave. *Browne.*

SA'TYR, *s.* [*satyrus*, Lat.] A sylvan god: supposed among the ancients to be rude and lecherous.—*Satyrs*, as Pliny testifies, were found in times past in the eastern mountains of India. *Peacham.*

Bochart (Chan. l. i. c. 12.) deduces Satyr from the Hebrew word Sair, which signifies a devil under the shape of a goat; and hence, as he says, they are represented as a sort of goats, dancing and frisking in a lascivious manner.

The Satyrs were painted half men and half goats: the upper part was human, excepting horns on the head; and the lower brutal, with the tail and legs of a goat; the whole covered with hair.

The poets usually confound the Sators, Sylvans, Sileni, Fauns, and Panes.

Nonnus, in his Dionysiaca, makes the Satyrs the offspring of Mercury and a Doric nymph, called Ypthima, and gives us the names of several; viz. Pæminius, Thyasus, Hypsichorus, Oristas, Apæus, Phlegræus, Lycon, &c.

Memnon, in his book against the tyrants of Heracles, derives the Satyrs from Bacchus, and a Naiad, called Nicæa.

The introduction of Satyrs into the poetical world was probably owing to large monkies, seen in the woods, pretty much resembling men; or perhaps to the appearance of barbarians, resembling monkies at a distance. This is the opinion of Pliny (Hist. l. 9. c. 54.), who takes the Satyrs for a kind of monkies, and who says, that in a mountain of the Indies are to be found four-footed Satyrs, who might be taken at a distance for men. These monkies had frequently terrified the shepherds, and sometimes pursued the shepherdesses; and this circumstance probably gave rise to so many fables about their amorous disposition. To this we may add, that shepherds covered with goat-skins, and some priests of Bacchus, frequently counterfeited Satyrs, to seduce the innocent shepherdesses; and thus we have the true explication of the fable. Hence the opinion spread, that the woods were full of these mischievous divinities. The shepherdesses trembled for their honour, and the shepherds for their flocks; for which reason they sought to appease them by sacrifices, and by the offerings of the firstlings of their flocks. Some songs were composed, which the shepherds sung in the forests, where they endeavoured, by invoking them, to recommed themselves to their favour. The poets, laying hold of the amusing subject, invented a thousand tales. The painters also contributed to propagate those fables, by painting Pan and the Satyrs like men. Such, says Banier, are the origin of these rural divinities, and such was the origin of their worship, and of the sacrifices that were offered to them

Satyrs made part of the dramatis personæ in the ancient Greek tragedies, which gave rise to a new species of poetry, called satirical.

SATYRI, a wandering people in the interior of Africa, according to Pomponius Mela.

SATYRI'ASIS, *s.* A disease.—If the ehyle be very plentiful, it breeds a *satyriasis*, or an abundance of seminal lymphas. *Floyer.* See PATHOLOGY.

SATY'RION, *s.* [*satyrium*, Lat.] A plant.—*Satyrion* near, with hot eringoes stood. *Pope.*

SATYRIUM [Σατυριον of Dioscorides. Satyrium of Pliny], in Botany, a genus of the class gynandria, order diandria, natural order of orchideæ.—Generic Character. Calyx: spathes wandering; spadix simple; perianth none. Corolla: petals five, ovate-oblong: three exterior; two interior converging upwards into a helmet. Nectary one-leafed, annexed to the receptacle by its lower side between the division of the petals; upper lip erect, very short; lower flat, pendulous, prominent behind at the base in a serotiform bag. Stamina: filaments two, very slender and very short, placed on the pistil. Anthers obovate, covered by the two-celled fold of the upper lip of the nectary. Pistil: germ oblong, twisted, inferior. Style fastened to the upper lip of the nectary, very short. Stigma compressed, obtuse. Pericarp: capsule oblong, one-celled, three-keeled, three-valved, opening in three parts under the keels, cohering at the top and bottom. Seeds numerous, very small, irregular like saw-dust. —*Essential Character.* Nectary serotiform or twin-inflated behind the flower.

1. Satyrium hircinum, or lizard satyrion.—Bulbs undivided, leaves lanceolate, lip of the nectary trifid, middle segment linear, oblique, præmorse. It is the tallest English plant of this tribe, frequently attaining the height of three feet, and producing from twenty to sixty or more flowers, remarkable for their fetid goat-like smell. The upper part of the lip is downy, and marked with elegant purple spots on a white ground; otherwise the flowers are more singular than beautiful.—Native of Germany, Switzerland, Austria, France, Italy, and England. This plant varying in size and the breadth of the leaves, has given occasion to old authors to make two species of it. The flowers are sometimes quite white.

2. Satyrium tabulare.—Bulbs round, stem leafy, lip trifid, middle segment emarginate. Found at the Cape of Good Hope, on the top of the Table Mountain; whence its trivial name.

3. Satyrium triste.—Bulbs undivided, helmet one-spurred, lip entire. Large and panicled.

4. Satyrium giganteum, or gigantic satyrion.—Bulbs round, stem naked, lip sagittate. This is a fathom in height, with large orange-coloured flowers.

5. Satyrium aculeatum.—Bulbs round, stem leafy, lip entire, unarmed, prickly. The lip is muricate, with white and purple prickles.—This and the two preceding are natives of the Cape.

6. Satyrium viride, or frog satyrion.—Bulbs palmate, leaves oblong, blunt, lip of the nectary linear, trifid, the middle segment obsolete. Stem from five to eleven inches high and solid, with unequal sharp angles, formed from the edges of the leaves and bractes. Spike lanceolate, from one to three inches long, loose, with few flowers. Bractes subulate-lanceolate, keeled, somewhat bowed in. The roots have but few divisions. The lower leaves sheath the stem.—Native of many parts of Europe; common in England. There is a variety with larger flowers.

7. Satyrium nigrum, or black-flowered satyrion.—Bulbs palmate, lip of the nectary resupine, undivided. Stem about nine

nine inches high. Leaves on the lower part about four inches long, but on the upper part scarcely an inch, embracing the stem at the base. Flowers in a thick short spike, of a dark purple colour, smelling very sweet.—Native of the mountains of Lapland, Switzerland, Austria, Dauphiné and Savoy.

8. Satyrium albidum, or white satyrion.—Bulbs in bundles. Stem nine to fifteen inches high. Lower leaves oval, sheathing the stem; upper lanceolate, acute. Flowers very numerous, in a long close spike. Bractes lanceolate, very acute, longer than the germ. Petals white.—Common throughout Europe, on elevated exposed grassy hills, or dry mountainous pastures.

9. Satyrium epigogium.—Bulbs compressed, toothed, stem sheathed, lip of the nectary resupine, undivided. Root tender, branched like coral, snow-white. Stem very tender, leafless.—Native of Austria, Dauphiné, and Siberia.

10. Satyrium hirtellum.—Bulbs filiform, stem hirsute, leaves ovate, three nerved, petioled, sheathing, nectary horned, lip three-lobed.—Native of Jamaica.

11. Satyrium plantagineum.—Bulbs filiform, stem very smooth, leaves ovate, petioled, sheathing, horn of the nectary thickened, lip two-lobed, middle acuminate. Roots filiform, long, tomentose. Stem a foot high, ascending, nearly erect, round, leafy, very smooth. Spike many-flowered, upright. Flowers small, white.—Native of Jamaica and Martinico, in moist woods and shady places.

12. Satyrium adnatum.—Bulbs in bundles, root-leaves oblong, on very long petioles, scape sheathed, nectary horned, adnate, lip bent down, two-lobed, emarginate. —Native of Jamaica and Hispaniola.

13. Satyrium orchioides.—Bulbs in bundles, oblong, leaves broad-lanceolate, scape sheathed, nectary horned, lip lanceolate, acuminate. Stem twelve or fourteen inches high, without leaves. Flowers flesh-coloured, oblong and succulent.—Native of Jamaica and Hispaniola.

14. Satyrium spirale.—Bulbs in bundles, oblong, leaves linear, scape sheathed, flowers spiral, directed one way, lip three-lobed, middle larger, crenulate.—Native of Jamaica.

15. Satyrium elatum.—Bulbs in bundles, thick, tomentose, root-leaves ovate, petioled, stem almost naked, nectary subtrilobate.—Native of Jamaica and Hispaniola.

16. Satyrium repens, or creeping satyrion.—Bulbs fibrous, leaves ovate, radical, flowers directed one way. Roots perennial, truly creeping, not bulbous, very succulent, downy, running among moss, and attaching themselves to decayed fragments and leaves of fir, in the manner of fungi. Leaves in tufts at the end of each runner. Stalks erect, six or eight inches high, round, downy upwards, clothed with a few alternate sheathing bractes, and terminated with an erect spike of numerous pale flesh-coloured fragrant flowers, leaning one way, but turning a little spirally round the stalk.—Native of Lapland, Norway, Denmark, Switzerland, Austria, Siberia, Scotland; in Alpine fir forests; flowering from June to August.

17. Satyrium Capense.—Lip of the nectary wider, blunt, emarginate, waved on both sides. Root leaves linear-lanceolate, slightly striated, strict. Scape-leaves alternate, embracing and sheathing, acuminate, shorter. Raceme loose. Peduncles the length of the flowers.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

18. Satyrium hians.—Helmet of the corolla spurred, gaping, nectary ovate, leaves linear, radical. Culm a foot high, with a few mucronate sheaths: all the leaves radical, the length of the culm below the spike. Spike oblong, with about sixteen flowers thinly disposed.—Found at the Cape.

19. Satyrium Orobanchoides.—Helmet of the corolla behind two-lobed, and in a manner two-horned, leaves bifarious. This plant rather resembles an Orobanche than an Orchis. Leaves linear, cauline. Spike longer than the stem, bifarious, densely imbricate.—Found at the Cape.

20. Satyrium pedicellatum.—Scape almost naked, raceme with filiform loose pedicels. Culm a foot high, with a single leaf in the middle. Leaf sheathing, lanceolate-subulate. Spike oblong. Bractes chaffy. Flowers peduncled. Corolla consisting of five nearly equal petals.—Found at the Cape.

21. Satyrium maculatum.—Flowers in close spikes, segments converging, acute, lip three-lobed, lobes linear, very narrow, the middle one longer. Leaves lanceolate, spotted. Spike dense, short, blunt. Bractes ovate-oblong, acute, shorter than the germ. Flowers small: the upper segments converging: lip pendulous, trifid; segments linear, very narrow, with the middle one longer and wider.—Native of Atlas near Belide.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants are difficult to propagate. The best way to obtain them, is to take up their roots, and transplant them into the garden, with a good ball of earth, putting them into a soil as near to that in which they naturally grow as possible, and to leave the ground undisturbed; for if their roots be injured, the plants seldom thrive afterwards. For the management of these plants, see ORCHIS.

SATZIG, a small town of Pomerania; 17 miles east of Stargard.

SATZKA, a small town in the north-east of Bohemia; 25 miles east-by-north of Prague, with 1200 inhabitants.

SAVA, a small town in the south-east of the kingdom of Naples, in the Terra d'Otranto. Population 1600.

SAVA, a ruined town of Persia, in the northern part of the province of Irak. It is still capital of a district, the soil of which is strongly impregnated with salt, but yields excellent pasture, though nearly destroyed by the contests of rival tribes by whom it is occupied; 180 miles north-west of Ispahan.

SAVA, a town of Niphon, in Japan; 50 miles north-north-east of Meaco.

SAVAD, a town of Yemen, in Arabia; 10 miles north of Damar.

SAVADI, a town of Egypt, on the right bank of the Nile; 15 miles north of Ensene.

SAVADI KEDAMI, a town of Upper Egypt, on the right bank of the Nile; 10 miles north of Abu Girge.

SAVAGE, *adj.* [*selvaggio*, Italian; from *silva*, Lat.] Wild; uncultivated.

These godlike virtues wherefore dost thou hide,
Affecting private life, or more obscure
In *savage* wilderness? *Milton.*

Untamed; cruel.

Chain me to some steep mountain's top,
Where roaring bears and *savage* lions roam. *Shakspeare.*

Hence with your little ones:
To fright you thus, methinks, I am too *savage;*
To do worse to you, were fell cruelty. *Shakspeare.*

Uncivilized; barbarous; untaught; wild; brutal.

The *savage* clamour drown'd
Both harp and voice. *Milton.*

SA'VAGE, *s.* A man untaught and uncivilized; a barbarian.—The seditious lived by rapine and ruin of all the country, omitting nothing of that which *savages*, enraged in the height of their unruly behaviour, do commit. *Hayward.*

To SA'VAGE, *v. a.* To make barbarous, wild, or cruel. *A bad word.*

SAVAGE (Richard), a miscellaneous writer, was the issue of an adulterous connection between Anne, countess of Macclesfield, and Richard Savage, the earl of Rivers. He was born in the month of January, 1697, and his mother being soon after separated from her husband by act of parliament, lord Rivers took upon himself the care of him as his illegitimate child. But his mother, whose unnatural conduct has transmitted her name to posterity with infamy, seems, from the moment of his birth, to have regarded him as an object of abhorrence, and to her more than brutal conduct is to be attributed that series of misfortunes which attended her son almost from the cradle to the grave. She immediately consigned him to the care of a poor woman, whom she directed to educate as her own

own, and to keep him entirely ignorant of his real parentage. He from this time had the name of his nurse, and would have been entirely neglected as to his education, had not the mother of lady Macclesfield paid him some attention, and caused him to be sent to the grammar-school at St. Alban's. While in this situation lord Rivers was taken dangerously ill, and feeling some compunctions of conscience, he wished to make provisions for his natural childern, of whom he had several, and sending for lady Macclesfield to make enquiry after Richard, she assured him he was dead: accordingly the legacy of 6000*l.* intended for him went to another. In effect also she deprived him of another legacy which his godmother had left him, by concealing from him his birth, and thereby rendering it impossible for him to prosecute his claim. She endeavoured to send him to the plantations in North America, but this plan failed, and he was bound apprentice to a shoe-maker. Shortly after, his supposed mother died, and in searching her boxes he found some letters, which discovered to the youth the secret of his birth, of which it appears he had hitherto no suspicion whatever. The discovery naturally excited in him a disgust to his humble employment, and it was now his object to rouse, if possible, the tenderness of his mother, who had married as a second husband Colonel Brett. Every effort of this kind, however, was repulsed with the most unfeeling harshness: and the deserted and forlorn youth, unable to gain admittance into her house, was accustomed to walk before the door in dark evenings, in the hope that he might gain a view of her as she crossed her apartment with a candle. Having once found the door open he walked up stairs, hoping thereby to procure an interview; but this detestable mother no sooner perceived him, than she called the servants to turn him out of the house, pretending that he had a design of murdering her. Being now destitute of regular support, and feeling a propensity to literary pursuits, he resolved to become an author. In the Bangorian controversy he attacked bishop Hoadley: after which he turned to the stage, and wrote two pieces taken from Spanish comedies, which were no otherwise successful than in giving him an introduction to Steele and Wilks, both of whom befriended him; but having offended the former, by ridiculing him behind his back, he lost his protection. Mrs. Oldfield, the actress, displayed her generosity to him, by some liberal donations; though, owing to her dislike of his manners and conversation, she would never admit him into her house. These temporary supplies afforded him but precarious support, and he attempted to improve his circumstances by writing a tragedy: but during the composition of it he was so entirely destitute of a home, that he used to study his speeches in the streets and fields, and write them with pen and ink, borrowed in any shop to which he was near, upon scraps of paper which he casually picked up in the streets. Thus was produced his tragedy entitled "Sir Thomas Overbury," which, being corrected by Cibber and Aaron Hill, was brought out at Drury-lane, in the year 1723. It had not much success, but introduced the author to some of the wits of the day, and put into his pocket about 200*l.* Savage himself, in this play, took the part of Overbury on the stage; but his manner proved him totally unqualified for the theatre. He next published a volume of miscellaneous poems, to which he prefixed an account of the treatment which he had experienced from his mother. His case was now generally known, and he was rising into some degree of reputation: but as fast as his friends, by their kind exertions, raised him from one difficulty, he sunk into another; and when he found himself much involved, he would ramble through the streets like a vagabond, without a shirt to his back. It was in one of these situations that an incident happened which plunged him into the deepest distress. Rambling late in the streets, with two companions, in November, 1727, they entered a house of entertainment, and in a quarrel with a company just leaving the room as they entered it, he unfortunately killed a man, for which he was tried, convicted, and condemned to be hanged. His friends earnestly supplicated for mercy, but his mother used every effort to prevent his receiving the royal clemency. At length the countess of Hertford laid the whole case before the queen, and Savage obtained a pardon.

Savage had now lost all tenderness for his mother, which, it is said, the whole series of her cruelty had not before been able wholly to repress; and considering her as an implacable enemy, which nothing but his blood would satisfy, threatened to harass her with satires, and to publish a full account of all her usage of him, unless she consented to allow him a pension. This expedient proved successful, and her nephew, lord Tyrconnel, in order to silence him, took Savage into his family, treated him as a companion, and gave him 200*l.* a-year. This was the most prosperous part of Savage's life. He was courted by all who endeavoured to be thought men of genius, and caressed by all who valued themselves upon a refined taste. In this period of his life he published "The Temple of Health and Mirth," on the recovery of lady Tyrconnel from a severe fit of illness; and "The Wanderer," a moral poem, which he dedicated to lord Tyrconnel, in strains of the highest panegyric: but these praises he in a short time found himself inclined to retract, being discarded by the man on whom they were bestowed. For this quarrel, lord Tyrconnel and Mr. Savage assigned very different reasons. Our author's known character pleaded strongly against him; for his conduct was ever such as made all his friends very soon grow weary of him, and even forced most of them to become his enemies.

Being thus once more without the means of subsistence, Savage thought himself at liberty to take revenge upon his mother. He accordingly wrote "The Bastard," one of his most vigorous efforts, to which the subject gave great temporary popularity. This poem made its appearance at the time when his mother happened to be at Bath, and many persons, indignant at her conduct, took frequent opportunities of repeating passages from it in her hearing. This was, probably, the first time that ever she discovered a sense of shame, and on this occasion the power of wit was very conspicuous: "The wretch," says Savage's biographer, "who had, without scruple, proclaimed herself an adulteress, and who had first endeavoured to starve her son, then to transport him, and afterwards to hang him, was not able to bear the representation of her own conduct, but fled from reproach, though she felt no pain from guilt, and left Bath in the utmost haste, to shelter herself among the crowds of London." Some time after this Savage formed the resolution of applying to the queen, who, having once given him his life, he hoped might extend her goodness to him by enabling him to support it. With this view he published a poem for her birth-day, which he entitled "The Volunteer Laureat," for which she sent him 50*l.*, with an intimation that he might expect a like sum annually. It was, however, too small an allowance for a man of his strange and singular extravagance. His usual custom was, as soon as he had received his pension, to disappear with it, and secrete himself from his most intimate friends till every shilling was spent, which being done he again appeared as pennyless as before. But he would never inform any person where he had been, or in what manner his money had been dissipated. From the reports, however, of some, who found means to penetrate his haunts, it should seem that he expended both his time and his cash in the most sordid sensuality; particularly in eating and drinking, in which he would indulge in the most unsocial manner, sitting whole days and nights by himself, in obscure public houses, immersed in filth and sloth, without decent apparel.

It was at this period that he contracted an intimacy with the afterwards celebrated Dr. Samuel Johnson, then come to London as a literary adventurer, who seems to have been captivated by a politeness of manner and elegance of conversation in Savage, which atoned for his many moral defects. He frequently accompanied him in his nocturnal rambles, and made him a subject of close observation, whence he derived materials for that life of Savage, which is certainly among his most admired performances.

After the death of the queen, Savage's distresses became so

so urgent, that a subscription was raised to enable him to live in retirement in Wales. It was understood that he was now to quit, for ever, his town-haunts, and resign all farther pretensions to fame. This offer, made with those conditions, he seemed gladly to accept; but his intentions were only to delude his friends, by retiring for a time to write another tragedy, and return with it to London to bring it on the stage.

Savage, after some time spent in Bristol, where he so much ingratiated himself with the principal inhabitants as to be treated by them with the greatest attention, arrived at Swansea. Here he spent about a year, employed in writing another tragedy on the story of Sir Thomas Overbury. From his great haughtiness and insolence of behaviour many of the subscribers to his support had withdrawn their subscriptions, and he resolved to return to the metropolis, and push again for fame. He left Wales, arrived once more at Bristol, where, at first, he was received with as much kindness as he had experienced before, but his irregularities and importunities at length tired out his admirers: he was no longer invited to their houses; and having contracted considerable debts he was thrown into prison. Here he found a friend in the keeper of the gaol, who softened the rigours of confinement by every indulgence in his power. He supported him at his own table, gave him a commodious room to himself, allowed him not only to stand at the door, but frequently took him on little excursions into the surrounding country; so that in reality Savage endured fewer hardships in this place than he had usually suffered during the greater part of his life. While, however, he was in this place, he forgot all the kindness that he had experienced in that city, and employed his time in writing a bitter satire, entitled "London and Bristol delineated," in which he abused the inhabitants of the latter in such strains, as would lead a person to suppose he had received from them no other than the most injurious treatment.

When Savage had remained about six months in confinement, he received a letter from Mr. Pope, who still continued to allow him 20*l.* a-year, containing a charge of very atrocious ingratitude. He solemnly protested his innocence, but he was very unusually affected on the occasion, and in a few days was seized, with a nervous fever, under which he sunk, at the age of forty-six.

Such was the life and such the death of Richard Savage, whose hard fate deserves compassion, though there is but little belonging to him either amiable or respectable. He was, however, generous to fellow-sufferers when he had any thing to give; and his equanimity under distress might extort some praise, had it not ever been attended with a total want of moral feelings. As a poet, his works may be considered as of an inferior cast; they long lay dispersed in magazines and fugitive publications, but were afterwards admitted into Dr. Johnson's collections, in order perhaps to introduce his fine life of the author. They have been since published in a separate form, in two volumes, to which is prefixed that life; the writer of which, says Dr. Aikin, in the General Biography, would, it is presumed, "have given a different estimate of the moral and literary merits of his subject had he judged of them at a later period, and without the partiality of an acquaintance."

SAVAGE CREEK, a small bay on the north-west coast of Newfoundland, near the western entrance of the bay of Mouco, and 20 leagues north-east of Cape Ferrol.

SAVAGE ISLAND, an island in the South Pacific Ocean, about 33 miles in circumference, discovered by Captain Cook, in the year 1774. The name was given on account of the behaviour of the inhabitants, which was rude and inhospitable. Captain Cook says, the island is of a round form, and good height; and hath deep waters close to its shores. All the sea-coast, and as far inland as he could see, was wholly covered with trees, shrubs, &c., among which were some cocoa-nut trees; but what the interior parts may produce is yet unknown. The inhabitants are not numerous. They seemed to be stout, well made men, were naked, except round the waists, and some of them had their faces, breasts, and thighs, painted black. The natives of this and of other islands in those seas, fish with lights by night, called tomais, made from the bark of the cocoa-nut tree. This bark, which every year grows up with the young stem as it rises from the old stock, separates from the new stem as it increases, like the husk from the fruit. These bark leaves, as they have been called, are of an aromatic unctuous nature, and rising from the tree to the length of two or three feet, serve very well, when bound together, to supply the place of a torch; and on that account are carried to sea at night, as they prove an excellent decoy to attract the fish, which are then easily caught in a small net. Lat. 19. 1. S. long. 169. 37. W.

SAVAGE ISLAND, Great, in Hudson's Straits. Lat. 62. 25. N. long. 70. W. High water, at full and change, at ten o'clock.

SAVAGE ISLAND, Lower, in the same straits, has high water at full and change at nine o'clock. Lat. 61. 48. N. long. 66. 20. W.

SAVAGE MOUNTAINS, mountains of North America, in Pennsylvania; 110 miles north-west of Philadelphia.

SAVAGE POINT, Upper, on the north side of Hudson's Straits, south-east of Cape Charles, and the north-west point of an inland up into the land, so as to form the island of Good Fortune.

SAVAGE RIVER, a river of the United States, in Maryland, which runs into the Potomac. Lat. 39. 30. N. long. 79. 8. W.

SAVAGELY, *adv.* In a savage or barbarous manner.

SAVA'GENESS, *s.* Barbarousness; cruelty; wildness.

SAVA'GERY, *s.* Cruelty; barbarity.

This is the bloodiest shame,
The wildest *savagery*, the vilest stroke
That ever wall-eyed wrath or staring rage
Presented to the tears of soft remorse. *Shakspeare.*

Wild growth.

Her fallow lees
The darnel, hemlock, and rank fumitory,
Doth root upon; while that the coulter rusts
That should deracinate such *savagery*. *Shakspeare.*

SAVALO, a settlement of South America, in the province of Darien, on the shore of a small river, near the coast of the Pacific Ocean.

SAVAMEC, a town of Korassan, in Persia; 30 miles west of Zauzan.

SAVAN LAKE, a lake of North America. Lat. 50. 30. N. long. 90. 15. W.

SAVANAS, a river of Darien, which runs into the bay of Panama.

SAVANILLA, a river of Quito, in the province of Quixos and Macas, which runs south, and unites itself with the Bombasicaro, to enter Zamora by the north part, in Lat. 4. 3. S.

SAV'ANNA, *s.* [Spanish, according to Bailey.] An open meadow without wood; pasture ground in America.

Plains immense,
And vast *savanna's* where the wand'ring eye
Unfixt, is in a verdant ocean lost. *Thomson.*

SAVANNAH, a bay at the east end of the island of Antigua, near the south-east part of Green Island, on the south side, a little westward of Indian Creek.

SAVANNAH, a river of the United States, which is formed by the union of the Tugeloo and Keowee. It separates South Carolina from Georgia, and runs south-east into the Atlantic. It is navigable for large vessels to the town of Savannah, 17 miles, and for boats of 100 feet keel to Augusta, which, by the course of the river, is 340 miles above Savannah. Just above Augusta there are falls: beyond these the river is navigable for boats to the junction of the Tugeloo and Keowee. This river is liable to the most destructive inundations, during which it rises to the perpendicular height of from thirty to forty feet above its usual level. In 1700,

1700, a most destructive flood occurred, and in 1796, a similar flood poured down the Savannah river, which inundated the town of Augusta to the depth of two feet. It tore away an extensive bridge 800 feet long, and carried destruction and dismay before it, quite to the town of Savannah. The height of the inundation was supposed to be from thirty-five to forty feet, at Augusta, above its common level. In proceeding up the Savannah river, the views on each side are eminently beautiful. The river is divided into numerous meandering channels, by small islands which intersect and divide it. On its banks are many rice swamps and cotton plantations. It abounds with alligators of various sizes.

SAVANNAH, a city and port of entry of the United States, in Chatham county, Georgia, on the south-west bank of the Savannah, 17 miles from its mouth. It is situated on a sandy plain, elevated about forty feet above low tide, and contains a court-house, a jail, an alms-house, a hospital, a theatre, a public library, an academy, an exchange, three banks, including a branch of the United States bank, and seven houses of public worship; one for Presbyterians, one for Episcopalians, one for Lutherans, one for Methodists, one for Baptists, one for Roman Catholics, and a Jewish synagogue. The academy is built of brick and stone, 180 feet by 60, of three stories. The exchange is a brick edifice of five stories. The new Presbyterian church, recently erected, is a very spacious and elegant edifice of stone. The city a few years since was almost wholly built of wood, with very few elegant houses, but a large proportion of the houses recently erected are handsomely built of brick. Savannah has heretofore been accounted very unhealthy during the summer and autumn, but the salubrity of the place is now much improved by appropriating to a dry culture, those lands in its immediate vicinity, which were formerly appropriated to the culture of rice.

The city is regularly laid out, and contains ten public squares, each consisting of two acres, with a pump in the centre. The squares and public walks are planted with china trees, which contribute much to the ornament, comfort, and salubrity of the place. Savannah is the great emporium of the state, and is a place of much trade. In six months, ending the 31st of March, 1818, there were exported from it 61,797 bales of cotton, 13,680 tierces of rice, and 1500 hogsheads of tobacco. The shipping owned here, in 1816, amounted to 12,776, tons. Vessels drawing 14 feet of water come up to the wharfs; larger vessels take in their cargoes at Five Fathom Hole, 3 miles below the town. On the east side of the city is Fort Wayne; at Five Fathom Hole is Fort Jackson; and on Tybee island, near the mouth of the river, there is a light-house; 118 miles south-west of Charlestown, and 123 south-east of Augusta. Lat. 32. 8. N. long. 81. 10. W.

SAVANNAH CHANNEL, towards the south-east point of the south side of Jamaica, a short way west of Port Morant harbour. Between them is Fisherman's River.

SAVANNAH KEY, a small island in the bay of Honduras, near the coast. Lat. 15. 58. N. long. 89. 50. W.

SAVANNAH LA MER, a town on the south side of the island of Jamaica, in Cornwallis county, which has a good anchorage for large vessels. It was almost entirely destroyed by a dreadful hurricane and inundation of the sea, in 1780. It is now partly rebuilt, and may contain from 60 to 70 houses. It bears from Blufield's Point west-by-north-half-north about 3 leagues. Lat. 18. 12. N. long. 78. 6. W.

SAVANNAH LA MER, a town at the east end of the island of St. Domingo, on the south side of the bay of Samana, opposite the city of Samana on the north side, and situated between the bay of Pearls and the point of league. The city of Samana and this town were both begun in 1756, and together do not contain more than 500 inhabitants. The anchorage here is only fit for small vessels. Shallows and breakers render the navigation very dangerous between this and the point of Icaque; 4½ leagues distant.

SAVANNAH, New, a township of the United States, in Burke county, Georgia, on the Savannah.

SAVANNAH, Point, a cape on the west coast of Dominica. Lat. 15. 33. N. long. 61. 29. W.

SAVANNAH RIVER, Little, a river of Florida, which runs into the gulf of Mexico, north-west of St. Joseph's bay.

SAVARON (John), a learned and patriotic magistrate of the 16th and 17th centuries, was descended from a good family at Clermont, in Auvergne, and he became president of the seneschalcy and presidial court, and afterwards was made lieutenant-general. He was present in the States-General of 1614, as deputy from the tiers-états of the province of Auvergne, and defended the rights of his order with great eloquence and firmness. In a conference with the order of nobility, he gave so much offence to that body by the freedom of his harangues, that it was judged necessary to assign him a guard for his safety. He afterwards supported, with great ability, the honorary privileges of the magistrates of his presidency, against the chapter of Clermont, in a pleading before the Parliament of Paris. He died, at a very advanced age, in 1622. He was author of a number of works, of which the principal are, "Sidonii Apollinaris Opera" with notes and commentaries; "Origine de Clermont;" "Traité contre les Duels;" "Traité de la Souveraintê du Roi et de son Royaume." In this, and in a subsequent treatise on the same subject, Savaron maintained the independence of the crown of France on all other power, and shews the unlawfulness of dispensing its subjects from their oaths of allegiance. Savaron was likewise author of a work entitled "Chronologie des Etats-généraux," intended to prove that the tiers-états always made a constituent part of the States-General.

SAVARY (James), a commercial writer, was a native of Doue, in Anjou, but removing to Paris, he acquired there a considerable fortune by trade, and in 1658 he procured the place of one of the royal secretaries. His great reputation for commercial knowledge caused him to be frequently employed in arbitrations, and in the year 1670 he was engaged in compiling the "Code Marchand," which appeared in the following year. He published, in 1675, a work, entitled "Le Parfait Négociant," of which there appeared eight editions, besides translations into modern languages. The last edition into two vols. 4to. contains his "Avis et Conseils sur les plus importantes Matières de Commerce." This estimable author died in 1693.

SAVARY DES BRULONS (James), son of the preceding, was appointed by the minister Louvois, inspector-general of the customs of Paris. In this situation he began to make a collection of all the words which have any relation to trade and manufactures, with their proper meanings and derivations, and to these he afterwards added all the commercial ordinances and regulations in France and other countries. This at length became the basis of a dictionary of commerce, in which he was many years engaged, in conjunction with his brother Philemon Louis, a priest and canon at Paris. He died in 1716, before the work was finished, but it was published under the inspection of his brother, with the title of "Dictionnaire Universel de Commerce," in two volumes fol., 1723. A supplemental volume was published in 1730, and a new edition of the whole was given in 1748, in three vols. folio. Postlethwayte's English Dictionary of Trade and Commerce is a translation, with considerable additions and improvements.

SAVARY, an eminent French traveller and writer, was born at Vitre, in Britanny, about the year 1748. He received his education at Rennes, and in 1776 he travelled into Egypt, where he resided almost three years, employing himself in the study of the Arabic language, and in studying the antiquities and manners of people. He then spent 18 months in a tour among the islands of the Archipelago, and returned to France at the close of the year 1780. On his return to France he published 1. "A Translation of the Koran, with a short life of Mahomet," in two vols. 8vo. From his version, which is reckoned faithful and elegant, he extracted a "Recueil de plus pure Maximes du Coran." 2. His next considerable work was entitled "Lettres sur l'Egypte," in three

three vols. 8vo. 1785, which was read with great avidity in translations, as well as in the original. It contains an abundance of curious particulars relative to the ancient and modern state of the country. Encouraged by this flattering reception, he prepared his "Lettres sur la Grèce," which, however, were not published till after his death, that occurred in Feb. 1788.

M. Savary was a lively and pleasant man; he had a well-cultivated understanding; his heart was warm and benevolent; his imagination was vigorous; his memory retentive. He was cheerful and open, and in company exceedingly agreeable and instructive. He did not mingle much with the world, but was satisfied with performing well the duties of a son, a brother, and a friend.

SAVARY'S ISLAND, an island in the gulf of Georgia, so named by Captain Vancouver, about two leagues long from east to west, and half a league wide. On the south side are numberless sunken rocks, nearly half a league from the shore, which Captain Vancouver thinks are only visible at low water. The north-east point of the island is situated in Lat. 49. 57. N. long. 235. 54. E.

SAUCE, *s.* [*salsa*, Ital.] Something eaten with food to improve the taste.

Epicurean cooks
Sharpen with cloyless *sauce* his appetite. *Shakspeare.*

To serve one the same *sauce*. *A vulgar phrase.*—To retaliate one injury with another.

To SAUCE, *v. a.* To accompany meat with something of higher relish.—To gratify with rich tastes. *Obsolete.*

Earth yield me roots
Who seeks for better of thee, *sauce* his palate
With thy most operant poison. *Shakspeare.*

To intermix or accompany with any good thing; or, ironically, with any thing bad.

Thou say'st his mouth was *sauc'd* with thy upbraidings;
Unquick meals make ill digestions. *Shakspeare.*

SAUCE, a small river of the province of Buenos Ayres, which runs south, and enters the river Plata.

SAUCE, another small river of the same province and government, which runs west, and enters the Uruguay.

SA'UCEBOX, *s.* An impertinent or petulant fellow.—The foolish old poet says, that the souls of some women are made of sea-water. This has encouraged my *saucebox* to be witty upon me. *Addison.*

SAUCEDA, a town of Mexico, in the province of New Biscay, on a river of the same name; 100 miles north-north-west of Durango. Lat. 25. 20. N. long. 105. 44. W.

SAUCEDA, a river of Mexico, which rises about 20 miles south-east of Tinapa, in New Biscay, and joins the Nacas, to form the Palmas.

SA'UCEPAN, *s.* A small skillet with a long handle, in which sauce or small things are boiled.—Your master will not allow you a silver *saucepan*. *Swift.*

SA'UCER, *s.* [*saucière*, Fr.] A small pan or plattin in which sauce is set on the table.

Some have mistaken blocks and posts
For spectres, apparitions, ghosts,
With *saucer* eyes and horns. *Hudibras.*

A piece or platter of china, into which a tea-cup is set.

SAUCER is also a circular thin plate of iron or brass, with a hole in the middle, two of which, with a leather between, constitute the valves of the chain-pump. Also, a thick circular plate of iron fixed in the capstern step for the spindle to turn on.

SAUCES, a river of South America, in Paraguay, which washes the territory of the Pampas. It receives in the south part of its course, the waters of several rivers flowing down from the east side of the Chilian cordillera, and after running 126 leagues to the south, it turns east, and disembogues itself in the sea of Magellan, forming a great bay in Lat. 40. 42 S.

SAUCES, a river of Chili, in the island of La Laxa, which runs west, and turning its course to the north, enters the Recoiquen.

SAUCETHORPE, a village of England, in Lincolnshire, near Spilsby.

SAU'CILY, *adv.* Impudently; impertinently; petulantly; in a saucy manner.—Though this knave came somewhat *saucily* into the world before he was sent for, yet was his mother fair. *Shakspeare.*

SAU'CINESS, *s.* Impudence; petulance; impertinence; contempt of superiors.

Being intercepted in your speech,
Great reason that my noble lord be rated for *sauciness*.
Shakspeare.

SAU'CISSE, *s.* [French.] In Gunnery, a long train of powder sewed up in a roll of pitched cloth, about two inches diameter, in order to fire a mine. See SAUSAGE.

SAU'CISSON, *s.* [French.] In Military Architecture, faggots or fascines made of large boughs of trees bound together. They are commonly used to cover men to make epaulments, traverses, or breast-works in ditches full of water, to render the way firm for carriages.

SAUCON, LOWER, a township of the United States, in Northampton county, Pennsylvania. Population 1974.

SAUCON, UPPER, a township of the United States, in Northampton county, Pennsylvania. Population 1456.

SAUCONA CREEK, a river of the United States, in Pennsylvania, which runs into the Schuylkill. Lat. 40. 26. N. long. 75. 58. W.

SAUCY, *adj.* [from *salsus*, Lat.] Pert, petulant, contemptuous of superiors; insolent.—You are more *saucy* with lords than the heraldry of your birth and virtue gives you commission. *Shakspeare.*

And if thou hast the mettle of a king,
Being wrong'd as we are by this peevish town,
Turn thou the mouth of thy artillery,
As we will ours, against these *saucy* walls. *Shakspeare.*

SAUDRE, the name of two rivers of France, in the west part of the kingdom. The Lesser Saudre falls into the Greater, near Aubigny; and the latter falls into the Cher, near Romorantin.

To SAVE, *v. a.* [*salvo*, Lat.] To preserve from danger or destruction.

A wondrous ark,
To *save* himself and household from amidst
A world devote to universal wreck. *Milton.*

To preserve finally from eternal death.—His merits *save* them.—Not to spend; to hinder from being spent.

With your cost you terminate the cause,
And *save* th' expense of long litigious laws,
Where suits are travers'd, and so little won,
That he who conquers is but last undone. *Dryden*

To reserve or lay by.—He shall not feel quietness; he shall not *save* of that which he desired. *Job.*—To spare; to excuse.—Will you not speak to *save* a lady's blush? *Dryden.*—To salve; to reconcile.

How build, unbuild, contrive
To *save* appearances; how gird the sphere
With centric and eccentric. *Milton.*

To take or embrace opportunely, so as not to lose.—The same persons who were chief confidents of Cromwell, foreseeing a restoration, seized the castles in Ireland, just *saving* the tide, and putting in a stock of merit sufficient. *Swift.*

To SAVE, *v. n.* To be cheap.—Brass ordnance *saveth* in the quantity of the material, and in the charge of mounting and carriage. *Bacon.*

SAVE, *adv.* [This word, adverbially used, is, like *except*, originally the imperative of the verb.] Except; not including.

How have I then with whom to hold converse
Save with the creatures which I made. *Milton.*

SAVE,

SAVE, a large river of the Austrian empire, which rises in Illyria, about six miles to the south of Villach, flows, through a part of Styria and Croatia, and after leaving the latter, separates Sclavonia from Turkey, till it joins the Danube, between Semlin and Belgrade. Its course is at first extremely winding; and it frequently overflows its banks, producing great devastations. It is, however, of great importance for the trade of all the countries through which it passes, and is the common medium by which the corn and tobacco of the Bannat and the neighbouring provinces are transported.

SAVE'ALL, *s.* A small pan inserted into a candlestick to save the ends of candles.

SAVEIGNIES, a large village in the north of France, department of the Oise, well known for its manufactures of flasks, retorts, crucibles, and other chemical apparatus; also for its pottery ware; 6 miles north-west of Beauvais.

SAUEL, in Ichthyology, a name given by the Portuguese to a kind of fish, very frequent on the coast of China, which by the natives is called *xiyu*. In the months of April and May vast numbers of them are taken in the river Kiang, near Nanking; during which time one of the most honourable of the emperor's eunuchs takes care to have several ships filled with these fish; which are buried in ice, and in this manner preserved for the summer's provision of the emperor. The ships made use of to carry these fish to the emperor's court at Pekin, are of the neatest kind, and richly ardorned; and all other vessels are obliged to make way for them.

SAVELLI, a town in the south of the kingdom of Naples, in the province of Calabria Citra, containing 2100 inhabitants.

SAVENA, a small river of Italy, which rises in the Appennines, passes by Bologna, and falls into the Po d'Argento.

SAVENAY, a small town in the west of France, in Britanny, the capital of an arrondissement, in the department of the Loire Inferieure. Population 1900; 18 miles north-west of Nantes. Lat. 47. 22. N. long. 1. 47. W.

SAVENDROOG, a celebrated fortress of the south of India, province of Mysore. It is situated on the summit of an immense rock, rising half a mile in perpendicular height, and surrounded by a thick wood, which renders the place very unhealthy. It was considered by the natives as impregnable; but was taken by storm without the loss of a man, by the British, in 1791. It was used by Hyder Aly and Tippoo Sultan as a state prison, and generally terminated the existence of the captives. It now belongs to the rajah. Lat. 12. 56. N. long. 77. 29. E.

SAVENIERES, a small town in the west of France, in the department of the Maine and Loire, with 2500 inhabitants. It stands on the Loire; 4 miles above the confluence of the Mayenne, and 9 miles south-south-west of Angers.

SAVENORE. See SHAHNOOR.

SAV'ER, *s.* Preserver; rescuer.—They were manifoldly acknowledged the *savers* of that country. *Sidney.*—One who escapes loss, though without gain.

Laws of arms permit each injured man
To make himself a *saver* where he can. *Dryden.*

A good husband. One who lays up and grows rich.—By nature far from profusion, and yet a greater sparer than a *saver;* for though he had such means to accumulate, yet his garrisons and his feastings soaked his exchequer. *Wotton.*

SAVER-DE-FAULT, in Law, signifies to excuse a fault; as when a man, having made default in court, comes afterwards, and alleges good cause why he did it: as imprisonment at the time, or the like.

SAVERDUN, a small town in the south of France, in the department of the Arriege, situated on the river of that name. It is divided into the Upper and Lower town; has two small suburbs, a castle, and 3000 inhabitants. It was the birthplace of pope Benedict XII.; 18 miles north of Foix.

SAVERIO DI BELLA ISLA, ST., a town of Chili, in the province of Maule. It was founded in the year 1755. Lat. 35. 4. S. long. 304. 59. E.

SAVERNE, a well-built town in the north-east of France, in Alsace, department of the Lower Rhine. It is situated on the river Sarre, and has a castle, formerly the residence of the bishops of Strasburg, to whom the town belonged. Saverne contains 4000 inhabitants, who carry on a considerable trade across the Vosges mountains, in very miscellaneous articles, viz., woollens, leather, hardware, pottery, and tobacco, almost all manufactured in the town. The surrounding country, though mountainous, is highly agreeable and productive in wine. The town contains a college and hospital; 22 miles west-north-west of Strasburg. Lat. 48. 44. 20. N. long. 7. 36. E.

SAVERY (Roland), born at Courtray, about the year 1576. His father first instructed him in the art of painting, in which, in the end, he acquired much more celebrity than his instructor. His style of execution is neat, even to minuteness, like that of Paul Brill and of Breughel. He went into France in the reign of Henry IV., for whose royal apartments he painted many pictures. The fame he acquired caused him to be invited to the court of the emperor Rodolphus II., and there he passed a considerable part of his life, travelling occasionally, under that monarch's protection, through the grand and mountainous district of the Tyrolese. There he made a great number of drawings, from which he enriched his future compositions with romantic scenery and figures. He continued to reside at Prague till the death of the emperor, when he settled at Utrecht, and died there in 1639, in the 63d year of his age.

SAUGATUCK, a post village of the United States, in Fairfield county, Connecticut, on the Saugatuck.

SAUGATUCK. See SAGATUK.

SAUGERTIES, a township of the United States, in Ulster county, New York, on the west bank of the Hudson; 52 miles south of Albany. Population 2194.

SAUGHE, a river of Wales, in Caernarvonshire, which runs into the Irish sea, south of Tremor point.

SAUGHHALL, GREAT, LITTLE, and MASSEY, three villages of England, in Cheshire, near the city of Chester.

SAUGUES, a small town in the east of France, department of the Upper Loire, on the Suejoles. Population 3500; 15 miles west of Le Puy, and 18 south-east of St. Flour.

SAUGUS, a township of the United States, in Essex county, Massachusetts; 8 miles south-west of Salem.

SAVIANGO, a large river of Quito, in the province of Loxa, which runs west, till it enters by the north part into the Macara, in Lat. 4. 25. S.

SAVIGLIANO, a town of the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont, situated in a beautiful and fertile plain, on the river Maira. It is fortified and well built, contains a large market-place, several handsome buildings, and four small suburbs. It has, on a small scale, manufactures of woollens, silk, and linen. In 1799, the French were here repulsed by the Austrians; 14 miles north of Coni, and 25 south of Turin.

SAVIGNAC LES EGLISES, a small town in the south-west of France, in the department of the Dordogne, on the Isle. Population 1000; 11 miles south-south-east of Perigueux.

SAVIGNANO, a town in the east of Italy, in the Ecclesiastical states, province of Romagna. Population 5000; 8 miles north-west of Rimini, and 23 south-by-east of Ravenna.

SAVIGNANO, a small town in the central part of the kingdom of Naples, in the Principato Ultra, containing 1800 inhabitants; 20 miles north of Conza.

SAVIGNE, a small town in the central part of France, in the department of the Indre, with 1100 inhabitants; 18 miles west of Tours.

SAVIGNE L'EVEQUE, a small town in the north-west of France, department of the Sarthe, with 2300 inhabitants, employed for the most part in weaving and bleaching linen; 9 miles north-east of Le Mans.

SAVIGNONE, a village of the continental Sardinian states, in Piedmont, district of Novi.

SAVIGNY, a small town of France, in Burgundy, department of the Côte d'Or, near the river Bouzeoise. The neighbourhood

neighbourhood is noted for its excellent wine; 21 miles south-west of Dijon.

SAVIGNY, a small town in the north-west of France, department of La Manche, with 1200 inhabitants; 6 miles east of Coutances.

SAVIGNY, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Rhone; 3 miles south-west of Arbrele.

SAVIGNY SUR BRAY, a large village near the central part of France, department of the Loire and Cher; 14 miles north-by-west of Vendome. Population 2600.

SAVIGNY SUR SEILLE, a small town in the east of France, in Burgundy noted for its wine; 25 miles north-by-east of Macon.

SAVILLA, St., a town of the state of Georgia; 64 miles south of Savannah.

SAVILLE (Henry), an eminent scholar, was born of a good family, at Over-Bradley, near Halifax, in 1549. He was admitted of Merton College, Oxford, where he distinguished himself for his classical and mathematical knowledge. He was elected a fellow of his college, and in 1570 took his degree of M. A., after which he read a mathematical lecture in the university. He served as proctor for two years, and then made a tour to the continent, in which he acquired several foreign languages, and improved himself in his knowledge of the world. Upon his return, he was appointed preceptor in the Greek language to queen Elizabeth. In 1581 he published a translation of the first four books of Tacitus, with the life of Agricola, accompanied with notes, which were afterwards translated into the Latin language by Gruter, and published at Amsterdam. He was elected warden of Merton College in 1585, which office he held for thirty-six years. In 1596 he enriched the literature of his country by publishing a collection of the best of its ancient historians and chroniclers, to which he subjoined chronological tables of the kings and bishops of England from the time of Julius Cæsar to William I. In the course of this same year he was nominated, by favour of the queen, provost of Eton College. It was during the reign of king James that he received the honour of knighthood. About this period he lost his only son, and having now no hopes of raising his family, he devoted his time and fortune from henceforward to the encouragement of literature. He set up a Greek press at Eton, from which, at the expense of 8000*l.* and after the labour of several years, he sent forth an edition of all the works of Chrysostom, in 8 vols. folio, which is still esteemed as one of the most elegant and correct Greek books that has come from the English press. He also printed an edition of Xenophon's Cyropædia, and other works. He was a great benefactor to the university of Oxford, and in 1619 founded two professorships, one of geometry, and the other of astronomy, and endowed each with a salary of 180*l.* per annum; and he gave at his death a legacy of 600*l.* to purchase more lands for the same use. He also furnished a library with mathematical books for the use of his professors, and gave 100*l.* to the mathematical chest of his own appointment. He gave 120*l.* towards new-building the schools, besides several rare manuscripts and printed books to the Bodleian library, and a good quantity of Greek types to the printing-press at Oxford. After a life thus nobly spent in the encouragement of literature and science, he died at Eton College, on the 19th of February, 1622, and was buried in the chapel there. Upon this occasion, the university of Oxford, paid him the greatest honours, by having a public speech and verses made in his praise, which were published under the title of "Ultima Linea Savilii." The highest encomiums were bestowed on Saville by all the learned of his time; by Casaubon, Mercerus, Meibomius, Joseph Scaliger, and especially by the learned bishop Montague, who styles him "that magazine of learning, whose memory shall be honourable among not only the learned, but the righteous, for ever."

SAVILLE (Sir George), afterwards marquis of Halifax, and one of the most considerable statesmen of his time, was born about the year 1630, and some time after his return from his travels he was created a peer, in consideration of his own and his father's merits. At the close of the reign of Charles II. he strenuously opposed the bill of exclusion; but proposed such limitations of the duke of York's authority, as should effectually prevent him doing any harm. In 1682 he was created a marquis, and soon after he was made privy seal; but upon his refusal to consent to the repeal of the test, he was dismissed from all public employments. In that assembly of the lords which met after king James's accession, he was made president, and upon the king's return from Feversham, he was sent, together with the earl of Shrewsbury and lord Delamere, from the prince of Orange, to desire his majesty to quit the palace at Whitehall. In the convention parliament he was chosen speaker of the house of lords, and strenuously supported the motion for the vacancy of the throne, and the conjunctive sovereignty of the prince and princess, upon whose accession he was again made privy seal. In 1689 he quitted the court, and became a steadfast opposer of the measures of government till his death, which happened in April, 1695. Grainger speaks of him as "a person of unsettled principles, and a lively imagination, which sometimes got the better of his judgment. He was deservedly celebrated for his parliamentary talents; and, in the famous contest relating to the bill of exclusion, was thought to be a match for his uncle Shaftesbury. The pieces he has left us shew him to have been an ingenious, if not a masterly writer; and his 'Advice to a Daughter' contains more good sense in fewer words, than is, perhaps, to be found in any of his contemporary authors." His other principal works are, "The Anatomy of an Equivalent;" "A Letter to a Dissenter" "A rough Draught of a new Model at Sea," and "Maxims of State." These have all been printed in one volume octavo. Under his name have also appeared the character of king Charles II., the character of bishop Burnet, and historical observations upon the reigns of Edward I. II. III. and Richard II., with remarks upon their faithful counsellors and false favourites.

SAVILLE (Sir George), a public-spirited and truly patriotic English baronet and senator, was descended from the Savilles, marquisses of Halifax. He distinguished himself by his opposition to the American war, a contest which was but the beginning of those miseries in which this country has so long been involved. He brought into parliament a bill to repeal the penal statutes against the Roman Catholics, for which his person was insulted, and his house destroyed by an abandoned rabble, during the infamous riots of June, 1780. He was a most zealous friend to parliamentary reform, and encouraged the efforts of the late Mr. Pitt on that subject, who, as well as himself, thought the salvation of the country depended upon it. He was also one of the committee appointed by different counties in England to obtain this desirable measure; and it appears from his answer to an address of thanks presented to him in January, 1780, that he had some small hopes of success: I most heartily wish," says he, "nay, I will venture to entertain some hope, that the voice of a complaining people will be attended to; and that every beneficial consequence may ensue which the most sanguine can promise themselves from an application so constitutionally and temperately made." But at the dissolution of parliament in the following autumn, he speaks in a very desponding tone: after giving an account of his conduct in parliament to his constituents, the freeholders of York, and of the miserable state of the country, he says, in offering himself a candidate for their suffrages, "I return to you, therefore, baffled and dispirited, and I am sorry that truth obliges me to add, with hardly a ray of hope of seeing any change in the miserable course of public calamities." He was re-elected, and continued to exert himself in the great cause of his country, till May, 1783, when, though extremely ill, he attended in the house to support a motion made by Mr. Pitt for parliamentary reform, and zealously entered into the debate, to which it appears his strength was unequal, and he very soon desired leave to vacate his seat, being incompetent to perform his duties.

SAV'IN, *s.* [*sabina*, Lat.] A tree.—It hath compact, rigid, and prickly ever-green leaves: the fruit is small, spherical,

spherical, and warty; and the whole plant has a very rank, strong, smell. The species are three, and commonly cultivated for medicinal use. *Miller*. See JUNIPERUS.

SAVIN, ST., a small town in the west of France, department of La Vienne. Population 1000; 7 miles north of Monmorillon, and 21 east of Poitiers.

SAVIN, ST., a small town in the south-west of France, department of the Gironde; 18 miles north of Bourdeaux. Population 1900

SAVINE, INDIAN. See BAUHINIA.

SAVINE, a small river of Guiana, which enters the Orinoco.

SAVINES, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Upper Alps, containing 1000 inhabitants; 4 miles south-west of Embrun.

SAVING, *adj*. Frugal; parsimonious; not lavish.—She loved money, for she was *saving*, and applied her fortune to pay John's clamorous debts. *Arbuthnot*.—Not turning to loss though not gainful.—Silvio, finding his application unsuccessful, was resolved to make a *saving* bargain; and since he could not get the widow's estate, to recover what he had laid out of his own. *Addison*.

SAVING, *adv*. [This is nothing more than a participle of the verb *save*, adverbially used. *Todd*.] With exception in favour of.

All this world's glory seemeth vain,
And all their shows but shadows, *saving* she. *Spenser*.

SAVING, *s*. Escape of expense; somewhat preserved from being spent.—It is a great *saving* in all such lights, if they can be made as fair and right as others, and yet last longer. *Bacon*.—Exception in favour.—Contend not with those that are too strong for us, but still with a *saving* to honesty; for integrity must be supported against all violence. *L'Estrange*.

SAVINGLY, *adv*. With parsimony.

SAVINGNESS, *s*. Parsimony; frugality. Tendency to promote eternal salvation.

SAVINIEN, ST., a small town in the west of France, in Saintonge, situated on the Charente. Here is a pearl fishery, and some trade in wine and brandy; also in the sale of wood. Population 2900; 9 miles north of Saintes, and 7 south-west of St. Jean d'Angely.

SAVINTON, a post village of the United States, in Cecil county, Maryland.

SAUJON, a small town in the west of France, department of the Lower Charente, on the Seudre. It has some woollen manufactures. Population 1600; 14 miles south-by-west of Saintes.

SAVIOUR, *s*. [*sauveur*, Fr.] Redeemer; he that has saved mankind from eternal death.—So judged he man, both judge and *Saviour* sent. *Milton*.

SAUKIE, a river of North America, which falls into Lake Michigan from the west, between the river Chicago and the entrance of Green bay.

SAUKOGEL, a great mountain of the Austrian states, in the circle of Salzburg, 7300 feet in perpendicular height.

SAUKS, or SAUKIES, Indians in North America, principally residing in four villages; the first at the rapids of the Moines, the second 60 miles above, the third on Rocky river, 3 miles from its mouth, and the fourth on the Iowa. They raise great quantities of corn, beans, and melons. Number 2850.

SAUL, a parish of England, in Gloucester; 8 miles north-west of Stroud.

SAUL. See SOUL.

SAULGAU, a small town of the west of Germany, in Wirtemburg. Before the French revolution it belonged to the house of Austria. Population 1900; 5 miles south-west of Buchau.

SAULGE, ST., a small town in the central part of France, department of the Nievre. Population 1700; 16 miles east-north-east of Nevers.

SAULHEIM, UPPER and LOWER, two villages of Germany, in Hesse-Darmstadt, to the west of the Rhine. Population 1200.

SAULIEU, a small town in the east of France, in Burgundy, situated on an eminence, in a woody country. It is surrounded with a wall and ditch, and contains 2900 inhabitants. This place is very ancient, and an adjoining wood is said to have been appropriated to the sacrifices of Druids. The ruins of a temple dedicated to the sun, are still visible. Saulieu was the birth-place of the celebrated Vauban; 33 miles west of Dijon. Lat. 47. 16. N. long. 4. 17. E.

SAULT, a small town in the south-east of France, department of the Vaucluse, on the small river Nesque. Population 1600; 24 miles west-south-west of Sisteron.

SAULT, a small river of France, in Champagne. It falls into the Marne, near Vitry.

SAULT DE NAVAILLES, a small town in the south-west of France, department of the Lower Pyrenees, on the Luy de Bearne. Population 2300.

SAULT A LA PUCE, RIVIERE DU, a small river of Lower Canada, which flows from the north into the St. Lawrence, opposite the island of Orleans. It is a small stream, descending from the high lands in the rear of Chateau Richer. It winds through a mountainous and woody country, and is entitled to notice for two or three very romantic falls, where its stream is precipitated from the declivity of one ridge, to the level of another, and for the beautiful and truly sylvan scenery that decorates its banks, and, in the fall of the year particularly, presents a most extraordinary combination of various foliage.

SAULX, a small town in the east of France, in Burgundy, department of the Upper Saone. Population 1300; 9 miles south-west of Luxeuil.

SAUM, a liquid measure in Germany and Switzerland: 97 such measures hold about 67 English wine pints.

SAUMAISE (Claude). See SALMASIUS.

SAUMAISE, a small town of France, department of the Côte d'Or. It was the native place of a family of that name, from whom was descended the celebrated Claudius Saumaise, or Salmasius, the literary opponent of Milton; 18 miles north-west of Dijon.

SAUMUR, a considerable town in the central part of France, in Anjou, situated on the southern bank of the Loire. It stands in a delightful country, and though indifferently built, is on the whole a pleasant place, containing a population of nearly 10,000. It has two bridges over the Loire, the one from the northern bank to an island in the middle, and the other from the island to the southern bank. The former was much injured by the Vendeans in the revolutionary war; but the latter, consisting of twelve elliptical arches, each of full 60 feet span, remains entire, and is one of the finest structures of the kind in France. The principal street, built on a line with this bridge, traverses the greater part of the town, and contains the theatre and several other elegant buildings. The castle, situated on an eminence, which commands the town, is a very ancient building, flanked with towers. It is now used as a depôt for military stores. The new cavalry barracks are spacious and handsome. The town contains several squares, but part of it is not paved, and other parts are inconveniently steep. It has some interesting remains of Roman and Celtic antiquities, but its great attraction is the beauty of the surrounding scenery. At a short distance is Pont Fouchard, a bridge finished in 1816, and consisting of three large and capacious arches, over a river flowing parallel to the Loire. Saumur was formerly fortified, and has long been noted for Protestantism. In the time of Henry IV. the governor of this part of France was Duplessis Mornay, who founded here a Protestant academy, much resorted to during the 17th century, but dissolved by Louis XIV. in 1648. This, and the further effects of the revocation of the edict of Nantes, reduced materially the trade and population of the town: but it has still manufactures of linen, woollens, leather, and some trade in wine and brandy. Saumur was the birth-place of the celebrated Madame Dacier. The road to Tours is along the bank,

banks of the Loire, on the great mound called the Levee; 27 miles south-east of Angers, and 31 west-south-west of Tours.

SAUNDBY, a parish of England, in Nottinghamshire; 8 miles north-east of East Retford.

SAUNDERS (Charles), a dramatic writer in the reign of Charles II. While a king's scholar at Westminster he wrote a play, called "Tamerlane the Great," to which Dryden wrote a prologue.

SAUNDERS (Richard), who rose to be a judge from being a common beggar. By accident his genius and talents were discovered by a lawyer of Clement's-Inn, who took him into his employment, and made him, in a short time, his clerk. He afterwards studied for the bar, became an eminent barrister, and at length obtained the high office of chief justice of the court of king's bench. He died in the year 1683.

SAUNDERS, Cape, a cape on the north-east coast of the Island of Georgia. Lat. 54. 10. S. long. 36. 57. W.

SAUNDERS, Cape, a cape of New Zealand, on the south-coast of the island of Tavai-Poe-nammoo. Lat. 45. 35. S. long. 189. 4. W.

SAUNDERSON (Nicholas), a celebrated English professor of mathematics, was born in the year 1682, at Thurlston, near Penniston, in Yorkshire, where his father had a small estate, and a place in the excise. At the age of twelve months he lost his eye-sight, and even his eyes by the small-pox. At a very early age he afforded indications of considerable abilities, and was sent to the free-school of Penniston, and there laid the foundation of that knowledge in the Greek and Latin languages, which he afterwards so much improved as to hear with pleasure and delight the works of Euclid, Archimedes, and Diophantus, read in the originals. Having finished his school education, his father undertook to instruct him in the rules of arithmetic, and very soon discovered that he had an excellent mathematical genius. At the age of eighteen he was introduced to the acquaintance of Richard West, Esq., a considerable mathematician, who undertook to instruct him in the principles of algebra and geometry, and gave him every encouragement in his power to the prosecution of these studies. Soon after this he found a kind and zealous friend in Dr. Nettleton, and it was to these gentlemen that he owed his first instructions in the mathematical sciences, but he soon surpassed his masters, and became fitter to be teacher than pupil. He next went to an academy at Attercliff, near Sheffield, at which young men were educated for the ministry among Protestant dissenters; here he remained but a short time, preferring to pursue his studies in his own way, rather than submit to general plans laid down for a class. Hitherto he had been on his father's hands, who, on account of a numerous family, could ill-bear the expenses attendant upon his son's present pursuits; he began, therefore, to devise means of putting him into a method of supporting himself, and as his inclination led him to prefer Cambridge as a residence, it was determined he should try his fortune there. He accordingly went to the university in 1707, and took up his residence in Christ's College without being admitted a member of that house. The society, well pleased with so extraordinary a guest, allotted him a chamber, gave him the use of their library, and indulged him in every privilege which could prove of any advantage to him. He soon commenced the duties of lecturer, and obtained great celebrity by his performances. Sir Isaac Newton's Principia, Optics, and Universal Arithmetic, were the foundation of his lectures, and afforded him a noble field for the display of his genius. Numbers induced from motives of curiosity, and many, no doubt, for the sake of instruction, came to hear and admire a blind man give lectures on optics, discourse on the nature of light and colours, explain the theory of vision, the effects of glass in the refraction of the rays of light, the phenomena of the rainbow, and other objects of sight.

As he undertook to instruct the collegians in the principles of the Newtonian philosophy, he soon became acquainted with Sir Isaac himself, and corresponded with him on the most difficult parts of his works. At this time Mr. Whiston was the Lucasian mathematical professor in the university, but when he was ejected from his fellowship Mr. Saunderson's talents were known to be so much superior to that of any other competitor, that application was made to the queen for a mandamus to confer upon him the degree of A. M., which was granted, and he was chosen Mr. Whiston's successor, Sir Isaac Newton interesting himself greatly in his favour. Mr. Saunderson's first performance as professor was an inaugural speech, drawn up in very elegant Latin. From this time he applied himself closely to reading lectures, and the instruction of his pupils. He continued to reside at Christ's College till the year 1723, when he took a house at Cambridge, and very soon after married the daughter of a neighbouring clergyman, by whom he had a son and daughter. In the year 1728 king George II. visited the university, and professor Saunderson attending upon him in the senate, was, by the royal mandate, created doctor of laws. Dr. Saunderson was naturally of a strong constitution, but by confining himself too closely to his studies, he injured his health, and he died in April, in the year 1739. There is scarcely a branch of the mathematics in which he did not compose something for the use of his pupils. Previously to his death he prepared for the press his "Elements of Algebra," which were published the year following his decease, in two volumes quarto. He left behind him many other writings, but none in a state sufficiently prepared for publication. Among these were some comments on the Principia of Sir Isaac Newton, which were published in the Latin language at the end of his posthumous treatise on "Fluxions," which was published in 1756. Dr. Saunderson was a man of much wit and vivacity in conversation. He possessed a strict regard to truth, and was such an enemy to all sorts of disguise, that he thought it his duty to speak his thoughts, at all times, and on all occasions, with unrestrained freedom. Hence his sentiments on men and opinions were frequently expressed without reserve, which created him many enemies.

"A blind man," says one of his biographers, "moving in the sphere of a mathematician, seems a phenomenon difficult to be accounted for, and has excited the admiration of every age in which it has appeared. Tully mentions it as a thing scarcely credible in his own master in philosophy, Diodorus, that he exercised himself in it with more assiduity after he became blind; and, what he thought next to impossible to be done, that without sight, he taught geometry, describing his diagrams so exactly to his scholars, that they could draw every line in its proper direction. St. Jerome relates a still more remarkable instance in Didymus of Alexandria, who, blind from his infancy, was enabled to learn the sublimest parts of geometry. But if we consider that the ideas of extended quantity, which are the chief objects of mathematics, may as well be acquired by the sense of feeling as that of sight; that a fixed and steady attention is the principal qualification for his study, and that the blind are necessarily more abstracted than others, we shall find reason to conclude that there is no branch of science so much adapted to their circumstances."

At first Dr. Saunderson acquired most of his ideas by the sense of feeling, and this he enjoyed in great perfection, so much so, that he could in a set of Roman medals distinguish the genuine from the false, though they had been counterfeited with such exactness as to deceive a connoisseur who had examined them with a keen eye. Dr. Saunderson's ear was also equally exact. He could readily distinguish the fifth part of a note. By the quickness of this sense he could judge of the size of a room, and of his distance from the four sides of it.

SAUNDERS'S ISLAND, an island in the South Atlantic Ocean, so called after Sir Charles Saunders, by Captain Cook, who discovered it in the year 1775. It appeared to be about eight or ten leagues in circumference, shewing a surface

surface of considerable height, whose summit was lost in the clouds, and covered with ice or snow, except in a projecting point on the north side, and two hills over this point, which might probably be two islands. These only were clear of snow, and seemed covered with green turf. Lat. 57. 49. S. long. 26. 44. W.

SAUNDERTON, a parish of England, in Buckinghamshire; 6½ miles south-west of Wendover.

To SAUNTER, *v. n.* [*aller à la sainte terre*, from idle people who roved about the country and asked charity under pretence of going, *à la sainte terre*, to the holy land; or *sans terre*, as having no settled home.] To wander about idly; to loiter, to linger.—The cormorant is still *sauntering* by the sea-side to see if he can find any of his brass cast up. *L'Estrange.*

Tell me why, *sauntering* thus from place to place,
I meet thee? *Dryden.*

SAUNCING-BELL. See SANCEBELL.

SAVOCK, a small river of England, in Lancashire, which falls into the Ribble, near Lee; 3 miles below Preston.

SAVOLAX, a large district of Finland, bounded on the east and south by Russia proper, and on the west by the Finland province of Tavastland. After belonging for many centuries to Sweden, part of this province (containing Nyslot and other petty towns), was ceded to Russia at the peace of 1743, and the remainder in 1809, with the whole of Finland. It is extensive, being about 200 miles in length, and 100 in breadth; but it is very scantily peopled, producing little corn, and almost as little good pasturage, the face of the country being in a great measure covered with woods, lakes, and marshes. The woods abound with elk and rein-deer; the cottages are small; and the exports are limited to tallow, butter, dried fish, hides, and furs.

SAVONA, a maritime city in the north-west of Italy, in the Genoese territory. It is a well-built place, containing good churches and hospitals, but the streets are narrow, winding, and badly paved with brick. It had formerly two harbours, but one of these, spacious and secure, was filled up by the Genoese, to whom it was an object of jealousy: the other is small, and difficult of approach, from the accumulation of sand and mud near its mouth. Savona was at one time a place of great trade, and contained 25,000 inhabitants; but in 1648, an explosion of 1000 barrels of gunpowder, which had been deposited in the citadel, destroyed the half of the houses. Since then it has suffered both from pestilence and war, so that its population does not now exceed 10,600. The principal articles of trade are silk, wool, and fruit; and heavy iron ware, such as ships' anchors, are manufactured here. Savona was the birth-place of popes Sixtus IV. and Julius II. Columbus, if not a native, was for some time a resident in this place. In 1745, sixteen French and Spanish vessels, laden with military stores, and lying in the harbour, were sunk by the bombs of a British squadron. In 1746, the king of Sardinia took the town; and in 1810 and 1811, pope Pius VII. resided here some time during his dispute with Buonaparte; 20 miles west-south-west of Genoa, and 60 north-east of Nice. Lat. 44. 19. N. long. 8. 31. E.

SAVONAROLA (Jerome), a celebrated Italian monk, was born at Ferrara in 1452. He was grandson of an eminent physician, who had removed thither from Padua, and who with his father was solicitous to give him a good education. At the age of fourteen, being enthusiastically disposed, he repaired to Bologna, and put on the habit of a Dominican friar. Some years after this he mounted the pulpit at Florence, but with so little success, that he determined to enter upon a different course. The reputation which he had acquired for learning and talents caused him to be invited in 1489, by Lorenzo de Medici, to return to Florence, and at this period he became a most popular preacher. By pretensions to superior sanctity, and a fervid eloquence, he hurried away the feelings of his hearers, and gained a wonderful ascendancy over their minds. The success which he obtained encouraged him to assume the prophetic character, and to take for his topics the necessary reforms in the church, and the disasters impending Italy. While, however, he was regarded by the multitude as an inspired prophet, he was considered by many people as a mere enthusiast, and by others as a vile impostor. He now began not only to detach himself from his patron Lorenzo, but to decry his character, and predict his fall. Being made prior of St. Mark, he refused to pay the customary visit to the head of the republic, and when Lorenzo came to St. Mark's, Savonarola avoided his presence. Lorenzo was frequently urged to take measures against him, which he refused, either from his own natural lenity, or from some secret respect for his character; and when he was on his death-bed, in 1492, the monk obtained admission to him, and spoke to him with the authority of his functions. Lorenzo meekly answered his questions, and requested his benediction. After the death of Lorenzo, and the expulsion of his son Piero, Savonarola took a leading part in the political concerns of Florence, and headed the citizens, who aimed at the establishment of a popular constitution. He declared, that he was authorized to pronounce that the legislative power must be extended to the citizens at large; that he himself had been the ambassador of the Florentines to heaven; and that Christ had promised to be their peculiar king. Thus, by his influence chiefly, the form of government was changed in Florence from an aristocracy to a democracy. When the Florentines were courted by the other Italian states to enter into a confederacy with them, to oppose any second attempt that the French might undertake against Italy, preparations for which were making in France, Savonarola's persuasions prevailed to have all such proposals rejected. He flattered them with hopes, and foretold in his discourses, that the calamities of the republic would be turned into prosperity and increase of dominion; denouncing, at the same time, terrible judgments to the court of Rome, and to the rest of the Italian states. The preacher and his predictions were despised by the more discerning, yet the bulk of the people paid an implicit credit to him, and to all that he said, and among them not a few of the most considerable citizens, insomuch that his adherents out-numbered his opposers, by which means many of them were elected into the magistracy, and other places of the greatest trust. In the year 1498, a multitude of complaints against him having been carried to Rome, in which he was accused of having reproached, in his sermons, the conduct of that court and the vices of the clergy, he had been frequently summoned to appear before the pope, but hitherto had neglected to pay obedience to the commands of his holiness, on which account he was at last publicly excommunicated. This sentence obliged him to refrain from preaching for some months, till, finding his interest manifestly declining by his silence, he, in open contempt of the pontifical authority, resumed his function, asserting that its censures against him were null and void, as contrary to the divine will, and public welfare, and at the same time bitterly inveighing against the pope and the court of Rome. This kind of conduct occasioned frequent tumults, for his enemies, daily gaining ground upon him, animated the populace, who above all things abhorred disobedience to the pope. The pontiff, Alexander, also thundering out new briefs, and threatening to interdict the city, the magistrates commanded him to desist from preaching. Nevertheless, the friars of his convent continued to propagate his doctrines, which were opposed by the religious of other orders. These disputes were carried on with great heat, and excited such animosities, that at length, to defend his cause, he procured the assistance of a friar of his own convent, named Fra. Domenico da Pescia, who in a sort of fanatical madness, proposed to confirm his master's doctrines by the ordeal of walking through the flames, provided any one of their adversaries would do the same. The challenge was accepted by a Franciscan friar, and a day was appointed for the

trial. Savonarola, finding that the adverse party were not to be intimidated, proposed that Domenico should be allowed to carry the host with him into the fire. This was exclaimed against by the whole assembly as an impious and sacrilegious proposal. It was, however, insisted upon by Domenico, who thereby eluded the ordeal. But the result was fatal to the credit of Savonarola. The populace insulted and turned against him, and in a pretty severe conflict they apprehended him, with Domenico, and another friar, and dragged them to prison. The resolution and eloquence of Savonarola disconcerted his judges at the first examination, but upon the application of torture his constancy gave way, and he acknowledged the imposture of his pretending to supernatural powers. He and his companions were condemned to be first strangled and then burnt, and the sentence was put into execution on the 23d of May, 1498, before an immense crowd of spectators, a part of whom still looked up to him as a saint and martyr, while the rest execrated him as a hypocrite and seducer.

Such was Savonarola, concerning whose real character opinions long continued to be at variance, and even at this time they are said by no means to be uniform. The friends of reformation, civil and religious, says the eloquent biographer of Lorenzo, would willingly regard him as a man who had elevated views and good intentions, though perverted by a spirit of fanaticism, and there seems no reason to doubt that he was really a friend to the liberty of Florence, and felt an honest indignation at the profligacy of the court of Rome, and the corruption of the Catholic church. At the same time design and artifice appear to have mixed with his enthusiasm, and the character of a leader of a party is as discernable in his conduct as that of a reformer. The great instrument by which he obtained his ascendancy was eloquence, and perhaps no man ever possessed more of that kind which is calculated to operate upon a popular assembly. Several volumes of his sermons have been published with other works, ascetical, theological, and apologetical, which are now consigned to oblivion. His numerous biographers, apologists, and censurers, indicate the strong impression made on the public by his actions and unhappy fate. *Guicciardini's Hist. Roscoe's Lorenzo.*

SAVORY, *s.* [*satureia*, Lat.] A plant.—It is of the verticillate kind, with a labiated flower, whose upper lip or crest is divided into two parts; but the lower lip, or beard, is divided into three parts, the middle part being crenated: these flowers are produced from the wings of the leaves in a loose order, and not in whorls or spikes as are most of this tribe of plants. *Miller.* See SATUREIA.

SAVOU, or COFFIN ISLAND, a small island near the west coast of Madagascar. Lat. 17. 30. S. long. 44. 22. E.

SAVOUR, *s.* [*saveur*, Fr.] Scent; odour.—I smell sweet *savours*, and I feel soft things. *Shakspeare.*—Taste; power of affecting the palate.

I taste
The *savour* of death from all things. *Milton.*

SAVOUR, *v. n.* [*savourer*, Fr.] To have any particular smell or taste; to betoken; to have an appearance or taste of something.

If 'twere a secret that concerned my life,
This boldness might become thee;
But such unnecessary rudeness *savours*
Of some design. *Denham.*

To SAVOUR, *v. a.* To like.

Wisdom and goodness to the vile seem vile;
Filths *savour* but themselves. *Shakspeare.*

To exhibit taste of.—Thou *savourest* not the things that be of God. *Gospel.*—That *savours* only of rancour and pride. *Milton.*

SAVOURILY, *adv.* With gust, with appetite.—The collation he fell to very *savourily*. *L'Estrange.*—With a pleasing relish.

There's a dearth of wit in this dull town,
Where silly plays so *savourily* go down. *Dryden.*

SA'VOURYNESS, *s.* Taste; pleasing and picquant.

SAV'OURY, *adj.* Pleasing to the taste.—The *savoury* pulp they chew. *Milton.*—Pleasing to the smell.

The pleasant *savoury* smell
So quickened appetite, that I
Could not but taste. *Milton.*

SAV'OY, *s.* A sort of small cabbage. See BRASSICA.

SAVOY, a duchy in the south of Europe, forming the north-west part of the continental states of the kingdom of Sardinia, and extending from Lat. 45. 8. to 46. 28. N. It is bounded on the west by France, on the east by Piedmont. Its form is oblong, its length from north to south, being 94 miles, its general breadth between 60 and 70. Its superficial extent is about 3800 square miles; its population about 450,000.

Face of the Country.—The surface of Savoy is in the highest degree bleak and rugged: mountains, rocks, precipices, and forests, all the materials of the sublime, are its characteristic features. Its scenery is thus remarkable, less for beauty than for grandeur, producing in the mind of the spectator feelings of wonder, awe, and even terror. Streams at one time dashing among precipitous ridges of rocks, and forming magnificent cascades; at another expanding into beautiful sheets, or winding slowly through the bottom of a pleasant valley, or losing themselves in the gloom of a forest, present to the traveller, at each step, new objects of interest and astonishment. From the tops of the mountains the view is infinitely diversified: the bottom of the valley is strewed with cottages, fields, and vineyards; verdant pastures extend along the base of the mountains, and through a considerable part of the ascent. To these succeed forests, generally of great length; while the summit is crowned with numerous masses of snow and ice. Savoy is the region of Mount Blanc, Mount St. Bernard, Mount Cenis, Mount Iseran, Mount Valaison, and Mount Toumet, all connected together, and forming a stupendous barrier between Savoy and Piedmont. The roads in this country are often impassable for carriages; burdens are generally carried on the backs of mules or horses. The traveller is exposed to hazard in passing along the brink of chasms and precipices, or approaching the huge masses of snow, which a slight motion is sufficient to detach. The mountains on the side of France are less elevated, and the fall of the waters being in general in a northerly and westerly direction, there was, as far as depended on physical causes, no impropriety in allotting this country to France, by the treaty of Paris in 1814.

Agriculture.—The plough is of use only in the valleys; on the high grounds the peasants break up the soil with the pick-axe and spade, and, to improve it, carry up mould and manure in baskets from the valleys. Small reservoirs are prepared near the tops of the hills and mountains, from which water is let out at pleasure in spring and summer; while to prevent the earth from being washed down the declivity, small stone walls are erected, so that, by dint of skill and industry, cultivation is extended over tracks which would otherwise be a continued surface of naked rock. Savoy, though naturally one of the poorest countries in Europe, is thus enabled to supply the wants of its inhabitants. The products of the valleys are wheat, oats, barley, rye, and hemp. The slopes of the mountains are covered with pasture, and in favourable situations, with vines. Numbers of cattle and sheep are annually driven for sale into Piedmont and the Milanese. The mountains contain also mines of iron, copper, and silver; while the forests supply fuel, both for working these and for domestic purposes.

Manufactures in so thinly peopled a country as Savoy, are in a very primitive state, being confined to coarse linens, to tanneries, and to some works on a small scale for paper, hardware, and pottery. The exports are limited to raw produce,

produce, such as cheese, butter, hemp, tanned skins, and wool. The transit trade between France and Italy is carried on chiefly by the new road across Mount Cenis.

Inhabitants.—The Savoyards of both sexes have in general a brown complexion, from their frequent exposure to the open air. They live chiefly in the country; for, except Chambery, their capital, containing 12,000 inhabitants, there is no town of note, Rumilly having only 3000 inhabitants, and Moustiers, with St. Jean de Maurienne, 2000 each. From the simplicity of their manners, and their frugality and sobriety, the Savoyards have, by some writers, been compared to the Germans, as described by Tacitus. Be this as it may, their national qualities are those of an uninstructed, but at the same time an uncorrupted, people—frankness, probity, and credulity. The language in common use is a mixture of French and Italian, the former predominating. The Savoyards quit their native mountains, in the same way as the Welch or the Scottish Highlanders, and are remarked for pursuing a variety of callings, such as those of porters, livery servants, and agents in petty traffic; all indicative of individual activity or ingenuity, but unconnected with manufactures, or with pursuits which require either previous education or the employment of capital.

The name of Savoy is derived from the Latin *Sabaudia;* and the country was, in the days of the Romans, the abode of a well known tribe of Celtic origin, the Allobroges, who were subjugated in the reign of Augustus. Their country formed a part of the great province of Gallia Narbonnensis, and remained in possession of the Romans during several centuries; a length of possession which accounts for the numerous remains of Roman antiquities found in different parts of Savoy. After various changes, it was erected, in the beginning of the 11th century, into a county. In the early part of the 15th century, the governing count obtained the title of duke, and a great acquisition of power, by succeeding to Piedmont. The same family continuing to govern the country, acquired the title of King of Sardinia in 1719, and at present reign over that island, Piedmont, Genoa, and Savoy. The revolutionary war brought Savoy under subjection to France so early as the close of 1792, a situation in which it continued above 21 years. In 1814, though occupied by the allies, it was ceded to France by the first treaty of Paris; but in the hostilities which followed the return of Buonaparte in 1815, the king of Sardinia took part with the allies, and obtained the restoration of the country of his ancestors, with the exception of a small district, the commune of St. Julian, ceded to the Swiss canton of Geneva.

SAVOY, a post township of the United States, in Berkshire; 120 miles west of Boston.

SAURA, the name of a sect of Hindoos, so called from being worshippers solely or chiefly of Surya, or the sun. See SURYA.

SAURA, a village of Diarbekir, in Asiatic Turkey; 40 miles south-west of Diarbekir.

SAURA, a river of Peru, in the province of Piura, which runs west into the Piura.

SAURAT, a town in the south of France, in the department of the Arriege. It has a population of 3500, and a number of iron mines in the neighbourhood; 3 miles north-west of Tarascon.

SAURIN (Elias), an eminent Piedmontese Protestant minister, was born in the year 1639. He was educated in grammar learning by his father, under whose instructions he made such a proficiency, that at the age of 18 he entered upon his academical studies with distinguished advantage. He attended, successively, several Protestant seminaries, and in 1661, was admitted to the ministry, and appointed pastor of the church at Venterol. At this place, and at Embrun, he acquired so high a reputation for learning and talents, that in 1664 he would have been appointed professor of divinity at Dié, had he not been driven from France by persecution. Knowing the bitterness of his enemies, and what he had to expect from judges already prejudiced against him, he withdrew to Holland. Here he became pastor of the Walloon church at Delft, and retained that situation till 1671, when he accepted the same office at Utrecht. He was one of the ministers accused of heresy by Jurieu; and he had a contest with Bayle. He died in 1703. His principal works were "An Examination of the Divinity of M. Jurieu;" "Reflections on the Rights of Conscience;" "Treatise on the Love of God;" and another, "Treatise on the Love of our Neighbour."

SAURIN (James), a celebrated French Protestant preacher, the son of an eminent lawyer at Nismes, was born in the year 1677. Upon the revocation of the edict of Nantes in 1685, his father retired with his family to Geneva, where the subject of this article made a considerable progress in learning while he was very young. At the age of 17, he went into the army, in which he served with reputation till the year 1696, when the duke of Savoy, in whose employment he was, having made peace with France, he returned to his studies at Geneva, which, at that period, was the residence of some of the best scholars in Europe. Under these professors, Saurin applied assiduously to several departments of literature, but particularly to the study of divinity. When he had completed his course of studies, in 1700, he visited Holland and England. In the former country his stay was very short, but in the latter he continued almost five years, and preached among his fellow refugees in London. In 1703 he married, and in 1705 he returned to Holland, where he was desirous of settling with a church, but as nothing of the kind offered, he accepted the office of chaplain to one of the principal families at the Hague. Soon afterwards, he became one of the pastors to a church of French refugees, who were permitted to assemble in the chapel belonging to the palace of the princes of Orange at the Hague, in which he officiated during the remainder of his life. When the princess of Wales, afterwards queen Caroline, passed through Holland on her way to England, M. Saurin had the honour of paying his respects to her, and she, upon her return, desired Dr. Boulter, the preceptor to prince Frederic, the grandfather of the present king, to write to M. Saurin, to draw up a treatise on the education of princes. The work was done, but never printed, and the author received a handsome present from the princess, and afterwards a pension from George II., to whom he dedicated a volume of his sermons. M. Saurin died in 1730. His address was a happy compound of the affable and the grave; his voice was strong, clear, and harmonious, and he never lost the management of it. His style was pure, unaffected, and eloquent. In the introductions to his sermons, he used to deliver himself in a tone, modest and low; in the argumentative part, he was clear and plain, pausing at the close of each period, that he might discover, by the countenances of his hearers, whether they were convinced by his reasoning; and in his perorations he was extremely pathetic and animated. His doctrine was that inculcated by the French Protestants in general, which was, what is known under the term moderate Calvinism. He was a fine scholar, and took the greatest interest in the concerns and spiritual welfare of his hearers. He was author of 12 volumes of Sermons. From these, selections, translated into English, were published between the years 1775 and 1784, by the Rev. Robert Robinson, in 5 vols. 8vo. Dr. Hunter translated and published a sixth volume in 1796. M. Saurin was author of many other works, but the most considerable of them is entitled "Discourses Historical, Critical, and Moral, on the most memorable Events of the Old and New Testament," which form six large volumes folio, but they were not all written by M. Saurin; he died before the third was finished, which was completed by M. Roques, who added a fourth on the Old Testament. To these M. Beausobre subjoined two volumes on the New Testament. See *Robinson's Memoirs of M. Saurin,* prefixed to vol. i. of his Sermons.

SAURIN (Joseph), a celebrated French mathematician, was born in 1659. He received the elements of learning under his father, and made a rapid progress in acquiring the

the learned languages. He was early admitted into the ministry, but from the freedom of his discourses he was obliged to quit the country, and in 1683 he went to Geneva. From thence he removed to Berne, where he was appointed pastor of the church of Bercher. Here he lived very peaceably till he ventured to preach against some of the established doctrines of the church, to which he had with difficulty conformed. By this conduct, he raised a storm among the neighbouring clergy, which threatened his personal safety. Under these circumstances he withdrew to Holland, and, disgusted with the conduct of his own brethren, he resolved to renounce the Protestant communion, and to embrace that of Rome. Having informed M. Bossuet, the bishop of Meaux, of his intention, he was encouraged by that prelate to visit him at one of his country houses, and make an abjuration before him. This was in the year 1690. This change in his religious profession, he carefully concealed till he could have an opportunity of withdrawing his wife from Switzerland; the report, however, was soon made known, and in bringing away his lady, they were both arrested on the frontiers. By the interposition of Lewis XIV., they soon obtained their liberty. He now fixed his residence at Paris, was received under the most flattering auspices, and was introduced by Bossuet to the king, who almost immediately settled a pension upon him. He now devoted himself chiefly to mathematical pursuits, and acquired a high reputation from the important papers which, from time to time, he contributed to the Journal des Savans. and the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences. In 1707, he was admitted a member of the Academy in the quality of geometrician. He died in 1737, at the age of 78. His mathematical and philosophical papers in the "Mémoires" of the Academy, are to be found in the volumes published between the years 1709 and 1727.

SAURIN (Bernard-Joseph), a dramatic writer, son of the last, was educated for the profession of the law, which he deserted for the more pleasant studies of polite literature. He practised some time as an advocate, and afterwards became a member of the French Academy, He was author of a tragedy entitled. "Spartacus," which was acted with great applause at the theatres. This was followed by a comedy in prose, entitled "Mœurs du Temps," in which he painted, with great success, the manners of the higher ranks of the times in which he flourished. Of his other pieces, the following may be mentioned; "Blanche et Richard," being an imitation from Thomson's "Edward and Elcanora;" "Beverley," from the Gamester;" "L'Anglomane;" and "Le Marriage de Julie." Saurin was the intimate friend of Montesquieu, Voltaire, and Helvetius, the latter of whom gave him a pension of a thousand crowns, and upon his marriage presented him with a sum equal to the capital of that annuity. He died at Paris, at a great age, in the year 1781. He was a member of the French Academy. The "Théatre de Saurin" was printed in 2 vols. 8vo. His songs have been inserted in several collections.

SAURITES, a stone mentioned by Pliny, and supposed by the ancients to be found in the belly of a lizard. It seems to have been a kind of cornelian, of a pale flesh-colour.

SAURURUS [from Σαυρος, a lizard, and ουρα, a tail. So named from its long narrow spike of flowers], in Botany, a genus of the class heptandria, order trigynia, natural order of piperitæ; naiades *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: ament oblong, covered with floscules. Perianth proper, one-leafed, oblong, lateral, coloured, permanent. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments seven, capillary, long. Anthers oblong, erect. Pistil: germs four, ovate, acuminate. Style none. Stigmas oblong, fastened to the inner apex of the germ. Pericarp: berries four, ovate, one-celled. Seed single, ovate.—*Essential Character.* Calyx: an ament with one-flowered scales. Corolla none. Germs four. Berries four, one-seeded.

Saururus cernuus, or lizard's tail.—Root fibrous, perennial: stalks generally trailing, and seldom rising more than two feet high, having some longitudinal furrows. Leaves heart-shaped and smooth, about three inches long, and two broad at their base, ending in obtuse points. Spikes axillary towards the top of the stalk, taper, and about two inches long. They appear in July, but are not followed by seeds in England. The stalk decays in autumn.—Native of Virginia.

Propagation and Culture.—Part the roots in autumn, soon after the stalks decay, or in the spring, before the roots begin to shoot. It loves a moist soil, and a shady situation.

SAURUS, the lizard-fish. See TRACHURUS.

SAUSAGE, *s.* [*saucisse*, Fr.] A roll of pork, veal, or beef, stuffed in the membrane of a gut.

SAUSAGE, or SAUCISSE, a long train of powder sewed up in a roll of pitched cloth, and sometimes of leather, about two inches in diameter; serving to set fire to mines or caissons. It is usually placed in a wooden pipe, called an *auget*, to prevent its growing damp.

The length of the saucisse is to extend from the chamber of the mine to the place where the engineer stands to spring it. There are usually two saucisses to every mine; that if one should fail, the other may take effect.

SAUSE-VAUSSAY, a small town in the west of France, department of the Two Sevres, with 1300 inhabitants.

SAUSSURE (Horace Benedict de), born at Geneva, in the year 1740, was the son of Nicholas de Saussure, a member of the Council of Two Hundred, known by his works on agriculture. From his father, and other distinguished naturalists, who adorned his native place, the subject of this article imbibed a great ardour for the study of nature, and he made so rapid a progress, that, at the age of 22, he obtained the professorship of philosophy at Geneva, which he held with high reputation during a period of 25 years. His vacations from public duty were employed in travels, which, however, were devoted to the improvement of his mind, and to the increase of his stock of knowledge. He visited France twice; the first time for the purpose of examining some extinct volcanoes in different parts, and the second time in order that he might study the principles of aerostation. He also came over to England, became acquainted with Franklin, and went to Holland for scientific purposes. The structure and elevation of mountains were the especial objects of his enquiries, and upon a journey to Italy he carefully examined the curious iron mines of the now celebrated island of Elba, ascended Vesuvius with Sir W. Hamilton, and he measured the height of Mount Etna. Botany was likewise one of his pursuits, and he discovered several new species of lichens, and two kinds of tremella, having an oscillatory motion. In a correspondence with Spallanzani, he communicated to him several observations on infusory animalcules, in order to prove that they follow the law of polypes in their reproduction. His ingenuity was displayed in the invention of several delicate instruments, such as a "cyanometer," to ascertain the degree of blue colour in the sky; an "anemometer;" an "electrometer;" an instrument to detect the presence of iron in minerals; and another to determine the force of magnetism; an "heliothermometer," and a hair "hygrometer," which is much in use, and which is reckoned the most ingenious of all his inventions. It was, however, chiefly as an explorer of mountains that Saussure rendered his name celebrated. In 1760, he visited the glaciers of Chamouni; and from this time he resolved to make annual journeys in the Alps, till he had pursued their chains in every direction. In 1779, he had crossed them fourteen times, in eight different tracks. The first volume of his travels through the Alps, published in this year, contains a circumstantial description of the environs of Geneva, and of an excursion as far as Chamouni, a village at the foot of Mont-Blanc. During the troubles of Geneva, in 1782, he made a vast number of curious and interesting experiments, of which he published an account in 1783. This has been thought to be his best work. De Saussure resigned his chair to Pictet, who discharged the duties of his office with high reputation. Still the philosopher was interested on the subject

ject of education, and projected a plan of reform in that conducted at Geneva. The design of this was to make young people, at a very early period, acquainted with the natural sciences and mathematics. It was not, however, carried into effect. In 1786, he published his second volume of travels, containing a description of the Alps round Mont-Blanc, the whole having been examined with the eye of a mineralogist and geologist. He founded the "Society of Arts," to the operation of which Geneva is said to have been much indebted for the state of prosperity to which it arrived. Over that society he presided as long as he lived. In 1788 Saussure, with his eldest son, encamped for 17 days on the Col du Geant, which he employed in accurate and interesting observations, both meteorological and geological. In these branches of knowledge he was confessedly one of the greatest proficients in Europe, and his numerous writings on these and other scientific subjects, gave him admission into the principal learned societies in different countries. He was visited by all the eminent and illustrious travellers who passed through Geneva, whom he instructed by his conversation, and gratified with the view of a cabinet rich in the natural products that he had collected during his travels. When Geneva was united to the French republic, he was made deputy to the National Assembly. But this revolution, in its destructive course, swept away the greatest part of his fortune, and its political storms ruined the peace of his mind. In 1794, his health began to decline, and a severe paralytic seizure almost wholly deprived him of the use of his limbs; he was still active in his mind, and prepared the last two volumes of his travels for the press, which appeared in 1796. They contain a mass of new facts and observations of great importance to science. During his illness, he published "Observations on the Fusibility of Stones, by means of the Blow-pipe." He was, in general, a Neptunian, that is, ascribed the revolutions of the globe to water, and supposed it to be possible that mountains should have been thrown up by elastic fluids disengaged from the cavities of the earth. He died on the 22d of March, 1799, in the 59th year of his age, lamented by his family, to whom he was dear; by his country, to which he had done honour; and by Europe at large, the knowledge of which he had greatly extended.

SAUSTRA BEADY, a name given by the people of the East Indies, to a kind of fossile, to which they attribute great virtues in medicine.

Before it is given internally, it undergoes a hundred calcinations, and several preparations with the juices of herbs. When the operation is over, they say it will cure a thousand diseases. It has its name from thence, the word *saustra* signifying with them *a thousand.*

SAUTENAY, a village in the east of France, in Burgundy. Its wine is in great repute.

SAUTGUR, a town of the south of India, district of the Baramahal. The situation of this place is extremely picturesque, being surrounded with rocks covered with brushwood. The nabob of the Carnatic has a handsome garden and country house here. In the former are some exotics. Lat. 12. 58. N. long. 78. 54. E.

SAUTHY, a small river of Wales, in Carmarthenshire, which falls into the Muthy, near Llangadock.

SAVU, an island in the Eastern seas, about 20 miles in length. The sea coast is in general low; but in the middle of the island there are hills of a considerable height. This island is represented both by Captain Cook and M. Labillarde, as presenting a most enchanting prospect from the sea; being intersected, especially towards the south-west, by very beautiful hills, whose gentle declivity seems to offer to the natives a soil of easy and favourable cultivation. Groups of cocoa-nut trees scattered on the shore, afford shelter to some cottages, which form an additional embellishment to those beautiful plantations. "The principal trees," says Cook, "of this island are the fan-palm, the cocoa-nut, tamarind, limes, oranges, and mangoes; and other vegetable productions are maize, Guinea-corn, rice, millet, calevances, and water melons. We saw also one sugar-cane, and a few kinds of European garden stuff, particularly celery, marjoram, fennel, and garlic. For the supply of luxury, it has betel, areca, tobacco, cotton, indigo, and a small quantity of cinnamon, which seems to be planted here only for curiosity. There are, however, several kinds of fruit, besides those which have been already mentioned. The tame animals are buffaloes, sheep, goats, hogs, fowls, pigeons, horses, asses, dogs, and cats; and of all these there is great plenty. The sheep are of the kind which in England are called Bengal sheep, and differ from ours in many particulars. The fowls are chiefly of game breed, and large, but the eggs are remarkably small. Of the fish which the sea produces here, we know but litttle: turtles are sometimes found upon the coast, and are by these people, as well as all others, considered as a dainty. The people are rather under than above the middling size; the women especially are remarkably short, and squat built; their complexion is a dark brown, and their hair universally black and lank. The men are in general well made, vigorous, and active, and have a greater variety in the make and disposition of their features than usual; the countenances of the women are, on the contrary, all alike. The men fasten their hair up to the top of their heads with a comb; the women tie it behind in a club, which is very far from becoming. Both sexes eradicate the hair from under the arm, and the men do the same with their beards, for which purpose the better sort always carry a pair of silver pincers, hanging by a string round their necks, some, however suffer a very little hair to remain upon their upper lips; but this is always kept short. The dress of both sexes consists of cotton cloth, which being dyed blue in the yarn, and not uniformly of the same shade, is in clouds or waves of that colour, and even to our eye has not an inelegant appearance. This cloth they manufacture themselves; and two pieces, each about two yards long, and a yard and a half wide, make a dress. Almost all the men have their names traced upon their arms in indelible characters, of a black colour; and the women have a square ornament of flourished lines, impressed in the same manner, just under the bend of the elbow. The houses of Savu are all built upon the same plan, and differ only in size, being large in proportion to the rank and riches of the proprietor. Some are 400 feet long, and some are not more than 20; they are all raised upon posts or piles, about four feet high. When the natives of this island were first formed into a civil society, is not certainly known, but at present it is divided into five principalities or nigrees: Laai, Seba, Regecua, Timo, and Massara, each of which is governed by its respective rajah or king: The religion of these people, according to Mr. Lange's information, is an absurd kind of Paganism, every man choosing his own god, and determining for himself how he should be worshipped, so that there are almost as many gods and modes of worship as there are people. In their morals, however, they are said to be irreproachable." Lat. 10. 35. S. long. 122. 30. E.

SAUVAGES (Francis Boissier de), a distinguished physician, and the inventor of modern nosology, was the sixth son of a military officer of rank, and was born at Alais, in Lower Languedoc, on the 12th of May, 1706. The means of education which his native town then afforded were very limited, and the only tutors whose assistance he had were men of indifferent attainments. Nevertheless his own talents enabled him to overcome these obstacles, and his progress in literature and philosophy was great and rapid. Having determined to adopt the profession of medicine, he went to Montpellier in 1722, where he attended the courses delivered by Chicoyneau, Astruc, and other celebrated professors, and received the degree of doctor in 1726. The thesis which he defended on this occasion attracted a good deal of notice, partly perhaps from the singularity of the subject; which was, "Si l'amour peut être guéri par les remèdes tirés des plantes?" He still continued to pursue his studies; and in 1730 went to Paris with a view to farther improvement in his profession. He

He afterwards returned to Montpellier, where he obtained a professorship in 1734. His reputation for ingenuity of speculation and extensive reading, and his knowledge of mathematical science, seemed to retard his progress to practice; as it was hinted that he was a mere ingenious theorist; nevertheless his studies never interfered with his attention to the diseases which he was called upon to treat. He adopted with ardour the doctrine of Stahl respecting the influence of the *anima medica*, and was disposed to combine this with the principles of the mechanical sect. In 1740 Sauvages was appointed demonstrator of the plants in the botanic garden, and in 1752 he was made professor of botany; in the performance of the duties of which office he obtained the same celebrity, which he had acquired in the discharge of his other avocations. He married in 1748, and had two sons and four daughters, who survived him. A serious disease, which continued nearly two years, unfortunately cut him off in the midst of his useful and honourable career, in the month of February, 1767, in the 61st year of his age.

Sauvages was a man of great simplicity of manners and openness of character. He was much loved by his pupils, because he communicated freely all that he knew, and received with equal readiness whatever information any one was enabled to give him. His knowledge came forth without pomp or display, in the way of ordinary conversation, though the habit of teaching sometimes impressed the formality of lecture upon his manner in private: nevertheless, the ability and information which he always evinced, shed a charm upon his society. Sauvages was an able mathematician, and an accurate observer of phenomena, was ingenious in devising experiments, and indefatigable in the performance of all useful labours. He had, however, a little too much bias to systems, so that he did not always consult facts uninfluenced by prepossession. He was a member of the most learned societies of Europe, viz. of the Royal Society of London, of those of Berlin, Upsal, Stockholm, and Montpellier, of the Academia Naturæ Curiosorum, of the Physico-Botanical Academy of Florence, and of the Institute of Bologna. He obtained the prizes given by many public bodies to the best essays on given subjects, and a collection of these prize-essays was published at Lyons in 1770, in two volumes, with the title of "Chef d'Œuvres de M. de Sauvages." The following is a list of his works:—"Dissertation sur les Animaux venimeux;" "Nouvelles Classes des Maladies dans un ordre semblable à celui des Botanistes, comprenant les genres et les espèces," Avignon, 1732, in 12°. This is the skeleton of his great system of nosology, which has celebrated his name, but which was not published in its complete form till after an additional labour of thirty years had been bestowed upon it. "Mémoire sur les Eaux Minerales d'Alais, pour servir à l'Histoire Naturelle de la Province," 1736; "Theoria F bris;" Monspel. 1738, in which he supported the theory of Stahl; "Pathologia Methodica," 1739; "La Manière d'elever les Vers à Soie," 1740; "Nova Somni Theoria," id.; "De Motuum vitalium Causâ," 1741; "Inflammationis Theoria," 1743; "Mémoire sur les Maladies des Bœufs du Vivarais," 1746; "Dissertatio de vasorum capillarium corporis humani suctu," 1747; "De Noctambulatione," 1748; "De Hemiplegia per Electricitatem sanata," 1749; a prize-essay "Sur la nature et la cause de la Rage," id.; "Conspectus Physiologicus," 1751; "Methodus foliorum; seu plantæ Floræ Monspeliensis juxta foliorum ordinem, &c." Hag. 1751. This work contained about 500 plants, omitted in the Botanicon Monspeliense of Magnol. "Dissertation sur des Médicamens qui affectent certaines parties du corps plutôt que d'autres," Bourdeaux, 1752; Nova pulsûs et circulationis Theoria," id.; "Embryologia, seu, Dissertatio de Fœtu," 1753; "Synopsis morborum oculis insidentium, genera et species exponens," id.; "Theoria Tumorum," id.; a prize dissertation "Sur la manière dont l'air agit sur le corps humain," 1754; "Physiologiæ Mechanicæ Elementa," 1755; "Theoria doloris," 1757. Three dissertations in this and the following year, "De Respiratione difficili;" "De astrorum influxu in hominem;" "De Visione." In 1759 "Medicinæ Sinensis Conspectus;" and "Theoria Convulsionis: and in the three following years dissertations "De Amblyopia," "De Suffusione," "De Anima redivivâ," "De Catharticis," "De prognosi Medicâ ex Necrologis eruendâ;" and an answer to Eberhard, "De animi imperio in corp." His last work was the great result of more than thirty years' labour, "Nosologia Methodica, sistens morborum classes, genera, et species, juxta Sydenhami mentem, et Botanicorum ordinem," Amst. 1763, in five volumes, 8vo.; a work with which his name will survive as long as nosology is the subject of the study of the physician. We have entered at length into the plan and principles of the classification of diseases proposed by Sauvages, in a former article. (See PATHOLOGY.) He had himself collected many new observations and descriptions, with a view to incorporate them in a second edition; but he did not live to accomplish this intention. These materials, however, were used by Dr. Cramer, in a new edition, published at Amsterdam in 1678, in two vols. 4to. See Eloy Dict. Hist. de la Médecine.

SAUVAGESIA [so named by Linnæus, in honour of François Boissier de Sauvages, Professor at Montpellier; author of Methodus foliorum], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of gruinales.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-parted; leaflets lanceolate, acute, concave, spreading, permanent. Corolla: petals five, blunt, equal, rhomb-ovate, length of the calyx. Nectary, leaflets five, smaller, alternate with the petals, oblong, erect, surrounded by many shorter hairs. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, very short. Anthers oblong, acute, short. Pistil: germ ovate. Style simple, length of the stamens. Stigma simple, blunt. Pericarp: capsule ovate, acuminate, one-celled, three-valved at the top. Seeds numerous, very small, fastened to the sutures in a longitudinal row.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-leaved. Corolla five-petalled, fringed. Nectary five-leaved, alternate with the petals. Capsule one-celled.

Sauvagesia erecta, or upright Sauvagesia.—This is an annual plant, having the habit of hypericum or corchorus. Stem erect. Leaves alternate, ovate-lanceolate, bluntly serrate. Peduncles lateral, one-flowered; upright when in flower, bent down when in fruit. Flowers white. Easily distinguished by its ciliate stipules.—Native of St. Domingo, Martinico, Jamaica, Surinam, and Guiana.

SAUVES, a small town in the south-east of France, in Languedoc, department of the Gard, on the small river Vidourle. It has 3000 inhabitants, and some manufactures of silk and woollens; 21 miles north-west of Nimes.

SAUVETAT, a town in the south west of France, department of the Lot and Garonne, with 2800 inhabitants; 14 miles north-east of Marmande.

SAUVETAT DE GAURE, LA, a small town in the south-west of France, department of the Gers. Population 1300; 9 miles south west of Lectoure.

SAUVETAT DE SAUVERE, LA, a large village in the south-west of France, department of the Lot and Garonne. Population 1400; 10 miles north-west of Valence, and 9 north-by-east of Agen.

SAUVETERRE, a small town in the south of France, situated between the Aveyron and the Viaure. It has a population of 3500, and some trade in wine; 14 miles south-west of Rhodez, and 11 south-east of Villefranche.

SAUVETERRE, a small town in the south-west of France, department of the Lot and Garonne, on the river Allemance. It contains 1100 inhabitants, and has extensive iron-works; 6 miles north of Fumel.

SAUVETERRE, a small town in the south-west of France, department of the Lower Pyrenees, on the Gave d'Oleron. Population 1200; 9 miles south-west of Orthez.

SAUVETERRE, a small town in the south-west of France,

France, in the department of the Gers, with 800 inhabitants; 3 miles west of Lombes.

SAUVEUR (Joseph), a French mathematician, was born at La Fleche in the year 1653. Till he was seven years old he was completely dumb, and even then the organs of speech were not so effectually developed, but that he was ever afterwards obliged to speak very slowly, in order to be intelligible. In early life he discovered a great turn for mechanics, and constructed a number of little machines. He was sent to the college of Jesuits for instruction in the classics and belles-lettres; but he could settle to nothing but arithmetic and geometry. He was designed for the church, and was sent to Paris to study philosophy and theology. but to these new departments of learning he devoted very little attention; nevertheless, in a single month he made himself master of the first six books of Euclid without the aid of a tutor, and entered upon other parts of the mathematics, for the study of which he felt a predominant bias. On account of the impediment in his speech, he was advised to abandon all thoughts of the ecclesiastical profession, and to engage in that of medicine: but he determined to devote himself entirely to his favourite science, and to acquire such an acquaintance with it, as to render himself independent, by teaching others. In this object he completely succeeded, and that so speedily, that at the age of twenty-three he had become a fashionable preceptor in mathematics, and had prince Eugene for his pupil. In 1680 he was chosen to teach mathematics to the pages of the dauphiness, and in the following year he went to Chantilly, with another philosopher, to make experiments on the waters at that place, by which he gained much credit, and the patronage of the prince of Condé, who frequently had recourse to his talents, and bestowed upon him many marks of his favour. In 1686 he was appointed mathematical professor in the royal college. During his visits to Chantilly, M. Sauveur conceived the design of writing a treatise on fortification, and in order that he might combine practice with theory, he went, in 1691, to the siege of Mons, and spent every day in the trenches. After the siege was over, he visited, with the same view, all the strong towns in Flanders, and on his return he was made mathematician to the court, with a pension for life. In 1696 he was admitted a member of the Academy of Sciences; and upon the promotion of M. Vauban to be a marshal of France in 1703, and his proceeding to join the army, M. Sauveur was, on his recommendation, nominated by the king his successor in the office of examiner of the engineers, with a pension, which he enjoyed till his death, in 1716, at the age of 63. He was twice married, and had children by both wives; and by the last a son, who, like himself, was dumb for the first seven years of his life. M. Sauveur was of a kind and obliging disposition, and notwithstanding the celebrity to which he had attained, he preserved an humble deportment, and his original simplicity of manners. He used to lay it down as an axiom, that what one man could accomplish in mathematics, another might if he chose. M. Sauveur studied very closely the science of music. He introduced a new diction in music, and invented a new doctrine of sounds; and he was the first who discovered, by theory and experiment, the velocity of musical strings, and ascertained the spaces which they describe in their vibrations under all the circumstances of tension and dimensions. He invented the monochord and echometer. His writings on geometrical, musical, and other subjects, are inserted in different volumes of the Memoirs of the Academy of Sciences from 1700 to 1716.

Sauveur had proposed an expedient for a fixed pitch, or universal tone, to determine the basis of all tones in the general musical scale or system; but his own reasoning proves that there is no fixed tone in nature; and the very ingenious and very impracticable artifice by which he tried to find an arbitrator, proves but too plainly how far hypotheses, or, if you will, the truths of speculation, are from the simple rules of practice. There is no sonorous body which is not affected by the perpetual atmospherical changes. Wood contracts and expands by heat and cold; strings of all kinds lengthen and shorten by the same elements, whatever may be their tension. Even the *pierres sonores*, the sounding stones of China, must be affected, to a certain degree, in the open air, by the elements.

M. Sauveur was the inventor of the term *acoustics*, which the Academie Royale adopted. In his "System of Music," he gives at once the rules for determining the ratios of sounds, and the notes which express them.

He also invented a kind of *chronomêtre*. It was a particular pendulum, intended to determine with accuracy the time of every musical movement. The author proposed to the Academy several expedients for that purpose. Rousseau was of opinion that none of them would succeed. But Romieu of Montpellier, the rival of Tartini, in his "Terzo Suono," in a memoir read publicly at the academy of that city in 1751, says, that no one ever developed the nature of sound as Sauveur has done; and adds, "I have often realized what he has advanced on the subject; and I do not believe that his excellent discovery can ever be overthrown."

Sauveur gave in 1701, a general system of intervals, and its application to every other system, and to every instrument of music. In 1707 he gave a general method for forming a tempered system of music, and the choice of that which ought to be followed. In 1711 he produced to the Academy a general table of tempered scales in music. "But all the systems of temperament which the imagination can suggest, (says M. Laborde, or rather his guide, the abbé Roussier,) ought henceforth to be laid aside as useless, their absurdity having been pointed out in the 'Mémoire sur la Mus. des Anciens;' and as the twenty-one sounds, of which the octave is composed, have certain stations or elevations in the scale, it would be madness to try to substitute others arbitrarily; but in the time of Sauveur this truth was still unknown." *Laborde.*

SAUVEUR, St., a name of the well known fountains of mineral water in the south of France, department of the Upper Pyrenees, in the valley of Barrege, near Luz.

SAUVEUR, St., a small town near the central part of France, in the department of the Yonne, with 1100 inhabitants; 21 miles south-west of Auxerre.

SAUVEUR, St., a small town in the east of France, in Burgundy, department of the Côte d'Or; 9 miles north of Auxonne.

SAUVEUR, St., a small inland town in the south of the Netherlands, province of Hainault, with 1900 inhabitants.

SAUVEUR, St., a small town in the south-east of France, in Dauphiny, department of the Isere.

SAUVEUR, St., a small town in the east of France, in Burgundy, department of the Upper Saone.

SAUVEUR LE VICOMTE, St., a small town of the north-west of France, in Normandy, department of La Manche. It stands on the small river Douve. Population 2800.

SAUXILLANGE, a small town near the central part of France, department of the Puy de Dome. It has 2100 inhabitants, employed partly in manufactures; 6 miles east of Issoire, and 15 west of Ambert.

SAW. The preterite of *see*.

SAW, *s.* A blade of steel, with a notched edge, used to cut through wood or other matters, by attrition.—Then *saws* were toothed, and sounding axles made. *Dryden.* —[from Saȝa, Sax.] A saying or proverb.

From the table of my memory
I'll wipe away all *saws* of books. *Shakspeare.*

The saw is one of the most useful machines, in the mechanic arts, ever invented. The fable, which is perhaps founded on some surer tradition, attributes the invention of it to Icarus, who, vying with his father Dædalus, enriched the rising arts with several discoveries. It is added he took the first hint from the spine or back-bone of a flat fish, such as the soal. The saw is made of steel, with teeth; but those differently

differently filed, and turned, according to the use it is designed for. There is also a kind of saws without teeth, used in the sawing of marble, and other stones.

The best saws are of tempered steel, ground bright and smooth: those of iron are only hammer-hardened: hence, the first, besides their being stiffer, are likewise found smoother, than the last. They are known to be well hammered by the stiff bending of the blade; and well or evenly ground, by the bending into a bow.

The chief saws are as follow:—*Pit-saw*, a large two-handed saw, used to saw timber in pits.—*Whip-saw*, which is likewise two-handed, used to saw such large pieces of stuff as the hand-saw will not easily reach.—The *Hand-saw* is made for a single man's use; of which there are various kinds; as the *Ripping-saw*, *Tenon-saw*, *Sash-saw*: the two latter are stiffened by a narrow back of iron, as they are made very thin for fine work.—The *Two-hand*, or *Cross-cut saw*, is much longer, and is used by two men.—The *Frame-saw* is a thin saw surrounded by a wooden frame, in which it is stretched very tight, to prevent its bending: it is used in a pit for cutting deals and veneers.—The *Compass-saw*, or *Turning-saw*, which is very narrow, has its teeth not usually set out of a right line, like the above; but the cutting-edge is made thick, and the back thin, that it may freely be turned in a circular or compass-kerf.—The *Hack-saw* is made of a scythe jagged at the edge, and used for cutting off iron bolts.

To SAW, *v. a.* To divide with a saw.—They were stoned, they were *sawn* asunder. *Hebrews.*

SAWA, a village of the island of Ceram, in the East Indian ocean, at the bottom of the bay of the same name, on the north coast, in Lat. 2. 56. S.

SAWARA, Lower, an Indian town of the United States, in North Carolina, on the Dan; 14 miles north-north-east of Guildford.

SAWARA, Upper, an Indian town of the United States, in North Carolina, on the Dan; 23 miles north-west of Guildford.

SAWAY, a town on the south-east coast of the island of Timor. Lat. 9. 10. S. long. 125. 70. E.

SAWBRIDGE, a hamlet of England, in Warwickshire; 7 miles north-east of Southam.

SAWDON, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 8 miles west-south-west of Scarborough.

SAWDUST, *s.* The comminuted raspings of timber produced by sawing.

SAW-FISH, in Ichthyology. See Squalus Pristis.

SAWING-MILLS. There are wind-mills and water-mills which do the office of sawing wood, with infinitely more expedition and ease than is performed by the hand. They consist of several parallel saws, which are made to rise and fall perpendicularly, by means of one of the grand principles of motion. A very few hands are here needed, viz., only to push forward the pieces of timber, which are laid on rollers, or suspended by ropes, in proportion as the sawing advances. These mills are frequently used abroad; and were long since introduced in England; but the Parliament, considering that they would spoil the sawyers' trade, and ruin great numbers of families, thought fit to suppress them.

The mechanism of a sawing-mill may be reduced to three principal things; the first, that the saw be drawn up and down as long as is necessary, by a motion communicated by water to the wheel; the second, that the pieces of timber to be cut into boards be advanced by an uniform motion to receive the strokes of the saw, for here the wood is to meet the saw, and not the saw to follow the wood, therefore the motion of the wood and that of the saw ought immediately to depend the one on the other: the third, that when the saw has cut through the whole length of the piece, the whole machine stops of itself, and remains immoveable, for fear, lest having no obstacle to surmount, the force of the water should turn the wheel with too great rapidity, and break some part of the machine.

M. Felibien mentions a kind of long saws, invented by one Misson, inspector of the marble quarries in the Pyrenees; by means of which stones are sawed even in the rock itself, whence they are taken. He adds, that some of them were made twenty-three feet long; but does not describe either their form or application: he only says, they are of iron, and without teeth.

The common sawing-mill is so well known, as to require scarcely any description. The saw is made to work vertically, being stretched in a wooden frame, which slides up and down, within another fixed frame, exactly the same as a window-sash rises and falls in its frame: the motion is given to it by a crank placed beneath, and revolving by a wheel and pinion from the water-wheel; a fly-wheel is fixed upon the axis of the crank to equalize the movement, and the pinion is so proportioned, that the crank will make three or four turns to one of the water-wheel. The timber is fastened upon a carriage, which is an horizontal frame, sliding on the floor of the mill; and being sufficiently narrow to pass through the inside of the vertical or moving saw-frame, it will carry the tree through, and subject it to the action of the saw: the carriage is provided with a rack, which is engaged by the teeth of a pinion, and this gives the means of advancing the carriage when the pinion is turned, which is done by means of a large ratchet-wheel, with a click moved by levers, connected with the saw-frame. In this manner, when the saw-frame rises, the click slips over a certain number of teeth of the ratchet-wheel, but when it descends to make the cut, the click turns the ratchet-wheel round, and advances the wood forwards just as much as the saw will cut into it during its descent. The trees are generally dragged up an inclined plane, through a door at one end of the mill, and being placed upon the carriage, they go through the mill, and are divided by the saw into two or more pieces, which are carried forwards, and go out at a door on the opposite side of the mill, where a boat receives them. Sometimes the saw-frame is fitted up with several saws stretched parallel to each other, and at such distances, that they will divide the whole tree into several boards of any required thickness at one operation.

A great improvement in sawing-machines has been made by Mr. Brunel, by which they are enabled to cut more timber in a given time, with any given power, and also cut much more correctly, and without winding in the surfaces which the saws divide. A capital mill on this plan has been constructed by Mr. Maudslay, for the arsenal at Woolwich; it is driven by a steam-engine, which is a pattern of elegance in its appearance, as much as of perfection in its contrivance; the motion is communicated from this to the cranks of the four saw-frames, by leather belts, which are here very judiciously applied in lieu of cog-wheels, because these will slip and yield if any thing should get into the movements, but cog-wheels would in a similar case break every thing to pieces. Each crank has an independent fly-wheel to regulate its motion, in addition to the great fly-wheel of the steam-engine. The vertical or moving frames for the saws are made of iron, but the sides are hollow, and filled up with wood, by which means they are very strong, but of no greater weight than necessary. The most ingenious part of the contrivance consists in the means of stretching all the saws in the frame, so that they will be exactly parallel to each other, and all strained to an equal degree of tension. The saws are so fitted in the frame, that they can be removed in a few minutes, and a new set of sharp saws put in. Each saw has a piece of metal rivetted to it at each end, which are formed like hooks. The hook at the lower end of the saw is hooked into a proper recess made in the lower cross-bar of the saw-frame, and the upper hook is engaged with the hook of a shackle or link, which hangs upon the upper cross-bar, and has wedges through it, by means of which it can be drawn tight to strain the saw. As there is nothing to determine the parts of the cross-bars where the hooks of the saws shall hang upon them, they can be set at any required distance asunder; but to retain them, pieces of hard wood are

are put in between the blades of the saw at the upper and lower ends, and the spaces being thus filled up, they are bound tight by screws, which are tapped into the sides of the saw-frame. As the tension of the different saws would be very uncertain, if it depended merely upon driving the wedges of their shackles by a hammer, the inventor has applied a very ingenious kind of steel-yard, to strain each of the saws in its turn. It consists of the following parts: a strong axis is extended across the fixed frame, in which the saw-frame slides, and above the top of this frame; from one side of this axis a lever proceeds, which has a weight fixed at the end, and from the opposite side of the axis proceed two short levers, which are connected by links with a strong cross-bar, situated just over the upper cross-bar of the saw-frame, when it is at its greatest point of elevation. This steelyard cross-bar has a link or shackle upon it, which can be united by a key with any one of the shackles upon the upper cross-bar of the saw-frame, which shackles are, as before-mentioned, united by their hooks with the upper end of their respective saws; by this means the lever, with its weight, becomes a steelyard to draw up any one of the saws with a determinate force, and it can be applied successively to all the different saws. In using this apparatus, the band or strap of the crank-shaft is cast off, to stop the motion of the saw-frame; the crank is turned round, to elevate the frame to the highest point; two wedges are then put in between the top of the saw-frame and a fixed part of the stationary frame, and this holds the saw-frame fast whilst the steelyard is applied, otherwise it would tend to draw up the frame, and strain the crank and crank-rod. The sharp saws are now put into the saw-frame, by hooking them upon the lower cross-bar thereof, and uniting the upper hooks to the the shackles on the upper cross-bar: the pieces of wood are next put between the saws, according to the gauge of the wood which is intended to be sawn, and bound fast by the screws, as before mentioned. The loaded end of the steelyard is now lifted up by a rope passing over a pulley, and the link upon the cross-bar of the steelyard is united with the shackle of one of the saws by means of its keys; then suffering the steelyard to descend, it stretches the saw: the wedge of the shackle for the saw is thrust in by the hand as far as it will go, and thus retains the saw at the tension to which the steelyard has strained it. The shackle of the steelyard is then disengaged from the saw and removed to the next, and thus, in turn, all the saws are equally strained, a circumstance which is of great importance, because any saw which is more slack than another will be liable to bend and cut crooked, when the grain of the wood tends to divert it from its true direction.

The carriages of this mill are very admirably contrived to hold the trees firmly, and to fix them in a little time: they are advanced, as the saws cut, by a rack and pinion, with a ratchet-wheel; and the click of the ratchet is moved by means of an excentric wheel, or camm, upon the axis of the crank. There is also a contrivance, by which the saw-frame is allowed to retreat a small quantity in its ascent, so that the teeth of the saw will be quite clear from the wood, when they return, that is, when they ascend, and do not cut. Mr. Brunel has directed the execution of several other saw-mills upon the same principle, particularly a very large one in the dock-yard at Chatham.

Circular Sawing-Machines.—Circular saws, or saws of a circular form, which cut during a continuous rotatory motion, have been used for cutting the teeth of watch and clock wheels since the time of Dr. Hook. They have been long used in Holland for cutting veneers, and they are said to have been introduced into this country by General Bentham. Mr. Taylor of Southampton, and Mr. George Smart, had the merit of introducing them very early; but we do not know the exact dates.

A circular saw is nothing more than a circular plate of steel, having teeth upon its circumference, and made to revolve upon an axis with great rapidity, by means of bands or straps. The saw itself may move either on a horizontal, a vertical, or an inclined plane; and as the timber may be laid upon a plane inclined in any given direction, it may be sawn in lines making any angle whatever, or at any given distance from one another. When the saw is fixed at a certain angle and at a given distance from the edge of the frame, all the pieces of wood may be cut exactly of the same size, by pressing them against the edge as the saw is cutting them. The following is a description of the circular saws at Rothiemurchus in Inverness-shire.

There are two kinds of saws made use of in the Rothiemurchus saw-mill; circular saws and upright ones. A circular saw is a thin round plate of steel, toothed on the circumference fixed on a revolving axle. An upright saw is the common saw made use of by sawyers, fixed in a frame moving vertically. In both cases, the log to be sawn is fixed to a frame, which is moved against the saw. Each of these constructions has peculiar advantages. The upright saw, it is evident, cuts only in descending; there are also two points in every stroke at which it is stationary—the one when it is at its height, the other when at its lowest. A large proportion of the time of each stroke is thus consumed without effect. A circular saw cuts during the whole of its revolution; and it is found that a much greater velocity can be given to a circular motion, which is equal and constant, than to an upright one, which is necessarily unequal. A circular saw is thus much more expeditious than an upright one. It is, however, much more limited in its application, as it can only work in wood of less depth than the radius of the saw. The size of wood is further controlled by the thick plates of metal which are made use of to fix the saw on its axle. These flaunges, as they are called, it is found by experience, require to be about one-third of the diameter of the saw. Besides this, the size of the saw itself is controlled by the thickness required to give the plate sufficient stiffness. A circular saw, too, one-eighth of an inch thick, would occasion much loss in saw draft. In this mill no saws have ever been used above three feet diameter.

The application of upright saws is controlled only by the length of stroke given to the saw frame and its size; the stiffness of the saws is given by stretching them tightly between the upper and lower ends of the frame, and is therefore in a great degree independent of the actual size of the saw.

The intention in this mill is to saw by circular saws where they would not occasion too great a loss in saw draft; and in this case only, to saw by upright ones.

The circular saws run about 1000 turns per minute, and will cut 10 inches deep on 3-16ths of an inch of saw draft. The upright saws make about 120 strokes per minute, and will run on rather less saw draft.

The circular saws will cut a 12-foot log in less than a minute; the upright saws in equally fine work, will not cut above 15 inches in the same time.

An improvement in the mode of fitting up circular saws was made by Mr. Maudslay. When the pivots at the end of the axle were conical, or when there were conical hollows on the end of the axles working upon fixed cones, the oil was always carried up the cone by the centrifugal force, and the sharp point being left without oil, soon heated, and caused the metal to become soft. In order to avoid this, Mr. Maudslay made his saw spindles with double conical sockets, and the oil was introduced by a small hole into the smallest part of the double cones where they join. By this means the centrifugal force draws the oil into the fitting.

In order to prevent thin circular saws from bending, or buckling as it is called, they are confined between two flat circular plates: but in place of doing this, the bending is now confined to a more narrow ring near the rim of the saw. By this contrivance, the saw revolves with such truth and accuracy, that it is fit for the nicest operations, such as cutting the teeth of the finest cones. It is considered advantageous to soften circular saws when the teeth require sharpening, and to temper them only to a yellow colour. See Dr. Brewster's Journal of Science, No. III.

SAWLEY, a parish of England, in Derbyshire; 9½ miles east-south-east of Derby. Population 823.

SAWLEY, a parish of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles north-east of Clitheroe. Population 564.

SAWLEY, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles south-west of Rippon. Population 489.

SAWMILL CREEK, a river of the United States, in Maryland, which runs into the Potomac. Lat. 39. 6. N. long. 77. 20. W.

SAW'PIT, *s.* A pit wherein timber is sawn.

SAW-PITT, a post village of the United States, in West Chester county, New York.

SAWSTON, a parish of England, in Cambridgeshire, situated at the foot of the Gogmagog hills; 5 miles west-by-north of Linton. Population 603.

SAWTRY ALL SAINTS, St. Andrews, and St. Judith's, three parishes of England, in Huntingdonshire; 3½ miles south of Stilton. Population 815.

SAW'WORT, *s.* A plant. See Serratula.

SAWYAH, a spacious bay on the west coast of Celebes, somewhat farther south than Cape Durado. It is a fine deep sandy bay, capable of receiving ships of any burden. Towards the north extremity is a small island called Steersman's island.

SAWYAH, a town of Celebes, on the west coast, situated on the north side of Sawyah bay, about five miles inland. It stands on a small rivulet, and has little trade beyond making sago.

SAW'ER, or more properly Sawyer, *s.* One who saws timber.

SAWYER'S FERRY, a small post town of the United States, in North Carolina; 14 miles from Nixontown.

SAWYER'S, or Afferadores Island, on the west coast of Mexico, is of a small size, and has on its south-east side a small creek of its name, which boats can only enter at high water; it is 12 miles from the Bar of Realejo.

SAX, a village and district of Switzerland, in the canton of St. Gall, situated between the Rheinthal and Appenzel. The population of the district amounts to nearly 3000, employed partly in pasturage, and partly in the making of linen and lace; 8 miles south-east of Appenzel.

SAX, a small town of the south of Spain, in Murcia, on the River Taraffa; 23 miles west of Alicant. Population 2200.

SAXAPHAW, a branch of Cape Fear river, in North Carolina, in the United States.

SAXBY, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 5 miles east-by-north of Melton Mowbray.

SAXBY, a village of England, in Lincolnshire; 5½ miles south-west of Barton-upon-Humber.

SAXE (Maurice), Count of, a celebrated general, born at Goslar, in 1696, was the natural son of Frederic Augustus I. elector of Saxony and king of Poland, by the countess of Konigsmarck. At a very early period, he displayed a most decided taste for arms. It was with difficulty that he was taught to read and write: the only means of inducing him to attend to his lessons, was to promise him some military exercise when they were finished. While he was a child, he served in the allied army, commanded by those great masters of the art of war, prince Eugene and the duke of Marlborough. He was present with the Saxon troops at the siege of Lille, in the year 1708, and at that of Tournay, and at the battle of Malplaquet in the following year. Upon all occasions, he exhibited the most determined and enterprising valour, and in the campaign of 1710 he obtained the public eulogies of the allied generals. He accompanied the king of Poland to the siege of Strasburg in 1711, where he so much distinguished himself, that a regiment of cavalry was raised for him, with which he fought against the Swedes at the battle of Gadebusch. Soon after, his mother procured him a marriage with the countess of Loben, a lady of fortune and beauty, by whom he had a child, which died in infancy. Count Saxe was, however, too much attached to licentious pleasure to be able to live happily in a domestic union: he obtained a divorce in 1721, after which he never married again. In the mean time he had been pursuing his military career, and, in 1717, he served in Hungary under prince Eugene, against the Turks. After the treaties of Utrecht and Passarowitz, having no longer a field for the exercise of his valour, he withdrew to France, in which he was fixed by a brevet of mareschal-de-camp, granted to him in 1720 by the regent, duke of Orleans. He there engaged with great ardour in the study of all the branches of mathematics connected with the military art, and in tactical improvements. In the year 1722, he obtained the command of a German regiment in the French service; he disciplined it in a new method of exercise, the merit of which caused the chevalier Folard to predict that he would become one of the first generals of his time. On the death of the duke of Courland in 1725, Count Saxe was instigated to become a candidate for the succession to that sovereignty; but he was, in the end, unsuccessful, and after a long struggle he gave it up, and returned to Paris. He there employed himself in cultivating his mind, and in his favourite military studies, of which one of the fruits was a work which he entitled "Mes Reveries," full of ingenious and original thoughts on military subjects. In the new war which broke out in 1733, in consequence of the death of the king of Poland, Count Saxe declined the command of the Polish army offered him by his brother, the elector, and joined the French army on the Rhine, under the marshal-duke of Berwick. His brilliant services caused him, in 1734, to be advanced to the rank of lieutenant-general. After a short peace in Europe, the death of the emperor Charles VI. occasioned a new war, and, in 1741, Count Saxe took Prague by escalade, and then reduced Egra. In 1744, he was created a marshal of France, and at the same time the chief command of an army in Flanders was given him. At this period he was in extremely ill health, and being asked how he could venture in so weak a condition to take upon himself such a burden, considering his situation, he replied, "my business is not to live, but to march." In 1745, he gained the famous battle of Fontenoy, during the heat of which he mounted on horseback, though in such a state of debility, that his death was almost every moment expected. The fruits of this victory were all the principal towns in Flanders, of which Brussels surrendered the last, in February, 1746. The Marshal was greatly distinguished in the campaigns of 1747 and 1748, which last was followed by the peace of Aix-la-Chapelle, and Marshal Saxe was appointed commandant-general of all the conquests in the Low Countries. He now, with his well-earned fame, retired to his estate in France, which had been given him by the king of France, where he passed his time in the society of men of letters and artists. He only once quitted this retreat, and that was for the purpose of visiting the king of Prussia at Berlin, where he was received with the highest honours. He died at the early age of 54, being worn out with the labours of his military life. In his last illness, he said to his physician, Senac, "I have had a fine dream," such did he mean had been his life, which to others, certainly, had been something more than a dream. By, and under his command, thousands had been cut off in the prime of life; but generals and monarchs seldom regard the lives of their men, except as materials adapted to their use, and formed for their glory. Marshal Saxe, though extremely licentious in his manners, remained attached to the Lutheran religion, and he was interred with great funeral pomp in the principal Lutheran church at Strasburg, where a magnificent mausoleum was erected to his memory. Marshal Saxe, though ardent and enterprising, was, notwithstanding our observation of commanders in general, sparing of the lives of his soldiers. He was just to the merit of his officers, zealously displaying their services, and supporting their interest at court. "He had," says his biographer, "a romantic imagination, and formed various projects of ambition besides that respecting the dukedom of Courland; among these was a design upon the crown of Corsica, and several plans for settlements in America: and it is even said, that he had an idea of collecting the scattered nation of the Jews, and placing himself at their head." His "Reveries" have been several

several times reprinted; the best edition is that of Paris, 2 vols. 4to. 1757.

SAXEGOTHA, a village or settlement of the United States, in South Carolina, on the south bank of Congaree river.

SAXELBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 6 miles north-west of Lincoln. Population 450.

SAXENBURG, an island in the South Atlantic ocean, discovered by John Lindestz, a Dutchman, in 1670. Lat. 30. 45. S. long. 20. W.

SAXHAM, Great and Little, two adjoining parishes of England; 5 miles west-by-south of Bury St. Edmund's.

SAXI, sometimes spelt Sassi (Joseph Anthony), an Italian writer in ecclesiastical history, was born at Milan in the year 1673. He was educated to the ecclesiastical profession, and for some time taught the belles-lettres in his native city. He afterwards discharged the duties of a missionary. In 1703, he was admitted a doctor of the Ambrosian college at Milan, and eight years afterwards he was appointed director of that college, and of the library attached to it. He died about the year 1756. He was author of many theological, historical, and chronological works, of which the titles of the following may be mentioned; "Epistola ad Card. Quirium de Literatura Mediolanensium," 4to. "De Studiis Mediolanensium Antiquis et Novis." "Archiepiscoporum Mediolanensium Series critico-chronologica." "Historia Getarum." Some of the works of Saxi have been inserted in the collection "Rerum Italicarum Scriptores," by Muratori.

SAXIFRAGA [q. *saxa frangat;* because several of the species grow in the fissures of rocks], in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order digynia, natural order of succulentæ; saxifragæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, five-parted, short, acute, permanent. Corolla: petals five, spreading, narrow at the base. Stamina: filaments ten, awl-shaped. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germ roundish-acuminate, ending in two short styles. Stigmas blunt. Pericarp: capsule subovate, two-beaked, two-celled, opening between the points. Seeds numerous, minute.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-parted. Corolla five-petalled. Capsule two-beaked, one-celled, many-seeded.

I.—Leaves undivided; stem almost naked.

1. Saxifraga cotyledon, or pyramidal saxifrage.—Root-leaves aggregate, tongue-shaped, cartilaginous-toothed, stem panicled, leafy, calyxes glandular-hairy. Panicle very much branched, many-flowered. Petals spotted, sometimes without spots. There are numerous varieties of this species. Barrelier has figured five.

2. Saxifraga aizoon, or marginated saxifrage.—Root-leaves aggregate, tongue shaped, cartilaginous-toothed, stem simple, racemed, leafy, calyxes smooth. This differs from the preceding, in having a racemose, leafy stem, and a smooth calyx.—Native of the Alps.

3. Saxifraga mutata, or saffron-coloured saxifrage.—Root-leaves aggregate, tongue-shaped, at the edge cartilaginous, repand, stem racemed, leafy, calyxes glandular-hairy, petals linear-lanceolate. This has the appearance of being a hybridous or male plant. Flowers large.—Native of the mountains of Switzerland, Carniola and Italy.

4. Saxifraga Pennsylvanica, or Pennsylvanian saxifrage.—Leaves oblong-lanceolate, somewhat hairy, toothletted, peduncles alternate, corymb-capitate. Root perennial, fibrous. Leaves seven or eight inches long, and two broad towards the top, of a deep green and thick consistence, spreading near the ground. Stem a foot and half high, naked, branching at top in form of a panicle, and sustaining very small herbaceous flowers, collected into little heads.—Native of North America.

5. Saxifraga hieracifolia.—This resembles the preceding, but is distinct in its manner of flowering. The leaves are smooth on both sides, very finely ciliate at the edge, with short jointed hairs. Stem a foot high, naked, pubescent. Peduncles four or six together alternately, and supported by a lanceolate bracte. The upper flower subsessile and more clustered.—Native of the Carpathian mountains.

6. Saxifraga androsacea.—Leaves lanceolate, blunt, hairy, stem three inches in height, naked, two-flowered. It is a very small plant, and its short, blunt, villose, entire leaves resemble those of androsace villosa, whence Linnæus's trivial name. Petals small and whitish.—Native of Switzerland, Austria, Dauphiné, Piedmont, and Siberia.

7. Saxifraga cæsia.—Root creeping, long, branched, covered with brown scales. Tufts very close, formed of hard, oblong, acute leaves, bent downwards at the end, glaucous. Stem four inches high, bearing one, three or five milk-white flowers, with round petals marked with lines. There is a variety from the high mountains of Italy, the stem of which is double the size of the other, hirsute and viscid.—Native of the Alps and Pyrenees, Austria and Monte Baldo.

8. Saxifraga burseriana.—It has the appearance of a small sedum. Leaves like those of juniper, closely imbricate, smooth. Stem scarcely a finger's length, glutinous, with three or four alternate, linear leaflets. Flowers milk-white, with pale lines. It has a variety with five-flowered stems and fastigiate flowers.—Native of Carinthia.

9. Saxifraga sedoides.—Stem very much branched, filiform, depressed. Leaves aggregate, linear, even. Peduncle often one flowered, more seldom two or three-flowered. Flower superior.—Native of Carinthia: it varies much in its habit, height and leaves.

10. Saxifraga tenella.—Leaves lanceolate, ciliate at the base, imbricate, stem almost naked, few-flowered, calyxes mucronate.—Native of the mountains of Carinthia.

11. Saxifraga bryoides, or bryum saxifrage.—Leaves, lanceolate, mucronate, cartilaginous at the edge and ciliate: stem-leaves five or six, alternate, tender. Stem pubescent. Flowers one or few. Petals pale yellow, with tawny or orange spots.—Native of the Alps and Pyrenees, Austria, Carniola, Dauphiné, and Piedmont.

12. Saxifraga bronchialis.—Runners oblong, imbricate, in clusters. Leaves flat, spiny-ciliate. Stem high, almost naked, with a few very small mucronate leaves, even at the edge, many-flowered.—Native of Siberia.

13. Saxifraga stellaris, starry or hairy saxifrage or kidney-wort.—Roots perennial, long, fibrous, crowned with flat stellate tufts of obovate leaves, hairy above, paler and smooth, sometimes purple beneath, pointed and grossly serrate towards the end. From each tuft arises one naked stem, rooting a little at the base, from two to six inches high, erect, divided at top into a sort of corymb or panicle of from three to seven or nine flowers, each on a separate pedicel, having a lanceolate, entire, or sometimes trifid bracte at the base. Calyx reflexed.—Native of the mountains of Spitzbergen, Lapland, Switzerland, Styria, Dauphiné, Piedmont, Siberia, and Britain. In our northern counties, Westmoreland, Cumberland, Lancashire, Yorkshire; in Wales, and in Scotland, abundantly, on the black turfy margins of rills.

14. Saxifraga crassifolia, or thick-leaved saxifrage.—Root superficial, black, scaly, with the relics of dead leaves, the thickness of a finger or thumb, round, sending down filiform fibres from the lower surface. Stems from the axils of the leaves of the year preceding, at the tops of the roots, alternate, very short, almost upright, covered with the sheaths of the leaves, quite simple, but branched in autumn. Leaves three or four, alternate, obovate-oblong, veined, a span long, flat, coriaceous. Scape or peduncle terminating, solitary, erect, a span high, the thickness of the little finger, very smooth, almost naked, many-flowered. Panicle naked, blood-red, composed of pedate racemes. Flowers inferior, drooping, pedicelled. The root is white within, and very styptic or astringent when chewed. The stem changes every year into root; that which flowers one year losing its leaves during the winter, turning to the ground, becoming black, and putting forth fibres. After the plant has flowered, the stem puts forth branches from the axils of the leaves, which have the panicle of flowers for the next year included in their gems. When the flowers fade they turn blue.—Native of Siberia.

15. Saxifraga nivalis, snowy or clustered Alpine saxifrage or

or sengreen.—Leaves obovate, serrate, stem naked, flowers clustered, capsule half inferior. Root perennial, black, sending down long fibres into the black moist ground.—Native of Britain, Spitzbergen, Lapland, Virginia, and Canada.

16. Saxifraga Bellardi.—From a fibrous root proceed tufts of hirsute leaves, dark green, wedge-shaped, three or five-lobed, with the middle lobe larger and bluntish. From the centre of each tuft issues one flower, seldom two or three; they are sessile, and the petals are elliptic and pure white.—Native of the Piedmont Alps on moist mossy rocks. Found by Bellardi.

17. Saxifraga Daurica.—Leaves cuneiform-rhombed, toothed at the end, smooth, petioled, stem naked.—Native of the highest Alps of Dauria, under the snow.

18. Saxifraga sarmentosa, or China saxifrage.—Leaves roundish, toothed, hairy, runners creeping, two petals elongated.—Native of China and Japan.

19. Saxifraga punctata, or dotted Siberian saxifrage.—Leaves roundish, toothed, on long petioles, stem naked. Flowers smaller than in saxifraga geum, almost inferior.—Native of Siberia.

20. Saxifraga umbrosa, or London pride.—Leaves all radical, aggregate in tufts, spreading, running down into the petiole, even and quite smooth, often purple beneath. Scape a span high, erect, red, hairy, many-flowered, with a few small alternate bractes. Flowers upright. Petals obovate-lanceolate, white or flesh-coloured, most beautifully dotted with yellow and dark red. Germ altogether superior, rose-coloured.—Native of Ireland and England.

21. Saxifraga hirsuta, or hairy saxifrage.—Stem naked, panicled. Leaves thick, kidney-shaped, crenate, deep green above, pale green beneath, on long, thick, hairy foot-stalks. Corolla white, marked with red spots. Stamens longer than petals.—Native of the Pyrenees.

22. Saxifraga cuneifolia, or wedge-leaved saxifrage.—Leaves in spreading tufts, producing other little tufts, thick, solid, white and cartilaginous at the edge. Stem very brittle, a long span in height. Panicle thin, with the flowers on long, tender, branched pedicels.—Native of Switzerland, Styria, Dauphiné. It flowers here in May.

23. Saxifraga geum, or kidney-leaved saxifrage.—Leaves kidney-shaped, toothed, stem naked, panicled. Distinct from the preceding species in having the leaves erect. Petals dotted below the middle. Calyx reflexed.—Native of the Alps of Europe.

II.—Leaves undivided; stem leafy.

24. Saxifraga oppositifolia, or purple-flowered saxifrage.—Stem-leaves ovate, opposite, imbricate, the upper ones ciliate. Stems very long, trailing, either forming tufts or hanging down from the crevices of rocks, branched, leafy; the flowering branchlets erect. Flowers terminating, solitary, purple, large and handsome. Calyx purplish, ciliate at the edges. This beautiful plant insinuates its roots into every crevice, and with its numerous trailing branches cloaths the rocks with a rich tapestry, during the months of April and May. In gardens it flowers in February and March. As the flowers go off they incline to blue, and it is said to vary with white flowers. There are two varieties; one bearing flowers of a beautiful red colour, and the other yellow.—Native of Spitzbergen, Lapland, Britain, Switzerland, Dauphiné, Piedmont, Siberia; on Alpine rocks; flowering in April. On Snowdon; on Ben Lomond, and other Scottish mountains; Isles of Rum and Skye.

25. Saxifraga aspera, or rough saxifrage.—This has tufts of leaves forming dark roses close to the ground, and younger stalks, as it were gems, sessile in the axils of the ciliate leaves. From the creeping stalk rise up flowering-stalks, a long span in height, weak, trifid or quadrifid. Leaves oblong, acute, rigidly ciliate at the edges. Flowers on long, naked, one-flowered branches, three or four in the whole, on the top of the plant.—Native of the mountains of Switzerland, Austria, Provence, Dauphiné, and Piedmont.

26. Saxifraga hirculus, or yellow marsh saxifrage.—Stem-leaves lanceolate, alternate, unarmed, stem erect, germ ovate, superior. Flowers one or two (sometimes three), large.—Native of Lapland, Sweden, England, Germany, Switzerland, Piedmont, Siberia, in bogs.

27. Saxifraga aizoides, or yellow mountain saxifrage.—Stem-leaves linear alternate tooth-ciliate, stem decumbent at the base, germ depressed half inferior.—The roots creep very far. From the upper part of the stem arise many peduncles, each from the axil of a leaf, of various lengths, the lower ones longest, each clothed with two small leaves, and generally bearing one flower.—Native of Lapland, Sweden, Norway, Britain, Switzerland, Carniola, Dauphiné, Silesia, Piedmont. With us it is found in bogs and by rills, on most of the mountains in the north of England, and in Scotland; flowering in July and August.

28. Saxifraga rotundifolia, or round-leaved saxifrage.—Stem-leaves kidney-shaped, toothed, petioled, corolla inferior.—The stem puts out a few slender foot-stalks from the upper part, which, together with the stem itself, are terminated by small clusters of flowers, white spotted with red.—Native of Switzerland, Austria, Silesia, Dauphiné, and Piedmont.

III.—Leaves lobed; stems erect.

29. Saxifraga granulata, or white saxifrage.—Leaves kidney-shaped, lobed, stem panicled, root granulated, germ half inferior.—Native of Europe, in dry pastures and on banks, where the soil is gravelly. In Britain it is not very common, but where it does occur it is found in plenty: flowering in May, and seeding in June. It varies with double flowers, and in this state is cultivated.

30. Saxifraga bulbifera, bulbous, or meadow saxifrage. Leaves palmate-lobed, stem-leaves sessile, stem branche bulbiferous, germ half inferior. This is rather a variety of the preceding than a distinct species.—Native of Italy, in shady rocky pastures, and of Norway.

31. Saxifraga cernua, or drooping bulbous saxifrage.—Leaves palmate, petioled, stem bulbiferous, petals retuse, germ superior. Root a small scaly bulb, throwing out branched black fibres. Flower terminating, solitary, white, nodding.—Native of the mountains of Lapland.

32. Saxifraga rivularis, or Alpine brook saxifrage.—Leaves palmate petioled, the upper one spatulate, stem few-flowered, root fibrous, germ half inferior. Flowers erect, small white.—Native of the Lapland mountains, Finmark, Norland, Siberia, and Scotland.

33. Saxifraga geranioides, or crane's-bill leaved saxifrage.—Root-leaves kidney-shaped, five-lobed, multifid, stem-leaves linear, stem almost naked branched. Root stoloniferous; peduncles axillary, alternate, commonly three-flowered, sometimes, but seldom, five-flowered.—Native of the Pyrenees, by rills and on shady rocks; also of Siberia. Introduced in 1770, by Monsieur Richard. It flowers in April and May.

34. Saxifraga ajugifolia, or bugle-leaved saxifrage.—Root-leaves palmate-five-parted, stem-leaves linear, undivided, stems ascending, many-flowered. Runners before they put out leaves hirsute.—Native of the mountains of Provence.

35. Saxifraga Sibirica, or Siberian saxifrage.—Leaves kidney-shaped, palmate hairy, stem and peduncles filiform. Radicles capillary. Flower biggish, white, inferior.—Native of Siberia.

36. Saxifraga rupestris, or rock saxifrage.—Stem-leaves wedge-shaped, three-lobed, toothed, glandular-hairy, peduncles one-flowered, very long, stem ascending, branched at the base. Is an annual plant.—Native of the mountains of Carinthia.

37. Saxifraga tridactylites, rue-leaved saxifrage, or whitlow grass.—Leaves wedge-shaped, trifid or quinquefid alternate, the upper ones undivided, stem panicled, germ inferior.—Root annual, small, entirely fibrous. The whole herb is succulent, pubescent with projecting hairs which are clammy from the globules which terminate them, and turning red after flowering. Flowers small, white, on solitary peduncles. Common in most parts of Europe, on walls, thatched roofs, and in dry barren places: flowering in April and May.

38. Saxifraga

SAXIFRAGA.

1. Saxifraga Cotyledon. 2. S. Oppositifolia. 3. S. hirculus. 4. S. Cernua.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1826.

38. Saxifraga petræa, or stone saxifrage.—Leaves wedge-shaped, root-leaves entire and three-toothed, stem-leaves five-toothed, upper ones trifid, peduncles subtriflorous. Annual; very nearly allied to the preceding.—Native of the mountains of Lapland, Norway, Switzerland, Savoy, Carinthia, and Dauphiné. It flowers in April and May.

39. Saxifraga adscendens, or wedge-leaved saxifrage.—Leaves palmate-three-parted, segments subtrifid, stem branched ascending. A viscid plant, leafy all over, with the flowering stems only from the top, and not as in petræa, to which it is very nearly allied, branched very much every way into a bundle.—Native of the Alps and Pyrenees, Monte Baldo, the Hartz forest, &c.

40. Saxifraga moschata, or musky Alpine saxifrage.—This has the habit of cæspitosa, but the leaves are much more slender, almost all of them undivided, triple-nerved beyond the middle. Petals yellowish, triple-nerved. Germ inferior. The herb is sweet-smelling and viscid.—Native of Switzerland, the Pyrenees, Carniola, &c.

41. Saxifraga cæspitosa, or tufted Alpine saxifrage.—Root in tufts. Stem two inches high, erect, not very leafy, hairy. Root-leaves clustered, numerous, ciliate, blunt; stem-leaves alternate, commonly undivided, but sometimes three-parted. Flowers terminating, peduncled, erect, yellowish. Calyx hemispherical, hairy-viscid, with the segments blunt and denudated. Petals obovate, quite entire, triple-nerved. Capsule almost inferior. There are three varieties.—Native of Sweden, Norway, Switzerland, Austria, Carniola, Silesia, Dauphiné, Piedmont, and Wales.

42. Saxifraga palmata, or palmata saxifrage.—Leaves hairy, palmate, quinquefid or trifid; stem leafy, panicled; petals roundish. Root-leaves numerous, in tufts, from the centre of which arises a simple erect flowering-stem, a hand high, round, hairy, surrounded at the base with several nearly upright, shortish, leafy shoots or branches. Panicle erect, terminating, viscid, not very spreading, composed of five to seven or eight greenish-white flowers.—Native of Denmark and Wales.

43. Saxifraga tricuspidata.—Root-leaves aggregate, wedge-shaped, ciliate, acutely three-toothed, stem ascending, racemose; petals lanceolate, three times as long as the calyx. This approaches a little in the form of the leaves to cæspitosa, but it bears a flower like that of Hircules.—Native of Greenland.

IV.—Leaves lobed; stems procumbent.

44. Saxifraga cymbalaria, or yellow prostrate saxifrage.—Stem-leaves cordate, three-lobed and entire, stems procumbent. Root-leaves greatly resembling those of Antirrhinum Cymbalaria, whence its trivial name.—Native of the Levant on Mount Ararat.

45. Saxifraga-hederacea, or ivy-leaved saxifrage.—Stem-leaves ovate lobed, stem filiform flaccid. This is a small annual plant.—Native of the Levant.

46. Saxifraga orientalis, or eastern saxifrage.—Leaves roundish, five-lobed, stem very much branched, procumbent. This bears some similitude to Saxifraga Cymbalaria, but differs from it in the shining smoothness of all the parts, in the colour, smallness and expansion of the flowers, in the greater length of the stamens, and in having the flowering branches more elongated.—Native of the Levant.

47. Saxifraga cuneata, or wedge-leaved white saxifrage.—Lower leaves petioled, wedge-shaped, five-lobed, stem-leaves sessile, lanceolate, stem ascending panicled. Corolla white. Germ inferior.—Native of Spain, near the mountains near Castell-fort.

48. Saxifraga hypnoides, mossy saxifrage, or ladies' cushion.—Leaves linear, entire or trifid, runners procumbent, stem almost naked, petals elliptic-oblong. Roots fibrous, long and slender, throwing out many procumbent leafy shoots, which grow matted together, forming thick tufts; from the common origin of these arises a solitary erect round stem, bearing two or three straggling linear undivided leaves, and terminating in an upright panicle of a few large white flowers.—Native of Britain, Denmark, Switzerland, Austria, and France. Tufts of it often clothe rocks, where the inequalities are filled with black turfy earth, on the mountains of Wales, Scotland, and the north of England, as on Snowdon, Ben Lomond, and Arthur's Seat near Edinburgh, Westmoreland, Yorkshire, Malham, Settle, &c.; Derbyshire in Dovedale and Middleton-dale. Also on Chedder-rocks in Somersetshire: flowering in May, and often again sparingly in July and August.

49. Saxifraga globulifera.—Stem bulbiferous; leaves nerved, the lower ones spatulate, quite entire, the upper ones palmate three or five-cleft, in the flowering-branch remote, linear.—This has the appearance of the preceding, and is scarcely distinct from it.—Found on the top of Mount Atlas.

50. Saxifraga spathulata, or spatulate saxifrage.—Leaves spatulate, obtuse, ciliate, undivided, pedicels axillary, one-flowered. Stems in tufts, branched, slender, prostrate. Pedicels filiform, short. Corolla white, twice as long as the calyx. Petals obovate.—On the summit of Mount Atlas, near Belide. They both flower very early in the spring.

Propagation and Culture.—All the saxifrages are easily propagated by offsets, or parting the roots in spring or autumn, observing always to give them the same kind of soil that they grow naturally in; this does not, of course, apply to the annuals, which are propagated by seed.

SAXIFRAGÆ, in Botany, the eighty-fourth natural order in Jussieu's system, the second of his fourteenth class; The characters of the order are these:—Calyx superior, or more frequently inferior, in four or five divisions. Petals four or five, rarely wanting, inserted into the upper part of the calyx, and alternate with its segments. Stamens as many, or mostly twice that number, inserted into the same place. Germen simple, superior, or rarely inferior. Styles and stigmas two. Fruit often capsular, of one or two cells, with many seeds; its summit with two valves; the partition formed by their inflexion. Corculum incurved, surrounding a farinaceous or somewhat fleshy mass. Stem generally herbaceous. Leaves alternate, rarely opposite; sometimes thickish, or fleshy.

Sect. 1. Fruit superior, capsular, terminating in two beaks.

Heuchera, Saxifraga, Tiarella, and Mitella. To these the late Mr. Dryander properly added Galax.

Sect. 2. Fruit inferior, capsular or pulpy.

Chrysosplenium and Adoxa.

Sect. 3. Genera allied to the Saxifragæ.

Weinmannia, Cunonia, and Hydrangea.

Mr. Salisbury, in Sims and Konig's Ann. of Bot. v. 1. 513, has suggested the propriety of establishing another section of this order, with an indefinite number of stamens, which is exemplified in Bauera, a genus named by Sir J. E. Smith, after one Bauer.

SAXIFRAGE, Burnet. See Pimpinella and Anise.

SAXIFRAGE, Golden. See Chrysosplenium.

SAXIFRAGE, Red, *Saxifraga lutea*, a name given by some botanic authors to the silipendula, or dropwort.

SAXIFRAGE, Yellow, *Saxifraga lutea*, a name given by Fuchsius, and some other authors, to the common melilot.

SAXIFRAGE, *s.* A plant. See Saxifraga.

SAXIFRAGOUS, *adj.* Dissolvent of the stones in the bladder. The old physicians speak of saxifragous herbs; but the existence of such agents is not at present credited.

SAXKIOBING, a petty sea-port of Denmark, in the island of Laaland, with 600 inhabitants; 10 miles west-by-north of Nyekiobing.

SAXLINGHAM NETHERGATE, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 3 miles north-east of St. Mary Stratton. Population 596.

SAXLINGHAM THORPE, a parish in the same county; half a mile distant from the foregoing.

SAXMUNDUM, a market town and parish of England, in the county of Suffolk, situated between Woodbridge and Yoxford,

Yoxford, on the road to Halesworth. The town stands on a hill. The houses, about 400 in number, are in general well built, but the streets are narrow and unpaved. The church is a spacious building, and contains various monuments of the Long family. Here is also a dissenting meeting-house. At the southern extremity of the town stands Hurts Hall, a seat belonging to Charles Long, Esq. No particular manufacture is carried on in the town. Market on Thursday. Population 967; 19 miles east of Ipswich, and 89 north-east of London.

SAXO, the oldest of the Danish historians, called *Grammaticus*, on account of his great learning, was descended from an illustrious family, and born in Seland, but at what time is not known. By some writers he is styled *Longus*, an epithet which is supposed to have been applied to him in consequence of his stature. He was secretary or amanuensis to Absolon, archbishop of Lunden, by whose desire he wrote the history of his native country, in sixteen books. This history commences with Dan, the first king of Denmark, who was contemporary with David, and terminates with the year 1186. Saxo died in 1204, and was buried in the cathedral of Roskild. He collected the materials of his history from the works of the old Danish poets, inscriptions on old stones, the Icelandic chronicles, and the relation that had been drawn up by his friend and patron Absolon. He wrote in Latin, and the style, considering the age in which it was written, is extremely elegant, but rather too poetical for history. He is highly applauded by Heinsius and Gerard Vossius; and Erasmus, speaking of his history, says, "Probo vividum et ardens ingenium, orationem nunquam remissam aut dormitantem, tum miram verborum copiam, sententias crebras, et figurarum admirabilem varietatem, ut satis admirari, nequeam unde illa ætate homini Dano tanta vis eloquendi suppetiverit." With respect to the authenticity of the facts, Holberg remarks that the first part, which relates to the origin of the Danes and the reign of the ancient kings, is full of fables, but that the last eight books, and particularly those that refer to the events of the author's own times, deserve the utmost credit.

SAXON, *s.* An inhabitant of Saxony, or descendant from its aborigines.

The Anglo-Saxons, who transported themselves from the Cimbric peninsula and its vicinity, in the fifth and sixth centuries, into England, were branches of the grand Saxon confederation, which, from the Elbe, extended itself at last to the Rhine. The hostilities of these formidable people had long distressed the western regions of Europe, and when the Gothic nations overran the most valuable provinces of Rome, the Anglo-Saxons invaded Britain soon after the Romans had quitted it. As these new conquerors advanced, their laws, language, manners, government, and barbarism overspread the land.

The Saxon name, which became, on the continent, the appellation of a confederacy of nations, denoted at first a single state. The first writer who seems to have mentioned the Saxons, was Ptolemy, the famous Alexandrian geographer. From him we learn, that before the year 141 after Christ, a people, called Saxones, inhabited a territory at the north side of the Elbe, on the neck of the Cimbric Chersonesus, now Jutland, and three small islands, at the mouth of this river; but they were at this period of no great importance. Attempts have been made to trace their history beyond this period; and in doing this, many wild and inconsistent fictions have been framed. One author investigates their origin among the Scythians, and is of opinion, that the Sakai, or Sacæ, a powerful tribe of this nation, were their progenitors. *Sakai-suna*, or the sons of the Sakai, abbreviated into Saksun, which has the same sound with Saxon, seems to be, as he conceives, a reasonable etymology of the word Saxon. Strabo places the Sacæ eastward of the Caspian, and he leads us to conclude, that in some of their hostile excursions, they seized on Bactriana and the most fertile part of Armenia, which from them derived the name of Sacassena, and that they reached the Cappadoces on the Euxine. Some of these marauding Sacæ or Sacassani might probably be driven forward to the western coasts of Europe, where they were found by Ptolemy, and whence they molested the Roman empire in the third century of our era. The three islands which the Saxons occupied in the time of Ptolemy were those that are now denominated North Strandt, Busen and Heiligland. On the continent they also occupied a territory, which was situated on the western side of the Cimbric peninsula, between the Elbe and the Eyder. From these countries our Saxon ancestors made their incursions in the time of Ptolemy, and from them they spread terror through Europe, when their attention became directed to maritime depredations. The second writer who mentions the Saxons was Eutropius, who lived above a century after Ptolemy. In accounting for the rebellion of Carausius, and his assumption of the purple, he states the Saxons to have united with the Franks, and to have become formidable to the Romans by their piratical enterprises. During the interval that had elapsed from the age of Ptolemy, the Saxons had prospered; and their prosperity seems to have arisen from the repulse of the Romans from the Elbe to the Rhine, from the rise of the Franks, A. D. 235-240, and from their own application to maritime expeditions. In the beginning of the 4th century the Saxon fleets acquired an addition of strength from the union of other states, and their league with concurring princes was extended. The Chauci led the way; the Frisii followed; and at length the Chamavi, the Batavi, the Toxandri, and Morini, became their allies. The Cimbri, the Jutes, the Angles, and others, added their numbers to the formidable league, which began to dissolve after their expedition to Britain. As the boundaries of the Saxon states enlarged with their leagues, they comprehended the population between the Elbe and the Weser; from the Weser they reached to the Ems, and diffused themselves to the Rhine. The allies of the Saxons, however, with whom the history of Britain is most connected, were the Jutes and the Angles. At length, A. D. 368, the Saxons with their allies assaulted the maritime coasts of Britain; but were defeated by Theodosius. In the year 370 they were repulsed by the Romans on the continent; but before the lapse of many years, they renewed their depredations and defeated Maximus. At the close of the fourth century they exercised the activity and resources of Stilicho; but in consequence of the prevailing triumphs of Charlemagne, the celebrity and power of the Saxons on the continent ceased. Soon after the period above mentioned, the Saxon invasion of England occurred. In the year 449 Hengist and Horsa made a descent on the British coast; and the achievement of Hengist was a beacon of emulation to the maritime part of the Saxon confederation, and assisted to convert it from naval piracy to views of regular conquest in Britain. Ella was the next Saxon chieftain, or king, who invaded Britain; and though he with his three sons came only with three ships to the Sussex coast, they succeeded in gaining a settlement, and by slow degrees they enlarged their conquests on the coast. Eighteen years after Ella's arrival, another powerful colony of Saxons arrived in the island, under the auspices of Cerdic, who, as well as Hengist and Horsa, derived its genealogy from Woden. Under Cerdic, the Isle of Wight, Hampshire, and Buckinghamshire witnessed the triumphs of the Saxons; and Somersetshire, Wiltshire, and Oxfordshire experienced those of his son. At length they established a kingdom so powerful as to absorb every other sovereignty. The progress of Cerdic, however, was long resisted by Arthur, the British chieftain; and this brave resistance on the part of the Britons was celebrated by the bards of Bretagne, so that Arthur became the popular hero.

About fifty-two years after the expedition of Cerdic, and almost a century after the landing of Hengist on the island, another fleet of warriors directed their course to the North. Those who had hitherto arrived were Jutes and Saxons;

Saxons; but the associates of Ida were Angles; and as he came with forty vessels, this was by far the most formidable emigration. The progress of the Angles in the North was slow; but at length Ida's conquests established them in Bernicia, and they were maintained by his sons. At some period near the year 500, the East Anglian state was colonized, though the monarchy did not appear till after the year 530. The various parts of Britain, into which the Saxons and their confederates spread themselves, were as follow, according to the statement of the Irish primate, Usher. The Jutes possessed Kent, the Isle of Wight, and that part of the coast of Hampshire which fronts it. The Saxons were distinguished, from their situation, into South Saxons, who peopled Sussex; East Saxons, who occupied Essex, Middlesex, and the south part of Hertfordshire; and West Saxons, who fixed themselves in Surrey, Hampshire (the coast of the Jutes excepted), Berks, Wilts, Dorset, Somerset, Devon, and that part of Cornwall which the Britons were unable to retain. The Angles were divided into East Angles, in Norfolk, Suffolk, Cambridge, the Isle of Ely, and part of Bedfordshire; and Middle Angles in Leicestershire, which appertained to Mercia. The Mercians were divided by the Trent into South Mercians, in the counties of Lincoln, Northampton, Rutland, Huntingdon, the north parts of Bedfordshire and Hertfordshire, Bucks, Oxfordshire, Gloucestershire, Warwickshire, Worcestershire, Herefordshire, Staffordshire, and Shropshire; and north Mercians, who inhabited the counties of Chester, Derby, and Nottingham. The Northumbrians were the Deiri, in Lancaster, York, Westmoreland, Cumberland, and Durham; and the Bernicians in Northumberland, and the south of Scotland, between the Tweed and the Frith of Forth.

After the exertions of the Britons to repel the invaders of their country had failed, eight Anglo-Saxon governments were established in the island. But it was by a slow conquest that the nations, comprised under the title of Anglo-Saxons, possessed themselves of the different districts of the island; and almost a century and a half elapsed from the first arrival of Hengist to the full establishment of the octarchy. In their progress the Anglo-Saxons did not extirpate the Britons; but as they wanted husbandmen, artisans, and menials for domestic purposes, the majority of the British population was preserved to be useful to their conquerors. Some Britons, who disdained the Saxon yoke, emigrated to other countries; Armorica or Bretagne afforded refuge to many; Cornwall and Wales received a considerable accession of population; and some migrated to Holland. The most indignant of the Cymri retired into Wales.

As soon as the Anglo-Saxons were released from the pressure of the Britons, and began to feel themselves secure and strong in the population of their provinces, and in the submission of the natives, their propensity to war and their ambitious desire of power, excited them to turn their arms upon one another. From Hengist to Egbert talents were never wanting on some of the Anglo-Saxon thrones; the result was, that the Anglo-Saxons, though they fluctuated in the prosperity of their several districts, yet, considered as a nation, they improved rapidly in civilization and power. Ina's laws contributed in a high degree to his reputation, and his reign was long and prosperous. It is beside our purpose to give a detail of the succession of the Anglo-Saxon kings, and it is inconsistent with our limits to recite even the principal events that occurred during their respective reigns. This is the less necessary, as some brief notices of them will be found under articles in this work. It will be sufficient to observe in this place, that the Anglo-Saxon dynasty terminated with Harold II. and the advancement of William of Normandy to the English throne.

The character of the ancient Saxons displayed the qualities of fearless, active, and successful pirates. Thus they are described by Orosius, Julian, and Zosimus: their ferocious qualities were nourished by the habit of indiscriminate depredation; they traversed both land and sea with a view to plunder, and in pursuit of this object they were no less heedless of their own lives, than unfeeling and cruel with respect to those of others. Their persons were of the largest size. As to their dress, their loose linen vests were adorned with trimming, woven in different colours: their external garment was the sagum, or cloak, and they had shoes. Their females had gowns, and several ornaments for the arms, hands, and neck. Their armour consisted of shields, long lances, and large knives or crooked swords by their sides, and their horsemen used iron sledge hammers or mallets. The government of the continental Saxons in the eighth and preceding centuries was an aristocracy of chieftains, and they had no kings but in time of war, who laid aside their power when peace was re-established. When they visited England, they were conducted and governed by their war-kings; and these they were under a necessity of continuing until a permanent, though limited, monarchy was established. Among the ancient Saxons, there were four orders of men; the Ethcling or noble, the free man, the freed-man, and the servile. The nobles were jealous of their race and rank; their inter-marriages were restricted to one another, and the severest penalties were annexed to a violation of this order. Of their ancient laws, in their Pagan state, little certain is known. It appears, however, that pecuniary compensation was their general mode of redressing personal injuries and of punishing criminal offences. Their severity against adultery was personal and sanguinary. If a woman became unchaste, she was compelled to hang herself, her body was burnt, and the adulterer was executed over her ashes; or else, a company of females whipped her from district to district, and, dividing her garments to the girdle, they pierced her body with their knives. They drove her, thus bleeding, from their habitations; and wheresoever she went, fresh parties of women renewed the cruel punishment, and continued it till she expired. In their marriages they allowed a son to wed his father's widow, and a brother his sister-in-law. Among the Frisians, who were confederates of the Saxons, a person guilty of sacrilege, or breaking into a temple and taking away any of the sacred things, was ordered to be led to the sea, and in the sand which the sea usually covers, to have his ears cut off, to be castrated, and to be immolated to the gods whose temples he had violated.

The most ancient religions of the world appear to have been pure theism, without idols and temples. By degrees, the Deity was represented by a variety of symbols, among which the principal were the heavenly bodies; and in process of time heroes and kings were exalted into gods. At length the air, the sea, the rivers, the woods, and the earth, were so stocked by the creative fancy with divinities, that it was more easy, as an ancient sage remarked, to find a deity than a man. When the Anglo-Saxons settled in Britain, they seem to have abandoned the customs of their ancestors, of which indeed the traditionary account is very imperfect; and they then had idols, altars, temples, and priests; their temples were encompassed with inclosures; they were profaned by throwing lances into them; it was not lawful for a priest to bear arms, or to ride, except on a mare. These particulars are detailed on the authority of the Venerable Bede. Some of the objects of their adoration are found in their names for the days of the week; and they are as follow:—

Sunday,	or Sunnan dæg,	is the Sun's day.
Monday,	or Monan dæg,	is the Moon's day.
Tuesday,	or Tiwes dæg,	is Tiw's day.
Wednesday,	or Wodnes dæg,	is Woden's day.
Thursday,	or Thunres dæg,	is Thunre's day.
Friday,	or Frige dæg,	is Friga's day.
Saturday,	or Seternes dæg,	is Seterne's day.

Of the sun and moon it is curious to remark, that their sun was a female deity, and their moon was of the male sex. Woden was the great ancestor from whom they deduced their genealogies, and he was the predominant idol of the Saxon adoration, though little is known of him, as distinct from the Odin of the Danes and Norwegians. (See ODIN.)

ODIN.) The names of two of the Anglo-Saxon goddesses have been transmitted to us by Bede: he mentions *Rheda*, to whom they sacrificed in March, hence denominated Rehd-monath, and *Eostre*, whose festivities were celebrated in April, called on this account Eostre-monath. The idol adored in Heiligland, one of the islands occupied by the Saxons, was *Fosete*, which gave name to the place, and was hence called Fosetesland. That the Angles had a goddess called *Hertha*, or mother-Earth, we learn from Tacitus. The Saxons dreaded an evil being, whom they named *Faul*: some kind of female power they called an *elf*. They also venerated stones, groves, and fountains. The continental Saxons respected the lady *Hera*, an imaginary being, who was thought to fly about in the air in the week after their Jule, or between our Christmas and Epiphany. Her visit was followed, as they conceived, by abundance. That the Saxons had many idols, is a well-known fact: but it is needless to enumerate them. That they had the horrid custom of offering human sacrifices, is unquestionable: but whether such sacrifices were an established part of their superstitious ritual, or whether they were merely an occasional immolation of captives or criminals, is a point which cannot be decided. The latter is thought to be most probable. The Saxon idol, whose celebrity on the continent was the most eminent, was the *Irminsula*, or *Armensula*. The temple of this idol, which stood at Eresberg on the Dimele, or Mersberg, was spacious and magnificent; the image was raised upon a marble column; and the predominant figure was an armed warrior; its right hand held a banner, in which a red rose was conspicuous; its left presented a balance: the crest of its helmet was a cock; on its breast was engraven a bear, and the shield depending from its shoulders exhibited a lion in a field full of flowers. Priests of both sexes attended the temple. The women applied themselves to divination and fortune-telling; the men sacrificed, and often intermeddled with political affairs, as their sanction was thought to insure success. These priests named the sixteen judges, who annually decided the provincial disputes. In the hour of battle they took their favourite image from its column, and carried it to the field. After the conflict, captives, and the cowardly of their own army, were immolated to the idol. In 772, this venerated object of Saxon superstition was thrown down and broken, and its fane destroyed by Charlemagne. Its immense wealth and precious vessels were distributed to the conquerors, or devoted to pious uses. The ancient Saxons were addicted to the prognostication of events by auguries, lots, and omens, and to the practice of various kinds of magic.

In the computation of time, our Saxon ancestors reckoned by nights instead of days, and by winters instead of years. Their months were governed by the revolution of the moon. They began their year from the day which we observe as Christmas-day, and in their common years they appropriated three lunar months to each of the four seasons: and when a year of thirteen months occurred, they added the superfluous month to their summer season.

It has been a subject of dispute, whether the Anglo-Saxons had the use of letters when they took possession of England. Although no specimen of any Saxon writing, anterior to their conversion to Christianity, can be produced, yet some reasons have been alleged in favour of their knowledge of the art of writing in their Pagan state. To this purpose it has been urged, that alphabetical characters were used by the northern nations on the Baltic, before they received Christianity, and their origin has been ascribed to Odin, who is said to have settled in Saxony before he advanced to the north. Either, it is said, the Pagan Saxons were acquainted with the Runic characters, or they were introduced into the north after the fifth century, when the Saxons came to Britain, and before the middle of the sixth, when they are mentioned by Fortunatus, which is contrary to the history and traditions of the Scandinavian nations, and to probability. Moreover, as the Anglo-Saxons were not inferior in civilization to any of the barbarous nations of the north, it cannot be reasonably supposed that they were ignorant of Runic characters, if their neighbours used them; but, besides, though the letters of our Saxon MSS. written after their conversion, are undoubtedly of Roman origin, except only two, yet these two characters, viz. those for *th* and *w*, are allowed, by the best writers, to be of Runic parentage: hence it may be inferred, that the Anglo-Saxons were acquainted with Runic as well as with Roman characters, when they commenced the hand-writing that prevails in their MSS. It is urged further, that if the Saxons had derived the use of letters from the Roman ecclesiastics, it is probable they would have taken from the Latin language the words they would use to express them: other nations, so indebted, have done this: but nations who had known letters before they became acquainted with Roman literature, would have indigenous terms to express them, and the Saxons have such terms. Upon the whole, Mr. Turner is induced to believe, that the Anglo-Saxons were not unacquainted with alphabetical characters when they came into England: but if they had ancient letters, they ceased to use them after their conversion, with the exception of those for the *th* and *w*. If, however, the Anglo-Saxons had alphabetical characters, they were much more used for divinations, charms, and funeral inscriptions, than for literary compositions.

Mr. Turner proceeds to examine the manners of the Anglo-Saxons after their occupation of England. Having possessed themselves of the south part of Britain during the fifth and sixth centuries, they displayed qualities peculiarly inauspicious to the improvement of intellect and of moral character. They appear to have been bands of fierce, ignorant, idolatrous, and superstitious pirates, enthusiastically courageous, but habitually cruel. Their improvement in manners and mental associations was very much promoted by the internal state of Britain at the time of their invasion. What this state was, Mr. Turner has particularly described. He observes, "that the first great change in the Anglo-Saxons appeared in the discontinuance of their piracies. They ceased to be the ferocious spoilers of the ocean and its coasts. They became land-owners, agriculturists, and industrious citizens; they seized and divided the acquisitions of British influence, and made the commonalty of the island their slaves. Their war-leaders became territorial chiefs; and the conflicts of capricious and sanguinary robbery were exchanged for the possession and inheritance of property in its various sorts; for trades and manufactures; for useful luxuries, peaceful industry, and domestic comfort. He proceeds to state, that their tenderest and most helpless years were under the care of females; that they had infant baptism, which they performed by immersion; that they used the cradle; that they venerated the relationship of god-fathers; and that on the death of the father the children remained under the care of the mother, who was enjoined to provide for them, and recompensed for her trouble. Bede mentions, that their period of infancy ended with the seventh year, and that the first year of their childhood began with the eighth. As the Anglo-Saxons were not a literary people, their childish occupations must naturally be the exercises of muscular agility. The names of the Anglo-Saxons were imposed, in their infancy, by their parents; and these names were frequently compound words, rather expressive of caprice than of appropriate meaning. Whether the Anglo-Saxons had surnames, has been a subject of discussion: it appears, however, that additional appellations were occasionally used by them, as mere personal distinctions; but in the progress of civilization, the convenience of a permanent family denomination was so generally felt as to occasion the adoption of the custom; and it is probable that the first permanent surnames were the appellations of the places of birth, or residence, or a favourite ancestor. Education among the Anglo-Saxons was, as we may well imagine, in an imperfect state. Some men, however, rising above the level of the age, endeavoured to recommend the use of schools. Thus Sigebert, in the seventh century, as soon as he regained the East-Anglian throne after his exile in France, established a school in his dominions

nions for youth to be instructed in learning. We find also in Alfred's time, that most of the nobles and many of the inferior orders, were put under masters, who taught them both Latin and Saxon books, and also writing. Nevertheless, the great and powerful undervalued knowledge. The education of the Saxons was much assisted by the emigrations or visits of Irish ecclesiastics; and after the prevalence of Christianity, a portion of the youth was taken into the monasteries. We may observe, in general, that the Saxon youth seem to have been accustomed to habits of docility and obedience. The Anglo-Saxons cultivated both wheat and barley, and reared oxen, sheep and swine for their food. They used likewise fowls, deer, goats, and hares; and they also fed on various kinds of fish, and particularly eels, which, as well as hogs, they used in great abundance. Their orchards afforded figs, grapes, nuts, almonds, pears, and apples. Honey appears to have been a favourite diet, and salt they used in great quantities. Ale and mead were their favourite drinks, and wine was an occasional luxury. They boiled, baked, and broiled their victuals. In their dress they indulged vanity by a variety of ornaments. The ladies had costly necklaces and bracelets, and rings on their fingers. Their hair was twisted and delicately curled. They also studied to improve their natural complexion by paint. The men also intruded on the province of the females, by using similar ornaments, such as necklaces of gold and precious stones, bracelets on their arms, and rings on their fingers. They had also silk, linen, and woollen garments. The hair of the men was divided from the crown to the forehead, and combed down the sides of the head in waving ringlets: their beards were continued whiskers on each side, meeting the hair from the chin, but there dividing, and ending in two forked points. Young men, and sometimes servants, are represented without beards; and they were forbidden to the clergy. Their shoes were tied with thongs. Their garments were lined with furs made from sables, beavers, and foxes, or, when they wished to be less expensive, with the skins of lambs or cats. Their dwelling-houses were small and inconvenient, and their furniture rude and coarse. Some of their tables were very costly, being made of silver and gold. In their food and convivial entertainments they used many expensive articles, formed of the precious metals. The Anglo-Saxons seem to have been acquainted with the precious stones, and also with the odoriferous productions of the East. They also used the luxury of hot baths; and it was an indispensable part of hospitality to offer to visitors the refreshment of washing the feet in warm water; and washing the feet of the poor was one of the acts of penance to be performed by the rich. At the cheerful meetings of the Anglo-Saxons it was the practice for all to sing in turn, and for this purpose the harp was sometimes circulated. Dancing, bear-baiting, games at hazard, hunting, hawking, falconry, and fowling, were diversions to which the Anglo-Saxons were addicted.

Among these people, females were held in honourable estimation. They were allowed to possess, to inherit, and to transmit, landed property; they shared in all the social festivities; they were present at the witena gemot and the shire gemot; they were permitted to sue and be sued in the courts of justice; their persons, their safety, their liberty, and their property, were protected by express laws; and they possessed all that influence which they will always retain in countries that have the wisdom and the urbanity to treat them as equal, intelligent, and independent beings. The earliest institutions respecting the Anglo-Saxon marriages occur in the laws of Ethelbert; and the customary forms attendant upon their marriage-contracts are more clearly displayed to us in the laws of Edmund. Within certain degrees of consanguinity marriages were forbidden, and severe penalties were attached to the violation of female chastity. The different classes of society among the Anglo-Saxons were such as belonged to birth, office, or property, and such as were occupied by a freeman, a freedman, or one of the servile description. It is to be lamented in the review of these different classes, that a large proportion of the Anglo-Saxon population was in a state of abject slavery. They were bought and sold with land, and were conveyed in the grants of it promiscuously with the cattle and other property upon it; and in the Anglo-Saxon wills these wretched beings were given away precisely as we now dispose of our plate, our furniture, or our money. At length the custom of manumission, and the diffusion of Christianity, meliorated the condition of the Anglo-Saxon slaves. Sometimes individuals, from benevolence, gave the slaves their freedom; sometimes piety procured a manumission. But the most interesting kind of emancipation appears in those writings which announce to us, that the slaves had purchased their own liberty, or that of their family. The Anglo-Saxon laws recognised the liberation of slaves, and placed them under legal protection. The liberal feelings of our ancestors towards their enslaved domestics, are not only evindenced in the frequent manumissions, but also in the generous gifts which they appear to have made them. The grants of lands from masters to their servants were very common. The gilds, or social confederations, in which the Anglo-Saxons chose to arrange themselves, were establishments that have been particularly noticed in the history of these people. These gilds are sometimes alluded to in the laws. Such associations were a kind of clubs. In mercantile towns and sea-ports there were also gilds, or fraternities of persons constituted for the purpose of carrying on more successful enterprises in commerce. The tradesmen of the Anglo-Saxons were, for the most part, men in a servile state: but, by degrees, the manumission of slaves increased the number of the independent part of the lower orders. Besides those persons who made particular trades their business, some of the clergy laboured to excel in the mechanical arts. And the fortunate connection which Christianity established between the clergy of Europe favoured the advancement of all these arts. The external commerce of these ancient times was restricted; because imperfect civilization, and the poverty of a great body of the population, prevented an extensive demand for foreign commodities. At length commerce became more general; public markets were established in various parts of England; and laws were enacted for the protection and encouragement of buyers and sellers. We must not forbear to mention, that hospitality was exercised with circumstances of peculiar attention and kindness. Piracy was gradually restrained, and commerce became honourable; and in time, kings became the patrons of merchants. It is stated, that after the tenth century, piracy became disreputable, and in every reign after that time it approached nearer to its extinction, until it was completely superseded by the influence of commerce, the firmer establishment of legal governments, improved notions of morality, and the experience of the superior comforts of social order, industry, and peaceful pursuits.

The Saxon money was sometimes reckoned by pennies, but the name for money most frequently occurring in the charters is the *mancus*, the value of which was six shillings, or thirty pennies, five pennies making one shilling. But by the laws of Alfred, there were two sorts of pennies, the greater and the less. The money mentioned in our earliest law consists of shillings, and a minor sum called *scætta*. In the laws of Ina, the *pening* occurs, and the *pund* as a weight. In those of Alfred the *pund* appears as a quantity of money, as well as the shilling and the penny; but the shilling is the usual notation of his pecuniary punishments. In a treaty with the Danes, the half mark of gold, and the mancus, are the names of the money; as is the ora in the Danish compact with Edward. In the laws of Ethelstan, we find the *thrymsa*, as well as the shilling and the penny; the scætta and the pund. The shilling, the penny, and the pound, appeared under Edgar. In the time of Ethelred, the pound is frequently the amount of the money noticed. The shilling and penny, the healf-marc, and the ora, also occur. In the charters we find pennies, mancusa, pounds, shillings, and sicli, mentioned. As no Anglo-Saxon gold coins have reached modern times, though we have numerous specimens of their silver coinage, it is presumed by antiquaries that none

none were ever made; yet it is certain that they had plenty of gold, and it perpetually formed the medium of their purchases or gifts. Mr. Turner is of opinion, that, in the course of life, gold was used, in an uncoined state, which was sometimes the case with silver: so that there were two species of money, the coined and uncoined. Our author thinks that the *mancus* was not a coin, and he considers the two sorts of pennies as the only coins of the Anglo-Saxons above their copper coinage, and all their other denominations of money, as weighed or settled quantities of uncoined metal. That money was coined by the Anglo-Saxons in the heptarchy, and in every reign afterwards, is clear, as Mr. Turner apprehends, from those which remain. Most of them have the mint-master's name; nor does it appear certain, that they had coined money before their invasion of England, and conversion. The *schyllinga*, or shilling, our author presumes to have been a quantity of silver, which, when coined, yielded five of the larger pennies, and twelve of the smaller. The *sceat* denoted a definite piece of metal originally in the uncoined state, and the sceat and the schyllinga seem to have been the names of the Saxon money in the Pagan times, before the Roman and French ecclesiatics had taught them the art of coining. The value of the sceat in the time of Ethelbert seems to have been the twentieth part of a shilling. About three centuries later it was raised in value, and appears to be like one of their smaller pennies; for the laws of Athelstan gave 250 sceatta to a pound, or 12½ to a schyllinga. Perhaps we may justly state the *sceat* to have been the smaller penny, and the *pening*, properly so called, to have been the larger one. The word pening, pfenning, or penning, occurs in many countries for coin; and if we consider the Saxon pening as their only silver coin, it may be derived from the verb *puian*, to beat, which may be applied to metal coined. There has been a variety of opinions about the value of the Saxon pound. In the time of the Confessor it consisted of 20 *solidi*, or shillings; but Dr. Hickes contends that the Saxon pound consisted of 60 shillings; and other authors assert, that the pound contained only 48 shillings. The styca, the helfling, and the feorthling, were copper monies. The *thrymsa* is reckoned by Dr. Hickes to be the third part of a shilling, or four-pence. From other passages, the thrymsa and the sceatta appear to have been the same.

The oldest Saxon grants which are now in our possession, contain reservations of services which the possessors of the land had to perform; and from these we perceive, that certain burdens, varying in kind and quantity, were attached to estates in every age, with some few exceptions. The three common labours, or universal necessities, as they are called, were the military service, or "fyrd-færelde," to which all the Saxon lands were subject, those excepted which the king alone, or the king with the consent of his witena, exempted from the obligation; and this service consisted in providing a certain number of armed men, proportioned to the rated quantity of land, who were to attend the king or his officers on expeditions made for the public safety, or against invading enemies: the "bryge-geweorc," and the "weal" or "fæsten-geweorc," which were the construction or reparation of bridges and fortresses, or walls. These three great services have been called by later writers the "trimoda necessitas;" and besides these, there were many other burdens to which the landed interest was more or less liable in the hands of sub-proprietors. Accordingly, when the original proprietors aliened or demised their lands to others, they annexed a variety of conditions to their grants, which subsequent transfers either repeated or discharged. We may here remark, that the Saxon deeds of conveyance had no wax seals; these were introduced by the Norman conquest.

In treating of the Anglo-Saxon government, the first object of consideration is the *cyning*, or king, who, without concentrating in himself the despotism of an eastern monarch, was yet elevated far above the rest of the nation in dignity, property, and power. The first cynings of the Anglo-Saxons seem to have been their war-kings, continued for life, whose crown was not hereditary, but elective. The cyning was elected by the witena-gemot, which was held on the demise of the preceding sovereign. In the greatest number of instances, however, the witena-gemot, in their election, followed the rule of hereditary succession. This power of the witena-gemot was terminated by the Norman conquest, when the crown was changed from an elective to an hereditary succession. The Anglo-Saxon queen was crowned, as well as the king, until the reign of Egbert, when this honour was taken from her; but it was soon restored, for Ethelwulph, on his second marriage, permitted his queen, Judith, to be crowned. In Alfred's time the disuse of the coronation continued; but by the time of the second Ethelred it was restored. The queen's name is joined with the cyning's in some charters, and it is not unusual to find them signed by her: she had her separate property, and officers of her own household. The king's sons had land appropriated for them, even though under age. The power and prerogative of the Anglo-Saxon cyning were progressively acquired: much of his power depended at first on his personal character and talents; and this power afterwards naturally increased. The crown was a permanent establishment, which it was the interest of every one but the superior nobles to maintain and to aggrandize, till its power became formidable enough to be felt in its oppressions. Its domains were increasing by every successful war; and its revenue, privileges, and munificence, were perpetually adding to its wealth and influence. In process of time, when the conversion of the island was completed by the zeal of the pope, and an hierarchy was established, the kingly power received great support and augmentation from the religious veneration with which the clergy surrounded it. The most ancient specimens of legislation which remain, are the laws of Ethelbert, the first Christian king of Kent, who was converted about the year 600. In these the cyning appears already distinguished by superior rank and privileges. In the laws of Ina the cyning is mentioned in a style of authority very much resembling that of subsequent sovereigns. The epithets given to the king by the popes, the high titles they assumed, and the prerogatives and influence which they exercised, concurred to exalt his aggrandizement. On the dissolution of the octarchy, his property in every part of England was very extensive. His revenues were very considerable; as they were the rents and produce of his lands in demesne; customs in the seaports; tolls in the markets, and in the cities on sales; duties and services to be paid to him in the burghs, or to be commuted for money; wites, or penalties and forfeitures, which the law attached to certain crimes and offences; heriots from his thanes, and various payments and benefits arising to him on the circumstances stated in the laws. Nevertheless, all the prerogatives and rights of the Anglo-Saxon cyning were definite and ascertained. They had been established by law or custom, and could be as little exceeded by the sovereign, as withheld by his people; so that they were not arbitrary privileges of an unknown extent. The military force, whenever it was assembled, was under the command of the king, but it was rather a militia than a regular army. For an account of the *witena-gemot*, we refer to that article. The official dignities of the Anglo-Saxons were as follow. The *ealdorman*, who was the highest officer in the kingdom, but in rank inferior to an etheling: he was the chief of a shire, and was one of the witena-gemot: he ranked with a bishop, and presided with him at the scire-gemot and the folc-gemot: he had great civil powers in administering justice, and also enjoyed high military authority. The *corl* is also a dignity recognized in our earliest laws. It appears in those of Ethelbert, who died in 616, and is mentioned in a charter, dated 680. He is also noticed in the laws of Alfred, Edward, Ethelstan, and Edgar. In the latter part of the Anglo-Saxon period, the title ealdorman seems to have been superseded by that of eorl. The term *heretoch* implies the leader of an army, and *hold* is mentioned as a dignity in Æthelstan's laws. The *gerefas* were officers appointed by the executive power, and in rank inferior

ferior to the eorl or ealdorman; and they were judicial officers of various kinds, and were made responsible for their official conduct. The *thegns* were in rank below the eorls and ealdormen; they formed a species of nobility peculiar to those ancient times, which was attainable even by persons of the servile class; but it was essential to the dignity of a thegn, that he should be a landed proprietor. The thegns were of two descriptions, viz., the king's thegns, and the inferior thegns, who were very numerous. The thegn seems to have been a military noble; thegn being a Saxon word corresponding to *miles:* the tenure of five hides of land was essential to this dignity; military service was attached to it; and the thegns were judicial magistrates, and assisted at the shire-gemots.

Our author has traced the progress of Saxon legislation in its relation to some of the principal offences, viz., homicide, personal injuries, theft, and adultery. The Saxons considered homicide as a public as well as a private wrong: hence, besides the redress appointed to the family of the deceased, or "were," another pecuniary fine was imposed on the murderer, which was called the "wite." This satisfaction to the community was paid to the presiding magistrate, and varied according to the dignity of the person in whose jurisdiction the offenee was committed. In the first Saxon laws that were committed to writing, or which have descended to us, and which were established in the beginning of the seventh century, murder appears to have been only punishable by the *were* and *wite*, provided the homicide was not in the servile state. In the laws of Ethelbert, the were seems to have been uniform. The differences of the crime arising from the quality of the deceased, or the dignity of the magistrate within whose jurisdiction it occurred, or the circumstances of the action, were marked by the differences of the wite rather than of the were. As the order and civilization of the Anglo-Saxon society increased, human life acquired an increased value, and the penalties of its deprivation were augmented. In the days of Ina, the were, or protecting valuation of an individual's life, was not uniform. The population was arranged into classes, and each class had an appropriated were. Rank and property seem to have been the criterion of the estimation. The wealthier a man was, the more precious his life was deemed. This method of regulating the enormity of the crime by the property of the deceased was highly barbarous. It diminished the safety of the poor, and gave that superior protection to wealth which all ought equally to have shared. The *were*, or compensatory payment, seems to have been made to the relations of the defunct. If the deceased was in a servile state, the compensation seems to have become the property of the lord. On the murder of a foreigner, two-thirds of the were went to the king, and one-third only to his son or relations; or if no relations, the king had one-half, and the *gild-scipe*, or fraternity to which he was associated, received the other. The members of these gild-scipes were made to a certain degree responsible for the good conduct of one another, and therefore they were, in fact, so many bail for each other. This principle was so far extended, that by Ina's law every one who was in the company where a man was killed, was required to justify himself from the act, and all the company were required to pay a fourth part of the were of the deceased. The same principle was established by Alfred in illegal associations. Excusable homicide was not allowed to be done with impunity. If a man so carried a spear as that it should destroy any individual, he was made amenable for the *were*, but excused from the *wite*.

In the reign of Edmund, an important improvement in this branch of legislation took place. The legal severity against murder was increased on the head of the offending individual; but his kindred were guarded from the revenge of the family of the deceased. Although the wite was the whole penalty exacted by society to itself for murder, and the were the whole pecuniary compensation that was permitted to the family, yet we are not to suppose that murder was left without any other punishment. The relations of the deceased avenged themselves, if they could, on the murderer, or his kinsmen. The law did not allow it; but as all that the law exacted was the fine and the compensation, individuals were left at liberty to glut their revenge, if they chose to pay for it. Nevertheless this spirit of revenge was early restricted. Ina's laws, and also those of Alfred, served to restrain it; and Edmund I. checked it with marked severity. In the adjustment of the compensation allotted to "personal injuries," arising from what modern lawyers would call assault and battery, the Saxon legislators were anxious to distinguish between the different wounds to which the body is liable, and which their laws lead us to conclude they frequently suffered. In judging of their scale of pecuniary compensations by modern experience, there seems to be a gross disproportion, not only between the injury and the compensation, but also between the different classes of compensation. Alfred made some difference in these compensations, and he also appointed penalties for other personal wrongs. "Theft" appears to have been considered as the most enormous crime, and was, as such severely punished. It was made felony, considered as a forfeiture of goods and chattels, by the Anglo-Saxons in their earliest law; for if a freeman stole from a freeman, the compensation was to be threefold; the king had the wite, and all his goods: but whilst a freeman's theft was to be atoned for by a triple compensation, the servile were only subjected to a twofold retribution. The punishment of theft was soon extended farther; and, indeed, the Saxon legislators were never weary of accumulating severities against thieves. To other penalties inflicted by the laws of Wihtræd and of Ina, the amputation of the hand and foot was soon added. In the reign of Ethelstan, a milder spirit introduced a principle, which has ever since prevailed in our criminal jurisprudence; and this was, that no one should lose his life for stealing less than twelve-pence; to which the Saxon legislators added a proviso, which we have dropped, "unless he flies or defends himself." They also introduced another mitigating principle, viz., that no youth under 15 should be executed. Against "adultery" our Saxon legislators enacted penalties, as a public wrong, always punished when it occurred, varying the amount of the penalty according to the rank of the female. Even those of the poor servile class were protected in their domestic happiness. To invade the connubial rights of one of this description incurred the penalty of a double compensation. Forcible violation was chastised more severely. Subsequent laws made adulterers subject to ecclesiastical censure and excommunication, and enjoined the banishment of foreigners, who would not abandon such connections. The pecuniary penalties were also augmented. In the time of Alfred, some new modifications were introduced. He regulated the punishment of adultery by the rank of the husband; and he also distinguished the different steps of the progress towards the completion of the crime, assigning to each a pecuniary fine. Alfred and his *witan* provided, that if the wife had transgressed before, the fines of her paramour were to be reduced one-half. The terms "were" and "mund" frequently occur in the Saxon laws: we shall here explain their meaning. The *were* was the legal valuation of an individual, varying according to his situation in life. If he were killed, it was the sum his murderer had to pay for the crime; if he committed crimes himself, it was the penalty which, in many cases, he had to discharge. The amount of this were was exactly regulated by a man's condition in life, and it was therefore the measure and mark of his personal rank and consequence. The "mundbyrd" was a right of protection or patronage, which individuals possessed for their own benefit and that of others. The violation of it towards themselves, or those whom it sheltered, was punished with a severity varying according to the rank of the patron. The mund was the guardian of a man's household peace, as the were was of his personal safety.

The system of giving "borh," sureties, or bail, to answer an accusation, seems to have been coeval with the Saxon nation, and has continued to our times. In our earliest laws it was provided, that the accused should be bound over

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by his sureties to answer the crime of which he was accused, and to do what the judges should appoint. Felonies were bailable in the Saxon times. But the most curious part of the Saxon "borh" was not the sureties which they who were accused or condemned were to find to appear to the charge, or to perform the judgment pronounced; but it was the system that every individual should be under bail for his good behaviour. Nothing seems to be more repugnant to the decorous feelings of manly independence than this slavish bondage and anticipated criminality. Such a law was a libel on human nature, and must have created more depravity than it prevented: and this seems to have been experienced; for no period more abounded with political or social vices and calamities than the reigns which followed the establishment of this law, if we date it from Edgar.

The supreme legal tribunal of the Saxons was the *witenagemot;* which see. The scire-gemot was another tribunal. By the laws of Canute it was ordered, that there should be two shire-gemots and three burgh-gemots every year, and the bishop and the ealdorman should attend them. By the laws of Æthelstan, punishments were attached to those who refused to attend gemots. Every man was to have peace in going to the gemot, and returning from it, unless he were a thief.

As much of their judicial proceedings rested on oaths, the punishment of perjury was very severe. A perjured man was usually classed with witches, murderers, and the most obnoxious beings in society; he was declared unworthy of the ordeal; he was disabled from being a witness again; and if he died, he was denied Christian burial.

In the laws of Ina we have a full account of the Anglo-Saxon ordeals, of hot water and hot iron. See ORDEAL.

The jury is an institution, the principle of which may be traced, according to Mr. Turner's statement, to the earliest Anglo-Saxon times. See JURY.

The poetry of the Anglo-Saxons was of two sorts; the poems which they composed in their own tongue, and the poems which they wrote in Latin. These two kinds of poetry were completely distinct from each other;—distinct in origin, distinct in style.

The characteristics of the Anglo-Saxon native poetry seem to be these: it consists chiefly of periphrasis, and metaphors expressed in a metrical but simple arrangement of words, with some alliteration. The usual particles are most frequently omitted; and the intended meaning is conveyed in short and contracted phrase, multiplied by the periphrasis and metaphor. The position of the words is forced out of their natural arrangement by a wilful inversion, and the regular course of the subject is frequently interrupted by violent and abrupt transitions. By these peculiarities, which seem to be quite artificial, the Saxon poetry is distinguished from prose.

The style of the Anglo-Saxon poetry seems to have been originally the common, imperfect language of the people, in its half-formed and barbarous state; but its metre is the simplest that can be conceived, and is, indeed, often little else than a series of short exclamations. Its inversions are more artificial. But when music was applied to poetry, and men found it beneficial to sing or reeite a chieftain's praise, we may conceive, that, to secure to themselves the profits of the profession, some little ingenuity was exerted to make difficulties which would raise their style above the vulgar phrase. Its inversion was one of the easiest modes of making a peculiar style of composition: and as society advanced in its attainments, the transition, the alliteration, and other ornaments, may have been added, either as new beauties or as new difficulties.

The history of the Saxon poetry, and, indeed, of all modern European poetry, in its ruder state, may be divided into three heads: songs, or ballads; the lengthened narrative poems, or romances; and that miscellaneous kind which, if we term it lyric, it is more for the convenience of using a short generic word, than for the exact appropriation of its meaning.

That our ancestors had popular songs on the actions of their great or favourite characters, or on such other subjects as interested the vulgar mind, is proved by many instances, which may be traced in the ancient writers. Aldhelm applied himself to compose songs, or ballads, in the Anglo-Saxon language, to instruct, as well as to amuse, his countrymen. None of Aldhelm's vernacular poetry has survived; but the circumstance that he composed and sang these ballads as if "he professed the art of singing," shew that the harpers of the day were accustomed to recite them. That such things were then in general circulation is also implied by Bede, when he mentions, that in a festive company the harp was sent round, that those might sing who could.

It was a book of Saxon poems which first allured Alfred to learn to read; and the fact, that he had his children taught to read Saxon poems, and that he himself visited the Danish camp as a harper, which, in the reign of his grandson, Anlaf imitated, prove the existence of popular songs, which interested both the child and the rude warrior.

The genuine ballad seems to have originated when the old Saxon poetry began to decline. The laboured metaphor, the endless periphrasis, the violent inversion, and the abrupt transition, were the great features of the Saxon poetry. These constituted that pompousness which William of Malmsbury truly states to have been its great characteristic. But it was impossible that, while these continued prevalent and popular, the genuine ballad could have appeared. The ballad, therefore, probably arose from more vulgar and homely poets; from men who could not bend language into that difficult and artificial strain, which the genius of the Anglo-Saxon bard was educated to use. The ambulatory glee-men, who strove to please the public by their merry-andrew antics, were most probably the first inventors of the genuine ballad. While at one time they tumbled and danced, shewed their bears, and frolicked before the people in the dresses of various animals; at others, they may have told little tales to interest the mob, from whose liberality they drew their maintenance.

Incidents narrated in verse were more intelligible than the pompous songs of the regular poets, and far more interesting to the people. In time they gained admission to the hall and the palace: and, by the style of Canute's ballad, this revolution must have been achieved by the beginning of the eleventh century. Then the harsh and obscure style of the old Saxon poetry began to be unpopular; and being still more discredited after the Norman conquest, it was at length completely superseded by the ballad and the metrical romance. See ROMANCE.

The Anglo-Saxon versification, says Mr. Turner, possesses occasional rhyme and occasional alliteration, and sometimes the alliteration peculiar to the Welsh poetry. But none of these form its constituent character. Mr. Tyrhwit and Mr. Ellis are also right in asserting, that it does not depend upon "a fixed and determinate number of syllables, nor on that marked attention to their quantity which Hickes supposed to have constituted the distinction between verse and prose" The only rule of the Saxon versification, which we can now discover, is, in our author's opinion, that the words are placed in a peculiar rhythm or cadence, examples of which the specimens of their poetry extant supply; and to produce this rhythm seems to have been the perfection of their versification: but, happily for the strength of their poetry, they extended their rhythm into a more dignified cadence. The Latin poetry of the Anglo-Saxons originated from the Roman poetry, and was composed according to the rules of Roman Prosody.

The literature of the Anglo-Saxons must be dated from their conversion to Christianity, which event took place about the year 570; and it is certain, if we allow that they had Runic letters and songs before this era, that their knowledge of books, and of the learning which had been accumulated in happier regions of the world, were derived from their religious intercourse with Rome. During this period, it was the prevailing practice among the Saxons, not only of the clergy, but of the better sort of laity, to make a voyage

to Rome; and Rome, in return, sent her emissaries to Britain. The first step of their intellectual progress was the introduction into England of the Latin and Greek languages; and the next was the collection of the authors who used these languages. St. Augustin, and the monks who accompanied him, not only succeeded in establishing Christianity, but also occasioned a desire of knowledge to spread among the Anglo-Saxons, in the seventh century. At this period, Ireland was distinguished for its religious literature; and many of the Anglo-Saxons, both of the higher and lower ranks, retired into it to pursue their studies or their devotion. In the Jewish and Christian scriptures, to which the Anglo-Saxons had access, they would find a rich treasury of general knowledge. Theodore, archbishop of Canterbury, and Adrian, an abbot of a monastery near Naples, and an African, visited England about this time, A.D. 668; and nothing could be more fortunate for the Anlgo-Saxon literature than the settlement of these men in the country. Their conversation and exhortations excited among the Anglo-Saxons a great emulation for literary studies. Benedict, who founded the abbey at Weremouth, must in this connection be mentioned with applause. Egbert also, who was archbishop of York in 712, was famous in his day. Wilfrid was another benefactor to Anglo-Saxon literature, by favouring the collection of books. The three great luminaries of the Anglo-Saxons, whose attainments contributed so much to increase intellectual cultivation among their countrymen, in the century preceding Alfred the Great, were Aldhelm, Bede, and Alcum. In the days of Alfred, a great accession of knowledge was introduced among the Anglo-Saxons by the taste and patronage of that illustrious king. It is certain that literature was at its height among our Saxon ancestors about the eighth century; and this was almost entirely owing to the attention of king Alfred, who encouraged learning by his own example, by founding seminaries of instruction, and by rewarding the labours of scholars.

Among the arts and sciences of the Anglo-Saxons we may mention music, the art of design and painting, and architecture. Besides the rules of Latin poetry and rhetoric, the Anglo-Saxons studied arithmetic and astronomy as laborious sciences. Their geography and topography, though not wholly neglected, were not much studied. To the science of medicine the Anglo-Saxons directed their attention as early as the seventh century; and some of them practised it as a profession. With surgery they were little conversant. On the establishment of Christianity among the Anglo-Saxons, after its introduction into Kent by St. Augustine, it is needless to enlarge; nor need we trace its beneficial effects on the dispositions and manners of the people. Of the Anglo-Saxon language we shall give as ample an account as our limits will allow, under the next articles.

SAXON, or the SAXON LANGUAGE, as it is spoken in England, is distinguished by three several epochs, and may therefore be divided into three dialects. The first of these is that which the Saxons used, from their entrance into this island, till the irruption of the Danes, for the space of three hundred and thirty years. This has been called the *British* Saxon; and no monument of it remains, except a small metrical fragment of the genuine Caedmon, inserted in Alfred's version of the Venerable Bede's Ecclesiastical History. The second is the *Danish* Saxon, which prevailed from the Danish to the Norman invasion, A. D. 1066; and of which many considerable specimens, both in verse and prose, are still preserved; particularly, two literal versions of the four gospels, (MSS. Bibl. Bodl. Oxon. Cod. membran. in Pyxid. 4to. grand. quadrat. And MSS. Cotton. Otho. Nor. D. 4; both these manuscripts, which were written and ornamented in the Saxon times, are of the highest curiosity and antiquity); and the spurious Caedmon's beautiful poetical paraphrase of the Book of Genesis, printed by Juuius, Amst. 1655; and the prophet Daniel. The third may be properly styled the *Norman* Saxon; which began about the time of the Norman accession, and continued beyond the reign of Henry II. who died in 1189.

The last of these three dialects formed a language extremely barbarous, irregular, and intractable; and consequently promises no very striking specimens in any species of composition. Its substance was the Danish Saxon, adulterated with French. The Saxon, indeed, a language subsisting on uniform principles, and polished by poets and theologists, however corrupted by the Danes, had much perspicuity, strength, and harmony: but the French imported by the Conqueror and his people, was a confused jargon of Teutonic, Gaulish, and vitiated Latin. In this fluctuating state of our national speech, the French predominated. Even before the conquest the Saxon language began to fall into contempt, and the French, or Frankish, to be substituted in its stead. In the year 652, it was the common practice of the Anglo-Saxons to send their youth to the monasteries of France for education: and not only the language, but the manners of the French, were esteemed the most polite accomplishments. In the reign of Edward the Confessor, the resort of Normans to the English court was so frequent, that the affectation of imitating the Frankish customs became almost universal: and even the lower class of people was ambitious of catching the Frankish idiom. It was no difficult task for the Norman lords to banish that language of which the natives began to be absurdly ashamed. The new invaders commanded the laws to be administered in French. Many charters of monasteries were forged in Latin by the Saxon monks for the present security of their possessions, in consequence of that aversion which the Normans professed to the Saxon tongue. Even children at school were forbidden to read in their native language, and instructed in a knowledge of the Norman only. In the mean time we should have some regard to the general and political state of the nation. The natives were so universally reduced to the lowest condition of neglect and indigence, that the English name became a term of reproach: and several generations elapsed, before one family of Saxon pedigree was raised to any distinguished honours, or could so much as attain the rank of baronage. Among other instances of that absolute and voluntary submission, with which our Saxon ancestors received a foreign yoke, it appears that they suffered their hand-writing to fall into discredit and disuse; which by degrees became so difficult and obsolete, that few beside the oldest men could understand the characters. In the year 1095, Wolstan, bishop of Worcester, was deposed by the arbitrary Normans: it was objected against him, that he was "a superannuated English idiot, who could not speak French." It is true, that in some of the monasteries, particularly at Croyland and Tavistock, founded by Saxon princes, there were regular preceptors in the Saxon language: but this institution was suffered to remain after the conquest, as a matter only of interest and necessity. The religious could not otherwise have understood their original charters. William's successor, Henry I., gave an instrument of confirmation to William archbishop of Canterbury, which was written in the Saxon language and letters.

The Saxon was probably spoken in the country, yet not without various adulterations from the French: the courtly language was French, yet perhaps with some vestiges of the vernacular Saxon. But the nobles, in the reign of Henry II. constantly sent their children into France, lest they should contract habits of barbarism in their speech, which could not have been avoided in an English education. From the declension of the barons, and prevalence of the commons, most of whom were of English ancestry, the native language of England gradually gained ground: till at length the interest of the commons so far succeeded with Edward III., that an act of parliament was passed, appointing all pleas and proceedings in law to be carried on in English: although the same statute decrees, in the true Norman spirit, that all such pleas and proceedings should be enrolled in Latin. Yet this change did not restore either the Saxon alphabet or language. It abolished a token of subjection and disgrace: and, in some degree, contributed to prevent further French innovations in the language then used, which yet remained in a compound state, and retained a considerable mixture of foreign phraseology. In the mean time, it must be remembered, that this corruption of the

the Saxon was not only owing to the admission of new words, occasioned by the new alliance, but to changes of its own forms and terminations, arising from reasons which we cannot investigate or explain. *Warton's English Poetry.*

SAXONIA (Hercules), was born at Padua in the year 1551, of a family which had been already distinguished in the science of medicine; his father, Victor, and his paternal uncles, Jerom and Francis, having held a high medical reputation at Venice and Padua. Following their example, Hercules decided to pursue the same profession, and obtained the degree of doctor in his native university. Before the year 1574 he was appointed to lecture on logic; but in 1579 he removed to Venice, for the purpose of practising his profession, and he succeeded so well, that in a few years he attained the highest reputation, and had more applications from the sick than he could attend to. It has been said, that even so early as 1573 he was sent for to Vienna, with Mercurialis, to attend the emperor Maximilian II. in his illness; but the probability is, that a man of two-and-twenty could not have arrived at that degree of reputation, and that he merely accompanied Mercurialis on his journey thither. After about ten years of laborious practice in Venice, the chair of Capivaccio becoming vacant at Padua, Saxonia was nominated his successor. The faculty of Padua welcomed him back to his native university; and he fulfilled the duties of his office with great credit and reputation from the year 1590 till 1607, when he died.

Saxonia left several works; the first of which, "Disputatio de phænigmis, vulgo vesicantibus, et theriacæ usu in febribus pestilentialibus," Patav. 1591, originated from a discussion with Massaria, during the prevalence of an epidemic, when the duke of Urbino had applied to both for their directions. A second work also appeared during this contest, entitled "De Phænigmis Libri tres. In quibus agitur de universa rubificantium natura, &c.; de quorum usu in febribus pestilentialibus multa disputantur," 1593. He next employed his pen on the subject of Syphilis, calling his work, "Tractatus perfectissimus de Morbo Gallico, seu, de Lue Venerea," 1593, which went through several editions. This was followed some time after by "Tractutus triplex, de febrium putridarum signis, de pulsibus, et de urinis," Francf. 1600; "De Pilca, quam Poloni Guvozdziec, Roxolani Koxtunum, vocant," Pat. 1600; "De pulsibus Tractatus absolutissimus," 1603. And after his death were published, "Prælectionum Practicarum Libri duo," 1610; and "Opera Practica," 1639, which went through nine successive editions from the press of Padua, the last being printed in 1681. A pupil of his had also collected all that he knew of the productions of his master, and published them at Francfort, in 1603, with the title of "Pantheon Medicinæ selectum, seu, Medicinæ Templum in Libros XI. distinctum." See Eloy Dics. Hist. de la Médecine.

SAXONS, Land or Province of, in Transylvania, one of the three great divisions of that principality, forming the south part, adjacent to the frontier of Turkey. Its territorial extent is between 3000 and 4000 square miles; its population 360,000. Their ancestors were invited into the country by Geisa II. king of Hungary, in the 12th century, and came chiefly from the borders of the Lower Rhine, which at that time were called Saxony. They retain their ancient language, customs and laws. Every Saxon is master of the land which he cultivates, and cannot alienate it to any but a Saxon. Their highest court is called the university, and consists of the count or governor of the province, and 22 representatives, viz., two from each of the eleven districts into which it is divided. The Saxons are not, however, confined to this part of Transylvania, many of them being found in the other divisions. They are almost all Lutherans.

SAXONY, a name which, taken in its most comprehensive sense, denotes a very large track of country in the north of Germany, extending from the Weser on the west, to the frontier of Poland on the east. No term in geography has been used with a greater latitude of signification—no states have been more subject to territorial change. The name of Saxons is first mentioned by Ptolemy, who describes them, about the year 160, as a rude tribe, inhabiting Holstein and part of Jutland. They appear to have soon after advanced to the west and south, acquiring an extension of territory, partly by conquest, more by a pacific incorporation with the occupants of the country. About the end of the third century, the Saxons were considered entitled to rank with the two other great tribes of Germany, the Franks and Allemani; and on the migration of a part of the Franks into Gaul, in the 5th century, the Saxons acquired a farther extension of territory, viz., the country now forming the grand duchy of Oldenburg, with part of Hanover and Prussian Westphalia. It was soon after this that the Britons, forsaken by their Roman defenders, cast their eyes on the Saxons for protection against the Scots and Picts. It was the small town of Engern, in Westphalia (in the circle or district of Minden), that had the honour of giving name to England, Engerland being progressively abridged into Engerland and England. Whether the Saxons received co-operation from the Angles (inhabitants of Angeln) in Jutland, is very questionable; but there seems no reasonable ground for doubting that the auxiliary corps demanded by the British, descended by the Lippe to the Rhine, and sailed not, as has been absurdly supposed, from Danish Zealand, but from Dutch Zealand, a far shorter and easier passage. After this expedition, which, feeble as were the numbers, is remarkable in so rude an age, little is known of the Saxons in Germany, except a gradual acquisition of territory from the Venedi (Wends or Vandals), who inhabited Brandenburg, Pomerania, and other parts of the north-east of Germany. When Charlemagne directed his arms to the right bank of the Rhine, he experienced a firm resistance from the Saxons, under Wittikind, who maintained the struggle during many years, but was at last obliged to submit. The conditions imposed by Charlemagne were the payment of an annual tribute, and the conversion to Christianity of the Saxons and their chief, on whom he conferred the title of duke of Saxony. The family of Wittikind, after ruling some time, was succeeded by that of Billung, and afterwards by a branch of that of Guelf, which ruled in Bavaria. The 12th century was remarkable for a contest between the reigning duke Henry, surnamed "the lion," and the emperor. The electoral dignity was subsequently conferred on the Wittemberg line (of the house of Ascania), and, on its extinction, on the margraves of Meissen, from whom the present families of the house of Saxe are descended.

The division of Germany into circles took place towards the close of the 15th century, and the large track of country known vaguely by the name of Saxony, was formed into three circles, Westphalia, Upper Saxony, and Lower Saxony. Upper Saxony might with more propriety have been styled Eastern Saxony, being bounded by Poland, Silesia, and Lusatia on the east, and by Bohemia and Franconia on the south. Its extent was great, about 43,000 square miles; its population about 4,000,000. It comprised the electorates of Saxony and Brandenburg, the duchy of Pomerania, and a number of small principalities. The name of Upper is to be understood as implying a surface not generally mountainous, but of such comparative elevation as to cause several rivers (the Elbe, Spree, and others) to flow to the westward towards Lower Saxony. That country, which might have been termed Western Saxony, had Westphalia and the Rhine to the west, and Sleswick, with the Baltic to the north. Its area contained 26,000 square miles, and comprised the electorate of Hanover, the duchies of Mecklenburg, Brunswick, and Holstein, the free towns of Hamburgh, Bremen, Lubeck, with a number of small states. In 1806, the distinction of circles was finally abolished, and the names of Upper and Lower Saxony are now of use only for the elucidation of history.

SAXONY, Kingdom of, is situated towards the north-east of Germany, and bounded on the south by Bohemia, and

and on the north by the Prussian states. Previous to 1814, it contained above 2,000,000 of inhabitants (exclusive of the part of Poland subject to this crown); but it was greatly reduced by the Congress of Vienna. At present, its divisions, extent, and population, are as follow:—

	Square miles.	*Population.*
Circle of Meissen	1600	300,000
Leipsic	1460	207,000
Erzgebirge	2175	460,000
Vogtland	700	90,000
Part of Merseburg	73	10,000
Upper Lusatia	1180	170,000
Total	7188	1,237,000

Chief Towns.	*Population.*
Dresden, the capital	45,000
Leipsic	33,000
Chemnitz	11,000
Bautzen	11,000
Freyberg	9,000
Zittau	7,200
Plauen	6,100
Meissen	6,000
Ebersbach	5,000
Mittweyda	5,000
Schneeberg	4,400
Annaberg	4,300
Hennersdorf	4,300
Eylau	4,300
Zwickau	4,100
Dobeln	4,100
Zschopau	4,000
Pirna	3,800
Grimma	3,000

Face of the Country, Soil, and Products.—This kingdom may be said to resemble a triangle, of which the longest side is the frontier on the side of Bohemia, formed by a range of mountains, extending in a long line from south-west to north-east. The length of Saxony is 140 miles, its greatest breadth about 75. The descent from these mountains, steep on the Bohemian territory, is gentle and undulating on that of Saxony; on the side of the latter, there are few naked peaks, and a number of the hills are green to their summits; for no part of Europe in the same latitude enjoys a milder climate. Towards the north-east of the frontier line, and in a quarter where the lofty range of the Erzgebirge is succeeded by a lower, called the Wohlische Kamm, the Elbe issues with a full stream from Bohemia, flowing in the bottom of a narrow valley, formed apparently by its waters. The other considerable rivers are the two Elsters, the two Muldas, and the Queiss, all rising in the south of Saxony, and flowing northward, but all unfit for navigation, so long as they remain within the limits of this kingdom. The Elbe, on the other hand, is navigable, and by its course through the centre of the country, affords much accommodation for the conveyance of merchandize. The mountainous districts in the south, contain extensive forests, which are kept up with care, as the chief supply of fuel for the mines. Coal and turf, however, are used for domestic fuel in various parts of the country. In the southern and mountainous parts of Saxony, the valleys only are cultivated; but in the level districts in the north, particularly the circles of Meissen and Leipsic, tillage is general: the products are wheat, barley, oats, and other grain; also some tobacco and hops; and in a few situations of favourable exposure, vines.

Of the domestic animals in this country, the chief care has been bestowed on the sheep, Merino rams having been imported about the year 1768, and the Saxon wool rendered, by continued good management, the best in Germany. The number of sheep is large; hogs also are numerous, and are fed in some districts in the woods.

Mineralogy.—Few countries equal Saxony in mineral riches, and in none has this department of natural history been more fully described. It was the rocks of the Erzgebirge that furnished Werner with the facts on which he founded a system of geology, confirmed by so many subsequent discoveries, and found to be almost as applicable to the Andes and Cordilleras, as to the less elevated mountains of Saxony. The basis of the Erzgebirge is granite, covered by gneiss, mica, and clay slate in succession. Between these are other strata, containing metallic ores. In particular spots there are rocks of serpentine and quartz, with strata of limestone, coal, and clay. The rocks, called in this country *weiss-stein* (white rock), contain a variety of heterogenous substances, such as feldt-spar, mica, garnet, and cyanite. Basalt is found in various parts, towering above the others in lofty and regular polygonal columns, forming, by their assemblage, prisms, pyramids, and domes. The smaller minerals are very numerous: the topaz occurs frequently, and there are found also chrysolites, amethysts, chalcedonies, cornelians, agates, jasper, garnets, and tourmalins; and among the coarser stones are serpentine, asbest, amianthus, barytes, and fluates of lime. The porcelain clay in the neighbourhood of Meissen is well known; here are also fuller's-earth, terra-sigillata, and other minerals with an argillaceous base: petrifactions are very common.

Of the precious metals in the Saxon mountains, the quantity of gold is so small, that it has never been made the object of particular research; but there are a few silver mines. The lofty primitive mountains abound in iron; the secondary in copper and lead. Next to these are arsenic, cobalt, antimony, manganese, zinc, sulphur, alum, vitriol, and borax. The salt mines and springs of Saxony, are included in the districts ceded in 1815 to Prussia.

Manufactures and Trade.—These are of greater extent than in most inland countries; and of the continent of Europe, Saxony may be considered that part which, after the Netherlands and the north of France, approaches most nearly to England. The weaving of linen is an employment of old date; it is carried on in almost every village of the kingdom, but more particularly in Upper Lusatia, at Zittau, Bautzen, and Herrnhut. Woollens likewise are manufactured in a number of towns. Cotton spinning and weaving, after being conducted on a small scale, so early as the 17th century, acquired a rapid extension towards the close of the 18th, and forms at present a great object of manufacturing industry at Chemnitz, Plauen, and other parts. The machinery used in Saxony, though inferior to the English, has of late years been much improved; labour also is cheap, but the conveyance of raw material, such as cotton, from a foreign country, is tedious and expensive. There are silk manufactures on a small scale at Leipsic, and in several smaller towns. Tanneries are more general, and the paper manufactories are not inconsiderable. Every town of consequence has breweries and distilleries. The cultivation of silk was attempted towards the middle of the 18th century, but relinquished; the climate being too cold for the silk worm.

The manufactures connected with the mines, are of considerable extent, particularly at Freyberg, which, being situated in the hilly district, may be termed the central and principal point for this kind of industry, as well for foundries of cannon and balls, as for separating the more valuable metals from their ores by amalgamation. At Dresden, also, there are foundries of cannon and balls; the navigation by the Elbe affording facilities for the transport of these very heavy commodities. Cobalt is made into smalts, and blue dye in several towns in the mining district, while other places are noted for the manufacture of verdigrease and green dye.

For commercial intercourse, the position of Saxony is not favourable. The neighbouring countries are poor, and their sovereigns have, till of late, cramped the transport of the goods, by tolls and other dues paid at the barrier custom-houses. The deficiency of water conveyance, necessitates the

the carriage of goods on waggons, and the roads are often indifferent. The exports from Saxony consist, in regard to raw produce, in wool and minerals; as to manufactures, in linen, yarn, woollens, and lace. The imports are silk, flax, cotton, coffee, sugar, wine, and, in certain seasons, corn. The most trading place is Leipsic, which is remarkable both for its half yearly fairs, and for being the centre of the book trade of Germany.

Religion and Education.—Saxony, the birth-place of the reformation, reckons among its inhabitants a great majority of Lutherans, but the reigning family have been Catholics since 1697, when Augustus abjured the reformed creed, to obtain the crown of Poland. That change was productive of extended toleration to the Catholics in Saxony, who, till then, had not been allowed to perform their worship openly. The institutions for education in this country are numerous and well conducted, it being a common remark, that, in no country, except Scotland and the Pays de Vaud, are the lower classes so generally taught to read and write. Certain it is, that in no country of equal extent is the number of printing and book establishments so great. Of the universities, Halle now belongs to Prussia, but Leipsic remains to Saxony, and maintains all its former reputation.

The Saxons having cultivated literature and the elegant arts more generally than the majority of their German countrymen, have been, by some writers, compared to the French —a comparison not devoid of foundation, as far as regards attention to the fair sex, or a certain versatility of opinion and feeling. But the German character certainly predominates among this people, as is evinced, among other things, by the minuteness with which they too often treat an insignificant subject; also in the more gratifying points of the general modesty of the women, and a no less general frankness in the male sex.

Revenue and Military Force.—The revenue of Saxony passes in the first instance through the hands of the provincial states, who render government an account only of the surplus, after defraying all local expenses: it thus probably exceeds 1,000,000*l.* sterling, the sum at which it is computed, including the rent of the royal domains and the crown dues, which are paid into the treasury direct. Saxony has long been burdened with a national debt. In the latter part of the 18th century, the elector and the states exerted themselves to diminish it, and were proceeding successfully, when they unfortunately became involved in the war of the French revolution. The territorial acquisitions of 1807, accounted so advantageous at the time, proved the source of additional burdens. On making the cessions to Prussia, in 1815, a proportional amount of debt was made over to that crown; but the public debt of Saxony amounts still to 3,700,000*l.* The army, which in this country was never large in proportion to its population, is at present on a peace establishment of 12,000 men, the best disciplined part of whom are the cavalry and artillery.

Constitution and Government.—After being, during many centuries, an electorate, Saxony was formed, in 1806, into a kingdom, in consequence of the occupancy of Prussia by Buonaparte, and of the aggrandisement of those states which it suited him to consider his allies. But this change of title was not accompanied by an extension of prerogative, the sovereign continuing to share the legislative functions with the states, and imposing no tax without their concurrence. The states are divided into two houses, viz.: the prelates and nobles in one, and in the other the country gentry and deputies of the towns. The higher offices of administration are entrusted to a cabinet-council, a board of finance, a military board, a high court of appeal for judicial questions, and an upper consistory for ecclesiastical. Each circle has a court of justice, and offices for the transaction of provincial business: The inhabitants of Saxony are better prepared than in most parts of Germany for a representative assembly on the plan of uninfluenced election. The peasantry, very different from their degraded brethren in Bohemia or Prussian Poland, are here in the enjoyment of complete personal freedom.

The King of Saxony, as a member of the Germanic confederation, has the fourth rank (see GERMANY) in the smaller, and four votes at the larger assembly. The court, formerly kept with a certain degree of magnificence, has adopted a style of great simplicity, since the distressing cessions of territory in 1815.

History.—Referring to the preceding article for the origin of the Saxons, it remains to state that the first margrave of Meissen who bore the title of elector, began his reign in 1422; he was surnamed Frederick the Warlike, and was the founder of the university of Leipsic. The next memorable event in the history of Saxony was the reformation, in the beginning of the 16th century. Luther had the good fortune to be the subject of a prince who, without openly espousing his cause, protected him and his doctrines against persecution. His successor, John Frederick, styled, with the ordinary courtesy of Germans, the "magnanimous," having the misfortune to lose a decisive battle against an army of the Emperor Charles V., was stripped of his states and dignity, which the Emperor conferred on Maurice, margrave of Meissen, the cousin of the elector, and the ancestor of the present house of Saxony. Maurice putting himself at the head of the Protestant interest, proved a full match for the artful Charles, who, in 1552, had almost fallen into his hands, and was compelled to sign the convention of Passau, since considered the bulwark of the religious freedom of Germany.

The Saxons took an active part in the war of religion, or, as it is called in Germany, the thirty years war, terminated at last by the peace of Westphalia, in 1648. But, in 1697, the temptation of the crown of Poland, vacant by the death of Sobieski, induced the reigning elector, Augustus I., to profess himself a Catholic, a change which, in these days of religious fervour, was productive of great surprise. His policy did not, however, prosper. The Swedes, under Charles XII., not only conquered Poland, but invaded Saxony, bringing great distress in the country until 1708, when relief was obtained by the march of Charles into Russia, and its disastrous issue; after which the crown of Poland was resumed by Augustus.

Saxony remained neutral in the war of 1740, between Prussia and Austria. In that of 1756 she was tempted to take a part by the flattering promises of Austria; but instead of an accession of territory, the Saxon court saw its dominions ravaged, and many of its subjects ruined in this dreadful contest. The peace of 1763 left the country loaded with an enormous debt, and impressed both the government and the people with the necessity of a total alteration of politics, renouncing objects of ambition, reducing the military establishment, cultivating a good understanding with Prussia, and endeavouring to lessen the pressure of the public debt. In the war of 1793, the contingent furnished by Saxony against France was not large, and no decided part was taken in the war, until 1806, when the elector sent all his troops to the field, in support of the King of Prussia. The overthrow of that power enabled Buonaparte to attach the Saxons to his cause by the most substantial advantages. The title of Elector was changed to that of King. Prussian Poland was added to the Saxon dominions, and in 1809 was nearly doubled by cessions obtained from Austria. But these acquisitions, disproportioned to the inherent strength of Saxony, led, as formerly, to disastrous results. The Russians re-occupied Poland in the beginning of 1813, and, joined by the Prussians, made Saxony the scene of the great continental struggle against Buonaparte. In that year took place the battles of Lutzen and Bautzen, the attacks on Dresden, and the decisive engagements at Leipsic, followed by the retreat of Buonaparte to the Rhine, and by divesting his too faithful ally, the King of Saxony, of the government of his territories. Many of his subjects, however, flattered themselves that their attachment to the cause of Germany, evinced by the defection of their troops from the French army on the 18th October, would secure the integrity of their territory. The interval between the battle of Leipsic and the decision of the Congress

Congress of Vienna, (nearly 18 months), was balanced between hope and fear, and cruel was the disappointment of the Saxons, on finding that the northern and eastern part of their territory, containing no less than 850,000 inhabitants, was to be separated from the kingdom, and transferred to Prussia. The king protested against dismemberment; but dreading insurrection and bloodshed, he some time after thought proper to acquiesce.

A prudent policy may tend to heal the wounds of Saxony, but cannot, it is to be apprehended, insure her ultimate independence; for, situated between two rival powers, this country can hardly remain a pacific spectator of their future quarrels. The succession to the crown is settled, in the event of failure of the reigning family, in the Duke of Saxe-Weimar; but it is not improbable that Austria may at a future period assert her claim, founded on the right of females, and on the recent marriage of the emperor with a princess of Saxony. Prussia, on the other hand, may advance, that Saxony is, from physical position, an appendage of her territory, and that no claims founded on family connexion, can justify Austria in attempting to extend her dominion beyond the great mountains which bound Bohemia on the north, all of which bear the additional title of Wittgenstein, and are well-known in the history of the late war, by the active share taken in it by one of the family in the service of Russia. The principal of these are Sayn-Wittgenstein-Berleburg, Sayn-Wittgenstein-Hohenstein, and Sayn-Wittgenstein-Sayn. See WITTGENSTEIN.

SAXONY, a large province of the Prussian states, situated to the west of Brandenburg, and north of the kingdom of Saxony. It comprises almost the whole of the cessions made by the latter power at the Congress of Vienna, and with these have been incorporated by the Prussian government, the principalities lying to the north of the duchy of Anhalt, and to the west of the rivers Elbe and Havel; so that the whole now forms an area of 9830 square miles, with rather more than 100,000 of inhabitants. It lies between Lat. 50. 52. and 53. 3. N. long. 9. 50. and 13. 50. E., and is divided into the governments of Magdeburg, Merseburg, and Erfurt. It forms a distinct military division; and the chief town is Magdeburg.

This large province is in general level; the only hills being part of the Hartz, in the south-west corner, and a detached part of the Thuringian forest. The rest is varied only by gentle swellings, or insignificant elevations. The soil, however varies greatly, being in some places dry and sandy, and in others a heavy loam No part of the Prussian states possesses a more advantageous combination of fertile land and good husbandry, than the track lying around Magdeburg; but the country to the north and south is in general less productive. There are some large forests, but in the far greater part wood is scarce. The principal objects of cultivation, after corn, are hemp, flax, and chicory for making coffee. Pit coal and metals are found chiefly in the mountains of the Hartz; porcelain clay in the level ground in the south; but the product hitherto most profitable is salt, which is obtained, not from mines, but from brine springs, by evaporation. The quantity made, at present very large, might be doubled, were it not limited by the scarcity of fuel. The richest of these springs is in the government of Merseburg, where it is often difficult to find pure water for drinking, or for the purposes of cookery. The inhabitants are almost all Protestants, except in the little district called the Eichesfeld. Having enjoyed the benefits of an enlightened government, both under Prussia and Saxony, they are in general active and industrious; but their fabrics, chiefly linen and woollen, are carried on not in factories, but in the separate dwellings of the workmen. The commerce of the province is very limited, and is carried on partly by the Elbe, partly by the Havel, the Saale, and the Unstrutt, its tributary streams.

SAXTEAD, a parish of England, in Suffolk; 2 miles north-west of Framlingham.

SAXTEN, a small town in the interior of Switzerland, canton of Unterwalden, on the lake of Sarnen.

SAXTHORPE, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 6 miles north-west of Aylesham.

SAXTON, a parish of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 4½ miles south-by-west of Tadcaster.

SAXTON'S RIVER, a river of the United States, in Vermont, which empties itself into the Connecticut, at Westminster.

To SAY, *v. a.* [secxan, Sax. *saggen*, Dutch.] To utter any fact or opinion. It differs thus from *to speak*. The latter implies the mere act of articulate utterance. It is perfectly abstract. *To say*, on the other hand, can only be used in connection with the matter spoken. This distinction is not, however, maintained by poets.

Say it out Diggon, for whatever it hight
For nought but well mought him betight,
He is so meek. *Spenser.*

SAY, *s.* A speech, or thing said. *Unused.*—He had no sooner said his *say*. *L'Estrange.* [for assay.] So good a *say* invites the eye. *Sidney.*—Silk [from *soie*, Fr.] *Obsolete.*—Woollen stuff.

SAYACU, in Ornithology, the name of a Brasilian bird. It is a species of the TANAGRA; which see.

SAYAN, a name given by some to a species of sea-swallow. This is the bird whose nests are so famous an ingredient in soups.

SAYANSKIE, a chain of mountains in Siberia, forming a prolongation of the Altai, and like them forming the line of separation between Siberia and Chinese Tartary. The Sayanskie mountains extend between the Upper Yenisei and the Lake Baikal. They consist chiefly of naked rocks of a red granite, and being entirely desert, are little frequented by travellers. They are divided into two ranges, one of which bordering on the Yenisei, derives its name from that river; the other takes its appellation from the city of Krasnoiarsk.

SAYBROOK, a post township of the United States in Middlesex county, on the west side of the Connecticut, near its mouth. Population 3996; 17 miles west of New London. Lat. 41. 18. N. long. 72. 24. W.

SAYDA, a small town of Germany, in Saxony, situated between the rivers Flohe and Mulda. Population only 900; 27 miles south-west of Dresden.

SAYI'NG, *s.* An expression; opinion.—Many are the *sayings* of the wise. *Milton.*

SAYMBRUMBACUM, a town of the south of India, province of the Carnatic. At this place is a remarkable fine reservoir of water, eight miles in length by three in breadth, formed by a bank between two ranges of hills. In the dry season the water is let out in small streams, and serves to irrigate the lands belonging to thirty-two villages. Lat. 13. 2. N. long. 80. 5. E.

SAYN, a small principality in the west of Germany, in the duchy of Nassau, and the Prussian government of Coblentz. The princes of Sayn have been extinct for above 200 years, but a younger branch of the family still exists, divided into several collateral lines.

SAYN, or SEYN, a small island on the north-west coast of France, department of Finisterre, opposite to Cap di Riez. It is dangerous to ships, from the rocks and shoals by which it is surrounded.

SAYN, a small town of the Prussian province of the Lower Rhine; 6 miles north of Coblentz, and 6 east of Andernach. Population 800.

SAYN, a river of the west of Germany, which flows into the Rhine; 5 miles below Coblentz.

SAYOU, a village of Western Africa, in the country of Sierra Leone; 60 miles east-north-east of Portlogo.

SAYPAN, one of the Ladrone islands, in the Eastern seas, about 20 miles in circumference. It is uninhabited like that of Tinian, and different accounts are given of its productiveness, by the different navigators who have visited it. According to some, it does not afford the same refreshments to ships that touch there as Tinian, though Anson, by whom it was visited, says that it presents an aspect not in any respect

spect less agreeable. Byron also says, that it has a much pleasanter appearance than Tinian. Voyagers in general, however, agree in giving Tinian the preference to Sapan, both in regard to extent and beauty. On the west side of this island, at the bottom of a steep bay, well sheltered with wood, lies a safe and commodious port called Cantanhitola. This island was at one time the best peopled of all the Ladrone islands, and was not thoroughly subdued by the Spaniards, till the beginning of the 17th century. Lat. 15. 13. N. long. 145. 55. E.

SAYTAN HARBOUR, a bay on the west coast of the island of Sumatra. Lat. 1. 2. S. long. 99. 55. E.

SAZARI, a river in the north-west part of Sardinia, which, at its influx into the sea, has a harbour formed by a mole.

SAZAWA, a river of Bohemia, which issues from the lake of Zdarko, flows nearly through the middle of the kingdom, and joins the Muldau below dawle.

SAZAWA, a small town of Bohemia, on the above river; 28 miles south-east of Prague.

SBAINEE, a village of Algiers; 27 miles east of Constantina.

SBEAH, a village of Tunis, in Africa, the ancient *Ruspæ*; 20 miles south of El Medea.

SBEEBAH, a town of Tunis, in Africa, the ancient *Tucca Terebinthina*; 50 miles north of Spaitla

SBECCA, a village of the Bled-el-Jeredee, in the southern part of the territory of Tunis, the ancient *Cerbica*; 50 miles south-west of Gafsa.

SBICA, a town of Nedsjed, in Arabia, near a lake; 220 miles east of Madian.

SBOAKE, a village of Upper Egypt, on the left bank of the Nile; 5 miles north of Tahta.

SBRAZLAW, or Konigsaal, a small town of Bohemia, where the river Beraun joins the Muldau; 8 miles south of Prague.

SCAB, [ȝcæb, Sax.] Dry incrustation over a sore.

What's the matter, you dissentious rogues,
That rubbing the poor itch of your opinion,
Make yourselves *scabs*. *Shakspeare.*

A paltry fellow.

This vap'ring *scab* must needs devise
To ope the thunder of the skies. *Swift.*

SCABB'ARD, *s.* [from the German, *schap.*] The sheath of a sword.

Enter fortune's gate,
Nor in thy *scabbard* sheath that famous blade,
'Till settled be thy kingdom and estate. *Fairfax.*

SCABB'ED, *adj.* Covered or diseased with scabs.—The briar fruit makes those that eat them *scabbed*. *Bacon.*—Paltry; sorry.

To you such *scabb'd* harsh fruit is given, as raw
Young soldiers at their exercisings knaw. *Dryden.*

SCABBED HEAD, in Medicine. See Porrigo, in Pathology.

SCABBED HEELS, or Frush, in the Manége, is an eating putrefaction upon a horse's frush, which is very hard to cure, and has a noisome smell.

SCABB'EDNESS, *s.* The state of being scabbed.

SCABB'INESS, *s.* The quality of being scabby.

SCABB'Y, *adj.* Diseased with scabs.

Her wrinkled skin as rough as maple rind,
So *scabby* was, that would have loathed all woman kind.
Spenser.

SCABELLA, or Scabilla, the persons who in antiquity beat time to the performance of music; they were generally furnished with wooden or iron sandals, in order to mark the measure in a more distinct manner. These instruments were called κρουπεζια, κρουπλα, or κρουπτα, by the Greeks, by the Latins *pedicula*, *scabella*, or *scabilla*, because they resembled little pattens or clogs.

SCABELLUM, in Ancient Architecture, a kind of pedestal, usually square, sometimes polygonous, very high and slender, commonly terminating in a kind of sheath or scabbard, or profiled in manner of a balluster. Its use is to support bustos, or other relievos, &c.

SCABIES, in Medicine, the itch, so called from the intense itching which accompanies every form of this contagious disease. See Pathology.

SCABIOSA, [This is a modern name, which some derive from *scaber*, rough or rugged; but others, with more reason, from *scabies*, the itch, which disorder the common sort is said to cure], in Botany, a genus of the class tetrandria, order monogynia, natural order aggregatæ, dipsaceæ *(Juss)*. —Generic Character. Calyx: common perianth many-flowered, spreading, many-leaved; leaflets in various rows surrounding the receptacle, and placed upon it, the inner ones gradually less. Proper perianth double, both superior; outer shorter, membranaceous, plaited, permanent; inner five-parted, with the segments subulate-capillaceous. Corolla universal equal. Proper one-petalled, tubular, four or five-cleft, equal or unequal. Stamina: filaments four, subulate-capillary, weak. Anthers oblong, incumbent. Pistil: germ inferior, involved in its proper sheath as in a calycle. Style filiform, length of the corolla. Stigma obtuse, obliquely emarginate. Pericarp none. Seeds solitary, ovate-oblong, involute, crowned variously with proper calyxes. Receptacle common convex, chaffy or naked. Exterior corollets often larger, more unequal. Crowns of the seeds various in the different species. The primary distinction of the species is to be taken from the division of the florets into four-cleft and five-cleft.—*Essential Character.* Calyx common, many-leaved; proper double, superior. Receptacle chaffy or naked.

I.—With four-cleft corollets.

1. Scabiosa Alpina, or Alpine scabious.—Corollets four-cleft equal, calyxes imbricate, leaves pinnate, leaflets lanceolate serrate. Root perennial, composed of many strong fibres which run deep in the ground. Stems several, strong, channelled, upwards of four feet high. Flowers on naked peduncles at the ends of the branches, drooping, of a whitish yellow colour, and appearing at the end of June.—Native of the Alps of Switzerland, Dauphiné, and Italy.

2. Scabiosa ustulata.—Scales of the calyx acute, leaves lyrate toothed.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

3. Scabiosa rigida, or rigid-leaved scabious.—Calyxes imbricate obtuse, leaves lanceolate, serrate-eared. Stem suffruticose, rugged. Peduncles terminating, very long.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

4. Scabiosa attenuata, or narrow-leaved scabious.—Calyxes imbricate, scales oblong, obtuse, leaves linear, smooth, entire and pinnatifid at the base. This is a smooth plant, with grooved filiform branches; the younger ones subpubescent. Peduncle filiform, terminating the branches, one-flowered.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

5. Scabiosa scabra, or rugged-leaved scabious.—Scales of the calyx obtuse, leaves bipinnatifid, rugged rigid. This is an herbaceous plant, of the stature and with the stem and flowers of the Scabiosa rigida.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

6. Scabiosa Transylvanica, or Transylvanian scabious.—Calyxes imbricate and chaffs awned. This is an annual plant, with stems rising four or five feet high, and dividing into several branches. Leaves hairy, cut almost to the midrib. Flowers small, of a pale purplish colour.—Native of Transylvania.

7. Scabiosa Syriaca, or Syrian scabious.—Calyxes imbricate and chaffs awned, stem dichotomous, five or six feet high, leaves lanceolate.—Root annual. Flowers sub-sessile in the forks of the stem.—Native of Syria.

8. Scabiosa leucantha, or snowy scabious.—Calycine scales, ovate imbricate, leaves pinnatifid.—Root perennial. Stem stiff, two feet high, bifid at top, spreading; in the division arises a naked peduncle, which, as also the divisions, are each terminated by a single flower, composed of many white florets.—Native of the south of France and Piedmont.

9. Scabiosa succisa, or devil's-bit scabious.—Root perennial,

SCABIOSA AND SCHEUCHZERIA.

1. 2. 3. Scheuchzeria palustris. 4. Scabiosa columbaria. 5. 6. Scabiosa succisa

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1827.

nial, oblong, blackish, near the thickness of the little finger, often growing obliquely, stumped at the lower end so as to appear as if bitten off (whence its trivial name), and furnished with long whitish fibres. Stem from a foot to eighteen inches in height, upright, branched at top, round, rough with hair, and often of a reddish colour; the branches each bear one flower. Root-leaves ovate, entire, blunter than the others; stem-leaves lanceolate, dark-green, rather coriaceous, harsh and hairy. Flowers in nearly globular heads. Calyx hairy. Corolla violet or dark purplish blue, varying to flesh-coloured and milk-white.—Native of Europe, in pastures: flowering from August to the end of October. The flowers not only vary in colour, but also double.

10. Scabiosa integrifolia, or red-flowered annual scabious.—Leaves undivided, root-leaves ovate serrate, branch-leaves lanceolate, stem herbaceous. Root annual.—Native of Germany, Switzerland, the south of France, and the county of Nice.

11. Scabiosa amplexicaulis, or blue-flowered annual scabious.—Leaves embracing, lanceolate, quite entire, root-leaves trifid crenate. Stem a foot high, rugged, branchiate. Panicle dichotomous. Peduncles very long. Corolla blue. Calyx the length of the corolla.—It is not known from what country it comes.

12. Scabiosa humilis, or humble scabious.—Scales of the calyx obtuse, leaves linear, tooth.pinnatifid.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

13. Scabiosa decurrens, or decurrent-leaved scabious.—Scales of the calyx ovate.—This also is a native of the Cape.

14. Scabiosa Tatarica, or giant scabious.—Leaves lanceolate pinnatifid, lobes subimbricate. This rises with a strong branching stalk four or five feet high, closely armed with stiff prickly hairs; lower leaves spear-shaped, about seven inches long, and near four broad in the middle, deeply cut on the sides; stem-leaves more entire, those at the top linear and entire. Flowers from the sides and at the top of the stalks white, and each sitting in a bristly calyx. Root biennial.—Native of Tartary.

15. Scabiosa arvensis, or field scabious.—Root perennial, long, spindle-shaped, mostly branched, running deep into the ground. Stem from a foot to near a yard in height, branched, rough with bristles, which rather point downward, toward the bottom spotted with dark purple. Branches spreading, each terminated by a single flower, composed of very numerous pale-purple florets, of which the outmost are larger, labiate, and give the whole a radiate figure; they are a little villose within.—Native of Europe, both in pastures and corn fields, but more commonly in the latter: flowering in July and August.

16. Scabiosa parviflora, or small-flowered scabious.—Interior proper calyx very short, lower leaves obovate, crenate, stem dichotomous. Stem villose, upright. Leaves subvillose; the lower obovate, crenate, with wide, unequal, blunt notches; the upper pinnatifid at the base, with the outer lobe larger. Heads of flowers small, close, oblong when the fruit is ripe, one in each forking; the lower sessile, the upper peduncled.—Native of Algiers; also of Sicily.

17. Scabiosa uralensis, or uralian scabious.—Root-leaves simple, stem-leaves decussively pinnate, chaffs dry, reflexed at the tip.—This is an annual plant.—Native of Siberia.

18. Scabiosa sylvatica, or broad-leaved scabious.—All the leaves undivided, ovate-oblong serrate, stem hispid. Root perennial. Stem herbaceous, green, round, hollow, hispid with stiffish hairs springing from black (or deep purple) dots, sub-dichotomous, erect, from one foot to two feet high. Peduncles very long, supporting purple flowers longer than the leaflets of the common calyx, which are lanceolate and ciliate below.—Native of Germany, Switzerland, Austria, Carniola, and Piedmont, in woods, among bushes, and sometimes in fields; flowering the greater part of the summer.

II.—With five-cleft corollets.

19. Scabiosa gramuntia, or cut-leaved scabious.—Calyxes very short, stem-leaves bipinnate filiform. It flowers very late, and is perennial.—Native of the south of France, the county of Nice, and Barbary.

20. Scabiosa columbaria, or small scabious.—Root-leaves ovate or lyrate crenate, stem-leaves pinnatifid, segments linear. This is easily distinguished from the other British species by its five-cleft corollas, much more radiant than they, that is, having the outer segments of the outer corollets much larger than the inner. It has the habit of arvensis, but is lower and much more slender in all its parts. The flowers are of a blueish lilac colour. Root perennial, tapering to a point.—Native of Europe, Barbary, and Siberia, on hilly pastures in a gravelly or calcareous soil: flowering from June to September.

21. Scabiosa Pyrenaica, or Pyrenean scabious.—Leaves tomentose, entire, toothed and pinnatifid; stem one-flowered. All the leaves are tomentose. Stem, except one pair, of pinnate leaves, naked, half a foot or more in height. Flower single, radiate, purple, with the scales of the calyx ovate-lanceolate, not longer than the flower.—Native of the Pyrenees, Switzerland, Savoy, Lombardy, and Barbary.

22. Scabiosa sicula, or Sicilian scabious.—Root annual. Stem herbaceous, a foot high, dichotomous, divaricating, red, weak. Leaves petioled, almost naked, a little hairy; the lower ones lyrate, the upper subpinnate, linear. Peduncles from the forkings, long, scarcely pubescent, purple.—Native of Sicily.

23. Scabiosa rutæfolia, or rue-leaved scabious.—Leaves pinnate, the upper ones linear; calyxes one-leaved, five-cleft. Root perennial, woody, divided at top. Stems several, erect, a foot high, stiff, smooth, except at bottom, where they are villose, simple, covered at the base with ovate, ciliate embracing scales, being the permanent base of the leaves.—Native of Tunis: flowering in the middle of July.

24. Scabiosa maritima, or sea scabious.—Leaves pinnate, the upper ones linear, quite entire. Calyx imbricate, hemispherical, with the scales ovate, obtuse. Stem upright, branched in threes, long, like the stem. Peduncles elongated. Common involucre, many-leaved, longer than the head of flowers; leaflets lanceolate, entire, villose.—Native of Italy, France, and Japan.

25. Scabiosa stellata, or starry scabious.—This is an annual plant. Stems three feet high, hairy. Leaves oblong, deeply notched; the upper ones cut almost to the midrib into fine segments. Flowers on long peduncles. Receptacles globular. Florets large, spreading open like a star, of a pale purple colour.—Native of Spain and Barbary.

26. Scabiosa prolifera, or prolific scabious.—Stem herbaceous, dichotomous or proliferous. Leaves lanceolate, subpubescent, connate at the base; the lower ones subserrate. Flowers axillary, subsessile. Calyx loose, the length of the corolla. Corolla yellow, radiate, with the three outer segments larger. It is an annual plant. Native of Barbary and Egypt, in corn fields.

27. Scabiosa atropurpurea, or sweet scabious.—Calyx twelve-leaved, linear, recurved, the length of the corolla. Flower very dark purple, with white anthers. Fruit ovate. Receptacle subulate, with bristle-shaped chaffs. It is a biennial plant, and the flowers are very sweet. There is a great variety in their colour, some being of a purple approaching to black; others of a pale purple, some red, and others variegated.—Native of the south of Europe.

28. Scabiosa argentea, or silvery scabious.—Leaves pinnatifid, segments linear, peduncles very long, stem round. This is a low perennial plant, with a branching stalk spreading wide on every side; the leaves are of a silvery colour; the flowers are small, pale, and have no scent.

29. Scabiosa daucoides, or carrot-like scabious.—Stem erect, striated, subvillose, simple or with a few upright branches. Leaves pubescent; those next the root ovate or ovate-oblong, toothed, blunt, pinnatifid at the base, petioled; lower stem-leaves pinnatifid, with the terminating lobe ovate, blunt, toothed; middle stem-leaves bipinnate, with the segments unequal, linear, acute; upper ones pinnate, with the pinnules linear-subulate. Peduncles long, striated. Flowers the

the same size with those of the Scabiosa columbaria.—Native of Algiers, on hills.

30. Scabiosa indurata.—Leaves sessile, a span long, serrate, the upper ones more sharply, subtomentose but green, deeply toothed at the base with from one to three teeth on each side. Panicle dichotomous; the first division pedunculiferous; the others floriferous at the top. Peduncles very long. It is so nearly allied to Scabiosa Africana, that it may be doubted whether it is not a variety.—Native of Africa.

31. Scabiosa Africana, or African scabious.—This has a weak shrubby stalk, which divides into several branches, and rises about five feet high. Leaves ovate-lanceolate, three inches long, and an inch and half broad, deeply crenate, of a light green, and a little hairy. Peduncle terminating, sustaining one pale flesh-coloured flower.—Native of Africa.

32. Scabiosa Monspeliensis, or Montpellier scabious.—All the leaves pinnate ciliate.—Plant a foot and a half high, hirsute all over, biennial, flowering from May to July. Peduncles terminating. Leaflets of the common calyx hirsute, acute, entire.—Native of France about Montpellier.

33. Scabiosa pumila, or dwarf scabious.—Almost stemless, leaves very hairy, root-leaves lyrate, stem-leaves pinnate, gashed. The whole plant is extremely hirsute. It has scarcely any stem.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

34. Scabiosa Cretica, or Cretan scabious.—Leaves lanceolate, almost entire. This rises with a shrubby stalk three feet high, and divides into several woody knotty branches. Leaves narrow, silvery, entire, four inches long and a quarter of an inch broad. The flowers stand upon very long naked peduncles at the end of the branches, and are of a fine blue colour.—Native of Candia and Sicily.

35. Scabiosa limonifolia.—Leaves wedge-shaped, entire, wrinkled and hoary underneath. Root divided above. Stems frutescent at the base, erect, simple; flowering-scape among the leaves, grooved-angular, almost leafless, a foot high. Peduncles two at bottom from the axils of the leaves of the scape; three above, very remote, terminating; the lateral ones branched a little.—Native of Sicily.

36. Scabiosa graminifolia, or grass-leaved scabious.—Leaves linear-lanceolate, entire, stem herbaceous. This has a perennial root, from which arise three or four stalks, the lower parts of which have linear leaves about four inches long, and the eighth of an inch broad, of a silvery colour, ending in acute points. The upper part of the stalk is naked for six or seven inches in length, and sustains at the top one pale-blue flower.—Native of the mountains of Dauphiné, Carniola, Italy, Switzerland, Silesia, and Barbary.

37. Scabiosa lyrata, or lyrate-leaved scabious.—Stem herbaceous, erect, a foot high, simple, striated, somewhat hairy. Leaves an inch and a half long, smooth above, hairy on the veins underneath; the lower ones oblong, undivided, grossly and bluntly serrate, ending in a petiole shorter by half than the leaf; the upper ones sessile, pinnatifid; segments lanceolate, wider outwards, gash-toothed, the end one very large, and oblong. Peduncles terminating, solitary, elongated, leafless, hairy, one-flowered.—Native of the shore of the Dardanelles.

38. Scabiosa Palæstina, or Palestine scabious.—All the segments trifid, leaves undivided subserrate, upper pinnatifid at the base.—Stem a foot high, round. Leaves broad-lanceolate, cut with a few gashes, and pubescent; the uppermost linear-lanceolate, pinnatifid at the lower base. Peduncles very long. Flowers white, or lemon-coloured, the length of the calyx.—Native of Palestine.

39. Scabiosa isetensis.—Stems a foot high, ascending, subtomentose. The leaves have stiffish hairs scattered over them; the upper ones simply pinnate. Branches very few, often none. Flower white, not shorter than the calyx; which is many-leaved and spreading.—Native of Siberia, on rocks.

40. Scabiosa Ucranica, or Ukraine scabious.—Root-leaves pinnatifid, stem-leaves linear-lanceolate at the base.—Native of the Ukraine.

41. Scabiosa ochroleuca, or pale scabious.—Root perennial, whitish brown, the thickness of a finger and woody. Stem round, equal, pubescent, pale green, frequently tinged with purple at the base and at the axils of the leaves. It is from a foot to three feet in height, and erect. The primary division is dichotomous; the other divisions are by elongated peduncles. Root-leaves in plants of the first year, and lower stem-leaves obversely lanceolate, sometimes pinnatifid, attenuated into a very long petiole, subtomentose or smoothish on both sides. As the plants advance the leaves are more cut, and become pinnatifid or sub-bipinnatifid, and more smooth. It is a biennial plant.—Native of Germany.

42. Scabiosa papposa, or downy-headed scabious.—Stem herbaceous erect, leaves pinnatifid, seeds awned and feather-downed. Root annual. Stem filiform, brachiate, with a sub-dichotomous panicle. Peduncles and calyxes tomentose. —Native of the island of Crete or Candia.

43. Scabiosa pterocephala, or wing-headed scabious.—Stem procumbent shrubby, leaves laciniate hirsute, down-feathered.—Supposed to be a native of Greece.

Propagation and Culture.—There is nothing particular in the propagation of this genus. The annuals and biennials are, of course, obtained by sowing the seeds; perennials by parting the roots, and the shrubby plants by slips or cuttings.

SCAB'IOUS, *adj.* Scabby.

SCAB'IOUS, *s.* A flower. See SCABIOSA.

SCABRED'ITY, *adj.* Roughness of surface. *Unused.*

SCABRITA, so named by Linnæus, from *scaber*, rough, because of the remarkable roughness of the leaves. See NYCTANTHES.

SCAB'ROUS, *adj.* Rough on the surface. It has been also applied to roughness or harshness of style.—Lucretius is *scabrous* and bright in these; he seeks them as some do Chaucerisms with us, which were better expunged. *Ben Jonson.*

SCABR'OUSNESS, *s.* Roughness.

SCAB'WORT, *s.* A plant. *Ainsworth.*

SCAD. See SCOMBER TRACHURUS.

SCÆNANTH, or SCHÆNANTH, in the Materia Medica, the dried stalk of a plant brought to us from Arabia.

This plant is called, by the generality of botanists, *juncus odoratus*, and *aromaticus;* but Linnæus gives it the name of *ischæmum*, under which head its botanical characters are described.

SCAER, a small town in the west of France, in Britanny, department of Finisterre, containing, with its parish, 4100 inhabitants; 12 miles north-west of Quimperl.

SCÆVOLA, in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of campanulaceæ *(Juss.)* —Generic Character. Calyx: perianth superior, very short, five-cleft, permanent. Corolla: one-petalled, unequal. Tube long, with a longitudinal fissure. Border five-cleft, ascending: segments directed one way, lanceolate, membranaceous at the edge. Stamina: filaments five, short, capillary, inserted into the receptacle. Anthers distinct, erect, oblong, obtuse. Pistil: germ inferior, ovate. Style filiform, thicker above, longer than the stamens, issuing from the fissure, curved in towards the border. Stigma flatted, obtuse, with the mouth open. Pericarp: drupe roundish, umbilicate with a dot, one-celled. Seed: nut ovate, wrinkled, acute, two-celled.—It differs from the lobelias in fruit, in having no milkiness, &c. according to Jacquin.—*Essential Character.* Corolla one-petalled, with the tube cloven longitudinally, the border five-cleft and lateral. Drupe inferior, containing one two-celled nut.

1. Scævola lobelia.—Leaves obovate, smooth, quite entire. Stem suffrutescent, two feet high, almost single, thick, round, smooth. Leaves petioled, scattered, oblong, entire, fleshy, veinless, very smooth. Racemes axillary, dichotomous, terminating, Pedicels one-flowered. Under the flowers, or in the forkings of the racemes, are little, opposite, awl-shaped bractes, villose beneath.

2. Scævola Koenigii.—Branches round, smooth, warted, the thickness of a goose-quill. Leaves alternate, by pairs remote, subsessile, three inches long, very smooth, even and almost

almost veinless, quite entire below, above and at the tip toothed: axils woolly. Peduncles axillary, an inch long, bifid. Flower in the first forking pedicelled, as the rest of the flowers, but not sessile as in Plumier's plant; none in the second division. Pedicels short, sub-opposite. Bracte lanceolate, shorter than the pedicel, at the base of each pedicel, woolly within at the bottom. Calyx with five awl-shaped teeth. Corolla smooth, divided on one side almost to the base: tube hirsute within at bottom: segments of the border smooth, lanceolate. Filaments shorter by half than the tube of the corolla. Anthers distinct. Style villose at the base. Stigma shaped like a drinking-glass, the inside hirsute with a great abundance of white villose hairs. Fruit (which is here called a capsule,) five-cornered, with five raised lines, obovate, crowned with the calyx, smooth.—Native of the East Indies.

3. Scævola sericea.—Leaves obovate, villose, very soft, toothed at top. Branches brown, villose, muricated with the remains of fallen leaves. Leaves scattered, three inches long, veinless, softly villose, yet green. Petiole inserted obliquely. Axils bearded. Panicle few-flowered, dichotomous, axillary. Bractes opposite at the base of the pedicels, lanceolate, a little recurved. Calyx five-parted, superior, with lanceolate segments. Corolla villose on the outside; tube very short, coriaceous; segments of the border lanceolate, obtuse, having a thin membrane at the side. Filaments inserted into the base of the side, filiform, the length of the style. Anthers oblong, cohering a little under the stigma, rounded at the base, transverse at the tip. Style short, linear, three times as thick as the filaments. Stigma shaped like a drinking-glass, three times as wide as the style, green, pellucid, very finely toothletted at the edge. Pericarp globular, villose, the size of a pea, crowned with the calyx.

Propagation and Culture.—It is propagated by seeds, which must be procured from the countries of its natural growth, for the plants will not produce them in Europe; these seeds should be sown in pots filled with light sandy earth, and plunged into a hot-bed of tanner's bark, where the plants will come up in about a month or five weeks, provided the bed is warm, and the earth often watered. When the plants are up, they should be kept in a temperate hot-bed, and frequently refreshed with water; but it must not be given them in large quantities, for they are very succulent, and subject to perish with much moisture, especially while they are young.

SCAFATI, a small town in the west of the kingdom of Naples, in the Principato Citra, on the Sarno. Population 2300; 12 miles north-west of Salerno.

SCAFELL, a mountain of England, in Cumberland, with two peaks, the highest of which is 3166, and the lowest 3092 feet above the level of the sea.

SCAFFA, or Barca di Garigliano, a small town in the north-west of the kingdom of Naples, in the Terra di Lavoro, on the river Garigliano; 9 miles east-by-north of Gaeta.

SCAFFAJOLA, or Scalfagiuolo, a petty lake of Italy, in the duchy of Modena, south of Fanano, remarkable for its situation near one of the highest summits of the Appennines, called *les Alpes de la Croix*. Its length does not exceed 200 yards, its breadth 100; and there is no truth in the popular notion, that a stone thrown so as to ruffle its surface, produces any mist or cloudiness in the surrounding atmosphere.

SCAFFOLD. [*eschafoul*, French; *schavol* Dutch, from *schawen*, to show.] A gallery or stage erected for the spectators of a show.

> Pardon
> The flat unraised spirit that hath dared,
> On this unworthy *scaffold*, to bring forth
> So great an object. *Shakspeare.*

The gallery raised for the execution of criminals.—Fortune smiling at her fortune therein that a *scaffold* of execution should grow to a scaffold of coronation. *Sidney.*—A frame of timber work for the workmen to stand on who are engaged in building high walls or houses.

To SCAFFOLD, *v. a.* To furnish with a scaffold.

SCAFFOLDAGE, or Scaffolding, *s.* The materials of scaffolds. But these words are generally used as synonymous with scaffold.

> A strutting player doth think it rich,
> To hear the wooden dialogue and sound
> Twixt his stretch'd footing and the *scaffoldage*. *Shakspeare.*

SCAFTWORTH, a hamlet of England, in the county of Nottingham; 1 mile south-east of Bawtry.

SCAGGERAC. See Skagen, Cape of.

SCAGGLETHORPE, a hamlet of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 3½ miles east-by-north of New Malton.

SCAGLIOLA is an imitation of marble of any sort, with respect to which the artist succeeds in an astonishing degree with the most beautiful marbles, such as Sienna, jasper, brocatello, and porphyry: it is hard, and, when finished, bears a very fine polish. It is laid on brick in the manner of stucco, and worked off with iron tools.

SCALA, a small town in the west of the kingdom of Naples, in the Principato Citra, formerly the see of a bishop, now united to that of Ravello. Population 1800. In the neighbourhood are some lead mines; 11 miles west-south-west of Amalfi, and 12 west of Salerno.

SCALA, in Anatomy, the cochlea, or inner cavity of the ear, which is divided by a septum into two canals, called *scalæ:* of which the one, looking towards the tympanum, is called the *scala tympani;* the other, having a communication with the vestibulum, is called the *scala vestibuli.* See Anatomy.

SCALA, in Ancient Architecture, denotes what in the modern we call a *stair-case.*

SCALA (Bartolomeo), an Italian man of letters, was the son of a miller at Colle, in the Florentine territory; he was born about the year 1430, and coming to Florence in a state of indigence, he applied himself to learning with so much success, that he attracted the notice of Cosmo de Medici, who took him into his service, and brought him afterwards into public life. In the course of time, he attained the important offices of chancellor and gonfalonier of the republic, and was enrolled in the senatorian and equestrian orders. In 1484, he was sent ambassador to pope Innocent VIII., who gave him the title of knighthood, and made him apostolic secretary. Upon his return, for some cause that is not known, he was excommunicated, which rendered it necessary for him to go again to Rome for absolution. His offices in the state were a source of great wealth, which he expended in a most ostentatious manner, having a superb palace in Florence, besides a magnificent villa near it, and appearing in public with a numerous retinue. Though he was never ashamed to acknowledge his mean parentage and original poverty, he spoke of himself in a high style of consequence, which was probably one cause of a quarrel with the celebrated scholar Angelo Politiano; though the chief cause of this was his jealousy of the superior talents of Politiano, who was frequently applied to by Lorenzo de Medici to correct the dispatches drawn up by Scala. A literary contest was excited between them, which produced much mutual abuse. The reputation of Scala does not appear to have been injured by it, for he continued to live in prosperity, and held all his offices of profit, trust, and honour till his death, in 1497. As a literary character, we have his "Apologues," which obtained the highest commendations from Landino and Ficino; "Poems," both in Latin and Italian; "Orations;" and "A General History of Florence," intended to consist of twenty books, but of which he only finished four, with part of a fifth, brought down to the time of Charles I. king of Naples. These were first printed at Rome in 1677. He had a daughter, Alessandra, equally celebrated for her learning and her beauty. She studied Greek under Lascaris and Chalcondiles. Some of her epigrams in that language are extant, with a Latin letter of her own composition.

SCALA NOVA, a sea-port town of Asia Minor, about three leagues from the site of the ancient Ephesus. The town is well built, and the fortifications are about three quarters of a mile in circumference. To the north is a considerable suburb, in which alone the Christians are permitted to dwell. The population is reckoned by Tournefort, at 1000 Turkish families, 600 Greek, 10 Jew, and 60 Armenian. The port is secured by a small island against westerly winds, but is somewhat exposed to those from the north. The town carries on a considerable trade, supplying Samos and the neighbouring districts with grain, coffee, and cloth, from Egypt, Smyrna, and Salonica. The neighbourhood yields a considerable quantity of wine, which, however, has lost its ancient reputation. This town was the Neapolis of the Milesians, and presents still the remains of some ancient structures; 40 miles south of Smyrna.

SCALA NUOVA, a small sea-port of Greece, in the east of the Morea, on the gulf of Napoli. It is inhabited entirely by Greeks, who carry on a martime trade in their own ships, and manufacture good saffron.

SCAL'ABLE, *adj.* Capable of being ascended by a ladder.

SCALA'DE, or SCALADS, [from *scalada*, Spanish.] The storming of a place by ladders.

SCALARE, in Natural History, a name given by Rumphius to a peculiar species of turbo, or *screw shell.*

SCAL'ARY, *adj.* Proceeding by steps, as a ladder.—He made at nearer distances certain elevations and *scalary* ascents, that they might the better ascend or mount their horses. *Brown.*

SCALBY, a hamlet of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles east of Howden.

SCALBY, a village of England, in Lincolnshire, near Glanford Bridge.

SCALBY, a village of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 3 miles north-west of Scarborough. Population 454.

SCALBY, EAST and WEST, two adjacent villages of England, in Cumberland; about 6 miles north-east of Carlisle. Population 557.

SCALD, a name given by the ancient inhabitants of the northern countries to their poets; in whose writings, their history is recorded.

They were called "Scaldi," or "Scaldri," as some say, from the sound *skal*, often heard in their verses and poems; and the dialect in which they wrote was called "Asamal," that is, the Asiatic dialect, because it was brought by Woden or Odin out of Asia, who is also said to have brought with him the Runic characters, and to have taught the northern nations the art of poetry. The learned Torfæus, a native of Iceland, and historiographer of Norway, suggests (Præfat. ad Orcades, fol.) that the word *Scald* signified originally, "a smoother and polisher of language." Whatever was the origin of their name, they were an order of poets or singers, who were imported into Europe by the Goths, who migrated from the East with Odin, and were dispersed among the northern nations, particularly in Scandinavia. (See ODIN and SCANDINAVIA.) These men were held in the highest veneration; they were employed to compose odes or songs, which related all the most illustrious exploits of the ancient Scandinavians, and sometimes the whole history of their lives. They attended the festivals of heroic chiefs, accompanied them in battle, and celebrated their victories. Their songs were propagated from one reciter to another; and there was no public solemnity in which they were not sung or chaunted. The praises which these poets gave to valour, the warlike enthusiasm which animated their verses, the great care which men took to learn them from their infancy, being all of them the natural effects of the ruling passion of these people, served in their turn to strengthen and extend it. At a period when the use of letters was very limited, verse was a necessary medium of knowledge, and the poet was an essential officer of the state; and as it required a peculiar and uncommon genius to excel in this art, the professors of it would of course acquire a very high degree of esteem and respect, and receive for their verses the most liberal rewards. All the historical monuments of the North testify, in the most ample manner, the honours that were paid to this order of men both by princes and people; nor can the annals of poetry produce any age or country which reflects more glory and lustre upon it. The ancient chronicles represent the kings of Denmark, Norway, and Sweden, as attended by one or more Scalds. They were more especially honoured and caressed at the courts of those princes who distinguished themselves by their great actions and passion for glory. Harold Harfrage, *e. g.* placed them at his feasts above all the other officers of his court. Many princes entrusted them, both in peace and war, with commissions of the highest importance. They never set out on any considerable expedition, without some of them in their train. Hacon, earl of Norway, had five celebrated poets in the famous battle, when the warriors of Jomsburg were defeated; and history records, that each of them sung an ode to animate the soldiers before they engaged. Torfæus produces other instances to the same purpose; particularly that of Olave, king of Norway, who placed three of his Scalds near him to be witnesses of his exploits; each of whom composed a song on the spot, which Bartholin has printed and accompanied with a Latin version. Other songs of the same kind may be found preserved by the same author. They also enjoyed another advantage, which would be more an object of envy to the poets of these days. They were rewarded for the poems they composed in honour of the kings and heroes, with magnificent presents. The Scald never sang his verses at the courts of princes without a recompence of golden rings, glittering arms, and rich apparel. Their respect for this order of men often extended so far as to induce them to remit the punishment of crimes which they had committed, on condition they sued out their pardon in verse; and we have still extant an ode, by which Egill, a celebrated poet, atoned for a murder of which he had been guilty. In a word, the poetic art was held in such high estimation, that great lords, and even kings, did not themselves disdain to cultivate it with the utmost pains. Rogvald, earl of the Orkney Islands, passed for a very able poet. King Regner was no less distinguished for his skill in poetry than in war and navigation; and it is well known that he died no less like a poet than a hero.

The respect, however, which the northern nations paid to their Scalds, was not owing to the nobility of their extraction. A people, whose object was glory, could not fail of shewing a great deference to those who both published it abroad, and consigned it to futurity, let their original be what it would. A prince or illustrious warrior oftentimes exposed his life with so much intrepidity only to be praised by his Scald, who was both the witness and judge of his bravery. It is affirmed that this kind of men, although poets, were never guilty of flattery, and never lavished their praises on heroes and kings themselves, unless their gallant exploits were quite incontestible. Hence arose the custom of always bringing them into the scene of action: Olave, king of Norway, placing three of them one day around him in battle, cried out with spirit, "You shall not relate what you have only heard, but what you are eye-witnesses of yourselves." The same poets usually sung their verses themselves at solemn festivals and in great assemblies, to the sound of the flute or harp. But the subject of these poems was not confined to one single event, such as a victory or some generous action; it was frequently a genealogical history of all the kings of the country, deduced down from the gods to the reigning prince, who always derived his origin from them. These poems were, according to Tacitus, the only annals of the Germans: they had great numbers of them, which were not wholly forgotten in the eighth century; since Eginhard relates, that Charlemagne caused them to be committed to writing.—"And even learnt himself," adds the historian, "the rude and ancient songs in which the exploits and the wars of the first princes were celebrated." In poems of the same kind consisted, for many ages, all the history

history of the Scandinavians. A bard named Thiodolfe, celebrated in his verses the exploits of Harold and thirty of his predecessors; another called Eyvind, composed an historical poem which went back as far as Odin. Such are the sources whence Saxo drew his materials for the first six or seven books of his history; and he might, doubtless, have derived great assistance from them, if he had not happened to live in an age wholly destitute of that exact skill in criticism, which knows how to separate facts from the fictions with which they are blended.

The necessity there was for poets, the natural attractions of the art itself, and those it derived from the manners of the age, greatly multiplied the number of Scalds. An ancient Icelandic manuscript has preserved a list of all such as distinguished themselves in the three northern kingdoms, from the reign of Regner Lodbrog to that of Valdemar II. They are in number two hundred and thirty, among whom we find more than one crowned head. But what is not less remarkable is, that most of them are natives of Iceland.

The style of these ancient poems is very enigmatical and figurative, very remote from the common language, and, for that reason, grand, but tumid; sublime, but obscure. If it be the character of poetry to have nothing in common with prose; if the language of the gods ought to be quite different from that of men; if every thing should be expressed by imagery, figures, hyperboles, and allegories, the Scandinavians may rank in the highest class of poets: nor is this unaccountable. The soaring flights of fancy may possibly more peculiarly belong to a rude and uncultivated, than to a civilized people. The great objects of nature strike more forcibly on rude imaginations. Their passions are not impaired by the constraint of laws and education. The paucity of their ideas, and the barrenness of their language, oblige them to borrow from all nature images fit to clothe their conceptions in.

The most affecting and most striking passages in the ancient northern poetry, were such as now seem to us the most whimsical, unintelligible, and overstrained: so different are our modes of thinking from theirs. We can admit of nothing but what is accurate and perspicuous. They only required bold and astonishing images, which appear to us hyperbolical and gigantic. What also contributes to render their poetry very obscure at present is that the language of it is borrowed from their mythology; a mythology not so familiar to us as that of the Greeks and Romans. When they did not allude to their own fables, they took their metaphors from other subjects, which were commonly very far-fetched and remote. Each of their deities might be expressed by an infinite variety of phrases. In short, a peculiar study of this kind of language was necessary to constitute a poet; for which reason they early composed a dictionary of it for the use as well of the Scalds as their readers. The same Rogvald, earl of the Orkneys, before spoken of, is said to have composed a work of this sort, which, according to Wormius, is still extant, under the name of the Poetical Key. Another is found at the end of the Icelandic Edda, and is intitled Scalda, or the Art of Poetry. This is a collection of epithets and synonymous words selected from their best poets, very like those which are put into the hands of young people when they first apply themselves to Latin poetry.

Yet they sometimes composed verses in a more simple style, and nearer approaching to common language; but this only happened when in conversation a Scald, either to shew his happy talent, or to do more honour to the person with whom he conversed, answered in extemporary metre. This singular mode of expressing themselves was very common among the ancient Scandinavians, and proves in what degree of esteem this people held the art of poetry. The chronicles have preserved a great number of such conversations in verse; and there is reason to believe, that these poems, which might be sung at first, and easily committed to memory, were oftentimes the text of which succeeding chronicles were nothing more than commentaries or expositions. There is no appearance that the verses were composed by the authors of those histories: they are never assigned to any but the Scalds by profession; and are quoted by the historians as their proofs and vouchers: and besides, it is known to have been usual with the Scalds to interlard their discourse with extemporary verses.

We are not to imagine that these poets were wholly unconfined by rules, or that they were not subject to such as were very severe. It is an erroneous opinion, that rhyme was wholly unknown to the northern Scalds, and by parity of reason to all the Gothic poets; whereas it was undoubtedly from these that this modern ornament of verse derived its origin and use.

The Scandinavian bards, of whom we have now given an account, appear to have been esteemed and entertained in other countries besides their own, and by these means to have probably communicated their fictions to various parts of Europe. The northern emigrants, who, by their emigrations and invasions, visited England, Ireland, Scotland, and the Orkney Islands, were undoubtedly attended by their Scalds or poets. And even in time of peace, these Scandinavian Scalds, possessing a specious and pleasing talent, frequented the courts of the British, Scottish, and Irish chieftains. They were itinerants by their institution, and made voyages out of curiosity, or in quest of rewards, to those islands or coasts which lay within the circle of their maritime knowledge. By these means they established an interest, rendered their profession popular, propagated their art, and circulated their fictions in other countries, and at a distance from home. Torfæus (Præf. ad Orcad.) asserts positively, that various Icelandic odes now remain, which were sung by the Scandinavian bards, before the kings of England and Ireland, and for which they received liberal gratuities. Wormius informs us (Lit. Dan. p. 195. 4to.) that the northern Scalds, in great numbers, constantly resided in the courts of the kings of Sweden, Denmark, and England; from which circumstance it has been inferred, that Odin's language was originally used, not only in Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, but even in England. From these suggestions, it may be naturally concluded, that the Scandinavian tongue became familiar in the British islands by the songs of the Scalds; unless it be rather presumed that a previous knowledge of that tongue in Britain was the means of facilitating the admission of those poets, and of preparing the way for their reception. Moreover, the fictions of Odin and of his Scandinavians, must have taken still deeper root in the British islands, at least in England, from the Saxon and Danish invasions. That the tales of the Scandinavian Scalds flourished among the Saxons, who succeeded to the Britons, and became possessors of England in the sixth century, may be justly presumed; for the Saxons were a branch of the Scandinavian tribes, and boasted of the descent of their princes from Odin. They imported with them into England, the old Runic language and letters. And even after the conversion of the Saxons to Christianity, when they became a more mild and polished people, their poems were chiefly moral rhapsodies, scriptural histories, or religious invocations, in which occur frequent allusions to the old Scaldic fables and heroes.

As literature, together with true religion and civilization, gained ground among the Saxons, poetry was no longer regarded as a separate science, and the profession of bard, under the appropriated characteristics and peculiar appointment which he sustained among the Scandinavian Pagans, declined; and instead of the old Scaldic a new rank of poets arose, called *Gleemen* (corresponding to *Joculatores*), or harpers; and these probably gave rise to the order of English minstrels, who flourished till the sixteenth century.

The songs of the Irish bards are conceived by some persons to be strongly marked with the traces of Scaldic imagination, which are believed still to survive among a species of poetical historians, called "tale-tellers," supposed to be descendants of the original Irish bards. Nor is it improbable, that the Welsh bards might have been acquainted with the Scandinavian Scalds. We may also observe, that the

the Scandinavians had conquered many countries bordering upon France in the fourth century; and hence the Franks must have been in some measure used to their language, well acquainted with their manners, and conversant in their poetry. We have reason also to believe, that many of the Scaldic imaginations might have been blended with the Arabian: so that the Gothic Scalds enriched their vein of fabling from this new and fruitful source of fiction opened by the Arabians in Spain, and afterwards propagated by the Crusades. The earliest Scald now on record, is not before the year 750; from which time the Scalds flourished in the northern countries till below the year 1157. We shall close this article with observing, as a circumstance somewhat remarkable, that in the earlier Scaldic odes, we find but few dragons, giants, and fairies: these were introduced at a later period, and are the progeny of Arabian fancy: the absence of giants and dragons has been alleged as a striking proof of the antiquity of the poems of Ossian, by the advocates of their authenticity: nor are these fancies found in the Welsh odes of Taliessin or Aneuric, who flourished about the year 570. There is also the strongest reason to suspect, that even the Gothic "Edda," or system of poetic mythology of the northern nations, is enriched with those higher strokes of Oriental imagination, which the Arabians had communicated to the Europeans. *Warton's Eng. Poet.* Diss. I.

To SCALD, *v. a.* To burn with hot fluid.

Thou art a soul in bliss; but I am bound,
Upon a wheel of fire that mine own tears,
Do *scald* like molten lead. *Shakspeare.*

SCALD, *s.* Scurf on the head.

Her head altogether bald
Was overgrown with scurf and filthy *scald.* *Spenser.*

SCALD, *adj.* Paltry; sorry.

Saucy Lictors
Will catch at us like strumpets, and *scald* rhymers
Ballad us out o' tune. *Shakspeare.*

SCALDERINGS, in Agriculture, the under-burnt core of stone-lime, the external parts of which peel or blister off in scales or shells.

SCALDHEAD, *s.* [*skalladon*, bald, Icelandic. *Hickes.*] A loathsome disease; a kind of local leprosy in which the head is covered with a continual scab.—The sinew is corrupted by the infection of the touch of a salt humour, to which the scab, pox, and *scaldhead* are referable. *Floyer.*

SCALDWELL, a village of England, in Northamptonshire; 8 miles north-west of Wellingborough.

SCALE, *s.* [*schael*, Dutch; *skal*, Icelandic.] A balance; a vessel suspended by a beam against another vessel.

If thou tak'st more,
Or less than just a pound, if the *scale* turn
But in the estimation of a hair,
Thou diest. *Shakspeare.*

The sign Libra, in the zodiac.

Juno pours out the urn, and Vulcan claims
The *scales* as the just product of his flames. *Creech.*

[*Escaille*, Fr.; *squama*, Lat.] The small shells or crusts which, lying one over another, make the coats of fishes.

He puts him on a coat of mail,
Which was made of a fish's *scale.* *Drayton.*

Any thing exfoliated or desquamated; a thin lamina.—When a *scale* of bone is taken out of a wound, burning retards the separations. *Sharp's Surgery.*—[*Scala*, a ladder, Lat.] Ladder; means of ascent.

Love refines
The thoughts, and heart enlarges; hath his seat
In reason, and is judicious; is the *scale*
By which to heav'nly love thou may'st ascend. *Milton.*

The act of storming by ladders.

Others to a city strong,
Lay siege encampt; by batt'ry, *scale*, and mine. *Milton.*

Regular gradation; a regular series rising like a ladder.

Far as Creation's ample range extends,
The *scale* of sensual mental pow'rs ascends. *Pope.*

A figure subdivided by lines like the steps of a ladder, which is used to measure proportions between pictures and the thing represented.—The Map of London was set out in the year 1658, by Mr. Newcourt, drawn by a *scale* of yards. *Graunt.*—The series of harmonic or musical proportions.—The best of his thoughts and reasonings ran up and down this *scale*, that no people can be happy but under good government. *Temple.*—Any thing marked at equal distances.

They take the flow o' th' Nile
By certain *scale* i' th' pyramid: they know
By th' height, the lowness, or the mean, if dearth
Or poison follow. *Shakspeare.*

To SCALE, *v. a.* [*scalere*, Ital.] To climb, as by ladders.

When the bold Typhœus *scal'd* the sky,
And forc'd great Jove from his own heav'n to fly,
The lesser gods all suffer'd. *Dryden.*

To measure or compare; to weigh.

You have found
Scaling his present bearing with his past,
That he's your fixed enemy. *Shakspeare.*

[From *scale* of a fish.] To take off a thin lamina.—Raphael was sent to *scale* away the whiteness of Tobit's eyes. *Tobit* iii. 17.—To pare off a surface.—If all the mountains were *scaled*, and the earth made even, the waters would not overflow its smooth surface. *Burnet.*

To SCALE, *v. n.* To peel off in thin particles.—Those that cast their shell are the lobster and crab: the old skins are found, but the old shells never; so as it is like they *scale* off and crumble away by degrees. *Bacon.*

SCALE, a mathematical instrument, consisting of one or more lines drawn on wood, metal, or other matter, divided into equal or unequal parts, of great use in laying down distances in proportion, or in measuring distances already laid down.

SCALE, in Geography and Architecture, a line divided into equal parts, placed at the bottom of a map or draught, to serve as a common measure to all the parts of the building or all the distances and places of the map.

In maps of large tracts, as kingdoms and provinces, &c., the scale usually consists of miles; whence it becomes denominated *a scale of miles.*

In more particular maps, as those of manors, &c., the scale is usually of chains, subdivided into poles or links.

The scales used in draughts of buildings usually consist of modules, feet, inches, palms, fathoms, or the like.

To find the distance between two towns, &c., in a map, the interval is taken in the compasses, and set off in the scale; and the number of divisions it includes gives the distance. The same method serves to find the height of a story, or other part in a design.

SCALE, *Front*, in Perspective, is a right line in the draught parallel to the horizontal line; divided into equal parts, representing feet, inches, &c.

SCALE, *Flying*, is a right line in the draught, tending to the point of view, and divided into unequal parts, representing feet, inches, &c.

SCALE, [*Scala*, Ital.] in Music, is what the alphabet is in a language, or a denomination given to the arrangement of the six syllables, invented by Guido Aretino, *ut re mi fa sol la*; called also *gamut.*

It bears the name *scale*, q. d. ladder, because it represents a kind of ladder, by means of which the voice rises to acute, or descends to grave; each of the six syllables being, as it were, one step of the ladder.

SCALE is also used for a series of sounds rising or falling towards acuteness or gravity, from any given pitch of tone to the greatest distance that is fit or practicable, through such intermediate degrees as to make the succession most agreeable and perfect, and in which we have all the harmonical intervals most commodiously divided.

SCALE, *Differential*, is used for the scale of relation subtracted from unity. See ALGEBRA.

SCALE *of Relation*, in Algebra, an expression denoting the relation of the terms of recurring series to each other. See ALGEBRA.

SCALE, or SCALES, a village of England, in Cornwall, near the Land's End.

SCALEA, a small town in the south of the kingdom of Naples, in Calabria Citra, situated on the Laino, where it falls into the gulf of Policastro. The inhabitants cultivate cotton, olives, and wine; 29 miles west of Cassano. Lat. 39. 51. N. long. 15. 59. E.

SCALEBY, a village of England, in Cumberland, near Stanwix and Kirklington.

SCALE'D, *adj.* Squamous; having scales like fishes.

Half my Egypt was submerg'd, and made
A cistern for *scal'd* snakes. *Shakspeare.*

SCALE'NE, *s.* [Fr.; *scalenum*, Lat.] In Geometry, a triangle that has its three sides unequal to each other. *Bailey.*

SCALENGHE, a small town of the continental Sardinian states, in Piedmont, province of Pinerolo. Population 2500.

SCALENUS, in Anatomy, (trachèlo-costien), a name given to some muscles situated at the root of the neck, and reaching from the transverse processes of the cervical vertebræ to the first and second ribs. See ANATOMY.

SCALFORD, a parish of England, in Leicestershire; 4 miles north-by-east of Melton Mowbray.

SCALIGER (Julius Cæsar), an eminent scholar, whose history is rendered obscure by his own vanity in maintaining what is now generally thought an imposture respecting his origin. According to this fiction, if it be a fiction, as published by his son Joseph, in his epistle "De Splendore ac Vetustate Gentis Scaligeri," he was a descendant of the illustrious family of the Scaligers, princes of Verona; and was born in 1484, in the castle of Riva, near the source of lake Guarda, and was afterwards a page of the emperor Maximilian, on whom he attended seventeen years in peace and war. He then became a pensioner of the duke of Ferrara, studied at Bologna, commanded a troop of horse under the French viceroy at Turin, engaged in the study of physic, and in 1525 fixed his abode in France, under the patronage of the bishop of Agen. This tale obtained credit with some respectable people, among whom was De Thou; but it was treated with marked contempt and ridicule by others; and it seems now to be generally admitted to be almost, or altogether, fictitious. He was probably the son of Benetto Berdone, a Paduan by origin, who practised the art of an illuminator of books at Venice, and is supposed to have acquired the surname of Della Scala, either from the sign of his shop, or the district in which it is situated. It is said that, till the year 1525, he passed his time in obscurity at Venice or Padua, studying and practising medicine, and in the mean time published some works under his true name, Giulio Bordone; and that some hope of bettering his condition then drew him to the diocese of Agen, where he passed the remainder of his days. It appears that in 1528 he had not determined to claim a descent from the illustrious Scaligers, when he took out a patent of naturalization from Francis I., under the name of "Julius Cæsar Della Scala de Bordons, doctor of physic, a native of Verona in Italy." He was then probably of some consideration, since in 1529 he obtained for a wife a young woman of a noble and opulent family; and from this time he began to assert his princely origin, in which, however, he was not supported by any prince connected with the house of Verona. He made his name more effectually known by various writings, which have given him a place among the principal literary characters of his time. Notwithstanding his celebrity as a writer, he continued to practice physic, by which he accumulated a large fortune: and he appears to have opened his house to a great number of visitors of all ranks, and to have maintained a dignified station in society. He died in 1558, in the 75th year of his age. He was unquestionably a man of great talents, and though it is generally supposed he began to apply to literature late in life, yet few have taken a wider range in it than himself. He had a strong memory, and a vigorous understanding. He thought and wrote freely, which, in one instance, subjected him to the suspicion of the church. He wrote several books connected with his profession, and natural history, particularly Commentaries on Hippocrates "De Insomniis;" on "Theophrastus and Aristotle on Plants;" and on Aristotle's "History of Animals." But he was much more highly applauded as a philologist: his elaborate work, entitled "De Causis Linguæ Latinæ," printed in 1540, is regarded as the first work on that subject, and it is written in a truly philosophical method. His treatise, "De Arte Poetica," published in 1561, gained him great reputation, and was unquestionably the most learned work that had appeared. His own poems are not excellent, and his letters are obscure, and rather bombastical. His orations against the "Ciceronianus" of Erasmus have not treated that great scholar in the way becoming his character; so that, upon the whole, later critics have not agreed with Lipsius, Casaubon, Vossius, and others, in their very great praise of Scaliger.

SCALIGER (Joseph Justus), son of the preceding, was born at Agen in 1540. He was, when about eleven years old, sent with his brothers to Bourdeaux, where he studied the Latin language for three years. The plague breaking out in that town, obliged him to return to his father, who made a practice of requiring from him, daily, a Latin declamation upon some given subject, which soon familiarized him to compose in that language. On his father's death he went to Paris, being about nineteen years of age, and took lessons in Greek from Adrian Turnebus. He was, however, his own master principally, and shutting himself up in his closet he began to read Homer, and the other Greek poets, with such assiduity, that he had, in a few months, gone through most of them. When he had attained to a considerable degree of perfection in the Greek, he studied the Hebrew; at the same time exercising himself in poetical composition in the learned languages. He also laid in a vast store of observations on Greek and Latin authors, which became the basis of his philological labours. He became a convert to the Protestant religion, which probably impeded his advancement in life. At length, however, he received an invitation to a chair in the University of Leyden; on which occasion, he waited on Henry IV. to take leave. He removed to Leyden in 1593, as honorary professor of the belles-lettres, and spent there the remainder of his life. His character was merely that of a scholar, regardless of all worldly concerns, so that he scarcely ever rose much above indigence. He had, however, an independent spirit, and refused assistance in a variety of instances, when money was offered him. In pride and arrogance he was not at all inferior to his father, and no scholar has abounded more in contemptuous and abusive language towards his adversaries, of which his extensive acquaintance with words in various tongues supplied him with an inexhaustible store. He was reckoned one of the literary heroes of his age, and was treated with extraordinary respect at Leyden, where he died in 1609, at the age of 69. He is described as a man of immense reading, and so addicted to study, that he would sometimes pass the whole day in his room without eating, or feeling the slightest want of food. He boasted his knowledge of thirteen languages. Of his numerous works, one of the most important is a treatise "De Emendatione Temporum," first printed at Paris in 1583, but of which the best edition is said to be that of Geneva, 1609. In this work he laid down a complete system of chronology, formed upon fixed principles; on account of which, and his invention of the Julian period, he has merited the title of the father

father of that science. Many errors, which escaped him at first, he corrected in a posterior publication, entitled "Thesaurus Temporum, complectens Eusebii Pamphili Chronicon, cum Isagogicis Chronologiæ Canonibus." This work was printed in 1658, in 2 vols. folio. His other principal works are, "Notes upon Seneca's Tragedies, Varro, Ausonius, Festus," &c.; "De tribus Sectis Judæorum;" "Dissertationes;" "Poemata;" "Epistolæ," which last are learned and valuable. Two collections of "Scaligeriana" were published after his death, which did not add to his reputation. He is thought to have had less genius, but more learning, than his father; and he has been more serviceable to literature.

SCALIN, or Escalin, in Commerce, a base silver coin in the Netherlands. It weighs 3 dwt. 4¼ grs., contains in pure silver 44 grains, and in sterling value is 6*d*.

SCALINATA, the name given to the elevated road forming a communication between the upper and lower part of the island of Capri, in the gulf of Naples. The ascent is by a stair cut out of the solid rock, and consisting of no less than 552 steps. The summit is 1500 feet above the level of the sea.

SCA'LINESS, *s.* The state of being scaly.

SCA'LL, *s.* [*skalladan*, bald, Icelandic] See Scald-head.—Leprosy; morbid baldness.—It is a dry *scall*, a leprosy upon the head. *Lev.* xiii. 30.

SCALL'ION, *s.* [*ascalonia*, Lat.] A kind of onion. See Allium.

SCALL'OP, *s.* [*escallop*, Fr.] A fish with a hollow pectinated shell.

So th' emperour Caligula
That triumph'd o'er the British sea,
Engag'd his legions in fierce bustles,
With perewincles, prawns, and muscles;
And led his troops with furious gallop,
To charge whole regiments of *scallops*. *Hudibras.*

The scallop is composed of two shells, which, as in many others, are one concave, and the other plane or flat. The cardo, or hinge, is lightly bent from the concave shell, and thence carried over a part of the plane shell, in the middle, and all the way between, it is firmly connected to a cartilage. In the middle of the length of the cardo there is placed another short, black, and very strong cardo.

It is easy to see, from hence, to what is owing that remarkable strong power, which this creature has of shutting and opening its shell; and it is very possible, that by means of so strong an apparatus of tendons or ligaments as it has in this part, it may be able to move the plane shell in so swift and regular, as well as forcible and easy a manner, that it may use it in moving from place to place; and possibly it may make a sort of wing of it, to beat against the water, as the pinion of a bird does against the air; and what the ancients have so frequently said of its moving about in a very swift manner, from place to place, may be true, though we have been wanting in later observations to see it.

For a more particular examination into the structure of this fish, see *Philasophical Transactions*, No. 299, p. 567.

To SCALL'OP, *v. a.* To mark on the edge with segments of circles.

SCALLOWAY, an ancient town on the mainland of Shetland, lying on the south coast, at the bottom of a gulf of the same name, with an excellent harbour, both deep and safe. It is a small place, consisting of some scattered houses in the vicinity of the castle, which was built by one of the earls of Orkney. Lat. 60. 9. N. long. 0. 31. W.

SCALMUS, among the Romans, a block or round piece of wood in a boat, to which the oars were tied with a thong of leather, called *strappus*.

Scalmus was also used to denote the boat; a part being taken for the whole.

SCALP, *s.* [*schalpe*, Dutch, a shell; *scalpo*, Ital.] The scull; the cranium; the bone that encloses the brain.

White beards have arm'd their thin and hairless *scalps*
Against thy majesty. *Shakspeare.*

The integuments of the head.

To SCALP, *v. a.* To deprive the scull of its integuments. —We seldom inquire for a fracture of the scull by scalping, but that the *scalp* itself is contused. *Sharpe.*

SCALPA, a small island of the Hebrides, lying in the sound between the Isle of Skye and the Mainland, about five miles long, and from two to three broad. The surface is rocky and barren. In the highest part of the island is a petrified rock of moss, in which is a variety of shells; and in many of the high grounds are found great quantities of shells, several feet under ground.

SCALPA, a small island of the Orkneys, near the mainland of Orkney.

SCALPAY, one of the Harris isles. It is a low heath covered island, much intersected by arms of the sea jutting through it in various directions. Its extreme points may be about three miles distant. On the eastern extremity, a lighthouse was erected in 1788; and near its western extremity are two of the best harbours in the Herbrides.

SCALP'EL, *s* [Fr.; *scalpellam*, Lat.] An instrument used to scrape a bone by surgeons.

SCALPING, a barbarous custom in practice among the Indian warriors, of taking off the tops of the scalps of the enemies' skulls, with their hair on: these are preserved as trophies of victory, and those who bring them are rewarded by their chiefs, in proportion to their number.

SCALPRA DENTALIA, instruments used by dentists to take off those black, livid, or yellow crusts, which infest the teeth, and not only loosen and destroy them, but taint the breath.

According to the varieties of the occasion, the dentist has these instruments of various shapes and sizes; some are pointed and narrow at the end; others are broader pointed, and have edges; others are hooked, or falciform.

The manner of using them is to begin near the gums, supporting the blade with the left hand, and scraping all along the tooth, till the crust is taken off, taking care not to wound the gums, or displace the teeth. *Heister.*

SCALPRUM, [from *scalpro*, to rasp,] an instrument termed a raspatory, or rugine, used for scraping diseased portions of bone, removing the periosteum, &c.

SCALTHWAITERIGG, a village of England, in Westmoreland; 2 miles north-east of Kendal.

SCA'LY, *adj.* Covered with scales.—The river horse and *scaly* crocodile. *Milton.*

SCAMACHIE. See Schamachi.

SCAMBAY, or Scambayo, a river of Peru, in the province of Cicasica, which runs north, and enters the Chuquiabo or La Paz.

To SCA'MBLE, *v. n.* This word, which is scarcely in use, has much exercised the etymological sagacity of Marie Casaubon; but, as is usual, to no purpose.—To be turbulent and rapacious; to scramble; to get by scrambling with others.

Scambling, out-facing fashion, mong'ring boys,
That lie and coy, and flout, deprave, and slander.
Shakspeare.

To shift awkwardly.—Some *scambling* shifts may be made without them. *More.*

To SCA'MBLE, *v. a.* To mangle; to maul.—My wood was cut in patches, and other parts of it *scambled* and cut before it was at its growth. *Mortimer.*

SCA'MBLER, *s.* [Scottish.] A bold intruder upon one's generosity or table.

SCAMBLESBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 6 miles north of Horncastle.

SCAM'BLINGLY, *adv.* With turbulence and noise; with intrusive audaciousness.

SCAMFS, a beautiful village of the Swiss canton of the Grisons, in the Upper Engadine, on the Inn, situated in a district remarkable for a number of picturesque views among the Alps; 26 miles south-east of Coire.

SCAMILLA IMPARES, in Ancient Architecture, a term much contended about among the critics, though, in effect, it

it signifies no more than certain zoccoes, or blocks, serving to raise the rest of the members of an order, column, statue, or the like, and to prevent their being lost to the eye, which may chance to be placed below the level, or below the projecture of some of the ornaments of them.

The scamilla are well enough represented by the pedestals of statues.

SCAMINO, a small town of European Turkey, in Livadia, south of Negroponte. Its population, 1200, is almost all Greek.

SCAMMA [Σκαμμα], among the Greeks, the mark in leaping, or throwing quoits; so called from its being made by digging up the earth.

SCAMMATHA, or SHEMATTA, in the Jewish Customs, a kind of excommunication, and the most terrible of all in use among that people. Some pretend that this was proclaimed by the sound of four hundred trumpets, and that a person so excommunicated, was never to be received again into the congregation, and that it was even lawful to put him to death.

SCAMMONDEN, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 7 miles west of Huddersfield. Population 472.

SCAMMONIA MONSPELIACA, Montpelier scammony, a name given by some botanical writers to a species of periploca, distinguished by Mr. Tournefort by the name of *periploca Monspeliaca foliis rotundioribus*. This, in the Linnæan system, is a species of CYNANCHUM; which see.

SCAMMON'IATE, *adj.* Made with scammony.—It may be excited by a local *scammoniate*, or other acrimonious medicines. *Wiseman.*

SCAMMONY, SCAMMONIUM, in Pharmacy, an inspissated, gummy, resinous juice, of the root of a plant of the same name, growing in Syria, particularly on the mountains between Aleppo and Latachia, and which, being hardy, will thrive in the open air in England on any soil. It is a species of bindweed. See CONVOLVULUS.

SCAMNUM HIPPOCRATIS, in Surgery, an ancient machine for reducing fractures and dislocations.

SCAMOZZI (Vincenzo), a celebrated architect, was born at Vicenza in 1550. He was educated under his father, Gian-Domenico, an able artist in the same branch, and at the age of seventeen made designs for buildings that were very highly esteemed. He went to Venice for improvement, where Palladio and others were then employed about works of magnitude and consideration, and he made very rapid advances in his profession. At the age of twenty-two he composed a treatise in six books, "De Teatri e delle Scene," which has never been published. In a visit to Rome he was engaged in the diligent study of the remains of antiquity to be found in that city, and in the study of mathematics under the celebrated Clavio. After extending his tour to Naples, he returned in 1583 to his native city, and settled at Venice, where, Palladio being dead, he became the first architect, and was employed in various public and private works, of which one of the most remarkable was the additions to the library of St. Mark. He was sent for to Vicenza to finish the famous Olympic theatre, by which he gained credit. In 1588, duke Vespasian Gonzaga engaged him in the construction of a new theatre at his town of Sabbioneta. After this he visited many of the chief places on the continent; and decorated several other cities in Italy, besides Venice and Vicenza, and few artists seem to have enjoyed a more extensive reputation. In 1615 he published a work entitled "L'Idea dell' Architettura universale," in six books, which contains many useful observations and instructions. The sixth book, which contains the five orders of architecture, is most esteemed, and has been translated into the French language. Scamozzi died in 1616. Besides the writings above-mentioned, he published a work of descriptions, of which three chapters contained the buildings and topography of Rome.

To SCAMP'ER, *v. n.* [*schamper*, Dutch; *scampere*, Ital.] To fly with speed and trepidation.—A fox seiz'd upon the fawn, and fairly *scamper'd* away with her. *L'Estrange.*

SCAMPSTON, a hamlet of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 6 miles north-east of New Malton.

SCAMPTON, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 6 miles north-west of Lincoln.

To SCAN, *v. a.* [*scando*, Lat.] To examine a verse by counting the feet.

Harry, whose tuneful and well-measur'd song,
First taught our English musick how to span
Words with just note and accent, not to *scan*
With Midas' ears, committing short and long. *Milton.*

To examine nicely.

So he goes to heav'n,
And so am I reveng'd; that would be *scann'd*. *Shakspeare.*

SCANDA, a village of Imiretta, in the Caucasus; 40 miles east of Cotatis.

SCAND'AL, *s.* [*scandle*, Fr.] Offence given by the faults of others.

His lustful orgies he enlarg'd,
Even to the hill of *Scandal*, by the grove
Of Milech homicide. *Milton.*

Reproachful aspersion; opprobrious censure.

To SCAND'AL, *v. a.* To scandalize. *The word is now seldom used.*

If I do fawn on men, and hug them hard,
And after *scandal* them. *Shakspeare.*

SCANDAL, STONE OF, *Lapsis scandali*, or *vituperii*, a stone raised in the great portal of the Capitol in Rome, whereon was engraven the figure of a lion, upon which bankrupts or cessionaries being seated bare-breeched, cried with a loud voice, *cedo bonis*, I surrender my effects; when, squatting their breech violently three times on the stone, they were acquitted.

It was called the stone of scandal, because thenceforward the cessionary became intestable, and incapable of giving any evidence.

Julius Cæsar introduced this form of surrender, after abrogating that article of the laws of the Twelve Tables, which allowed creditors to cut their insolvent debtors in pieces, and take each his member, or at least to make a slave of him.

To SCAN'DALIZE, *v. a.* To defame; to disgrace by ill reports.

Thou dost appear to *scandalize*
The publick right and common cause of kings. *Daniel.*

To offend by some criminal action.—Whoever considers the injustice of some ministers, will not be *scandalized* at the warmth and vivacity of those meetings. *Clarendon.*

SCAN'DALOUS, *adj.* Giving public offence; opprobious; disgraceful.

Something savouring
Of tyranny, which will ignoble make you,
Yea, *scandalous* to the world. *Shakspeare.*

You know the *scandalous* meanness of that proceeding. *Pope.*

SCAN'DALOUSLY, *adv.* Shamefully.

SCAN'DALOUSNESS, *s.* The quality of giving public offence. *Rarely used.*

SCANDALUM MAGNATUM, in Law, denotes a scandal or wrong done to any high personage of the land, as peers, prelates, judges, or other great officers, by false or slanderous news or tales, whereby any debate or discord between them and the commons, or any scandal to their persons might arise.

This offence has also given name to a writ granted to recover damages thereupon.

SCANDARETTA, or SCANDEROON, a village of Syria, only six miles from Tyre, founded by Alexander, when he laid

laid siege to that city, but which is now reduced to a few houses.

SCANDARIEH, a village of Irak Arabi, situated on a canal, which forms a communication between the Tigris and Euphrates; 120 miles north-west of Bassorah.

SCANDERBERG, prince of Albania, whose proper name was Castriot, son of John, prince of that country, was born in 1404. He was sent by his father as a hostage to sultan Amurath II., and was educated in the Mahometan religion, and when he was only eighteen years old, he was placed at the head of a body of troops, with the title of sanjiak. After the death of his father, in 1432, he formed the design of possessing himself of his principality, and having accompanied the Turkish army to Hungary, he made a secret alliance with the famous Huniades, promising to desert to the Christians during the first battle that should occur. This he put in execution, and having defeated the Turks with great loss, he compelled Amurath's secretary to sign an order for the governor of Croia, the capital of Albania, to deliver that place and its citadel to its bearer. The stratagem succeeded; he ascended the throne of his father, and renounced the Mahometan religion. Amurath made many attempts to recover Albania, but without effect. A course of warfare was continued for eleven years under Mahomet II., Amurath's successor, who, by the conquest of Constantinople, was become very formidable to all Europe. Scanderberg met with various fortune, but was generally successful, so that the sultan, in 1461, proposed terms of peace to him, which were accepted. Scanderberg then, at the desire of the pope, came into Italy to the succour of Ferdinand II., king of Naples, besieged in Bari, and having caused the siege to be raised, contributed greatly to the subsequent victory over the count of Anjou. The Venetians having entered into a war with Mahomet, induced Scanderberg to renounce his treaty with the sultan, and make an inroad into his dominions. He obtained several important victories, and saved his own capital, which was invested by a great army under Mahomet himself. He died in 1467, at the age of 63, and his death was considered by the sultan as relieving him from the most formidable enemy he had to contend with, and it was soon followed by the submission of Albania to the Turkish dominion.

SCANDEROON. See ALEXANDRETTA.

SCANDIACA, in Botany, a name given by some authors to the white-flowered *lamium*.

SCANDIANO, a small town of Italy, in the duchy of Modena, between Sassuolo and Reggio. It has a castle, and is 9 miles west of Modena.

SCANDINAVIA, a name not unfrequently given to that part of Europe, which comprehends Denmark, Sweden, and Norway, and sometimes applied more extensively to adjacent countries and islands. Scandinavia, considered as comprising the present Sweden, Norway, Lapland, and Finmark, was formerly thought to have been an island, but is now well known to be a peninsula. Pliny calls it Scandinuvia, and according to the orthography of Vossius and Gronovius, it is written Scandinovia; by Xenophon Lampsacenus, it is named Baltia; by Timæus, Basilea; and by Pytheas, sometimes Basilea, and at other times Abalus. The writers of the middle ages denominate it Scanza, Scanzia, Scantia, and Scandia, which some derive from the German or Gothic word *Scanzen*, signifying castles, alleging that the first inhabitants made castles on the steep rocks with which the country abounds; and hence, they say, came the word Scandinavia, denoting "a country filled with castles." Others again write Scandinavia, Scanzia, &c., from the word *Seekanten*, importing the sea-coast or shore. The Greek word *Baltia* signifies the breaking in of the sea. Tacitus places in Scandinavia two distinct nations, the Suiones and the Sittones, the former inhabiting the present Sweden, and the latter Norway; for they were separated by mount Sevo, now Seager, the ridge that separates Norway from Sweden. However, it is certain, that before the time of Tacitus, Scandinavia was inhabited by the Goths; as we have already stated under the article GOTHS. It has been an opinion very generally maintained, that a few years before the commencement of the Christian era, a nation of Asiatic Goths, under Odin, settled in the Scandinavian territory, as we have already mentioned under the article RUNIC. But the history of Odin, and of his appearance among the Scandinavians, is involved in considerable obscurity. (See ODIN.) M. Mallet, in his "Northern Antiquities," acknowledges that he can discover nothing very certain concerning Odin, but only this, that he was the founder of a new religion before unknown to the rude and artless inhabitants of Scandinavia. For other particulars respecting him, we refer to his biographical article. In investigating the religion of the Scandinavians, he begins with that of the ancient Scythians, from whom they are supposed to have originated. The religion of the Scythians, he says, was, in the first ages, extremely simple, consisting of a few plain easy doctrines, which seem to have comprized the whole of religion known to the first inhabitants of Europe. These were preserved, in the North, without any material alteration. In process of time, however, the Scythian nations suffered their religion to be corrupted by an intermixture of ceremonies, some of them ridiculous, others cruel; in which, by little and little, as it commonly happens, they placed the whole of their religion. Accordingly, our author distinguishes two different epochs or ages in the religion of this people; and in each of these he thinks it of importance not to confound the opinions of the sages with the fables or mythology of the poets. The Scythian religion, in its primæval purity, taught the being of a supreme God, master of the universe, to whom all things were submissive and obedient. (See Tacitus, de Mor. Germ. c. xxxv.) It attributed to this deity, an infinite power, a boundless knowledge, an incorruptible justice. It forbad the representation of this divinity under any corporeal form, or the confinement of him within the inclosure of walls; but taught that it was only within woods and consecrated forests that they could serve him properly. (Id. c. ix.) From this supreme God were sprung, as it were emanations of his divinity, an infinite number of subaltern deities and genii, of which every part of the world was the seat and temple. These intelligences directed the operations of nature; and each element was under the guidance of some being peculiar to it. The earth, the water, the fire, the air, the sun, moon and stars, had each their respective divinity. The trees, forests, rivers, mountains, rocks, winds, thunder and tempests, had the same; and merited on that score a religious worship, which, at first, could not be directed to the visible object, but to the intelligence with which it was animated. The motive of this worship was the fear of a deity irritated by the sins of men, but who, at the same time, was merciful, and capable of being appeased by prayer and repentance. They looked up to him as to the active principle, which, by uniting with the earth or passive principle, had produced men, animals, plants, and all visible beings: they even believed that he was the only agent in nature who preserves the several beings, and disposes of all events. To serve this divinity with sacrifices and prayers, to do no wrong to others, and to be brave and intrepid themselves, were all the moral consequences they drew from these doctrines. Lastly, the belief of a future state cemented and completed the whole building. Cruel tortures were there reserved for such as despised these three fundamental precepts of morality, and joys without number and without end awaited every religious, just, and valiant man.

These are the principal heads of that ancient religion, which probably prevailed for many ages through the greatest part of the north of Europe, and doubtless among several nations of Asia. It was preserved tolerably pure in the North till towards the decline of the Roman republic; one may judge at least by the testimony of several authors, that the Germans had maintained till that time the chief of these doctrines, whilst the inhabitants of Spain, Gaul and Britain, half subdued by the arms and luxury of the Romans, adopted

adopted by degrees new gods, at the same time that they received new masters. It is probable, then, that it was not till the arrival of Odin in the North, that the Scythian religion among the ancient Danes and other Scandinavians began to lose the most beautiful traits of its original purity. Though the fact itself is probable, it is not so easy to assign the causes of it.

The most striking alteration in the doctrines of the primitive religion regarded the number of the gods who were to be worshipped. A capital point among the Scythians, was the pre-eminence of one all-powerful and perfect being over all the other intelligences with which universal nature was peopled. But their descendants, abandoning this simplicity of religion, associated to the supreme God many of those genii or subaltern divinities, who had been always subordinate to him; and by degrees they selected, as the object of their peculiar veneration, that divinity, whose dominion extended over such things as were most dear to them, or which appeared most worthy of admiration. This happened in Scandinavia. Accordingly, that supreme being, the idea of whom comprehends all existence, was restrained to one particular province, and passed among the generality of inhabitants for the god of war. This was the character ascribed to Odin. The principal deity after Odin was Frigga, or Frea, his wife, denoting the Earth. She is supposed to have been the same with the Venus of the Greeks and Romans; and the sixth day of the week, which was consecrated to her under the name of Freytag, Friday, or Frea's day, was rendered into Latin, Dies Veneris, or Venus's Day. The third principal deity of the Scandinavians was Thor, whose authority extended over the winds and seasons, and particularly over thunder and lightning. Such a deity is mentioned by Cæsar under the name of Jupiter. He is supposed to have sprung from the union of Odin, or the supreme being, and the Earth.

The three deities now mentioned formed the court or supreme council of the gods, and were the principal objects of the worship and veneration of all the Scandinavians. There were other deities of the second order, of whom the Edda reckons twelve, besides twelve goddesses, to whom divine honours were due. Loke was regarded by the ancient Scandinavians as their evil principle, and ranked among the gods. To their gods they attributed the creation and government of the world; and they considered all nature as animated and moved by one or more intelligent causes, which was, in their system, nothing more than the instrument or organ of the divinity, and a kind of book in which they could read the will and design of their deity. Hence they were led to regard various phenomena, of an indifferent and of the most trivial kind, as intimations which the deity gave of his will to mankind. Hence proceeded oracles, divinations, auspices, presages, and lots, and also magic in all its different degrees and forms. Every man, in their system, had his peculiar destiny, who assisted at the moment of his birth, and marked before-hand the period of his days; but Odin, or the supreme god, they probably regarded as the author and arbiter of the destinies. The effect of this principle was, to produce in those who were fond of war, a blind temerity, which disregarded danger. They had also another principle, the influence of which was no less barbarous; and this was, that the term of a man's life might be prolonged, if any one would put himself in his place and die in his stead. This was often practised when a prince or illustrious warrior was ready to perish by some accident. Odin was appeased by such a sacrifice, and consented to revoke the destinies and to lengthen the thread of the life that was to be saved. The other precepts of this religion probably extended no farther than to be brave and intrepid in war, to serve the gods, and to appease them by sacrifices; not to be unjust, to shew hospitality to strangers, to keep their words inviolably, and to be faithful to the marriage-bed.

The Scandinavians adopted, as a principle of their religion, the belief of the immortality of the soul, and of a future state, which would be happy or miserable according to men's present conduct. Upon this principle they founded the obligation of serving the gods, and of being valiant in battle. After this concise statement of their principles, it is no wonder that the Scandinavians should carry their valour to the utmost excesses of fanaticism.

Although the Scandinavians had at first no inclosed temples for worship, they formed by degrees new connections and intercourse with the other nations of Europe, either by their expeditions, or by foreign colonies which were established among themselves, and thus admitted a change in their religion, which tolerated temples and idols, and in process of time adopted them without reserve. The three principal nations of Scandinavia, viz., Sweden, Denmark, and Norway, vied with each other in erecting temples, but none were more famous than that of Upsal in Sweden, which glittered with gold. A chain of the same metal, or at least one that was gilt, ran round the roof, although the circumference was not less than 900 ells. Hacon, earl of Norway, built another near Drontheim, which was not inferior to that of Upsal. Iceland also had its temples, altars, and idols. The great temple of Upsal was particularly consecrated to the three superior deities, each of whom was characterized by some peculiar symbol. They had also three great festivals in the year, which were celebrated in honour of their gods, and on these occasions, sacrifices, feasting, dances, nocturnal assemblies, and all the demonstrations of a most dissolute joy, were authorized by general usage. These corresponded to the Saturnalia of the Romans. In the earliest ages the offerings were simple, such as shepherds and rustics could present: they loaded the altars of their gods with the first fruits of their crops, and the choicest products of the earth. Afterwards they sacrificed animals. At length they proceeded to shed the blood of men, nor was this barbarous practice, which was ancient and almost universal, entirely abolished among the northern nations till towards the ninth century, because before that time they had not received the light of the gospel, and were ignorant of those arts which had softened the ferocity of the Romans and Greeks even whilst they were still pagans.

In every ninth month this bloody ceremony was renewed; it lasted nine days, and every day they offered up nine living victims, whether men or animals. But the most solemn sacrifices were those which were offered at Upsal in Sweden every ninth year. Then the king, senate, and all the citizens of any distinction, were obliged to appear in person, and to bring offerings, which were placed in the great temple above mentioned. Strangers also flocked in crowds from all parts, and none were excluded but those whose honour had been stained, and especially such as had been accused of cowardice. Then they chose among the captives in times of war, and among the slaves in time of peace, nine persons to be sacrificed. In great calamities, such as an urgent famine, they sacrificed the king, as the highest price with which they could purchase the divine favour. These abominable sacrifices were accompanied with various ceremonies. When the victim was chosen, they conducted him towards the altar, where the sacred fire was kept burning night and day, and he was killed at the foot of the altar. When men were sacrificed, they were laid upon a large stone, and instantly strangled or knocked on the head. The body was opened by the priests, who read in the entrails, and especially in the heart, the will of the gods, and the good or ill fortune that was impending. The bodies were afterwards burnt, or suspended in a sacred grove near the temple. Part of the blood was sprinkled upon the people, and part upon the sacred grove; and with part they bedewed the images of the gods, the altars, and the temple. Sometimes these sacrifices were differently performed: in the neighbourhood of the temple was a deep well; the chosen person was thrown headlong into it. The whole ceremony was concluded with magnificent feastings, at which they drank immoderately, and indulged in licentious practices, which shocked the wisest men among them, and caused them to refuse giving their assistance at them.

Tacitus supplies us with an account of the most prominent and

and distinguishing circumstances that characterize the ancient Gothic form of government. In his history we see kings, who owe their advancement to an illustrious extraction, presiding, rather than ruling, over a free people. Here we see the nation assembling at certain stated times, and making resolutions in their own persons on all affairs of importance, as to enact laws, to choose peace or war, to conclude alliances, to distribute justice in the last resort, and to elect magistrates. Here also we distinguish a body of the grandees or chiefs of the nation, who prepare and propose the important matters, the decision of which is reserved for the general assembly of all the free men: that is, we trace here the first lineaments, as it were, of what was afterwards named in different countries, "the council of the nation," "the senate," "the house of peers," &c. Here we discover the origin of that *singular custom*, of having an elective general under an hereditary king; a custom received among most of the nations of German extraction, who had either mayors of the palace, or grand marshals, or constables, or counts; for all these different names only expressed the same thing in different countries. Lastly, if we examine with attention the words of Tacitus, we cannot doubt but vassalage and the feudal tenure had already taken footing among this people before ever they left their native forests. For although perhaps they did not in those early times give lands in fee, and although their fees or fiefs were then perhaps nothing but arms, war-horses, and banquets; what we read of the reciprocal engagements between the princes or chiefs and their followers, evidently contains whatever was essential to the nature of vassalage, and all the changes which were afterwards made in it, were only slight and accidental, occasioned by the conquests and new establishments which followed from it.

If we consider after this, the character of these nations, as it is sketched out by Tacitus, we shall not be surprized to see them wedded to institutions which they found so suitable to their situation and temper; for being the most free and warlike people upon earth, they must have had a natural aversion to the authority of a single person; and if they placed themselves under leaders, it was only because war cannot be conducted in any other form. As free men, they would only obey from choice, and be less influenced by personal authority than by reason; as warriors, they conceived no other duty to be owing to a prince, than to be ready to shed their blood for his cause. If we inquire how these men acquired and preserved so great a degree of liberty, M. Mallet replies, they were free, because they inhabited an uncultivated country, rude forests and mountains; and liberty is the sole treasure of an indigent people; for a poor country excites no avidity, and he who possesses little, defends it easily. They were free, because they were ignorant of those pleasures, often so dearly bought, which render the protection of a powerful master necessary. They were free, because hunters and shepherds, who wander about in woods through inclination or necessity, are not so easily oppressed as the timorous inhabitants of inclosed towns, who are there chained down to the fate of their houses; and because a wandering people, if deprived of their liberty in one place, easily find it in another, as well as their subsistence. Lastly, they were free, because knowing not the use of money, there could not be employed against them that instrument of slavery and corruption, which enables the ambitious to collect and distribute at will the signs of riches.

Further, that spirit of liberty, arising from their climate, and from their rustic and military life, had received new strength from the opinions it had produced; as a sucker which shoots forth from the root of a tree, strengthens by embracing it. In effect, these people, esteeming beyond all things the right of revenging an affront, the glory of despising death and perishing sword in hand, were always ready to attack tyranny in the first who dared to attempt it, and in whatever formidable shape it appeared.

By these means was liberty preserved among the inhabitants of Germany and the North, as it were in the bud, ready to blossom and expand through all Europe, there to flourish in their several colonies. It is remarked by the author of the "Spirit of Laws," that in proportion as any people love liberty, the milder are their punishments. The ancient Germans and Scandinavians, the most brave and free race of men that perhaps ever existed, knew scarcely any other than pecuniary penalties. They carried this spirit with them through all parts of Europe, as appears from the codes of the Visigoths, the Burgundians, &c. But the governments which they established in the more southern countries could not subsist with so much lenity. The distribution of the people into different communities subordinate to one another, the right of being judged every one by the members of his own community, the care of watching over each citizen committed to the community of which he was a member, the general assemblies of the whole nation, with which alone the legislative power was deposited, &c., were institutions that existed among the Germans in the time of Tacitus, and without doubt long before. They prevailed in Denmark and Sweden; they were carried into Iceland, where they were perfected; they followed the Saxons into England; and although in times of confusion they were almost sunk into oblivion, the great Alfred immortalized his name by reviving them. Traces of them might be easily shewn in the first establishments of the Franks in Gaul, of the Goths in Spain, and of the same in several parts of Germany. With regard to the laws which prevailed in Scandinavia during the times of paganism, all that we can say for certain about them may be reduced within very small compass. Tradition, custom, maxims learnt by heart, and above all, simplicity of manners, served this people in the first ages instead of laws. They had maxims, which from time immemorial had been in the mouths of their sages, and which were thought to have been delivered to the first men by the gods themselves. The laws of the Scandinavians resembled those of the Angles and Jutes, who shared with the Saxons in the honour of being conquerors of Great Britain; and for a sketch of these we refer to the article SAXONS.

From the whole history of the ancient Scandinavians, it appears that they breathed nothing but war, which was at once with them the source of honour, riches, and safety. Their education, laws, prejudices, morality, and religion, all concurred to make that their ruling passion and only object. From their most tender age they applied themselves to learn the military art; they hardened their bodies, and accustomed themselves to cold, fatigue, and hunger. They exercised themselves in running, in the chase, in swimming across the greatest rivers, and in handling their arms. The very sports of childhood itself, and of early youth, were directed all towards this end: dangers were always intermingled with their play: for it consisted in taking frightful leaps, in climbing up the steepest rocks, in fighting naked with offensive weapons, in wrestling with the utmost fury: it was therefore common to see them at the age of fifteen years already grown robust men, and able to make themselves feared in combat. It was also at this age that their young men became their own masters, which they did by receiving a sword, a buckler, and a lance. This ceremony was performed in some public meeting. One of the principal persons of the assembly armed the youth in public. "This (we are told by Tacitus) was his *toga virilis*, his entrance upon dignities. Before this he made only part of a family, now he became a member of the state." After this he was obliged to provide for his own subsistence, and was either now to live by hunting, or by joining in some excursion against an enemy. Particular care was taken to prevent these young soldiers from enjoying too early an acquaintance with the opposite sex, till their limbs had acquired all the vigour of which they were capable. Indeed they could have no hope to be acceptable to the women, but in proportion to the courage and address they had shewn in war and in their military exercises.

Their children were generally born in the midst of camps and armies. Their eyes, from the moment they were first opened, saw nothing but military spectacles, arms, effusion of blood, and combats either real or in sport: thus as they grew

grew up from their infancy, their souls were easily disposed to imbibe the cruel prejudices of their fathers.

Their laws, for the most part (like those of the ancient Lacedæmonians), seemed to know no other virtues than those of a military nature, and no other crimes but cowardice. They inflicted the greatest penalties on such as fled the first in battle. The laws of the ancient Danes, according to Saxo, excluded them from society and declared them infamous. Among the Germans, this was sometimes carried so far as to suffocate cowards in mud; after which, they covered them over with hurdles: to shew, says Tacitus, that though the punishment of crimes should be public, there are certain degrees of cowardice and infamy which ought to be buried in eternal silence. The most flattering distinctions were reserved for such as had performed some signal exploit; and the laws themselves distributed men into different ranks, according to their different degrees of courage.

Religion, by annexing eternal happiness to the military virtues, had given the last degree of activity to the ardour and propensity these people had for war. Their contempt of death was proverbial, and characterised the chief warrior and the private soldier. To die with his arms in his hand, was the vow of every free man, and the pleasing idea they had of this kind of death, naturally led them to dread such as proceeded from disease and old age. Among these people, none were found who were guilty of cowardice, and the bare suspicion of that vice was always attended with universal contempt. A man who had lost his buckler, or who had received a wound behind, durst never more appear in public. In order to acquire glory, the ancient Scandinavians employed various means suited to the grossness and rudeness of the times. One method which they practised with this view, was that of burying their heroes under little hills, which they raised in the middle of some plain, and of giving to these hillocks, and sometimes to the plains themselves, the names of the person who was there interred. They also availed themselves of the art of poetry, to immortalize their kings or great captains. See SCALD.

A people who nourished so strong a passion for war as the Scandinavians, would seek occasions for it: and so determined and prepared were they for acts of hostility, that they were accustomed every spring to hold a general assembly, at which every free man appeared completely armed, and ready to go upon any expedition. When they had determined on war, and settled the plan of the campaign, they immediately began their march, furnished each of them with a proper quantity of provisions; and almost every grown man in the country made haste to join the army thus tumultuously assembled. We are not to wonder after this, that there should issue from the North swarms of soldiers, as formidable for their numbers as their valour: and we ought not hastily to conclude from hence, that Scandinavia formerly contained more people than it does at present. We have had many reports of the incredible multitudes of men, which that country is said to have poured forth: but on the other hand, who does not know how much nations and historians have been, in all ages, inclined to exaggeration in this respect; some being desirous to enhance the power of their country, and others, when it has been conquered, being willing to save its credit by making it yield only to superior numbers? But the greatest part have been guilty of enlargement from no other motive than a blind love of the marvellous, authorized by the difficulty of pronouncing with certainty on a subject, in which men often commit great mistakes even after long researches. Besides this, it is very probable that many particular circumstances of those famous expeditions made by the Scandinavians, have contributed to countenance that name of *Vagina gentium*, which an historian (Jornandes) gives their country. For when these emigrations were made by sea, the promptitude and celerity with which they could carry their ravages from one coast to another, might easily multiply armies in the eyes of the people they attacked, and who heard many different irruptions spoken of almost at the same time. If, on the contrary, they issued forth by land, they found every where on their march nations as greedy of fame and plunder as themselves, who, joining with them, afterwards passed for people of the same original with the first swarm which put itself in motion. It should also be considered, that these emigrations did not all of them take place at the same time; and that after a nation was thus exhausted, it probably remained inactive until it had been able to recruit its numbers. The vast extent of Scandinavia being in those times divided among many different people who were little known, and only described by some one general name, as that of Goths, for instance, or Normans (that is Northern men), it could not exactly be ascertained from what country each troop originally came, and still less to what degree of depopulation each country was reduced after losing so great a quantity of its inhabitants. But what, in Mallett's opinion, best accounts for those numerous and frequent inundations of northern people, is that we have reason to believe, entire nations often engaged in enterprises of this sort: even the women and children sometimes marched in the rear of the armies, when a people, either by inconstancy, by indigence, or the attraction of a milder climate, resolved to change their place of abode. Projects of this kind, it is true, appear very strange to us at present; but it is no less true, that our ancestors often engaged in them.

From the observations already made, and other circumstances that might be adduced, we may safely conclude, that as all were soldiers among the ancient Scandinavians, they could easily fill all Europe with the noise of their arms, and ravage for a long time different parts of it, although the sum total of the inhabitants should have been much less than it is at present. If it was otherwise, we must acknowledge, that this extreme population can be very ill reconciled, either with what history informs us of the manners, customs, and principles of the ancient Scandinavians, or with the soundest notions of policy with respect to what makes the true prosperity of a people. For we cannot allow them such a superiority over us in the number of inhabitants, without granting them at the same time a proportionable excellence in their customs, manners, civil regulations, and constitution of government, as so many efficacious causes of the good or bad state of all societies, and consequently of their greater or less degree of population. But who can persuade himself, that those savage times when men sowed and reaped but little, when they had no other choice but that of the destructive profession of arms, or of a drowsy indolence no less destructive; when every petty nation was torn to pieces either by private revenge and factions within, or by war with their neighbours from without; when they had no other subsistence but rapine, and no other ramparts but wide frontiers laid waste who can believe such a state as this to be more favourable to the propagation of the human species, than that wherein men's goods and persons are in full security; wherein the fields are covered with labourers, and their cities, rich and numerous, flourish in tranquillity; wherein the people are left to breathe during long intervals of peace and there is never more than a small part of the inhabitants to whom war is destructive: and lastly, wherein commerce, manufactures, and the arts offer so many resources, and second so well that natural propensity to increase and multiply, which nothing but the fear of indigence can check and restrain?

As to the tactics of the Northern nations we may observe that it appears to have been their custom to dispose an army in the form of a triangle or pyramid, the point of which was directed against the centre of the enemy's army. This body was only composed of infantry; the cavalry being generally upon a very inconsiderable footing in the North, whether because the country is so divided there by mountains and arms of the sea, or because their principal forces were reserved for the marine. They had only some soldiers who served both on foot and horseback, like our dragoons at present, and who were commonly placed in the flanks of their armies. When they were going to join battle, they raised great shouts, they clashed their arms together, they invoked

invoked with a great noise the name of Odin, and sometimes sung hymns in his praise. They made an intrenchment with their baggage round the camp, where the women and children remained during the engagement. The conquered in vain fled there for refuge if they happened to be routed. Most commonly the women only waited their coming back to cut them in pieces; and if they could not oblige them to return to battle, they chose to bury themselves and their children in one common carnage with their husbands, rather than fall into the hands of a merciless conqueror. Such were the dreadful effects of that inhumanity with which war was then carried on. An act of rigour occasioned an act of cruelty, and this again produced a degree of barbarity still greater. The chains and punishments which were reserved for the vanquished, only served to render the victory the more bloody, and to make it cost the dearer to those who purchased the honour of destroying their fellow-creatures without necessity.

Their offensive weapons were commonly the bow and arrow, the battle-axe, and the sword. The sword was short, most frequently crooked, in the manner of a scimeter, and hung to a little belt which passed over the right shoulder. Yet they sometimes made use of very long swords which went by a different name, (spad or spada,) and these were what the Cimbri employed, according to Plutarch. Their champions or heroes took particular care to procure very keen swords, which they inscribed with mysterious characters, and called by such names as might inspire terror. The battle-axe had two edges; when it had a long handle it went by the name of an halberd, and was particularly affected by the Trabants, (or Drabants,) or those who stood upon guard in the castles of their kings. The Scandinavians were reckoned very skilful at shooting, and accordingly made great use of the bow, as we learn from all the ancient chronicles. But besides these arms, some warriors employed whatever others they judged most proper to second their valour. Thus we sometimes read of javelins, slings, clubs stuck round with points, lances, and a sort of daggers. There was no less variety in their defensive arms. Of these the shield or buckler was the chief, This most commonly was of wood, bark, or leather. The shields belonging to warriors of distinction were of iron or brass, ornamented with painting and sculpture, often finely gilt, and sometimes plated over with gold and silver. Of their shields they sometimes made a rampart, by locking them one into another, in the form of a circle; and at the end of a campaign, they suspended them against the walls of their houses, as the finest decoration with which they could adorn them.

The casque, or helmet, was known to the Scandinavians from the most early ages. The private soldiers had their helmets frequently of leather; those of the officers were of iron, and, if their rank or wealth permitted, of gilded brass. The coat of mail, the breast-plate and back-piece, the armour for the thighs, and other less essential pieces, were only for such as were able to procure them. Thus, although the invention of all these was certainly owing to the Scythians and first inhabitants of Europe, few of their descendants were for many ages able to obtain them: a striking proof of their indifference, or rather barbarous contempt for all the arts, since they cultivated so ill even that which was so necessary to them in battle.

They did not carry to a much greater degree of perfection the art of fortifying or attacking places of defence. Their fortresses were only rude castles situate on the summit of rocks, and rendered inaccessible by thick mis-shapen walls. As these walls ran winding round the castles, they often called them by a name which signified serpents or dragons, and in these they commonly secured the woman and young maids of distinction, who were seldom safe at a time when so many bold warriors were rambling up and down in search of adventures.

How formidable soever the ancient Scandinavians were by land to most of the inhabitants of Europe, it must yet be allowed that their maritime expeditions occasioned still more destructive ravages, and greater terror. We cannot read the history of the eighth, the ninth, and tenth, centuries, without observing with surprise, the sea covered with their vessels, and from one end of Europe to the other, the coasts of those countries, now the most powerful, a prey to their depredations. During the space of two hundred years, they almost incessantly ravaged England, and frequently subdued it. They often invaded Scotland and Ireland, and made incursions on the coasts of Livonia, Courland, and Pomerania. Already feared, before the time of Charlemagne, they became still more terrible as soon as this great monarch's eyes were closed. He is known to have shed tears on hearing that these barbarians had, on some occasion, defied his name, and all the precautions he had taken to oppose them. He foresaw what his people would suffer from their courage under his feeble successors. And never was presage better grounded. They soon spread, like a devouring flame, over Lower Saxony, Friesland, Holland, Flanders, and the banks of the Rhine as far as Mentz. They penetrated into the heart of France, having long before ravaged the coasts; from various parts they found their way up the Somme, the Seine, the Loire, the Garonne, and the Rhone. Within the space of thirty years, they frequently pillaged and burnt Paris, Amiens, Orleans, Poitiers, Bourdeaux, Toulouse, Saintes, Angoulême, Nantes, and Tours. They settled themselves in Camargue, at the mouth of the Rhone, from whence they wasted Provence and Dauphiny as far as Valence. In short, they ruined France, levied immense tribute on its monarchs, burnt the palace of Charlemagne, at Aix-la-Chapelle, and, in conclusion, caused one of the finest provinces of the kingdom to be ceded to them. They often carried their arms into Spain, and even made themselves dreaded in Italy and Greece. In fine, they no less infested the North than the South with their incursions, spreading every where desolation and terror: sometimes as furiously bent on their own mutual destruction, as on the ruin of other nations; sometimes, animated by a more pacific spirit, they transported colonies to unknown or uninhabited countries, as if they were willing to repair in one place the horrid destruction of the human kind occasioned by their furious ravages in others.

If we reflect on the interior state of Scandinavia, during the time that its inhabitants were so unfortunately famous, we shall soon see the cause of that amazing exterior power which they possessed. We have before observed, that they neglected agriculture, which, among a thousand other good effects, extinguishes in a rising people the relish for savage life, and inspires them with the love of peace and justice, without which the cultivation of their lands is useless. Their flocks being almost their only subsistence, they were neither obliged to a constant abode on the same spot, nor to wait for the time of harvest, and consequently such a people, though in fact but few, were able, on short notice, to levy numerous armies. Most of them brought up in a maritime country, and inured to the sea from their childhood, had no fear of the dangers, or rather knew not that there were dangers of any kind attending such a life. What a boundless field for conquests was here opened by the sole advantage of navigation! What a free scope was here afforded a warlike people to spread universally the terror of their arms! The profession of piracy was so far from appearing disgraceful to them, that it was in their eyes the certain road to honours, and to fortune: for it was wisely contrived that the word *honour*, to which so many different ideas are annexed, was among them solely confined to a disregard of dangers. Hence it is, that in the ancient chronicles, more than one hero boasts of being the most renowned pirate in the North; and that often the sons of the great lords and kings made cruising voyages in their youth, in order to render themselves illustrious, and to become one day more worthy of command.

As soon as a prince had attained his eighteenth or twentieth year, he commonly requested of his father a small fleet completely fitted out, in order to achieve with his followers some

some adventure that might be productive of glory and spoil. The father applauding such an inclination in his son, as indicating a rising courage and heroic mind, gave him ships, the commander and crew of which mutually engaged not to return, unless adorned with laurels and loaded with plunder. That nation became the first object of their resentment, from which they had received any injury; and frequently their principal aim was to make reprisals on some province which served for the retreat of other corsairs. If the fleets of two different nations met by chance in their voyage, this was also an occasion of fighting which they never neglected.

The vanquished party was commonly put to death, though sometimes the conquerors were contented to make them slaves; and often, by a singular strain of generosity, which the love of glory was able to produce in minds in other respects so ferocious, if the enemy that fell in their way had fewer ships than themselves, they set aside part of their own vessels, so that, engaging upon equal terms, the victory might not be attributed to superiority of numbers.

While the attention of these people was engrossed by their passion for arms, and the pleasures of the table, we may conclude that love held no violent dominion over them. It is besides well known, that the inhabitants of the North, are not of very quick sensibility. The ideas and modes of thinking of the Scandinavians were in this respect very different from those of the Asiatics and more southern nations; who by a contrast as remarkable as it is common, have ever felt for the female sex the warm passion of love, devoid of any real esteem. Being at the same time tyrants and slaves; laying aside their own reason, and requiring none in the object, they have ever made a quick transition from adoration to contempt, and from sentiments of the most extravagant and violent love, to those of the most cruel jealousy, or of an indifference still more insulting. We find the reverse of all this among the northern nations, who did not so much consider the other sex as made for their pleasure, as to be their equals and companions, whose esteem, as valuable as their other favours, could only be obtained by constant attentions, by generous services, and by a proper exertion of virtue and courage.

The matrimonial ceremonies were very simple, and chiefly consisted in feasting. The bridegroom having obtained the maiden's consent, together with that of her parents and guardians, appointed the day; and having assembled his own relations and friends, sent some of them to receive in his name the bride and her portion from her father. The friends were answerable for the charge that was committed to them, and if they abused their trust, the law amerced them in a sum treble to what was paid for murder. The father or guardian of the young woman attended her also to the husband's house, and there gave her into his hands. After this, the new-married pair sat down to table with their guests, who drank to their healths along with those of the Gods and heroes. The bride's friends then took her up and bore her on their shoulders, which was a mark of esteem among the Goths; her father afterwards led her to the nuptial bed, a great number of lights being carried before her; a custom known to the Greeks and Romans, and still in use in some parts of the north. The marriage being consummated, the husband made his wife several presents; such as a pair of oxen for the plough, an harnessed horse, a buckler, together with a lance and a sword.

A numerous offspring was commonly produced from these marriages; but neither the rich nor the poor scrupled to expose such of their children as they did not chuse to bring up.

SCANDIX [of Pliny, Σκανδιξ of Theophrastus and Dioscorides], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order digynia, natural order of umbellatæ or umbelliferæ.—Generic Character. Calyx: umbel universal long, with few rays; partial more abundant. Involucre universal none; partial five-leaved, length of the umbellet. Perianth proper, obsolete. Corolla: universal difform, radiate; florets of the disk abortive. Proper petals five, inflex-emarginate; the inner ones smaller; outmost, larger. Stamina: filaments five, capillary. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germ oblong, inferior. Styles two, awl-shaped, length of the least petal, distant, permanent. Stigmas in the radiant florets obtuse. Pericarp none. Fruit very long, awl-shaped, bipartile. Seeds two, awl-shaped, convex and grooved on one side, flat on the other; but they are not alike in all the species. —*Essential Character.* Florets of the disk most commonly male. Corolla radiate. Petals emarginate. Fruit awl-shaped.

1. Scandix odorata, or sweet Cicely or great chervil.—Root perennial, very thick. Leaves large, branching, somewhat like those of fern. Stems four or five feet high, hairy. Flowers white, with a sweet aromatic scent.—Native of Germany, Switzerland, Austria, the South of France, and the north part of Italy. This was one of the old medicinal plants, but it is now disused. Formerly the young leaves were put into salads; and the roots were boiled and eaten cold or in tarts, and in a variety of sauces. In Germany, it is said to be still used in soups.

2. Scandix pecten Veneris, or needle chervil, shepherd's needle, or Venus's comb.—Root annual, small. Stem from six inches to a foot in height, branched, spreading, round, and scarcely thickened at the joints, villose, at bottom purple or striped with purple lines. Leaves finely cut, springing from a sheath and tripinnate. The universal umbel generally consists of two rays, sometimes three: the partial of about seven to ten. Flowers white. Seeds cylindrical, running out into a very long beak.—Native of Europe.

3. Scandix Chilensis, or Chili chervil.—Native of Chili.

4. Scandix cerefolium, or garden chervil.—Root annual. Leaves of an exceedingly delicate texture, smooth, shining, tripinnate; with the segments deeply semi-pinnate: and the lobules lanceolate, shortly two-toothed or three-toothed. Stem smooth, hairy only under the origin of the branches. Umbels sometimes from the forks of the stem; often on peduncles. Rays woolly, generally four, but sometimes three or five: those of the umbellets ten or twelve. Leaf of the involucret linear, red; sometimes there are two leaflets. Flowers white: those in the ray difform; petals emarginate, the outmost very large, the two inmost very small: those of the disk almost regular, most of them male. Fruit from an ovate and transversely thicker base extending to an awl-shaped beak terminated by the two short clawed styles, elongated, smooth, blackish. Seeds smooth, very obscurely angular.—Native of many parts of Europe.

5. Scandix anthriscus, or rough chervil.—Root annual. Stem commonly a foot or eighteen inches in height; but higher in moist situations, upright, branching. Leaves tripinnate, soft and tender. Petioles channelled, villose, embracing with a large sheath; shortening as the leaves are higher up the stem. Peduncles axillary, opposite to a leaf. The general umbel has commonly four or five rays; the umbellets five (or from two to six or seven.) Flowers small, regular, almost all fertile; petals white, heart-shaped and bent in. Seeds ovate or lanceolate, dark brown, with stiff hairs or prickles curved upwards on the convex side, and a very short smooth beak.

Mr. Miller relates, that there have been some instances of the ill effects of this plant when taken inwardly; some, who have eaten this herb in soups, by mistaking it for garden chervil, having narrowly escaped with their lives.

6. Scandix Australis, or radiated chervil.—This is an annual plant, with long spreading stalks, and very narrow, fine-cut leaves, placed thinly. The flowers are small, white, in terminating umbels. Seeds awl-shaped and rough.—Native of the South of France, Italy, and Candia.

7. Scandix nodosa, or knobbed chervil.—Root annual. Stem rugged, with soft prickles. Leaves triternate, gashed, patulous. Umbel of two or three rays: umbellet of five or six. Involucre none: involucrets two or three-leaved, awl-shaped, small. Fruits long, cylindrical, blunt at both ends, rugged, hispid, with ascending hairs.—Native of Sicily.

8. Scandix trichosperma, or hairy-seeded chervil.—Root annual. Stems several, oblique, half a foot high, branched, flexuose, almost smooth. Leaves bipinnate, smooth: leaflets ovate-lanceolate, serrate: petioles somewhat hairy. Peduncles opposite to a leaf. Universal umbel of three or four unequal rays: umbellet of ten or twelve, almost equal. Involucrets of seven awl-shaped leaflets, the length of the umbellet. Flowers regular, flesh-coloured, fertile.—Native of Egypt.

9. Scandix infesta.—Root annual. Stem erect, about a foot high, rugged. Leaves like those of Scandix cerefolium. Umbel five-cleft: umbellets hemispherical, crouded. Involucrets seven-leaved, awl-shaped, not reflexed. Flowers white: florets about six fertile; the rest female. Stamens longer than the florets, with purplish anthers. Outer seed hispid, with jointed spines: inner rugged only, like both seeds of the central floret.—We do not know where it is a native.

10. Scandix grandiflora, or great-flowered chervil.—This is an annual plant, with fine-cut leaves. The stalks rise eight inches high, have at each joint a fine-cut leaf, and are terminated by an umbel of white flowers, with large heart-shaped petals. The horns (beaks) of this are longer than any of the other sorts, and the peduncles are very hairy. —Native of the Levant.

11. Scandix procumbens, or trailing chervil.—This is a low trailing plant.—Native of Virginia.

Propagation and Culture.—1, 2, 5, 6, 10, 11. These will increase fast by seeds, which, if permitted to scatter, will produce plenty of plants; these may be left in their place, or transplanted to any part of the garden, for they will grow in any soil or situation, and require no care.

4. Sow the seeds of chervil in autumn, soon after they are ripe, either in drills or broad-cast. The plants continue green all the winter, and in April they flower; soon after which the seeds ripen, and the whole plants decay.

SCANDOLERA, a small town of Austrian Italy, in the Milanese district of Cremona.

SCANDULÆ, in Ancient House-building, shingles, or flat pieces of wood, used by the Romans instead of tiles to cover houses. This, according to Cornelius Nepos, was the only covering used in Rome till the war with Pyrrhus, or 470th year of the city.

SCANDULARII, among the Romans, mechanics who prepared the scandulæ used in covering houses, who were exempted from all public services.

SCANELLO, [Ital. *a bank.*] In Music, a bridge of a violin, &c., the same as *ponticello.*

SCANIA, or SCHONEN, a province of Sweden, in South Gothland, bounded on the south by the Baltic, and on the west by the Sound. The latter separates it from Denmark. Its length from north to south, is above 65 miles; its breadth from east to west, nearly 50: its population about 260,000. Scania is the most pleasant, as well as the most fertile country in Sweden, resembling, in many respects, the provinces of Germany, situated between the Baltic and the Elbe. It consists of gentle eminences, which, in the interior, are covered with wood, and of fertile plains and valleys, producing abundance of corn, and excellent pasturages. Corn is an article of export, and the cattle and horses are considerably larger than in the northern provinces of Sweden, owing to the richness of the pasture and mildness of the climate. The principal mineral products are alum, sulphur, coal, chalk, and some lead ore. The inhabitants export oak timber, hemp, cordage, as well as horses, sheep, and black cattle. The fisheries on the coast are productive. Scania was, in remote ages, an independent government; it was afterwards long in the possession of Denmark, but was ceded to Sweden, along with the adjoining provinces of Blekingen and Halland, at the peace of Roschild, in 1658. The Danes attempted to re-conquer it after the disasters of Charles XII. and during his residence in Turkey; but an army of 50,000 peasants baffled their attempt, and obliged them to re-embark. It is now divided into the provinces or *læns* of Christianstadt and Malmöhus.

SCAN'SION, *s.* [*scansio*, Lat.] The act of scanning.

SCANSOR, in Ichthyology, a name given by Gesner to the fish called, by the generality of writers, LUPUS PISCIS.

To SC'ANT, *v. a.* [ȝeȝcænan, Sax. *to break.*] To limit; to straiten.

You think
I will your serious and great business *scant?*
For she is with me. *Shakspeare.*

Looking on things through the wrong end of the perspective which *scants* their dimensions, we neglect and contemn them. *Locke.*

SC'ANT, *adj.* Not plentiful; scarce.—Be somewhat *scanter* of your maiden presence. *Shakspeare.*

SC'ANT, *adv.* Scarcely; hardly.

SCANT'ILY, *adv.* Niggardly; sparingly.

SCANT'INESS, *s.* Narrowness; want of space; want of compass.—Virgil has sometimes two of them in a line, but the *scantiness* of our heroick verse is not capable of receiving more than one. *Dryden.*

SCANTING, in Sea Language, the variation of the wind, by which it becomes unfavourable to a ship's course, after having been *fair* or *large.* It is distinguished from a foul wind, as in the former a ship is still enabled to sail on her course, although her progress is considerably retarded; but in the latter she is obliged to alter from the line of her course, as explained in the article TACKING.

SCAN'TLET, *s.* A little piece; a small quantity. *A diminutive of Scantling.*

SCAN'TLING, *s.* [*eschantillon*, Fr.] A quantity cut for a particular purpose; a certain proportion—A *scantling* of wit lay under an heap of rubbish. *Dryden.*

The success,
Although particular, shall give a *scantling*
Of good or bad unto the general. *Shakspeare.*

SCAN'TLY, *adv.* Scarcely; hardly.—France had *scantly* one. *Clarendon.*—Penuriously; narrowly.

SCANT'NESS, *s.* Narrowness; meanness; smallness. —He thought *scantness* of estate too great an evil. *Hammond.*—Did we but compare the miserable *scantness* of our capacities with the vast profundity of things, truth and modesty would teach us wary language. *Glanville.*

SCA'NTY, *adj.* [the same with *scant.*] Narrow; small; wanting amplitude; short of quantity sufficient.

Now *scantier* limits the proud arch confine,
And scarce are seen the prostrate Nile and Rhine;
A small Euphrates through the piece is roll'd,
And little eagles wave their wings in gold. *Pope.*

Small; poor; not copious; not ample.—Their language being *scanty*, and accommodated only to the few necessaries of a needy simple life, had no words in it to stand for a thousand. *Locke.*—Sparing; niggardly; parsimonious.

They with such *scanty* wages pay
The bondage and the slavery of years. *Swift.*

SCANZANO, a small town of the grand duchy of Tuscany, province of Sienna.

SCANZANO, a small town in the west of the kingdom of Naples, in the Principato Citra, with 1500 inhabitants.

To SCAPE, *v. a.* [contracted from *escape.*] To escape; to miss; to avoid; to shun; not to incur; to fly.—What, have I *scaped* love-letters in the holyday time of my beauty, and am I now a subject for them? *Shakspeare.*

To SCAPE, *v. n.* To get away from hurt or danger.

Could they not fall unpity'd on the plain,
But slain revive, and, taken, *scape* again? *Dryden.*

SCAPE, *s.* Escape; flight from hurt or danger; the act of declining or running from danger; accident of safety.

I spoke

I spoke of most disast'rous chances,
Of hair-breadth *scapes* in th' imminent deadly breach.
Shakspeare.

Means of escape; evasion.

Having purpos'd falsehood, you
Can have no way but falsehood to be true!
Vain lunatick, against these *scapes* I could
Dispute, and conquer, if I would. *Donne.*

Negligent freak; deviation from regularity.

No natural exhalation in the sky,
No *scape* of nature, no distemper'd day,
But they will pluck away it's nat'ral cause,
And call them meteors, prodigies, and signs. *Shakspeare.*

Loose act of vice or lewdness.—A bearne! a very pretty bearne! sure some *scape:* though I am not bookish, yet I can read waiting-gentlewoman in the *scape*. *Shakspeare.*

SCAPE-GOAT, in the Jewish Antiquities, the goat which was set at liberty on the day of solemn expiation. For the ceremonies on this occasion, see *Levit.* xvi. 5, 6, &c.

Some say that a piece of scarlet cloth, in form of a tongue, was tied on the forehead of the *scape-goat*. *Hofm. Lex.* univ. in voc. *Lingua.*

The word is now applied to a runaway, or dissolute fellow; or more commonly to one who becomes a *locum tenens* for another in a disagreeable affair.

SCAPEMENT, or Escapement. See Horology.

SCAPHA, in Anatomy, one of the small hollows of the external ear. See Ear, in Anatomy.

SCAPHA, in Surgery, sometimes denotes a double-headed roller.

SCAPHEPHORI, [Σκαφηφοροι, Gr.] Among the Athenians, an appellation given to the strangers residing among them, because they were obliged, at the festival Panathenæ, to carry little ships, called *scaphæ*, σκαφαι, which were a sign of their foreign extraction.

SCAPHISM, Scaphismus, [formed of σκαφος, *digging;* of σκαπτω, *I dig;*] in Antiquity, a kind of torture or punishment formerly in use among the Persians. It consisted in locking the criminal close up within the trunk of a tree bored to the dimensions of his body, only with five holes for his head, arms, and legs to come through. In this state he was exposed to the sun, and the parts thus appearing, were anointed with honey and milk, to invite the wasps and flies.

The invention is ascribed to Parisatis, queen of Persia, and mother of Artaxerxes Mnemon, and the young Cyrus. It is added, she first ordered it to be practised on the person who brought the tidings of the death of Cyrus.

SCAPHIUM, among the Romans, a cup of an oblong form, somewhat resembling that of a boat; whence, also, it had its name.

Schaphium likewise signifies a kind of dial, which, beside the hours, shewed also the solstices and equinoxes.

SCAPHOIDES [from the Gr. σκαφα, *a boat*, and ειδος *form*,] boat-like; the name of a bone of the carpus, and of the tarsus.

SCAPOLITE, in Mineralogy, *Paranthine* of Haüy. This mineral has only been found near Arendal in Norway. Its colour is a greyish, greenish, or yellowish-white. It is commonly crystallized in single or laterally aggregated needles; the form either long, four-sided or eight-sided prisms. The crystals are often decomposed; sometimes they are translucent, and have a metallic or nacry splendour. In the last state they are sufficiently hard to scratch glass; in the former state they are soft and even friable. Before the blowpipe it intumesces, and forms a shining white enamel. The crystals are not electric by heat, and do not gelatinize with acids. The specific gravity of scapolite is 3.712. The primitive form of the crystal, according to Haüy, is a rectangular prism, terminated by square planes, which divide distinctly in the direction of the diagonal. Scapolite contains,

	According to Langier.	According to Simon.
Silex	45	53
Alumine	33	15
Lime	17.6	13.25
Magnesia		7
Oxyd of iron	1	6.5
Soda	1.5	3.5
Potash	0.5	

SCA'PULA, *s.* [Lat.] The shoulder-blade.—The heat went off from the parts, and spread up higher to the breast and *scapula*. *Wiseman.*

SCAPULA (John), the reputed author of a Greek Lexicon, that has long been esteemed a work of superior merit, studied at Lausanne. His name is recorded in the annals of literature, says his biographer, neither on account of his talents, nor industry, but for a gross act of disingenuity and fraud, which he committed against an eminent literary character of the sixteenth century. Being employed by Henry Stephens as the corrector to his press, while he was printing his "Thesaurus Linguæ Græcæ," Scapula extracted those words, with their explications, &c., which he reckoned most useful, comprised them in one volume, and published them as an original work, with his own name.

SCAPULAR, or Scapulary, denotes part of the habit of several orders of religions, worn over the gown, as a badge of peculiar veneration for the Virgin.

The word is formed from the French, *scapulaire*, which signifies the same; and that from the Latin *scapula*, the shoulder-blade.

The scapular consists of two narrow breadths, or slips, of cloth, covering the back and the breasts, and hanging down to the feet of the professed religious, and to the knees of the lay-brothers, &c.

There is also a *Friery*, or *Fraternity of the Scapular*, consisting of lay-brothers, who profess a particular devotion to the Virgin; and who, in honour of her, wear a little scapular, in manner of a bracelet, or otherwise, for representing the great one. They are obliged to repeat certain prayers, and to observe certain rules in their manner of life.

SCA'PULARY, *s.* [ꝛcapulaꝛe, Sax. *scapulaire*, Fr.] Part of the habit of a friar, consisting of two narrow slips of cloth covering the back and the breast.—What betokeneth your grete hode, your *scaplerie*, your knotted girdle, and your wide cope? *Chaucer.*

SCAPUS, in Architecture, the fust, or shaft, of a column.

SCAPUS, in Botany, is a flower-stalk springing immediately from the root, as in the primrose, cowslip, snowdrop, daffodil, cyclamen, &c. It is designed for the support of the parts of fructification only, and withers when they have accomplished their destination. Linnæus thought that no plant could be increased by its *scapus;* but Sir J. Smith has raised plants of *Lachenalia tricolor* from bulbs formed on a flower-stalk laid between papers to dry.

SCAR, *s.* [from *eschar*, Fr.; εσχαρα, Gr. *Dr. Johnson.* —Su. Goth. *skaera, scissura, skora*, incidere, *skaera*, secare. *Serenius.* The past participle of ꝛcꝛiꝛan, Sax. to shear, to cut, to divide. *Todd.*]—A mark made by a knife or fire; a cicatrix.—A cliff of a rock, or a naked rock on the dry land. In the Lancashire dialect, it is a steep, rocky, and bare place in hills; and in some parts of the north, a broken place in the high bank of a river, which is a very old expression. [Ray derives this word from the Sax. caꝛꝛ, a rock. Horne Tooke says it is the past participle of ꝛcꝛiꝛan, to shear, to separate. In the Gael. *sceir* is a sharp sea rock. *Shaw.* The Su. Goth. *skaer*, Icel. *sker*, also signify a rock.]

And eke full oft a little *skare*
Upon a bank, or men be ware,
Let[s] in the stream, which with great paine
If any man it shall restraine. *Gower.*

Scar, in every part of England where rocks abound, is known to signify the detached protrusion of a large rock. *Henley.*

To

To SCAR, *v. a.* To mark as with a sore or wound.

Yet I'll not shed her blood,
Nor *scar* that whiter skin of her's than snow,
And smooth as monumental alabaster. *Shakspeare.*

SCAR NOSE, a cape of Scotland, on the north coast of the county of Banff. Lat. 57. 40. N. long. 2. 46. W.

SCA'RAB, or SCA'RABEE, *s.* A beetle; an insect with sheathed wings. See SCARABÆUS.—A small *scarab* is bred in the very tips of elm-leaves: these leaves may be observed to be dry and dead, as also turgid, in which lieth a dirty, whitish, rough maggot, from which proceeds a beetle. *Derham.*

SCARABÆUS, or BEETLE, in Entomology, a genus of insects of the order Coleoptera, of which the Generic Character is as follows:—the antennæ are clavate; the club is lamellate: the insects of the genus have four feelers, and the fore-shanks are generally toothed.

The larvæ or grubs of beetles have six feet: they are annulate, hairy, vesicular at the end of the abdomen, and furnished with a horny head. They live quietly under ground; most of them delight in, and feed upon, dung: the tribes of the *cetoniæ* live on decayed woods, and of the *melo-lonthæ* on the roots of plants: the nymphæ lie dormant under the earth. There have been about 600 species of this genus enumerated by Gmelin, which are separated into four divisions, viz., those which have filiform feelers; those whose feelers are capitate, and jaws bifid; those which have cylindric feelers, and the club of the antennæ tunicate; and those whose feelers are unequal, the fore ones sub-clavate, the hind ones filiform. Of the last three there are but few species; the great mass is to be found in the first division. We shall not attempt to enumerate every species, but shall describe those which are most interesting and deserving of notice.

I.—Feelers uniform. Mandible arched.

1. Scarabæus Hercules.—Horn of the thorax incurved, very large, bifid at the end, bearded beneath, and one-toothed; the horn of the head is recurved, with several teeth above. This is one of the most remarkable species; it measures sometimes five or six inches in length; the wing-shells are of a smooth surface, of a blueish or brownish-grey colour, sometimes nearly black, and commonly marked with several small, round, deep black spots, of different sizes; the head and limbs are coal-black. From the upper part of the breast or thorax proceeds a horn or process of enormous length in proportion to that of the body; it is sharp at the tip, where it curves slightly downwards, and is marked heneath by two or three denticulations, and furnished throughout its whole length with a fine, short, velvet-like pile, of a brownish-orange colour: from the front of the head proceeds also a strong horn, about two-thirds the length of the former. This species is a native of several parts of South America, where great numbers are said to be sometimes seen on the tree called the mammæa, or mammee-tree, rasping off the rind of the slender branches by working nimbly round them with the horns, till they cause the juice to flow, which they are said to drink to intoxication, and then fall senseless from the tree. This fact has been doubted by naturalists, since the thoracic horn, being bearded on its lower surface, would be made bare by the operation. The Hercules, from the largeness of the size of all its parts, affords an admirable example of the characters of the genus. It varies, however, in size; and it may even be doubted, whether some of the smaller specimens have not occasionally been regarded as distinct species. The female is destitute both of the frontal and thoracic horn, but in other points she resembles the male.

2. Scarabæus alcides.—Horn of the thorax incurved, bearded beneath, and one-toothed; the horn of the head is recurved, and unarmed. This is an Indian insect, and is not more than half the size of the last: the horn of the thorax is not bifid at the end.

3. Scarabæus centaurus.—The horn of the thorax of this is incurved; it is two-toothed at the base, bifid at the end: the horn of the head is recurved, and one-toothed.—This is found in India and Africa.

4. Scarabæus dispar.—In the male, the horn of the thorax is subulate, and projecting; the horn of the head is subulate, slightly recurved; the scutel is heart-shaped.—This insect is found in many parts of southern Russia. It is black. The female has two erect denticles in the middle of the head before; the thorax has two elevated prominent teeth before.

5. Scarabæus hastatus.—Horn of the thorax short, arched, spear-shaped, rough beneath; horn of the head recurved. —It is found in divers parts of South America; it is black and the shells are testaceous; the shield of the head is reflected, toothed, with a large, sharp, arched, unarmed horn; thorax punctured, with an incumbent short horn in the middle, spear-shaped or three-lobed at the end; the shells are punctured, with a single stripe at the suture.

6. Scarabæus pan.—The horn of the thorax is incurved, very thick at the base, bifid at the end; the horn of the head recurved, one-toothed.—It inhabits South America and India: large, black. The thorax is rough at the sides, smooth in the middle, very thick, ending in an incurved bifid horn.

7. Scarabæus dædalus.—Thorax arched, excavate before, with a very short horn; the horn of the head is flat, impressed on each side.—It inhabits India. The horn is longer than the head, and covering the whole head; it is straight and broad, with an impressed puncture at the base on each side, one-toothed at the edge; the thorax has a transverse dorsal elevated line; shells scarcely striate; the legs and body beneath ferruginous, hind-thighs clavate; hind-shanks thick, truncate: female, thorax unarmed; horn of the head shorter, notched.

8. Scarabæus actæon.—Smooth; thorax two-horned; the horn of the head is one-toothed, bifid at the end; the shells are smooth.—It inhabits South America. It is the largest of all known insects, excepting crabs and monoculi. Its shells are black, or glaucous spotted with black.

9. Scarabæus elephas.—Downy; thorax gibbous, two-horned; the horn of the head is one-toothed, and bifid at the end.—It inhabits Guinea. The body is covered with rusty-grey hairs; the shells are irregularly punctured.

10. Scarabæus boas.—Thorax retuse, excavate, two-toothed; the horn of the head is recurved, and simple.—It inhabits Sierra Leone. The shield of the head is emarginate; the thorax is black, with erect ferruginous hairs; the shells are pitchy, with a single line at the suture.

11. Scarabæus coryphæus.—Thorax two-horned; the body ferruginous.—It is found at the Cape of Good Hope. The shield of the head is two-horned before, the horns are recurved and tipt with black. It has an elevated short black spine behind; the thorax has two short approximate horns tipt with black, and an obtuse gibbosity behind; the shells are slightly striate.

12. Scarabæus orion.—Brown; thorax two-horned, the horns are compressed; the head is three-horned; the middle one is very short.—It is a native of Senegal, and is small. The horns of the head are elevated, thick, compressed, ending in two lateral, distant, recurved horns, with a denticle in the middle; the thorax is deeply impressed; the horns are strong; the shells are smooth and highly polished.

13. Scarabæus atlas.—Thorax three-horned, the middle one is very short; the horn of the head is recurved.—It inhabits America. The horn of the head is sometimes three-toothed.

14. Scarabæus typhon.—Thorax three-horned, the middle one is notched; the horn of the thorax is recurved, one-toothed at the base, bifid at the end.—A specimen is in the British Museum. The shield of the head is two-toothed; the horn is projecting, recurved, with a strong dorsal tooth at the base, smooth, black; the thorax is covered with a cinereous down; the horns are black, sub-equal, the middle one with fulvous down beneath; the shells are brown, and nearly smooth.

15. Scarabæus Vulcanus.—Thorax three-horned, the lateral

ral ones shorter, compressed, dilated near the tip; the head is unarmed: the shells with striate punctures.—It is an inhabitant of the island of Guadaloupe.

16. Scarabæus typhœus, or bull-comber.—Thorax three-horned, the middle one less, lateral ones projecting, as long as the head, which is unarmed.—It is found in this country, and other parts of Europe, chiefly under cow-dung, where it buries itself to deposit its eggs. The head is depressed, villous at the sides, narrow; knob of the antennæ greyish; thorax smooth; the horns sometimes as long as the head, and sometimes twice as long; in the female they are scarcely visible; the shells are striate; the shanks downy; the body black.

17. Scarabæus nasicornis.—Thorax with a triple prominence; horn of the head recurved; shells smooth.—This is an European insect. The larva is grey; the head, the legs, and spiracles rufous: the female has scarcely the rudiment of a horn.

18. Scarabæus Lazarus.—The thorax of this insect has three tubercles; the horn of the head is short, emarginate.—It inhabits North America, and is very small. The shield of the head is emarginate; the thorax is brown, caniculate, the middle tubercle transverse; the shells are striate and rufous.

19. Scarabæus quadridens.—Thorax four-toothed; horn of the head elevated, simple; body ferruginous.—It inhabits India; is small, gibbous, and ferruginous. In the male, the shield has a short erect horn; in the female it is two-toothed; the shells striate.

20. Scarabæus moblicornis.—Thorax four-toothed; horn of the head recurved and moveable.—It is found in this country, and many parts of Germany: it is black; the shells are striate.

21. Scarabæus cyclops.—The thorax is four-horned, the lateral ones larger; the head is two-toothed, and the body ferruginous.—This is an Indian insect.

22. Scarabæus violaceus.—Thorax six-spined; jaws prominent; the front is sloping; the body entirely violet.—It inhabits Siberia, under stones, and is very small. The shells are marked with hollow punctures.

23. Scarabæus œdipus.—Horn of the thorax flat, toothed beneath; the horn of the head is truncate, three-toothed.—It inhabits the Cape of Good Hope, and is middle-sized. The shield is rounded, emarginate; thorax rounded behind, with an impressed puncture at the sides; the shells are striate.

24. Scarabæus rhadamistus.—Thorax deeply excavate, with a recurved horn before; head unarmed; shell rufous, with a black suture and two spots.—This is a small insect, and is found at Coromandel. The shield is rounded, brassy, whitish before; the thorax is longer than the shells, brassy, pale at the sides, with a brassy dot; the shells are striate.

25. Scarabæus nemestrinus.—Thorax with two projecting sharp horns; horn of the head erect, subulate. The body of this insect is hairy; the shield is rounded and entire; the thorax with an impressed puncture on each side; the shells are striate.—This is found at the Cape of Good Hope.

26. Scarabæus jachus.—Thorax prominent, two-lobed; the horn of the head recurved and simple.—It inhabits the Cape of Good Hope. The shield is rounded, notched at the tip; the horn is long, erect, recurved at the end; thorax slightly punctured: there are two elevated lines on each side near the edge.

27. Scarabæus sabæus.—Thorax with a double prominence; the horn of the head erect, simple, as long as the thorax.—This is found at Coromandel. Shield projecting, rounded, scarcely emarginate; the thorax is black, polished, with an impressed lateral point on each side; the shells are striate, black, polished.

28. Scarabæus nanus.—Thorax with a double prominence; the horn of the head is erect, simple, as long as the head.—This is found at Tranquebar.

29. Scarabæus splendidulus.—Thorax brassy, with two compressed black horns; horn of the head erect, compressed at the tip.—This is seen in divers parts of South America. The shield is rounded, lightly emarginate; horn obtuse; thorax angular, with two subarched obtuse horns in the middle; the shells are grooved, green, obscure; legs black; thighs brassy.

30. Scarabæus festivus.—Thorax gibbous, two-horned; horn of the head erect; shells red-brassy.—It inhabits America.

31. Scarabæus pactolus.—Thorax two-toothed; horn of the head long, recurved, two-toothed in the middle.—It is of a brassy-green colour, and is found in Brasil. The shield is rounded, entire; the horn is black, with two sharp teeth in the middle; thorax channelled on the fore-part, paler at the sides; shells testaceous, with a brassy suture.

32. Scarabæus Guineensis.—Thorax two-toothed, brassy; horn of the head elevated, short.—This inhabits Guinea, from whence it derives its name. The antennæ are testaceous; the shield is rounded, a little reflected at the edge; thorax rounded, brassy, with two small teeth before; shells substriate, black, crossed with an interrupted testaceous streak at the base, and testaceous at the tip.

33. Scarabæus pygmæus.—Thorax two-toothed, brassy; shield unarmed, emarginate; shells testaceous, spotted black.—Found at Tranquebar.

34. Scarabæus ammon.—Thorax three-toothed; horn of the head recurved; shells striate.—It is an American insect; the shield is rounded, emarginate, with a projecting, sharp, recurved horn; the thorax is smooth, with three teeth, the middle one is the larger; the shells with crenate stripes.

35. Scarabæus Midas.—Thorax three-horned; shield projecting, wrinkled, with a broad hollow in the middle; it has two horns, which are short and erect, and two denticles in the middle; the thorax is punctured, rough, with ferruginous hairs; the horns are depressed, crenate at the sides; the middle ones are broader, emarginate; shells striate.

36. Scarabæus lunaris, is an English insect, and found likewise in other parts of Europe. It has been described by Mr. Donovan; its thorax is three-horned; the middle one obtuse, bifid; the horn of the head is erect; the shield emarginate. In each sex the shield is horned; the thorax of the female is unarmed.

37. Scarabæus cælatus.—Thorax three-horned, the middle one three-toothed; the horn of the head is recurved, long, one-toothed within. It is less than the lunaris. The shield is rounded, the horn compressed, with a strong incumbent tooth in the middle within; thorax elevated, retuse each side; shells hardly striate.

38. Scarabæus Belzebub.—The thorax has a triple prominence; the head is three-horned, the middle one is the largest. The shield is rounded, scarcely emarginated; the horn of the head is short, with two smaller horns at the base; the shells are striate; the middle shanks clavate and toothed.

39. Scarabæus tarandus.—Thorax four-horned; head with two compressed horns.—It inhabits the East Indies, and is a small and black insect. The shield is slightly angular, black, with an elevated line behind, which is terminated on each side by a short horn; the thorax is black, with four equal horns, the middle ones connected at the base; the shells are testaceous, black at the suture; the legs are testaceous.

40. Scarabæus lemur.—The thorax is four-horned, coppery; shield transverse, carinate behind; shells testaceous.—It is found in divers parts of Germany. The shells are sometimes marked with a band composed of five brown dots.

41. Scarabæus camelus.—Thorax four-horned; the shield is slightly two-horned behind; the body is black.—This also is a German insect. The female is marked with a double transverse carinate line on the shield; the hind one larger.

42. Scarabæus unifasciatus.—This curious insect has a five-horned thorax: it is black, but the shells are testaceous, with a black band.—It inhabits Tranquebar. The shield is rounded, unarmed, black; the thorax is gibbous, black, with five tubercles; the two lateral ones larger, the three middle ones

ones disposed in a triangle; the shells, with a distinct spot at the base, a broad indented band in the middle, and blotch at the tip, all black; the knob of the antennæ is ferruginous.

43. Scarabæus rhinoceros.—The thorax of this species is retuse; the horn of the head is simple; the shield is bifid; shells punctuate.—It inhabits Asia. The body is pitchy, beneath it is hairy; the thorax of the female is excavate.

44. Scarabæus Barbarossa.—Thorax rough on the fore-part; the horn of the head is recurved, short.—This is found in New Holland. The shield is elongated, sub-emarginate; the horn is subulate, as long as the head; the thorax is rounded; the shells are pitchy, punctured, and striate; the fore-shanks are four-toothed.

45. Scarabæus satyrus.—Thorax truncate before; the horn of the head is recurved, as long as the head.—It inhabits America. In this the shield is widely emarginate; the horns three times as long as the shield; the shells are striate; the body beneath is ferruginous, hairy; the shanks are toothed.

46. Scarabæus Jamaicensis.—This, as its name imports, is a Jamaica insect; the thorax is retuse before; the horn of the head is recurved; the shells are very smooth.

47. Scarabæus silenus.—The thorax of this is excavate before; the horn of the head recurved; the shells are smooth. —It inhabits southern Europe.

48. Scarabæus apelles.—Horn of the head very short; shells cinereous, with black raised dots; it has no fore tarsi. —It inhabits the Cape of Good Hope. The body of this insect is small; the shield rounded, entire, with raised sutures; the thorax is unequal, grey-brown, the margin and two spots yellow; the shells are of a grey-brown, striate, with raised lines; the legs are yellow, spotted with black.

49. Scarabæus hylax.—Horn of the head emarginate; hind-shanks very short, spinous at the tip.—This is found in many parts of Africa.

50. Scarabæus coronatus.—Shield of the head emarginate behind.—It inhabits Java. The shield is raised on each side; the thorax is punctured; the shells are smooth; the hind-thighs short, thick, and the body pitchy.

51. Scarabæus Dionysius.—Thorax excavate; horn of the head recurved, depressed, thicker at the tip.—It inhabits Tranquebar.

52. Scarabæus Melibæus.—Thorax uneven before; horn of the head very short and truncate; the shells striate.—This is found in North America. The antennæ are thick, pitchy; the head, thorax, and legs black; the shells are marked with crenate stripes; they are dull and pitchy.

53. Scarabæus Didymus.—Depressed; thorax with a groove; head three-spined; shells striate.—It inhabits America. The female has a small elevated spine on the thorax.

54. Scarabæus guttulatus.—The thorax of this is punctured; the shield is entire, with two elevated obtuse horns. —It is found in Italy. The shield is rounded, with a transverse carinate line in the middle; the thorax is rounded, black, polished; shells punctured, striate, black; the body is black.

55. Scarabæus subterraneus.—Head with three tubercles; shells with crenate stripes.—It is found in several parts of Europe. It resembles the Scarabæus fossor, shortly to be mentioned, but is not more than half its size.

56. Scarabæus sorex.—Head with three tubercles, the middle one slightly horned; the shells are striate, grey, edged with black.—It inhabits China and the East Indies, and is the size of the next. The shield is reflected, emarginate, black, immaculate.

57. Scarabæus fossor.—Thorax retuse; head with three tubercles, the middle one is slightly horned.—This is found in our own country.

58. Scarabæus scrutator.—Head with three tubercles; the shells and abdomen rufous. The shield is rounded; thorax punctured, black, polished, with a broad rufous margin; shells striate, with a raised dot at the tip and at the base; the legs are black.

59. Scarabæus analis.—Head with three equal tubercles; black; shells ferruginous at the ends.—It is an Indian insect, and is the size of the Scarabæus fossor.

60. Scarabæus terrestris.—Head with three equal tubercles; shells striate.—This is an English insect. It is not more than half the size of the Scarabæus fossor; the tubercles of the head are short and obtuse.

61. Scarabæus obscurior.—Dull black; head with three obsolete tubercles; the shells striate.—It inhabits Germany. It is the size of the terrestris.

62. Scarabæus ater.—Head with three tubercles, the middle one slightly horned; shells striate, very smooth.—Inhabits Keil. The shield is rounded, slightly emarginate; thorax sub-punctured, black, polished; shells black, polished, and striate, but not crenate; the body is black, and the legs are pitchy. The thorax is sometimes marked with a small, lateral, rufous spot.

63. Scarabæus conflagrans.—Head with three tubercles; shield and scutel polished black.—It is found in divers parts of Germany, as well as in this country. The shells are grooved, with hollow dots.

64. Scarabæus testaceus.—Testaceous; its head has two tubercles; the shells are punctured and striate.—This likewise, as well as the two following, are inhabitants of England. The thorax is punctured; the body hairy.

65. Scarabæus fimetarius.—Black; head tuberculate; shells red. It feeds on cow-dung.

66. Scarabæus conflagratus.—The thorax of this insect is immaculate; the shells are striate, testaceous, with a black spot. This is described in Donavan's English Insects. The scutel and body are black; the legs are pitchy.

67. Scarabæus inquinatus.—The head has three tubercles; the shells are grey, spotted with brown.—It inhabits Saxony. The head is black; thorax smooth, black, polished, with a pale rufous edge; the shells are striate and polished.

68. Scarabæus suturalis.—This is of a blackish hue; the head has three tubercles; the shells are testaceous, with a deep black suture: hence its specific name.—It is found in the West Indian islands, and is a small insect. The thorax is black, with a testaceous edge, and small black dots; the shells are striate; body dusky; legs yellowish.

69. Scarabæus sordidus.—Head tuberculate; thorax black, with a pale edge and black dot; the shells are grey.—This and the next are natives of England. The shield is entire, black, with a pale spot on each side; the thorax is smooth; the shells are striate; the suture more dusky; the body beneath variegated with black and grey; the legs are pale.

70. Scarabæus luridus.—Head tuberculate; body black; shells grey, striate with black. Head and thorax black, polished; shells with black lines and spots, sometimes entirely black.

71. Scarabæus granarius.—Black; the shield is marked with a single tubercle; the shells are testaceous behind.—This is an European insect, and is of the size of a grain of wheat.

72. Scarabæus sordens.—Black; head tuberculate; the middle prominent; the shells are dull testaceous; the suture and edges of a dull brown.

73. Scarabæus nebulosus.—Brown; thorax smooth, the outer margins livid; the head obscurely tuberculate; shells striate, clouded with brown; the legs are testaceous.—It is found in different European countries.

74. Scarabæus suturatus.—Black, polished; head with a single minute tubercle; shells of a dirty yellow colour, striate, punctured; outer edge at the base of the scutel and suture black.—It is found chiefly at and in the neighbourhood of Saltsburg, on horse-dung.

75. Scarabæus Marianus.—Head tuberculate; shells smooth, glaucous, dotted with brown.—It inhabits America, and is thought to be the female of Scarabæus Hercules; abdomen and thighs ferruginous.

76. Scarabæus bonasus.—Thorax with a double prominence; the head is three-horned, the lateral ones arched. —This is an Indian insect. The thorax is brassy; the shells dusky, and the body black.

77. Scarabæus sagittarius.—Thorax mucronate before; head with a single erect horn.—It is found at the Cape of Good Hope. The shield is rounded, entire, black: the horn is

is as long as the head; the thorax is black, with a pale edge; shells striate-grey; fore-legs black, with a golden spot at the base; the others are variegated.

78. Scarabæus Carolinus.—Thorax retuse, with two knobs; horn of the head erect, and very short; the shield is entire; the shells are grooved.—It is a native of Carolina. It is black, obtuse, gibbous, and half an inch thick.

79. Scarabæus sphinx.—Thorax with four impressed points; head slightly horned; it has no fore tarsi.—It inhabits America, and is found in the southern parts of Europe.

80. Scarabæus taurus.—Hind-head with two reclined arched horns.—It inhabits France and Germany.

81. Scarabæus capra.—Hind-head with two subarched horns; the body is black and opaque.—It is a native of Saxony, and is thought to be a variety of the taurus.

82. Scarabæus ibex.—Head with two very short horns; the body is black, slightly spotted with yellow.—It inhabits India. The shield is rounded and entire; the horns are subcompressed; the antennæ are testaceous; thorax rounded behind; the shells are striate; the body beneath is black, and the thighs yellow.

83. Scarabæus alces.—The thorax is doubly retuse; the shield of the head is slightly two-horned, with a raised transverse line; the body is smooth and black.—It inhabits Hungary, and is the size of the Scarabæus taurus. The shield is rounded and entire; the thorax is rounded, with two obsolete small teeth.

84. Scarabæus gazella.—The thorax of this insect is brassy; the hind-head has two arched horns; the shells are testaceous.—It inhabits Guinea, and is of the same size as the last.

85. Scarabæus carnifex.—Thorax angular and rough; the horn of the head is inflected; the body is brassy.—It inhabits America. Like the dung-beetle, it forms round balls of excrement to deposit eggs in.

86. Scarabæus Hispanus.—The shield of this insect is horned, emarginate; shells striate; second pair of thighs very remote.—It inhabits southern Europe.

87. Scarabæus spinifex.—Thorax rounded; the hind-head with a recurved spine.—It inhabits Coromandel. The shield is rounded and entire; the spine is as long as the thorax; the thorax is smooth, black; the shells are striate and black, with a green gloss.

88. Scarabæus nuchicornis.—Thorax rounded; hind-head with an erect spine; shield emarginate. This is described among Mr. Donovan's Insects.

89. Scarabæus Xiphias.—The thorax is slightly pointed before; hind head with an erect spine; the shield is entire.—It inhabits Saxony, and is a less insect than the last.

90. Scarabæus nutans.—Thorax impressed before; the hind-head has an erect spine, nodding at the tip; the body is black. The shield is rounded and entire.

91. Scarabæus Æneus.—Thorax brassy; horn of the head erect, truncate.—It inhabits Tranquebar. The female has two tubercles on the thorax.

92. Scarabæus recticornis.—Black; head with two erect horns; shield rounded.—It is found in various parts of Europe.

93. Scarabæus verticornis.—Thorax grey, dotted with black; the horn of the head is erect, and very short.—It is an English insect, and is less than the nuchicornis. The thorax is round; the shells are smooth, and the legs are pale.

94. Scarabæus sulcator.—This insect is black; the head has a single tubercle; the shells are striate.

95. Scarabæus cristatus.—Black; thorax crenate; shield tuberculate, four-toothed.—It is found in Egypt. The thorax is rounded, crenate at the edges; the shells are smooth; the legs hairy.

96. Scarabæus stercorarius, or clock-beetle.—The body is black and smooth; the elytra furrowed; the head is of a rhomboidal figure; the forehead is prominent.—It is a native of many parts of Europe, as well as of England, and is to be met with in dung. It is much infested with some species of the acarus and ichneumon, and hence it has frequently been named the lousy beetle. It flies about in the evening with a loud noise, and is said to foretell a fine day. It was held in the utmost reverence by the Egyptians, and consecrated by them to the sun. It is sometimes of a greenish-blue colour, and sometimes yellowish below, with dusky red elytra. This is the shard-borne beetle of Shakspeare. The female digs a hole, and kneads a lump of fresh dung, of a cylindrical shape, on which she deposits one egg, and then covers it with more dung, attaching it to the root of some grass. In a few days the larva breaks the egg, and feeds on the fresh dung. During the autumn it changes its skin four times.

97. Scarabæus vernalis.—Shells without streaks or punctures; shield rhombic; crown a little prominent.—It inhabits other parts of Europe, besides this country. It smells of musk, and, like the last, has an oval-ferruginous downy spot at the base of the fore-thighs.

98. Scarabæus cordalis.—Black; thorax heart-shaped before, impressed, mucronate; head with two tubercles.—It inhabits Guadaloupe, and is larger than the stercorarius.

99. Scarabæus talpa.—Thorax mucronate before; shield with an elevated transverse line, the tip reflected, emarginate.—Inhabits St. Bartholomew's Island.

100. Scarabæus splendidus.—Shining green; shells striate.—It inhabits America. The shield is emarginate; thorax rounded with a lateral impressed point each side; shells with crenate stripes; thighs toothed.

101. Scarabæus globator.—Thorax and shells dusky black, punctured.—It inhabits the Cape of Good Hope. Beneath it is hairy.

102. Scarabæus rufipes.—Black; thorax glabrous, polished; shells striate; legs rufous.—It inhabits divers parts of Europe, but is not found in this country.

103. Scarabæus gagates.—This is black; thorax slightly punctured; shells striate; legs black.

104.*Scarabæus quadri-maculatus.—Oblong, black; the spots on the outer corners of the shells and legs red. This is described in Donovan's English Insects. Thorax glabrous, polished, dull rufous or black; shells obscurely striate; legs often black.

105. Scarabæus sus.—Oblong; dull rufous; shells testaceous, spotted with black.—It is found in several parts of Germany. The body is polished; shells with minute dots.

106. Scarabæus elevatus.—Gibbous, black; shells striate and punctured; the shield emarginate.—It inhabits Provence.

107. Scarabæus nigellus.—Black; shells striate, the edge and band on the hind-part ferruginous.—It inhabits Kamtschatka.

108. Scarabæus testudinarius.—Black; shells pitch, grooved, with ferruginous dots.—This is an English insect, and has been described by Mr. Donovan. The shield is rounded, emarginate; thorax rough, black; dots on the shells disposed in pairs; the legs are pitchy.

109. Scarabæus depressus.—Black, polished; shells striate, rufous; legs black.—It is a native of Germany.

110. Scarabæus arcuatus.—Black, polished; shield rufous before; shells punctured, striate; the suture, marginal dot at the base, and abbreviated band, inflected towards the suture, reddish.—This is found at and near Saltzburg.

111. Scarabæus porcatus.—Brown; shells with longitudinal raised lines.—This is a native of Saxony. It is a small insect, of a dull brown colour; the shells are deeply grooved, and the grooves are transversely striate.

112. Scarabæus interpunctatus.—Black; shells dirty yellow, with black grooves; the intermediate space varied with alternate, black, oblong spots.—This and the two next are found chiefly at and near Berlin, among cow-dung.

113. Scarabæus Varius.—Black; shells half yellow: probably a variety of the last.

114. Scarabæus minutus.—Black, striate; shells and legs tawny.

115. Scarabæus sacer.—The shield of the head marked with six denticulations; the thorax notched; the shanks of the hind-legs fringed; top of the head marked with two slight

slight projectons.—It is a native of the southern parts of the old continent. It is frequent in dry situations, even in the southern parts of Russia. Its figure is carved by the Egyptians on the ancient pillars, by whom it was held sacred: from which circumstance it derived its specific name.

116. Scarabæus variolosus.—The shield of this is six-toothed; the shells are black, with variolus impressed dots.—It inhabits Austria.

117. Scarabæus miliaris.—Shield six-toothed; the shells are black, with raised blacker dots.—It inhabits India.

118. Scarabæus profanus.—Shield six-toothed; body black-blue; shells smooth.—It is native of Guinea.

119. Scarabæus Bacchus.—Shield four-toothed, gibbous; thorax and shells glabrous; the shanks on all sides are serrate.—It inhabits the Cape of Good Hope.

120. Scarabæus gibbosus.—Shield four-toothed; shells with a gibbosity at the base.—It inhabits America.

121. Scarabæus Hollandiæ.—Shield four-toothed; shells grooved.—An inhabitant of New Holland.

122. Scarabæus granulatus.—Body covered with cinereous down; thorax and shells with raised black dots; shield emarginate.—It is thought to be only a variety of the last.

123. Scarabæus cupreus.—Black-coppery; shield emarginate; thorax gibbous.—It inhabits Africa.

124. Scarabæus flagellatus.—Black; shield emarginate; thorax and shells rough.—It is a native of the Cape, and is found frequently in the southern parts of Europe.

125. Scarabæus schæfferi.—Thorax rounded; shield emarginate; shells triangular; hind-thighs long and toothed.—It inhabits the warm banks of Germany; deposits its eggs in round balls of cow-dung, which it rolls up with its hind-feet, and buries.

126. Scarabæus pillularius.—Black, opaque, smooth; shield sub-marginate, with two raised oblique lines.—This is a native of the southern parts of Europe, about the size of the lousy beetle. It rolls up a ball made of excrement, seven times the bulk of its own body.

127. Scarabæus squaleus.—Black; shield emarginate; shells striate.—It inhabits Brazil. The head and thorax are smooth, polished; shield emarginate; the lobes rounded.

128. Scarabæus calcaratus.—Head shielded, emarginate; hind-thighs toothed.—It inhabits Egypt.

129. Scarabæus bi-pustulata.—Black; shells with a rufous spot at the base.—It inhabits New Holland.

130. Scarabæus triangularis.—Black; edge of the thorax and thighs pale; shield emarginate.—It is found chiefly in Surinam.

131. Scarabæus cinctus.—Black; margin of the shells p ae; the shield is emarginate.—It is a native of China.

132. Scarabæus smaragdulus.—Brassy, polished; shield two-toothed.—It is a native of America.

133. Scarabæus minor.—Black; shield six-toothed; the hind-legs are long.—It inhabits the Cape. It is less than the ovatus, about to be noticed, and the body is totally black.

134. Scarabæus ovatus.—Black; thorax rounded, six-toothed; shells abbreviated.—It inhabits Europe.

135. Scarabæus Amazonus.—Testaceous; thorax with two black blotches; the shells are marked with a brown callus on the outer edge.

136. Scarabæus crucifer.—Thorax a little downy, greenish; the shells are of a pale yellow; they are shorter than the body, and marked with a double beamed black cross.—It is a native of Siberia.

137. Scarabæus guttatus.—Black; thorax rounded, with smooth raised dots; the shield is impressed, bifid at the tip; the shells are deeply crenate, striate, with oblong spots composed of yellow hairs.

II.—Mandible arched, slightly toothed; abdomen naked at the end, obliquely truncate.

138. Scarabæus stigma.—Rusty brown; shells with an oblong snowy mark near the tip.—It inhabits Java. The body is very large; the shield hardly reflected; the legs are black.

139. Scarabæus fullo.—Testaceous spotted with white; scutel with a double white spot: antennæ divided into seven leaves.—It inhabits the sandy situations in Europe and Barbary, living very much on the oak, Elymus arenaria and Arundo arenaria. It is hairy below; the hooks at the ends of their legs are furnished at their base with a crooked branch. This is the largest coleopterous insect ever seen in this country, except the Lucanus cervus, or stag-beetle. It is by no means common here.

140. Scarabæus melolontha, or tree-beetle-cockchaffer.—Testaceous; thorax hairy; tail inflected; a triangular white spot at each incisure of the abdomen. This insect is extremely familiar in our island. The larva inhabits the ploughed lands, and feeds on the roots of corn; the complete insect makes its appearance in the beginning of summer. It has sometimes been seen in such prodigious quantities as almost to strip the trees of their foliage, and to produce mischiefs approaching to the devastations occasioned by the locust tribe. There is an interesting account of their ravages in Ireland, by Mr. Molineux, in the *Philosophical Transactions* for the year 1697, of which the following is an extract:—

"These insects were first noticed in this kingdom in 1688. They appeared on the south-west coast of Galway, brought thither by a south-west wind, one of the most common, I might almost say, trade-winds, of this country. From thence they penetrated into the inland parts towards Heddford, about twelve miles north of the town of Galway: here and there in the adjacent country, multitudes of them appeared among the trees and hedges in the day-time, hanging by the boughs in clusters, like bees when they swarm. In this posture they continued, with little or no motion, during the heat of the sun; but towards evening, or sunset, they would all disperse and fly about with a strange humming noise, like the beating of distant drums, and in such vast numbers, that they darkened the air for the space of two or three miles square. Persons travelling on the roads, or abroad in the fields, found it very uneasy to make their way through them, they would so beat and knock themselves against their faces in their flight, and with such a force as to make the place smart, and leave a slight mark behind them. In a short time after their coming, they had so entirely eat up and destroyed all the leaves of the trees for some miles round, that the whole country, though in the middle of summer, was left as bare as in the depth of winter; and the noise they made in gnawing the leaves made a sound much resembling the sawing of timber. They also came into the gardens, and destroyed the buds, blossoms, and leaves of all the fruit-trees, so that they were left perfectly naked: nay, many, that were more delicate than the rest, lost their sap as well as leaves, and quite withered away; so that they never recovered again. Their multitudes spread so exceedingly, that they infested houses, and became extremely offensive and troublesome. Their numerous young, hatched from the eggs which they had lodged under ground, near the surface of the earth, did still more harm in that close retirement than all the flying swarms of their parents had done abroad; for this destructive brood, lying under ground, eat up the roots of corn and grass, and thus consumed the support both of man and beast. This plague was happily checked several ways. High winds and wet misling weather destroyed many millions of them in a day; and when this constitution of the air prevailed, they were so enfeebled that they would let go their hold, and drop to the ground from the branches; and so little a fall as this was quite sufficient to disable, and sometimes perfectly kill them. Nay, it was observable that, even when they were most vigorous, a slight blow would for some time stun them, if not deprive them of life. During these unfavourable seasons of the weather, the swine and poultry of the country would watch under the trees for their falling, and feed and fatten upon them; and even the poorer sort of the country people, the country then labouring under a scarcity of provision, had a way of dressing them, and lived upon them as food. In a little time it was found that smoke was another thing very offensive to them;

them; and by burning heath, fern, &c., the gardens were secured, or if the insects had already entered, they were thus driven out again. Towards the latter end of summer they returned of themselves, and so totally disappeared, that in a few days you could not see one left. A year or two ago, all along the south-west coast of the county of Galway, for some miles together, there were found dead on the shore such infinite multitudes of them, and in such vast heaps, that, by a moderate estimate, it was computed there could not be less than forty or fifty horse-loads in all; which was a new colony, or a supernumerary swarm from the same place whence the first stock came, in 1688, driven by the wind from their native land, which I conclude to be Normandy or Britanny in France; it being a country much infested with this insect, and from whence England heretofore has been pestered in a similar manner with swarms of this vermin; but these, meeting with a contrary wind, before they could land, were stopped, and, tired with the voyage, were all driven into the sea, which, by the motion of its waves and tides, cast their floating bodies in heaps on the shore. It is observed that they seldom keep above a year together in a place, and their usual stages or marches are computed to be about six miles in a year. Hitherto their progress has been westerly, following the course of that wind which blows most commonly in this country."

In Mouffet's History of Insects, it is said that early in the year 1574, so great a quantity of these insects were driven into the river Severn, that they totally prevented the mills from working, and were with the utmost difficulty extirpated by the united efforts of the people, and the various kinds of hawks, ducks, and other birds, which preyed upon them with great avidity. In Normandy, it is said, they generally make their appearance every third year. In this country, the county of Norfolk has sustained more damage than any other from the ravages of the cockchaffer. In the year 1751 many crops of corn were ruined by it.

The larva, according to some well-informed naturalists, is two, and sometimes three, years in passing from its first state into that of the perfect insect. The eggs are laid in small detached heaps, beneath the surface of some clod; and the young, when first hatched, are scarcely more than the eighth of an inch in length, gradually advancing in their growth, and occasionally shifting their skins till they arrive at the size of two inches or more. At this period they begin to prepare for their change in a chrysalis or pupa, selecting for the purpose some small clod of earth, in which they form an oval cavity, and, after a certain space, divest themselves of their last skin, and immediately appear in the chrysalis form, in which they continue till the succeeding summer, when the beetle emerges from its retirement, and commits its depredations on the leaves of trees, and other things that it selects for its food, breeds and deposits its eggs in a favourable situation, after which, its life is of a very short duration. The cockchaffer is eagerly sought after and devoured by swine, bats, crows, and many kinds of poultry. It varies annually, in having the thorax rufous and black; the male is distinguished from the female by a pointed inflected tail.

141. Scarabæus pilosus.—Downy, blackish; shield reflected, slightly emarginate; antennæ ferruginous.—It is found chiefly in Hungary. The scutel is broad, and slightly emarginate.

142. Scarabæus occidentalis.—Testaceous; thorax downy; shells with four snowy lines.—It inhabits different parts of Europe.

143. Scarabæus alopex.—Body covered with tawny down; shield reflected, emarginate; shells smooth, black.—Found at the Cape. Shield rounded, smooth; shells immaculate.

144. Scarabæus solstitialis.—Testaceous; thorax downy; shells pale yellow, with three paler parallel lines.—It inhabits Europe, and appears later than the cockchaffer, generally about the summer solstice. It is furnished with a scutel, and is without horns; the thorax is hairy; the elytra are of a pale yellow colour, marked with three white parallel lines. It is generally met with among trees. The claws at the end of the legs have one little projection, like a tooth at their base.

145. Scarabæus candidus.—Shield rounded; body downy white.—It is an East Indian insect. The shells are marked with a snowy dot near the tip; hence its specific name.

146. Scarabæus æquinoctialis.—Downy testaceous; shield slightly reflected.—It is a native of Hungary. The body is covered with ash-coloured down; the antennæ are rufous.

147. Scarabæus pini.—Black; shield, sides of the thorax, shells, and legs, pale.—It inhabits Barbary; as does the

148. Scarabæus atriplicis.—Oblong, downy, pale; suture and the tip of the shells black; the shield is rounded and reflected; the thorax immaculate; the shells are nearly smooth; the legs are pale; the tarsi brown.

149. Scarabæus lanigerus.—Beneath woolly; head and thorax golden; the shells are of a pale yellow.—This is found in India.

150. Scarabæus longicornus.—Above smooth, black; the shells are ferruginous; the club of the antennæ elongated.—It is found at the Cape.

151. Scarabæus punctatus.—Testaceous; the shells are marked with three brown distant spots.—This is an American insect. The claws are curved, and very sharp.

152. Scarabæus sutura.—Green; suture of the shells yellowish.—It inhabits New Zealand. The edges of the thorax are a little yellowish, obtusely angled behind; the shells are smooth, substriate; breast and abdomen covered with white down; the sternum projected and pointed; the legs are green and the tarsi ferruginous.

153. Scarabæus barbatus.—Smooth, black, polished; last segment of the abdomen bearded, a little prominent.

154. Scarabæus glacialis.—This insect is smooth, pitchy; antennæ and legs testaceous.—It inhabits America.

155. Scarabæus striatus.—Smooth, brassy; shells striate, the suture and four lines are coppery.—It inhabits America. The shell has ten grooves; the body beneath and legs are black.

156. Scarabæus hirticollis.—Hairy, black; shells punctured, smooth, rufous.—It inhabits Africa. The shield of this is rounded.

157. Scarabæus ruficollis.—Smooth, punctured, ferruginous; shells testaceous.—It inhabits Coromandel.

158. Scarabæus brunneus.—Smooth; testaceous; shells striate; thorax with a dot on each side.—It inhabits Europe. The larva is soft, whitish, with testaceous head and legs.

159. Scarabæus melanocephalus.—Smooth; reddish, black; shells pale.

160. Scarabæus erythrocephalus.—Smooth, pale; head rufous, black at the base. The body is smooth and immaculate.

161. Scarabæus rufus.—Smooth, reddish; shells testaceous; shield five-toothed.—It inhabits the cape. The shield is reflected; the body beneath is marked with whitish hairs.

162. Scarabæus festivus.—Above smooth, green; dorsal line on the thorax and suture of the shells dark brown.—It inhabits New Zealand.

163. Scarabæus holysericeus.—This is a beautiful insect; the upper part is green, silky, beneath coppery; shells with four raised lines.—It inhabits the southern parts of Russia.

164. Scarabæus janthinus.—Pale violet; outer edge of the thorax, shells, abdomen, and legs, testaceous; tail violet-brown; thighs violet before.

165. Scarabæus coriarius.—Violet-brown; thorax yellow-brown; shield reflected at the tip; the shells are testaceous.

166. Scarabæus nigritus.—Smooth, black; shield reflected; shells obscurely striate.—This is an American insect. The shield is rounded, black, and immaculate; the body is black.

167. Scarabæus frischii.—This is of a brassy-black colour, and polished; the shells are testaceous.—It is a native of Germany. It varies in having the shells brassy, but sometimes blue.

168. Scarabæus vitis.—This is green, but the sides of the thorax are yellow.—It inhabits Europe and America, and is found on the vine, whence it derives its specific name. Its shells vary in colour; the thorax is edged with yellow.

169. Scarabæus errans.—Testaceous; thorax with black spots; the legs are rufous.—It is an inhabitant of this country, and is of the size of the Scarabæus horticola; it varies in having the thorax sometimes testaceous, immaculate; rarely black, with a testaceous edge; the shells are sometimes edged with black.

170. Scarabæus umbrosus.—Sub-testaceous, with grey down; the legs are testaceous.—It inhabits Guinea. The shield is rounded and entire; the edge a little reflected.

171. Scarabæus rupicola.—Downy, greenish; head black; —It is found at the Cape. The body is small, and beneath it is cinereous.

172. Scarabæus raucus.—Shield reflected; thorax and shells punctured, brassy-black.—It is a native of Coromandel. The shield is punctured, black; shells with an elevated line or two; the body is black.

173. Scarabæus splendidus.—Black; the shells are marked with an abbreviated golden band.—This is found at the Cape of Good Hope. It is a small insect; the shield is punctured, black, emarginate at the tip; the thorax is punctured, immaculate; shells punctured, with an oblong oval spot or band.

174. Scarabæus horticola.—Head and thorax blue, hairy; the shells are testaceous, and the legs black.—It is found chiefly in gardens and orchards in this country, and other parts of Europe, being extremely destructive to the roots of cabbages, and the beetle itself is equally so to the apple-tree.

175. Scarabæus abdominalis.—Head and thorax blue, hairy; shells testaceous; abdomen covered with white down. —This is chiefly found in Italy. It very much resembles the horticola.

176. Scarabæus floricola.—Black-blue, smooth; shells rufous; abdomen with fasciculate white dots; shield reflected. —It inhabits Africa.

177. Scarabæus arvicola.—Hairy; shield reflected; thorax blueish; body black.—It inhabits Russia, and resembles the horticola. The shells are black.

178. Scarabæus praticola.—Thorax a little hairy, varied with yellow and black; the shells are testaceous.—This is a native of Siberia.

179. Scarabæus fruticola.—Head and thorax covered with blue down; the shells are livid, and the shield reflected at the tip.

180. Scarabæus ruricola.—Black, silky; shells rufous, surrounded with a black edge.—It is an inhabitant of this country. The shells are dusky, with a darker edge.

181. Scarabæus atomarius.—Minutely speckled with white; thorax caniculate, black; the shells are brown; abdomen white; with lateral black dots.—It inhabits the Cape. The shells are powdered, with white specks; the abdomen is snowy, with a line of black dots on each side.

182. Scarabæus farinosus.—Black, covered with blue scales; shells abbreviated: shield entire.—Inhabits various parts of Europe. The body above is blue and polished; thorax broad; when put into hot water, the blue changes to a vivid green.

183. Scarabæus argenteus.—Black, beneath silvery, polished; shells testaceous.—This is a native of England. The shells are shorter than the body, gibbous behind; legs testaceous; the hind ones elongated.

184. Scarabæus cinctus.—Brassy-black, polished; shells brown, edged with black.—It inhabits Guadaloupe. Small; head and thorax immaculate; the legs are spinous and black.

185. Scarabæus spinipes.—Black, immaculate; hind-legs elongated, thighs one-spined at the base.—It inhabits the Cape. The shield is elevated at the tip, dusky; thorax and shells opaque; hind thighs with a strong sharp spine at the base.

186. Scarabæus dentipes.—Black; shells testaceous; shield four-toothed; hind-thighs and shanks spinous.—This is a native of the Cape. The head and thorax black, downy; the hind-thighs one-spined; the shanks are two-spined.

187. Scarabæus crassipes.—Black, spotted with white; hind-legs long and very thick.—This also is a native of the Cape, as are the next three.

188. Scarabæus gonager.—Grey; legs rufous; hind-thighs thick, and unarmed.

189. Scarabæus cancroides.—Black, minutely speckled with white; the hind-thighs long, very thick, spinous at the tip. In this the shield is widely emarginate; the thorax is a little speckled with white at the edge; abdomen white, the last segment prominent, with a broad black band.

190. Scarabæus margo.—Thorax black, edged with white; shells testaceous. The head is black, immaculate; thorax rounded; shells short; scutel cinereous; body beneath covered with white down; the legs are black, the hind ones a little elongated.

191. Scarabæus pulverulentus.—Body covered with a greenish-silvery bran; shells and legs testaceous.—This is a native of Germany.

192. Scarabæus maurus.—Hairy, black; shield reflected. —This is an inhabitant of Barbary; it is the Melolontha morio of Fabricius. The body is immaculate: shield very much reflected.

193 Scarabæus subspinosus.—Yellowish; the legs are rufous; the thorax subspinous.—This is an inhabitant of America.

194. Scarabæus minutus.—Black; shells grey; legs testaceous, hind-thighs sharply toothed.—A native of the Cape. It is a very small insect; head and thorax hairy; shells smooth, immaculate; hind-thighs with a strong recurved tooth at the base.

195. Scarabæus mutabilis.—Black, rough, with cinereous down.—It is a native of Tranquebar.

196. Scarabæus variabilis.—Blackish; shells with a cinereous gloss; the antennæ and legs testaceous.—It inhabits Germany, and some parts of America, and subsists on rotten wood. The head and thorax are black and immaculate: the shells are striate.

197. Scarabæus aranoides.—The shield of this insect is a little reflected; the body is yellowish; the shells are ferruginous, slightly barred with brown.—This is a native of the Cape.

198. Scarabæus lineatus.—This is of a dull greenish hue; the shells are marked with rufous lines.—It is found in Sierra Leone. It is small and gibbous; the mouth is marked with black; the body beneath is black, but the legs are pitchy.

199. Scarabæus monticola.—Shield entire, reflected; body smooth; testaceous; the head is black.—It is a native of New Holland. It is a very small insect.

200. Scarabæus humeralis.—Black; shells at the base, and spot in the middle, pale.—It inhabits New Holland.

201. Scarabæus ursus.—Black, covered with long and thick hair; the fore legs are testaceous.—It is found at the Cape. The shield is projecting, emarginate at the tip; the thighs are black; sometimes all the legs are black.

202. Scarabæus lynx.—Hairy, black; edge of the shells golden.—It is found at the Cape.

203. Scarabæus vulpes.—Golden, with tawny hairs; abdomen ferruginous.—This species is found in Siberia. The head is short and entire; it is golden, with a blackish edge; the abdomen is black at the base; the tip of the male is inflected, two-toothed; the legs are golden.

204. Scarabæus bombylius.—Black, with cinereous hairs; the shells are testaceous, with three whitish lines at the tip. —It inhabits Africa. The shells of this species are smooth, with three lateral lines, from the middle to the tip.

205. Scarabæus vittatus.—Blue, hairy; shells testaceous, with three whitish lines.—It inhabits India. This insect is more oblong than most others of the genus; the shield is truncate; the shells shorter than the body, with three lines composed of whitish down; the body beneath is hairy.

206. Scarabæus unicolor.—This species is entirely tawny, smooth; the shells are impressed with dots.—It inhabits India.

207. Scarabæus pellucidus.—Silky, dusky, clouded with white; shells ribbed.—This is a native of Germany.

208. Scarabæus fuscescens.—This is brownish; the scutel is

SCARABÆUS AND SCOLIA.

1. Scarabæus hercules. 2. Sca. Wolofsus. 3. Sca. Cherinæus. 4. Sca. sacer.
5. Sca. Carnifex (FEMALE) 6. Ditto (MALE) 7. Sca. Titytus. 8. Scolia flavifrons.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1827.

is marked with a double transverse line; the hind-shanks are four-toothed.—It is found at Milan, and very common in the corn-fields, and in the summer-time on trees. The body above is bay, beneath it is rough, with long red down.

209. Scarabæus sepicola.—Scutellate; head and thorax with green down; shells hairy, ciliate.—This is an Indian insect, as is the next.

210. Scarabæus syriacus.—Scutellate; head and thorax with green down; the shells are hairy.

III.—Mandible straight.

211. Scarabæus goliathus.—The goliath beetle is very remarkable both in point of size and colour; it is larger than the Hercules, and has a rose-coloured thorax, marked with longitudinal black stripes or variegations, and purple-brown wing-sheaths; the head is divided in front into two forked processes; the limbs are black and very strong.—It is a native of some parts of Africa. There is a supposed variety that sometimes occurs, in which both the thorax and wing-sheaths are of a pale yellowish-brown instead of rose-colour, and they are marked with black variegations.

212. Scarabæus bifrons.—This is of a dull brassy-colour; the shells are brown, speckled with white; the shield is projecting and bifid, the crown is hastate.—It inhabits South America.

213. Scarabæus polythemus.—Green, with white lines; the head is three-horned; the middle horn is projecting and bifid.

214. Scarabæus micans.—Green, polished; shield projecting, recurved, bifid; the fore-shanks are serrate.—It is found in divers parts of Africa. The head is carinate, with a small spine on each side between the eyes; the shield has two denticles in the middle, and two at the tip; the shells are abbreviated, pointed, and polished; the sternum is projecting, broad, and obtuse, with a fine longitudinal ferruginous line; the abdomen with an impressed point on each side the last segment.

215. Scarabæus auratus.—This species is of great beauty: it is about the size of the common garden-beetle, but of a flatter shape, and of the most brilliant, varnished, golden-green-colour, with the wing-shells varied towards the lower part, by a few slight, transverse, white streaks.—This very beautiful species is not uncommon during the hottest part of summer, frequenting plants and flowers; its larva, or caterpillar, is commonly found in the hollows of old trees, or among the loose dry soil at their roots, and sometimes in the earth of ant-hills. It remains three years before it changes to a pupa, or chrysalis, out of which the insect emerges in a short time afterwards. When touched, it emits a moisture from the tail.

216. Scarabæus æruginosus.—Gilt; above green.—This is an inhabitant of Calabria.

217. Scarabæus metallinus.—Brassy, opaque, immaculate; beneath coppery.—It inhabits Italy, and is the Cetonia metallica of Fabricius. The shell is thickened at the edge.

218. Scarabæus pubescens.—Dull, brassy; edge of the thorax and segments, and two spots on the tail, white.—It inhabits the Cape. The front is cinereous, downy; thighs above with a large white spot.

219. Scarabæus erythropus.—Black; shield projecting, sinuate at the base on each side; border of the thorax and edge of the shells cinereous.—It inhabits the Cape. Between the antennæ are frequently two cinereous dots; antennæ of three long leaves; the last segment of the abdomen prominent, with two cinereous dots.

220. Scarabæus cordatus.—Black, polished; shield heart-shaped.—This also is an inhabitant of the Cape. The antennæ are made up of three short leaves; thorax immaculate; shells hardly striate, black; fore-shanks very much toothed.

221. Scarabæus albopunctans.—Black; thorax with white spots.—Found in divers parts of Italy.

222. Scarabæus Surinamus.—Thorax lobate behind; body black, silky; shells with yellow marginal spots.—It is found, as its specific name denotes, at Surinam.

223. Scarabæus nitidus.—Thorax lobate behind; head with an incumbent spire; sternum horned.—It is found in Carolina.

224. Scarabæus lobatus.—Black, polished; thorax lobed behind; shield emarginate; sternum horned.—It inhabits America. The thorax punctured, projecting behind; shells with two raised lines meeting before the tip.

225. Scarabæus capunchinus.—Pitchy; thorax yellowish at the edge; sternum projecting.—It inhabits India. The hind-thigs are much compressed.

226. Scarabæus graculus.—This is excutellate, dull, livid; thorax and shells spotted with black.—A specimen of this is in the museum of Sir Joseph Banks. In this the shells are gibbous behind; sternum projecting and hardly horned.

227. Scarabæus cornutus.—Black, opaque, immaculate; fore-edge of the thorax slightly horned.—It is found at the Cape.

228. Scarabæus smaragdulus.—Yellowish, ferruginous; shells greenish; sternum horned.—It inhabits America. The body is yellowish; the hind-shanks are punctured.

229. Scarabæus fascicularis.—Thorax with four white lines: the shells are of a greenish hue; the abdomen bearded.—It is found in Africa.

230. Scarabæus aulicus.—Green, polished; edge of the thorax and shells with white spots.—This species is found at the Cape of Good Hope. The head is marked with two small white spots before the eyes; the shield is emarginate; shells obtuse, green, with a white spot at the base, five spots on the edges, two on the back, and one at the tip; the abdomen has four lines of white dots, the last segment prominent, with two white spots; the hind-thighs are marked with a white spot.

231. Scarabæus signatus.—Thorax black, edged with white; the shells are testaceous; the suture and edge black. —This is found at the Cape.

232. Scarabæus marginatus.—Smooth, black; thorax and shells edged with rufous.—It is a native of Guinea, as is the next. The shield is emarginate; the thorax on the fore and lateral edge rufous.

233. Scarabæus ornatus.—Smooth, dull purplish; thorax and shells with a sinuate testaceous edge.

234. Scarabæus striatus.—Smooth, black, polished; edge of the thorax testaceous, with a black spot; shield emarginate. —Inhabits Guadaloupe.

235. Scarabæus fasciatus.—This species is black; the edge of the thorax is testaceous; the shells are testaceous, with a black suture and indented band.—It inhabits Alexandria; as does the

236. Scarabæus thoracicus.—This is black; thorax ferruginous; the shells are black, with a purplish shade.

237. Scarabæus pictus.—Black; thorax with five white lines; the shells are pointed and spotted with white.—This inhabits the East. It is characterized by its black head; two lines, and an occular spot on each side, are white; the scutel is triangular, black with a white line; the last segment of the abdomen is prominent, and white with a black line; the body beneath is white, with a black line down the middle.

238. Scarabæus elatus.—Black; the thorax is marked with three white lines; shells olive, the edge is black, dotted with white.—It inhabits Guinea.

239. Scarabæus atromaculatus.—Dark brown, polished; shells with black silky spots, and a white one behind.—It inhabits Tranquebar. The shield of this insect is reflected, slightly emarginate; the shells are striate; and the abdomen is marked with lateral white dots.

240. Scarabæus elegans.—Green, highly polished; the suture of the shells and dot at the tip white.—It is a native of Coromandel. The shield is slightly reflected, with a small recumbent spine; the first segment of the abdomen is marked with a testaceous edge; the sternum is prominent, slightly recurved and obtuse.

241. Scarabæus venereus.—Coppery, polished; thorax, scutel, and shells green. It inhabits Surinam and Jamaica.

242. Scarabæus

242. Scarabæus zebra.—This is hairy, brassy-green; shells testaceous, with a brassy suture, and black stripe in the middle.—It is an African insect, of which the shield is emarginate, and the thorax downy.

243. Scarabæus iris.— Green, finely polished, with a brown shade.—It inhabits Surinam.

244. Scarabæus clavatus.—Green, coppery, polished; shells testaceous; sternum horned on the fore part.—This is a native of America.

245. Scarabæus sordens.—Brassy-black; shells with two raised lines, and spotted with white.—It inhabits Brazil.

246. Scarabæus Nitidulus.—Green-testaceous, polished; shield emarginated; shells pointed.—This is a small insect, and found in America.

247. Scarabæus Philippensis.—Brassy, polished; thorax edged and spotted with white; shells pointed, spotted with white.—This is found in several of the Philippine isles. The thorax is rounded with two white dorsal spots.

248. Scarabæus maculatus.—Brassy, polished; the thorax has a white spot on each side; the shells are marked with numerous white spots.—It is a native of Coromandel. The body beneath is copper; the breast with a large spot on each side; the abdomen is marked with four lines of white dots.

249. Scarabæus areatus.—Black, downy; shells rufous on the disk; these are gibbous behind, with a single raised line. —This species is a native of Virginia.

250. Scarabæus floralis.—Smooth, black, edges of the thorax, shells, and abdomen white.—It inhabits Africa; on composite flowers. The head is black, with two white dots between the eyes; the shield is slightly emarginate; the tail is prominent, and white; the edge of the abdomen is spotted with white.

251. Scarabæus versicolor.—Black; thorax rufous, spotted with black; shells black, spotted with white, and a large rufous one on the disk.—It is found in Egypt. The scutel is black, with a white dot at the tip; abdomen black, the edges and tail are spotted with white.

252. Scarabæus æquinoctialis.—Black: thorax edged with white; the shells are testaceous, with a white spot near the scutel and tip.

253. Scarabæus histrio.—This is testaceous; the head and two lines on the thorax, suture, and three spots on the shells, are black.

254. Scarabæus gloriosus.—Testaceous, polished, with abbreviated black lines.—It inhabits St. Domingo.

255. Scarabæus cæruleus.—Smooth, glaucous; shells striate and punctured, steel-blue, with five white spots.

256. Scarabæus metallicus.—Green gilt, beneath violet; there are four rings of the abdomen marked with a white spot.

IV.—Mandible straight, obtuse.

257. Scarabæus nobilis.—This is described by Mr. Donovan; it is of a shining green; the abdomen behind is dotted with white; the shells are rugged. The larva is found on decayed wood, and the perfect insect on umbellate flowers. The larva is grey, the legs are yellowish, and the head ferruginous.

258. Scarabæus fasciatus.—Black, clothed with yellow down; the shells with three abbreviated black bands.—It is a native of this country, and of other parts of the north of Europe, and feeds on the flowers of the syringa, and on some umbelliferous plants.

259. Scarabæus hemipterus.—This species is furnished with a scutellum; the thorax is downy, edged with two longitudinal wrinkles; the elytra are shortened.—This is a native of England. The larva is found in wood, and the perfect insect on flowers. The female is armed with a stiff short sting.

260. Scarabæus lunulatus.—This is smooth, blue; shells with two white lunules.—It inhabits Carolina. The shield is emarginate; the shells are very short.

261. Scarabæus delta.—Thorax black, with a white triangle; the shells are testaceous, with a brown spot.—It inhabits America.

262. Scarabæus fulvus.—Downy; thorax fulvous, with three black lines; the shells are testaceous, with a fulvous suture.—It is a native of the Cape. The antennæ are pitchy, with a tuft of black hair in the middle: the scutel is triangular, with a fulvous spot in the middle; the tail is fulvous; the legs are pale testaceous.

263. Scarabæus Carbonarius.—This is entirely black, hairy; the shield is narrow, grooved, bifid at the tip.—This is not an European insect.

264. Scarabæus unguiculatus.—Grey, downy; thorax brown; shield narrow, grooved, bifid at the tip, shells rufous, the edge is black and hairy; the hind-legs are long and clawed.

V.—Feelers capitate; jaw bifid.

265. Scarabæus gemmatus.—Cinereous, thorax unequal; shell striate, and marked with raised black dots.—It inhabits Senegal. The antennæ are pitchy, the first joint is hairy; the shells are marked with crenate stripes.

266. Scarabæus sabulosus.—The thorax and shells of this species are rugged; the thorax is very entire; antennæ hairy at the base.—It inhabits this country and other parts of Europe. It is to be met with on sandy hills, which are exposed to the sun-shine.

267. Scarabæus cornutus.—Thorax and shells spinous and serrate; head with two projecting arched horns.—It inhabits Ceylon.

268. Scarabæus morticinii.—Shield unequal, fringed; shells striate, convexly punctured, roughish.—It is a native of Tartary, and found under dead carcases, which have been dried in the sun. It makes a certain noise by rubbing its shells together; the body is black and opaque.

269. Scarabæus longipes.—Head and thorax black; the shells are pale testaceous, with a common black lunule; the hind-legs are very long.—It is found at the Cape of Good Hope.

VI.—Feelers cylindrical; the club of the antennæ tunicate.

270. Scarabæus cephalotes.—The body of this is roundish and black.—It inhabits the driest deserts of Europe, under ground. The body is smooth, black, sub-opaque, without wings; the thorax is convex and margined; it has no scutel; the shells are scarcely longer than the thorax; the legs are formed for digging; the mandible is falcate, toothed within.

271. Scarabæus banksii.—Body oblong, and of a grassy-green colour.—It is a native of Norfolk island. The antennæ are short, black, perforated at the tip; the head has a raised triangle in the middle; the mandible is large, recurved, truncate, emarginate, hairy and ferruginous within; the thorax is sub-punctured, the edge is deflected on each side at the angle; the shells are a little rugged, not joined; the legs are brassy; the shanks are toothed.

VII.—Feelers unequal; the fore ones sub-clavate; the hind ones filiform.

272. Scarabæus reticulatus.—Black; shells reticulate and grey.—It is a native of Madagascar. Head and thorax are black, immaculate; the abdomen is ferruginous.

273. Scarabæus uniformis.—Black, immaculate.—This, also, inhabits Madagascar.

We have now given an account of the chief species of this very extensive genus; and so great is the singularity of appearance in many kinds, that scarcely can any imagination conceive a structure of horn, or process which is not exemplified in some of the tribes.

SCARABÆUS VORAX, the Cankerworm. The last term is used in the translation of our bibles to signify a very destructive insect, of the nature of the locust, and usually mentioned as its companion. The Septuagint gives it the name βρουχος, *bruchus*, a name signifying an animal which makes a great noise, as this insect does both in eating and in flying.

flying. We generally understand, by this word, a reptile; but it certainly means no other than that sort of beetle which we call the *cockchaffer*, or *dor;* a flying insect, very remarkable for the humming noise it makes with its wings when in motion, and which, when it is found in swarms sitting upon the hedges, makes a continual noise in eating, like the sawing of wood. This creature deserves very well to be placed with the locust, as a destroyer of the fruits of the earth.

SCARABÆUS, in Conchology. See CONCHOLOGY.

SCARABÆUS, in Ichthyology, a name given by Gaza to that species of sparus, which is called by others the *cantharus*.

SCARABINE, a mountain of Scotland, in Caithnesshire.

SCA'RAMOUCH, *s.* [*scaramucchia*, Ital., *escarmouche*, Fr.] A buffoon in motley dress.—We see the daily examples of them in the Italian farces of harlequin and *scaramucha*. *Dryden*.

SCARANOS, a cape on the south coast of Sicily. Lat. 36. 33. N. long. 14. 24. E.

SCARAWAY, one of the smaller Hebrides. Lat. 57. 39. N. long. 7. 1. W.

SCARBA, a small island of the Hebrides, separated from the north end of Jura by a narrow sound. It is a rocky mountainous island, of a circular form, and a wild savage aspect, about three miles in diameter, containing about 50 inhabitants. Between those two islands is a dangerous whirlpool called Cor-y-bhrechan, from the name of a Danish prince who perished in that place. Soon after flood tide has entered the sound, the sea at this place is violently agitated. It boils, foams, and passes away in successive whirls. The commotion increases till near the fourth hour of flood, when it is most impetuous. The waves are tossed up with a great noise that may be heard at twelve miles distance. But, from the middle of the fifth, till the sixth hour of flood, and in neap-tides from the fourth to the sixth hour, the commotion gradually abates, until at length it totally subsides; and, at the approach of the lowest ebb, the same tranquillity is restored as takes place at high water. Lat. 56. 11. N. long. 5. 40. W.

SCARBOROUGH (Sir Charles), an eminent physician and mathematician, was born about the year 1616. After the usual classical education, he was admitted of Caius College, Cambridge, in 1632, and took his first degree in arts in 1636. He was then elected to a fellowship, and, commencing A. M. in 1639, he took pupils. In the mean time, intending to pursue medicine as his profession, he applied himself to all the preparatory studies necessary for that art. Mathematics constituted one of these studies: and the prosecution of this science having obtained him the acquaintance of Mr. (afterwards bishop) Seth Ward, then of Emanuel College, they mutually assisted each other in their researches. Having met with some difficulties in Mr. Oughtred's "Clavis Mathematica," which appeared to them insuperable, they made a joint visit to the author, then at his living of Aldbury, in Surrey. Mr. Oughtred treated them with great politeness, being much gratified to see these ingenious young men apply so zealously to these studies, and in a short time fully resolved all their questions. They returned to Cambridge complete masters of that excellent treatise, and were the first that read lectures upon it there. In the ensuing civil wars, Mr. Scarborough became likewise a joint sufferer with his fellow-student for the royal cause, being ejected from his fellowship at Caius. Upon this reverse of fortune, he withdrew to Oxford, and entering himself at Merton College, was incorporated A. M. of that university, 23d of June, 1646. The celebrated Dr. Harvey was then warden of that college, and being employed in writing his treatise "De Generatione Animalium," gladly accepted the assistance of Mr. Scarborough. The latter also became acquainted with Sir Christopher Wren, then a gentleman commoner of Wadham College, and engaged him to translate "Oughtred's Geometrical Dialling" into Latin, which was printed in 1649.

Upon leaving Oxford, and taking the degree of doctor of physic, Dr. Scarborough settled in the metropolis, where he practised his profession with great reputation. In the College of Physicians, of which he was a fellow, he was particularly respected as a man of uncommon talents; and, in 1658, by the special appointment of the president, he introduced, with an elegant Latin speech, the Marquis of Dorchester for his admission into the college that year. In the mean time, Dr. Scarborough began to read his highly celebrated anatomical lectures at Surgeons' Hall, which he continued for sixteen or seventeen years, and was the first who introduced geometrical and mechanical reasonings upon the muscles.

Such extraordinary merit did not escape the notice of king Charles II., who conferred on him the honour of knighthood in 1669, and at the same time appointed him his principal physician. He was nominated to the same honourable office by his majesty's brother, which he held both before and after his accession to the throne; and he also served king William in the same capacity. He was likewise appointed physician to the Tower of London, and held that office till his death, which occurred in the latter part of the reign of king William, or in the beginning of that of queen Anne. Sir Charles Scarborough was married and left a son, who was created doctor of civil law at Oxford, in August, 1702. In 1705, this gentleman printed in folio, from his father's manuscript, "An English Translation of Euclid's Elements, with excellent explanatory Notes." Sir Charles also wrote "A Treatise upon Trigonometry;" "A Compendium of Lily's Grammar;" and "An Elegy on Mr. Abraham Cowley." *Hutchinson, Biographia Medica.*

SCARBOROUGH, a market and sea-port town of England, in the North Riding of Yorkshire, a place of considerable trade, and much noted and frequented for its mineral waters and sea-bathing. It stands in the recess of a beautiful bay, on the borders of the German ocean. The situation is greatly admired, the town rising from the shore in the form of an amphitheatre, the main ocean expanding indefinitely towards the south, while the ruins of the ancient castle adorn the top of a lofty promontory on the east, and the elevated site of Oliver's Mount exhibits a noble object on the west. Along the shore the recess of the tide leaves a spacious area of smooth and firm sand, equally adapted for sea-bathing and exercise. The town is well built, and various circumstances concur to render it a charming summer's retreat. The principal streets in the upper town are spacious and well paved, with excellent flagged foot paths on each side. The houses in general have a handsome appearance, particularly those in Queen-street, Newborough, and Long-room-street. The new buildings on the cliff are very striking, and stand almost unrivalled in respect of situation, having in front a beautiful terrace, nearly 100 feet above the level of the sands, and commanding a variety of delightful prospects. As lodging-houses also, they are agreeable, healthy, commodious, and elegant. Besides these, there are many other excellent lodging-houses in different parts of the town. The gardens and public walks are agreeable; and an elegant assembly-room and a handsome theatre are open alternately in summer evenings. The rides are also varied and romantic; and the road to the beautiful sylvan scenery at Hackness, by Ayton valley, where the river Derwent gently meanders between lofty hills clothed with wood, is peculiarly interesting. Scarborough had formerly four churches, all of which, however, are now demolished, except St. Mary's, which constitutes the only church now in the town; and even of this only a small part remains, having sustained considerable injury by the effects of the sieges, during the civil wars in the reign of Charles I. A church rate has recently been levied for repairing the decayed roof this ancient edifice. The dissenting places of worship are an Independent, Baptist, and Roman Catholic chapel, a meeting-house for Quakers, and another for Methodists. Scarborough had formerly four priories and two hospitals, of the latter of which St. Thomas's still remains, and is appropriated as an asylum for aged and infirm

infirm persons. The other charitable institutions in the town are an amicable society, which clothes and educates about 70 boys and girls; a Lancasterian school, a seaman's hospital, erected in 1752, and supported by a contribution on the owners of the ships of the port; a spinning school, and several friendly societies and Sunday schools. The ruins of the ancient castle form a very picturesque object, and great ornament to the town. The promontory on which they stand rises nearly 300 feet above the level of the sea, which washes the bottom of it on the north-east and south sides. The only entrance to the castle is by the west side, which is also bold and lofty, and completely commands both the town and the bay. The area of the castle contains about fifteen acres; the first approach is through a gateway, within which are the remains of an outwork, anciently called the Barbican. Within this is a bridge thrown over a deep and broad fosse, and leading to the keep tower, a lofty square building, with an embattled parapet. The walls are 12 feet thick, and cased with square stones, within which the mortar having been applied in a fluid state, the whole has acquired the consistency almost of a solid mass. Scarborough castle was built about the year 1136, by William Le Gros, earl of Albemarle and Holderness. It was seized by Henry II., and continued ever after a royal fortress, and became the scene of many important transactions in English history. The office of governor was esteemed a great distinction, and solicited by the highest nobility and prelates. In the reign of Edward II. Piers de Gaveston sought refuge here, and was ultimately obliged to surrender to his enemies. During the civil wars in the reign of Charles I. the castle was twice besieged and taken by the parliamentary forces. In 1745 it underwent some slight repair, and a considerable quantity of military stores was at the same time deposited in it, and 100 pieces of cannon mounted on the batteries. At present there are two batteries for the protection of the town and harbour. The harbour of Scarborough is the only haven of consequence on the eastern coast, between the Humber and Tynemouth; hence it is much resorted to during the violent easterly storms which often prevail here, and has on this account proved of great benefit to the navigation. It is extensive and commodious, of easy access, and has a depth of water capable of admitting ships of large burden. Its situation, however, unfortunately exposed it to be warped up with sand; but this evil has been remedied by the erection of a new pier to the westward, which forms an agreeable promenade, and by the excavation of the sand by manual labour. The harbour is protected by a vast pier, which extends a considerable way into the sea, sweeping with a large portion of a circle. It is a work of great magnitude, and its erection was attended with peculiar difficulties. The foundation is 60 feet in breadth, the top 42 feet, and the height of the pier 40 feet. The stones used in the building were of extraordinary size; some of them weighing from 20 to 36 tons. Piers for the security of the shipping were begun here in the reign of Henry II. in 1252. In 1546, the 37th of Henry VIII. an act of parliament was passed for repairing the pier; and in the 5th of George II. the act was passed under which the pier received its great and final addition. From the advantages of its harbour, the trade of Scarborough is very considerable. The tonnage of shipping belonging to the port is estimated to amount to 30,000 tons. The exports are corn, butter, hams, bacon, and salt-fish; the imports, coals from Newcastle and Sunderland, timber, deals, hemp, flax, and iron from the Baltic; brandy and geneva from Holland, wine from Portugal, and groceries and a variety of dress articles from London. But to its celebrated mineral waters the present prosperity of Scarborough is chiefly owing, which have rendered the town a place of fashionable and general resort, both for health, pleasure, and amusement. The Spa is situated on the sea-shore, close to the southern extremity of the town. Here are two wells, the south and the north. The south well, or purging water, contains, upon analysis, 128 grains of vitriolated magnesia, 58.4 of vitriolated lime, 28 of carbonate of lime, 16 of muriated magnesia, 4 of muriated natron, 2.6 of carbonate of iron, and 98 ounces per gallon of fixed air or carbonic acid gas. The north well, a chalybeate water, contains 98 grains of vitriolated magnesia, 61.5 carbonate of lime, 54.4 vitriolated lime, 14 muriated magnesia, 3 carbonate of iron, 2.1 muriated natron, and 100 ounces per gallon of carbonic acid. The water of the south well has a gentle aperient property; that of the north well does not affect the bowels, but passes off generally by urine. The latter is hence more bracing, and is preferred in all cases of general weakness or relaxation. The Spa is under the management of a superintendant, usually called the governor. He is appointed by the corporation, and his duty is to receive subscriptions, and to preserve order. No part of the British coast affords a situation more commodious for bathing than Scarborough. The bay is spacious, and open to the sea; and the water is fine and transparent. The sand is clear, smooth, and level, and the slope of the beach towards the sea very gentle. Bathing may be performed at all times of the tide, and in almost all kinds of weather, with security and ease. In the month of August the sea is said to be several degrees colder than at Brighton. Herrings are caught off the coast here in great numbers, from the middle of August to November; also cod fish, mackerel, turbot, &c. The city of York is supplied from hence with all these fish. The drying, pickling, and sale of the cod-fish, is productive of great advantage to the inhabitants. In the town is also a manufacture of sailcloth. Scarborough was incorporated a borough by a charter in the reigns of Henry III. and Edward III. and confirmed by every succeeding monarch down to James I. Under the charter of Edward III. the town is now governed. It sends two members to Parliament, chosen by the corporate body. The corporation consists of 2 bailiffs, 2 coroners, 4 chamberlains, and a common council of 36 members. No mention of Scarborough is made in the Doomsday Book, and it is hence supposed not to have existed before the Norman conquest. Market on Thursday and Saturday. Population returns, 1712 houses, and 7067 inhabitants, besides about 500 sailors; 40 miles north-east of York, and 218 north of London. Lat. 54. 16. N. long. 0. 24. W.

SCARBOROUGH, a town and fort on the island of Tobago.

SCARBOROUGH, a post township of the United States, in Cumberland county, Maine: 110 miles, north-north-east of Boston. Population 2094.

SCARBOROUGH, a town of Upper Canada, near Lake Ontario.

SCARBOROUGH COVE, a harbour in Chebucto bay, on the coast of Nova Scotia. It is 5 or 6 furlongs broad, and nearly the same in depth.

SCARCE, *adj.* [*scarso*, Ital. *eschars*, old Fr. *scaers*, Teut. parcus, avarus. Kilian.] Parsimonious; not liberal; stingy. This is the primary meaning. *Todd.*

Looke that no man for *scarce* thee holde,
For that may grieve thee manifolde;
Reson wol that a lover be
In his yeftis more large and fre, &c. *Chaucer.*

Not plentiful; not copious; rare.—A Swede will no more sell you his hemp for less silver, because you tell him silver is *scarcer* now in England, and therefore risen one-fifth in value, than a tradesman of London will sell his commodity cheaper to the Isle of Man, because money is *scarce* there. *Locke.*—The *scarcest* of all is a Pescennius Niger on a medallion well preserved. *Addison.*

SCARCE, or SCA'RCELY, *adv.* Hardly: scantly.

When we our betters see bearing our woes,
We *scarcely* think our miseries our foes. *Shakspeare.*

With difficulty.

Slowly she sails, and *scarcely* stems the tides;
The pressing water pours within her sides. *Dryden.*

SCARCELLINO (Lo), the cognomen of a painter, whose real name was Ippolito Scarsella. He was born at

at Ferrara about the year 1560. He obtained the first rudiments of his art from his father, Sigismondo Scarsella, and afterwards went to Venice and studied Paolo Veronese principally, though he did not neglect Bassano. From thence he visited Bologna and Parma, to view the great works of the Lombard school. The improvement he derived from these careful researches, led him to great skilfulness and esteem; and he was employed, on his return to Ferrara, in painting numerous pictures for the churches and convents there. In the church of Sta. Maria Novella, there are three fine pictures, representing the Annunciation, the Visitation to St. Elizabeth, and the Assumption. One of his largest works is in the Benedictine convent in Ferrara, viz., the Miracle at Cana.

The pictures of this ingenious painter are distinguished by their fulness, freedom, and clearness: they were duly appreciated, and, as he was rapid, are numerous throughout Lombardy. He painted a few admirable portraits of eminent persons; though it was but rarely he could be prevailed upon to practise that branch of the art. He died in 1621, aged about 61.

SCARCEMENT, a term signifying the small pedestal, or off-set, left in constructing earth fences, at the basis of them. They should constantly have a good projection, so that the fence may not slip.

SCA'RCENESS, or SCA'RCITY, *s.* Smallness of quantity; not plenty; penury.

In this grave age, when comedies are few,
We crave your patronage for one that's new,
And let the *scarceness* recommend the fare. *Addison.*

Rareness; infrequency; not commonness.—Since the value of an advantage is enhanced by its *scarceness*, it is hard not to give a man leave to love that most which is most serviceable. *Collier.*

SCARCLIFF, a parish of England, in Derbyshire; 9 miles east-by-south of Chesterfield. Population 454.

SCARCROFT, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 6 miles south-west of Wetherby.

SCARD, *s.* [ȝceapb, fragmen, from ȝceapan, Sax. to separate.] For *shard*; a fragment of any brittle substance. *(Provincial.)*

SCARDONA, a small town of Austrian Dalmatia, on the river Kerka; 8 miles north of Sebenico. It was once the most thriving town of Dalmatia, and is still surrounded by a wall and two forts. It is also a bishop's see. Several Bosnian and Servian merchants are settled here. Population 1500.

To SCARE, *v. a.* [*scorare*, Ital. or the Icel. *skiar*, vitabundus, or *sky*, vitare.] To fright; to frighten; to affright; to terrify; to strike with sudden fear.

My grained ash an hundred times hath broke,
And *scar'd* the moon with splinters. *Shakspeare.*

The noise of thy cross-bow
Will *scare* the herd, and so my shoot is lost. *Shakspeare.*

One great reason why men's good purposes so often fail, is, that when they are devout, or *scared*, they then in the general resolve to live religiously. *Calamy.*

SCARE, GREAT and LITTLE, two rocks near the coast of Scotland, at the entrance into Luce bay; 6 miles east-north-east from the Mull of Galloway. Lat. 54. 44. N.

SCARE, THE, a bay on the south coast of Ireland, and county of Wexford; 5 miles east from Waterford harbour.

SCA'RECROW, *s.* An image or clapper set up to fright birds: thence any vain terror.

We must not make a *scarecrow* of the law,
Setting it up to fear the birds of prey,
And let it keep one shape, till custom make it
Their pearch, and not their terrour. *Shakspeare.*

A bird of the sea-gull kind; the black gull; common about the sea-coasts, and in the fens of Lincolnshire. *Pennant.*

SCARE-CROW, in Ornithology, the name of a bird of the larus, or sea-gull kind, and the *Sterna fissipes* of Linnæus.

SCA'REFIRE, *s.* A fright by fire; a fire breaking out so as to raise terror.—The drum and trumpet, by their several sounds, serve for many kind of advertisements; and bells serve to proclaim a *scarefire*, and in some places water-breaches. *Holder.*

SCARENA, a small town of the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont. Population 1200; 6 miles north-east of Nice.

SCARF, *s.* [*escharfe*, Fr. or from the Sax. ȝaeapȝ, vestimentum, *skarfwa.*] Any thing that hangs loose upon the shoulders or dress.

The matrons flung their gloves,
Ladies and maids their *scarfs* and handkerchiefs,
Upon him as he pass'd. *Shakspeare.*

To SCARF, *v. a.* To throw loosely on.

My sea-gown *scarft* about me, in the dark
Grop'd I to find them out. *Shakspeare.*

To dress in any loose vesture.

How like a younker, or a prodigal,
The *scarfed* bark puts from her native bay,
Hugg'd and embraced by the strumpet wind! *Shakspeare.*

[*Skarfwa*, Swed. to join together.] To piece; to unite two pieces of timber together, in a particular way, by the extremities. A term of ship-carpenters.

SCARFED, in the Sea Carpenter's Language, is the same as pieced, or fastened, or joined in, and denotes a particular method of uniting two pieces of timber together by the extremities.

SCA'RFSKIN, *s.* The cuticle; the epidermis.

SCARGILL, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 3½ miles south-west of Greta Bridge.

SCARIFF, a small island on the south-west coast of Ireland; 5 miles west from Lamb's Head.

SCARIFICA'TION, *s.* [*scarificatio*, Lat.] Incision of the skin with a lancet, or such like instrument. It is most practised in cupping. *Quincy.*—Hippocrates tells you, that, in applying of cups, the *scarification* ought to be made with crooked instruments. *Arbuthnot.*

SCARIFICA'TOR, *s.* [Fr. *scarificateur.*] One who scarifies. An instrument with which scarifications are made.

The scarificator is made in form of a box, in which are fitted ten, twelve, or sixteen lancets, all perfectly in the same plane; which being, as it were, cocked, by means of a spring, are all discharged at the same time, by pulling a kind of trigger, and driven equally within the skin. Till of late they used little sharp cutting wheels, instead of lancets.

The use of the scarificator is to evacuate the blood spread under the skin, by making a great number of apertures, or outlets, in it; which, being all struck at once, give much less pain than when struck successively.

SCA'RIFIER, *s.* One who scarifies. The instrument with which scarifications are made.

SCARIFIER, or SCARIFICATOR, an implement somewhat of the hoe kind, made use of both on lands in the state of tillage and those under grass, when intended for the latter, being somewhat differently constructed, and having frequently the names of sward-cutter or dresser applied to it.

To SCA'RIFY, *v. a.* [*scarifico*, Lat.] To let blood by incisions of the skin, commonly after the application of cupping-glasses.—You quarter foul language upon me, without knowing whether I deserve to be cupped and *scarified* at this rate. *Spectator.*

SCARIFYING MACHINE, an implement made use of for the purpose of scarifying land. See SCARIFIER.

SCARISBRICK, a township of England, in Lancashire; 5 miles north-west of Ormskirk. Population 1386.

SCARLATINA FEBRIS, or SCARLET FEVER. See PATHOLOGY.

SCARLATTI (Alessandro Il Cavaliere), born at Naples, in 1650, but studied at Rome under Carissimi. He was, however, the founder and support of the Neapolitan school of counterpoint. The first dramatic composition of this elegant, profound, and original composer, was "L'Onesta negl'

negl' Amore," 1680. This great master has many titles a durable fame, not only for his numerous operas and exquisite cantatas, which are still as much sought by the curious, as, during his life, they were by the public at large, but for establishing the fame of the Neapolitan school of counterpoint, which has since been so fertile in great musicians, among whom his admirable son, Domenico Scarlatti, and his elegant scholar, Adolfo Hasse, detto il Sassone, are distinguished by all the lovers of music, who are able to separate original genius from froth and bombast; and taste, propriety, and exquisite sensibility, from noise and Gothic barbarism. The early production of Scarlatti, was performed in the palace of Christina, queen of Sweeden, who after her abdication in 1654, had chosen Rome for the place of her residence, where she died 1688.

Of more than three thousand cantatas, which Alessandro Scarlatti composed, and of which he was himself author of the words to a great number, none have been printed, except one book mentioned by Walther, that was published at Amsterdam, under the title of "Cantate a una e due Voci;" nor of his other vocal productions, except a book of "Motetti a una, due, tre, e quattro Voci con Violini," printed likewise at Amsterdam: but these are now become more scarce than manuscripts.

There is a madrigal of the elder Scarlatti's composition for four sopranos, and a contralto for base, inserted in the second part of Padre Martini's "Saggio di Contrappunto," which surpasses in art and ingenuity all the compositions of that kind which we have seen. The expression of the words and passages of imitation are still elegant and new.

The opera of "Pyrrhus and Demetrius," performed at our lyric theatre in 1708, the first in which Nicolini sung in England, was composed by Alessandro Scarlatti; and six concertos for the church were printed in London, by Benjamin Cook, in New-street, Covent-Garden, early in the last century: but when they were composed, it is not easy to discover. They were too grave, perhaps, for secular use; but the fugues, harmony, and modulation, are very fine. He composed 109 operas, besides masses and oratorios; and it was the opinion of Hasse and Jomelli, that his compositions for the church, though but little known, were the best of his productions, and perhaps the best of the kind. He was the first who accompanied recitative with two violins and a tenor, besides the violoncello and harpsichord; but the interstitial symphonies, or ritornelli, in scenes of great interest, were first introduced by Rinaldo di Capua.

He continued writing for the stage to the last year of his life. In 1707, "Il Trionfo della Liberta," for Venice; 1712, "Ciro," for Rome; 1713, "Mitridate Eupatore," for Reggio; 1716, "Carlo Re d'Allemagna," for Naples; 1718, "Telemaco," for Rome; 1720, "Turno Aricino," for Rome; and in 1724, "Marco Attilio Regolo," for Bologna.

He died at Rome the latter end of 1725. He was appointed maestro di capella, and knighted, by Christiana, queen of Sweden. *Burney.*

SCARLATTI (Giuseppe), grandson of Alessandro Scarlatti, born at Naples in 1718, and brought up to music. He went at an early age to Vienna where he gained a great name by his composition for the theatre, as well as for the harpsichord. He died in that city in 1776. His works are distinguished by a light and pleasing style, peculiar to the Scarlatti family. He set, in 1747, "Pompeo in Armenia;" in 1752, "Adriano in Siria;" in 1754, "Ezio;" and for Venice, the same year, "L'Effetti della gran Madrec Natura;" in 1756, "De Gustibus non est disputandum;" for the same place, and in the same year, "Chitutto abbraccia nulla Stringe;" in 1757, "Il Mercato di Malmantile," which was much applauded; same year, "L'Isola disabitata," for Vienna; "Icipile;" "Narciso;" in 1759, "La Serva scaltra;" and in 1760, "La Clemenza di Tito."

SCARLE, North, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 10 miles west of Lincoln.

SCARLE, South, a small village of England, in Nottinghamshire; 8 miles north-east of Newark.

SCA'RLET, *s.* [*escarlate*, Fr. *scarlato*, Ital. *ysgarlad*, Welsh, *scharlach*, Ger.] A colour compounded of red and yellow; cloth dyed with a scarlet colour.

If we live thus tamely,
To be thus jaded by a piece of *scarlet*,
Farewell nobility. *Shakspeare.*

SCA'RLET, *adj.* Of the colour of scarlet; red tinged with yellow.

I conjure thee,
By her high forehead and her *scarlet* lip. *Shakspeare.*

SCARLET BEAN, the common name of a plant of the kidney bean kind: see Phaseolus.—Scarlet Cardinal Flower: see Lobelia.—Scarlet Convolvulus: see Ipomæa.—Scarlet Horse Chesnut: see Pavia.—Scarlet Jasmin: see Bignonia.—Scarlet Lupin: see Lathyrus.—Scarlet Lychnis: see Lychnis.—Scarlet Oak: see Quercus.—Scarlet Sparrow, in Ornithology: see Tanagra Rubra.

SCARLINO, a small town of Tuscany, in the principality of Piombino; 9 miles south of Massa.

SCA'RMAGE, or Sca'rmoge, *s.* *Skirmish;* which see. It is now pronounced by the vulgar *skirmige.*

Such cruel game my *scarmoges* disarms;
Another war, and other weapons, I
Do love, where love does give his sweet alarms. *Spenser.*

SCARN, *s.* [ꝛceapn, Sax. *skarn*, Su. Goth.] Cowdung. North. *Ray, and Grose.*

SCARNAFIGI, a small town of the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont, with 2600 inhabitants; 5 miles north-east of Saluzzo, and 6 south-west of Savigliano.

SCARN-BEE, *s.* A beetle. Northumberland. *Ray.*

SCARNING, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 2 miles west of East Dereham. Population 492.

SCARO, a small town of the island of Santorini, in the Grecian archipelago, the residence of a Catholic bishop. The Greek bishop of Scaro resides at some distance, at Pyrgo.

SCARP, in Fortification, the interior slope of the ditch of a place; that is the slope of that side of a ditch which is next to the place, and faces the champaign.

The scarp commences from the liziere, or foot of the rampart. The scarp is opposite to the counterscarp, which is the other side of the ditch.

Scarp is also a term in Heraldry, probably derived from the French *escharpe*, signifying the scarf which military commanders wear for ornament.

It is borne something like a battoon sinister; but is broader, and is continued out to the edges of the field: whereas the battoon is cut off at each end. He beareth argent a scarp azure.

SCARP, one of the smaller Hebrides, on the west coast of Scotland. It is a high conical rocky island, of which, at the diameter, the base is about 3 miles.

SCARPANTO, or Koje, the ancient Carpathos, a small island in the Mediterranean, between Candia and Rhodes. It belongs to the Turks, but is inhabited by Greek Christians. It is for the most part rocky and mountainous, but contains several good harbours, and has iron mines and quarries of marble. Lat. 35. 44. N. long. 26. 50. E.

SCARPE, a river of French Flanders, which becomes navigable at Arras, and, passing by Douay and St. Amand, discharges itself into the Scheldt.

SCARPE, a fortress in the north-east of France, situated on the river Scarpe, not far from Douay.

SCARPERIA, a small town of Tuscany, at the foot of the Appenines; 13 miles north of Florence. It has 1600 inhabitants, who manufacture knives and other small articles in iron and steel.

SCARR, a river of Scotland, in Dumfriesshire, which rises on the borders of Ayrshire, and, after a course of about 25 miles, unites with the Nith.

SCARRINGTON,

SCARRINGTON, a hamlet of England, in Nottinghamshire; 11½ miles east-by-north of Nottingham.

SCARRON (Paul), was born at Paris in 1611. His father obliged him, against his own inclination, to enter into the ecclesiastical state. At the age of 24 he visited Italy, where he freely indulged in licentious pleasures. After his return to Paris he persisted, notwithstanding the habit which he wore, in a life of dissipation, till a long and painful disease convinced him that his constitution was completely undermined. In the year 1638 he was attending the carnival at Mons, of which he was a canon. Having one day put on the dress and appearance of a savage, he was followed by a troop of boys into a morass, where he was kept so long, that the cold penetrated his debilitated limbs, which became contracted in such a manner, that he used to compare his body to the shape of a Z. Notwithstanding his loss of the use of those legs that had been accustomed to dance so gracefully, and of those hands that could formerly play the lute and paint so well, he continued gay and cheerful; and his turn for pleasantry and wit not only supported him under his calamities, but drew to him the best company of the French metropolis. The loss of his fortune by a law-suit was added to his other misfortunes, and he was under the necessity to flatter cardinal Mazarin to obtain a pension. He was also recommended to the notice of the queen, of whom he requested the title of "Valetudinarian" to her majesty: she smiled at the conceit, and he ever afterwards assumed the title of "Scarron, by the grace of God, unworthy valetudinarian to the queen." Some time after this he offended Mazarin, and lost his pension. He then attached himself to the prince of Condé, and celebrated his victories. He at length formed the resolution of marrying Mademoiselle d'Aubigné, afterwards the celebrated Madame de Maintenon, who was at that time only 16 years of age. It was then, says Voltaire, considered as a great acquisition for her to gain for a husband, a man disfigured by nature and disease, who had rendered himself impotent by excess, and who was almost destitute of fortune. On his marriage, the notary asked what dowry he would settle on his wife? he replied, "Immortality: the names of the wives of kings die with them, but the name of Scarron's wife shall live for ever." He was in one respect a true prophet, but her immortality depends on her later title of Madame de Maintenon, and not on her relationship to Scarron. After marriage, Scarron became a new man: he was more decent in his manners and conversation; and his gaiety, when tempered with moderation, was still more agreeable. But, in the mean time, he lived with so little economy, that his income was soon reduced to a small annuity, and what is called his marquisate of Quinet, by which he meant the revenue which he derived from his publications, that were printed by a person of the name of Quinet. He was accustomed to talk to his superiors with great freedom, and in a very jocular style. In a dedication to the king, he thus addressed his majesty: "I shall endeavour to persuade your majesty, that you would do yourself no injury, were you to do me a small favour; for in that case I should become gay. If I should become more gay, I should write sprightly comedies; and if I should write sprightly comedies, your majesty would be amused, and thus your money would not be lost. All this appears so evident, that I should certainly be convinced of it, if I were as great a king as I am now a poor unfortunate man." The constitution of Scarron was too much broken to admit of a long life, and he seems to have been pleased in the prospect of a release from his miseries. "My children," said he to his friends who surrounded his dying bed, "I shall never make you weep so much as I have made you laugh;" and just before he expired, he said, "I could never have thought it was so easy to make a jest of death." He died in 1660, near the age of 50. In his epitaph, made by himself, he desires, in a mixture of the comic with the pathetic, that the passengers would not awaken, by their noise, poor Scarron from the first good sleep he had ever enjoyed.

His works have been collected and published by Bruzen de la Martiniere, in 10 vols. 12mo. 1737. These are, 1. The Eneid, travestied in eight books. 2. Typhon, or the Gigantomachia. 3. Comedies. 4. A Comic Romance in prose, which is said to be the only one of his works that deserves attention. 5. Spanish novels translated into French. 6. A volume of letters. 7. Poems, consisting of songs, epistles, stanzas, odes, and epigrams. Scarron took pleasure in reading his works to his friends, as he composed them: he used to call it trying them. Segrais and another person coming to him one day, "Take a chair," he said, "and sit down, that I may examine my Comic Romance." When he saw them laugh very heartily, he said he was satisfied: "my book will be well received, since it makes persons of such delicate taste laugh." He was not disappointed in his expectations: the Romance had a great run.

SCARSDALE, a rich and fruitful track of England, in the north-east part of Derbyshire, surrounded by barren rocks and mountains.

SCARSDALE, a township of the United States, in West Chester county, New York. Population 259.

SCARTHINGWELL, a village of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles south-by-east of Tadcaster.

SCARTHO, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 2 miles south-by-west of Great Grimsby.

SCARVAY, a small island of the Hebrides, near Harris.

SCARUS, in Ichthyology, a genus of fishes of the order Thoracici, of which the Generic Character is as follows:—instead of teeth, it has strong bony processes, crenate at the edges; the gill-membrane is five-rayed, the covers are very entire; the lateral line is most branched. Gmelin has enumerated and described eight species, but Dr. Shaw has given a large number.

1. Scarus rivulatus.—The jaws of this fish are continuous, smooth, serrate, with the most minute teeth at the edges; the teeth are approximate, filiform, growing a little less from the middle of the lip. It is described by Dr. Shaw as the blueish scarus, spotted with black, and marked by longitudinal yellow undulations.—It inhabits the Red Sea, and is said to arrive at a great size: the scales are small; the dorsal and anal fin occasionally recumbent in a channel; the tail is forked; and it is supposed to feed principally on the different kinds of fuci; it is considered as an edible fish, though the spines of the rays will occasion wounds that produce a temporary inflammation. The first and last rays of the ventral fins are spinous; it has a spine before the dorsal fin.

2. Scarus stellatus.—The body of this species is oval, stellate, with contiguous nearly hexagonal spots.—It inhabits Arabia, among the banks of coral; is about six inches long; it feeds on herbs; the scales are round and small. The fish is edible. The crown is flattish, with two longitudinal obtuse ridges, converging on the fore part; the eyes are more remote, the iris yellow; the nostrils on each side are double; the lips are equal; the gill-covers scaly, striate behind; the vent is covered with the ventral fins; the lateral line is not conspicuous; the pectoral fins are obtuse, yellowish, the rest are black; the dorsal and anal are obtuse behind; the tail is two-lobed, obtuse, with yellow blotches at the side.

3. Scarus ghobban.—The tail of this fish is even; the jaws are whitish; the head is marked with patches, and the outer edges of the fins are of a greenish-blue.—It inhabits Arabia. The body is whitish; the scales have each a transverse blueish stripe in the middle, and one at the base, also with brown longitudinal streaks.

The lips are yellowish at the edge, at the base they are of a greenish-blue; the lateral line is double, one near the back, and the other commencing before this finishes, and running straight through the middle of the tail; the pectoral fins are obtuse and hyaline, the upper edge at the base only blue, the rest are of a reddish-violet: the dorsal and anal fins have a greenish-blue longitudinal stripe at the base; the tail is truncate and greenish behind.

4. Scarus ferrugineus.—This, at its name denotes, is of a rusty

rusty brown; the jaws and outer edge of the fins are green; the tail is even. The shape of this species is an oblong-oval. The jaws are bifid in the middle, thin at the edge, and in colour of a blue-green: the lateral line is double, one near the back, the other in the middle, terminating at the end of the first: the pectoral fins are of a rusty-brown; the ventral and anal violet, but the dorsal and caudal are yellowish, the latter with long lanceolate scales at the base. It is an Arabian fish.

5. Scarus sordidus.—This also is of a ferruginous brown colour, but the jaws are reddish; fins very dusky, and the tail is even. Like the last, it inhabits Arabia. The body is narrower and oblong; the jaws are cleft, a little moveable, not covered by the lips, and thin at the edge; there are two straight lateral lines, one beginning where the other ends; the central fins are violet; the dorsal brown, with nine simple rays; the anal fins have three simple rays, and the pectoral with one, which, like the caudal, are yellowish.

6. Scarus harid.—In this the tail is forked, but the base is covered with scales in the middle.—It inhabits Arabia. The body beneath is of a pale violet; the scales are large and lax. The head and throat naked; the jaws are eminent and cleft, the crenate edges in the lower sometimes enlarging into two subulate teeth; the upper lip is the longer of the two, with a sort of canine tooth on each side; the lateral line is straight, double, one near the back, beginning at the nape, and reaching to the end of the dorsal fin, the other in the middle, reaching from the middle of the side to the tail; the pectoral fins are yellowish; the dorsal and anal are of a pale violet; the tail also is lunate and violet.

7. Scarus schlosseri.—This species is of a golden colour, with five brown spots on each side; the back is brownish; the tail is nearly even.—This fish is an inhabitant of Java; the size of the Cyprinus rutilus; the body is compressed, broad, covered entirely with large scales. The head is thicker than the body, and flattish above; the eyes are large, and the iris tawny; the mouth is ascending; the lower jaw is the longer of the two; the palate is bony, rough, and the arch carinate; the tongue is flat, pointed, the tip loose, the pectoral fins are pointed: the ventral triangular, joined to the belly by a perpendicular membrane, with a lanceolate scale on each side; the dorsal fin is a little fleshy at the base, extending half way down the back.

8. Scarus viridis.—This species, as its name denotes, is of a green colour, but the lateral line is interrupted.—It is found in the Japanese seas, and is the size of a carp; the head is straight, the scales large, and each bordered with deeper green than the ground colour; the tail is slightly sublunated.

Such are the Linnæan species given by Gmelin: the following are added by other naturalists:—

9. Scarus Cretensis, or green scarus, is yellowish beneath, with very large scales, ramified lateral line, and sublunated tail. The general length of this fish is about twelve inches; the body is broad and sloping, the scales are extremely large, the lateral line is ramified on every scale over which it it passes.—It is a native of the Mediterranean, and particularly about the coast of the island of Crete, whence it derives its specific name: it is, however, found in the Indian seas.

10. Scarus croicensis, or rose-red scarus, with a silvery abdomen, is mentioned by Bloch as about ten inches long; it is shaped like a carp; the colour is of a strong red rose, with silvery abdomen; in some specimens there are two longitudinal silvery stripes on the body; the scales are large: the fins pale; the tail is slightly lunated.—It is a native of the Indian seas.

11. Scarus psittacus, or greenish scarus, marked with yellowish lines, and with the edges of the fins, abdominal band, and variegations of the head, blue. The jaws of this species are blue; the fins purple, edged with blue; the back is straighter in the outline than the abdomen; the tail rising, spotted with blue, and subfurcated; the lateral line is double and ramified; the eyes are small.—It is a native of the Arabian seas.

12. Scarus purpuratus, or the dull-green scarus, is marked with three longitudinal serrated purple bands on each side, and has a blue abdomen. It is called by Forskal the purple scarus. It is a very elegant species, and much allied in its habits to the labrus. The body is abruptly lanceolate; the purple stripes on the body are serrated at their upper edges; the pectoral fins are green, and marked at the tip by a large lunated, marginal black spot; the dorsal and anal fins are marked towards the base by a purple stripe; the ventral fins are blue; the tail is marked with longitudinal purple spots, and on each side by a purple stripe; the shape is slightly rounded; the lateral line is ramified; the scales are lax, as in the mullet.—It is a native of the Arabian seas, and was first observed by Forskal.

13. Scarus niger.—This species is ovate-oblong, and is called the blackish-brown scarus with red lips, and the margins of the fins are of a greenish-blue.—It is found in the Arabian seas.

14. Scarus trilobatus, or variegated scarus, is characterized by its very distinctly trilobate tail; the upper jaw is longer than the lower; the colours of the body are various; it has two spiny rays, and sixteen soft on the dorsal fin.—It is a native of the American seas.

15. Scarus rostratus.—Scarus with elongated jaws, though not mentioned by naturalists in general as of the scarus tribe, and though it differs from them in no other respect, except in having the jaws much elongated; the lower jaw is rather longer than the upper; the eyes are large; the head without scales; the dorsal and anal fin are rather short; the tail is very large and lunated; and near it is a transverse band of a deep colour; no lateral line could be perceived; on the dorsal fin are eight spiny rays. This fish is named by Cepede, Fleurieu, in honour of a gentleman of that name, a celebrated member of the National Institute of France.

Scarus, the name of a sea-fish, being, in the Linnæan system, a species of the labrus, (see Labrus Scarus), of which there have been several remarkable things asserted by the ancients, some with and some without any foundation; as that it ruminates, or chews the cud like our oxen, &c. This Aristotle, Pliny, Oppian, and others affirm, but none of them of their own personal knowledge; they seem to have had it by hearsay, or else, as authors often do, to have taken it from one another; for the thing is not true in fact.

It has been said also to be the only fish which feeds on herbs; and it is so far true that it does feed on them, and that few other fish do, but not that no others feed in the same manner. It has been reported, also, that this is the only fish that sleeps. Gesner would persuade us, that not only this, but many other fish, also sleep. But this does not seem to be the fact; for this race of animals have no eye-brows, nor any membrane to close and cover their eyes with, as other creatures have, to which nature has allowed sleep.

The later naturalists have described three species of this fish: Rondeletius two, the *scarus onias*, and *scarus varius;* and Bellonius one, which is different from both these, and seems to have been the very fish the ancients knew by this name.

The *scarus onias* is a sea-fish, found among rocks and near the shores. Its scales are large and very thin, and its back of a blackish-blue; its belly of a fine white, and is of an oblong and rounded shape; its teeth are broad, not pointed, and resemble those of the human jaws; its eyes also are large, and its head over the eyes of a fine strong and clear blue.

The *scarus varius* is of the shape and figure of the former, but its eyes and its belly are of a purple colour; its tail is of a fine clear and strong blue, and the rest of its body is of a greenish or blueish-black; its scales are spotted and speckled with dusky spots; its mouth is moderately large, and its teeth broad in the upper jaw, and somewhat pointed in the under: from the head to the tail, all along the ridge of the back, there runs a row of short spines, which are connected at their bottoms by a membrane; and in the middle of the belly there are several purple spots. It is a very beautiful fish. *Rondelet. de Pisc.* lib. v. cap. 3.

The *scarus Bellonii*, which differs from both these, and seem

seems to be the same fish which the ancients called by this name, is of a mixed blueish and red colour; its scales are broad and thin, and it has two transverse protuberances near the sides of the tail; its body is rounded, but not very long; its teeth are strong and obtuse, and well fitted for their office, which is the tearing off the tough sea-herbs from the rocks, and chewing them for food; its mouth is but small, and it has only one fin on the back, which is prickly; its usual size is about five or six inches in length; it is accounted a very delicate fish, but is insipid, unless eaten with the guts, and all that they contain. The liver and stomach of this fish, with its contents, are cooked up by the Greeks into a very delicate dish; the epicures among them not regarding the rest of the fish. *Bellonius, de Pisc.* p. 126.

SCA'RY, *s.* Used in some places for barren land, which has a poor or thin coat of grass upon it.

SCASATI, a town in the north-west of the kingdom of Naples, in the Terra di Lavore, with 2300 inhabitants.

SOASCAL, a village of England, in Cumberland, north-west of Ravenglass.

SCASWERTH, a village of England, in Nottinghamshire, situated near the river Idle, east of Bawtry.

SCATARELLO, in Ornithology, the name of a small bird of the genus MOTACILLA.

SCATARI, a small uninhabited island on the eastern coast of Cape Breton island. It is about 6 miles long and 2 broad. It serves as a shelter to a bay from the east and south, which lies southward of Miray bay, called Menadou, or Panadou bay. Lat. 46. 3. N. long. 59. 35. W. It was formerly called Little Cape Breton.

SCATCH, *s.* [*escache*, Fr.] A kind of horsebit for bridles. *Bailey.*

SCATCH-MOUTH, in the Manége, a bit-mouth, differing from a canon-mouth in this, that the canon is round, whereas a scatch is more upon the oval. That part of the scatch-mouth that joins the bit-mouth to the branch, is likewise different; a canon being stayed upon the branch by a fonceau, and a scatch by a chaperon, which surrounds the banquet. The effect of the scatch-mouth is somewhat greater than that of the canon-mouth, and keeps the mouth more in subjection. Snaffles are commonly scatch mouths.

SCA'TCHES, *s.* [*chasses*, Fr.] Stilts to put the feet in to walk in dirty places. *Bailey.*

SCATE, *s.* [*skidor*, Swedish; *skid*, Icel.; *schaetse*, Teut. *Scatses* was our old word: now usually written *skates*.] A kind of wooden shoe, with a steel plate underneath, on which they slide over the ice.—The nimble Dutchmen on their *scatses*, so long as the ice would bear them, did shoot down the French like ducks diving under water; so that it cost Luxemberg's army dear. *Carr.*

They sweep
On sounding *skates* a thousand different ways,
In circling poise swift as the winds. *Thomson.*

To SCATE, *v. n.* To slide on scates.

SCATE, *s.* [*squatus*, Lat. *skata*, Icel. ȝceaðba, Sax. *skade*, Dan.] A fish of the species of thornback.—The thornback and the *scate*. *Drayton.*—*Skate*, soals, oysters, lobsters. *Sir T. Herbert.*

SCA'TEBROUS, *adj.* [from *scatebræ*, Lat.] Abounding with springs. *Johnson.*

To SCATH, *v. a.* [M. Goth. *skathjan*, to hurt; Su. Goth. *skada;* Sax. ȝcaðian, ȝcæðan; Dutch, *schaeden*.] To waste; to damage; to destroy.

As when Heaven's fire
Hath *scath'd* the forest oaks, or mountain pines,
With singed top their stately growth, though bare,
Stands on the blasted heath. *Milton.*

SCATH, *s.* [ȝcaðe, Sax.] Waste; damage; mischief; depopulation. *Scath*, in Scotland, denotesspoil or damage: as, "he bears the *scath* and the scorn."

The ear that budded fair is burnt and blasted,
And all my hoped gain is turn'd to *scath*. *Spenser.*

SCA'THFUL, *adj.* Mischievous; destructive.

A bawbling vessel was he captain of,
For shallow draught, and bulk, unprizable,
With which such *scathful* grapple did he make,
That very envy, and the tongue of loss,
Cried fame and honour on him. *Shakspeare.*

SCA'THLESS, *adj.* Without harm or damage.

Then thoughten I,
That *scathelesse* ful sikerly
I might unto the welle go. *Chaucer.*

To SCA'TTER, *v. a.* [ȝcatepan, Saxon; *schatteren*, Dutch.] To throw loosely about; to sprinkle.

Teach the glad hours to *scatter*, as they fly,
Soft quiet, gentle love, and endless joy. *Prior.*

To dissipate; to disperse.

Adam by this from the cold sudden damp
Recovering, and his *scatter'd* spirits return'd. *Milton.*

To spread thinly.

Why should my muse enlarge on Lybian swains,
Their *scatter'd* cottages and ample plains? *Dryden.*

To besprinkle with something loosely spread.

Where cattle pastur'd late, now *scatter'd* lies
With carcasses and arms the ensanguin'd field. *Milton.*

To SCA'TTER, *v. n.* To be dissipated; to be dispersed.

The sun
Shakes from his noon-day throne the *scattering* clouds. *Thomson.*

SCA'TTEREDLY, *adv.* Dispersedly; separately.—Had there been any man, who could have collected and put together, in order, the several truths which were taught singly, and *scatteredly*, by philosophers of all the different sects. *Clarke.*

SCA'TTERING, *s.* Act of dispersing or distributing; that which is dispersed.—The former instances of temporal prosperity—are but (as it were) the promiscuous *scatterings* of his common providence. *South.*

SCA'TTERINGLY, *adv.* Loosely; dispersedly.—Those drops of prettiness, *scatteringly* sprinkled amongst the creatures, were designed to defecate and exalt our conceptions, not to inveigle or detain our passions. *Boyle.*

SCA'TTERLING, *s.* A vagabond; one that has no home or settled habitation. An elegant word, but disused. *Todd.*—Such losels and *scatterlings* cannot easily, by any ordinary officer, be gotten, when challenged for any such fact. *Spenser.*

SCA'TURIENT, *adj.* [*scaturiens*, Lat.] Springing as a fountain. *Johnson.*

SCATURI'GINOUS, *adj.* [from *scaturigo*, Lat.] Full of springs or fountains. *Johnson.*

SCAVAGE, SCHEVAGE, *Schewage*, or *Shewage*, in our Ancient Customs, a kind of toll, or custom, exacted by mayors, sheriffs, &c. of merchant-strangers, for wares shewed, or offered to sale, within their liberties. This custom is prohibited by stat. 19 Hen. VII. cap. 7., though the City of London still retains the benefit of it.

SCAVANT, SAVANT, a term purely French, signifying *learned*. It is little used, except in the phrase *Journal des Sçavans*, denoting a journal of the works of the learned, published monthly at Paris; being the first work of that kind, and that from which all the rest have had their rise.

Menage derives the word from the Latin *sapere*, to be wise; and, on that footing, he will have it written *savant;* others from *scire*, to know; and, for that reason, write it *sçavant*. The latter etymology and orthography are followed by the Academy; though all the ancient MSS. have it *savant*, *savoir*, &c.

SCA'VENGER, *s.* [from ȝcapan, to shave, perhaps to sweep, Sax.] A petty officer, whose province is to keep the streets clean: more commonly the labourer employed in removing filth.

Dick

Dick the *scavenger*, with equal grace,
Flirts from his cart the mud in Walpole's face. *Swift.*

SCAWBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 3 miles from Glandford Bridge. Population 658.

SCAWTHORPE, a hamlet of England, in Lincolnshire, near Gainsborough.

SCAWTON, a parish of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles west-by-south of Helmsley.

SCAZONE, in Ichthyology, a name given by Salvian and others to the fish which we call the *pricked-dog*, or *hound*. See SQUALUS.

SCEAT, among the Saxons, a small coin equal to four farthings.

SCEAUX, a village of France; 5 miles south of Paris. It has a considerable manufacture of stone-ware, and large markets of cattle and sheep for the supply of Paris. Population 1400.

SCELAZIUS, in Zoology, the name by which Dr. Hill has called a genus of animalcules with visible legs.

It is common in ditch-water, and is less quick in its motions than most other animalcules.

SCE'LERAT, *s.* [Fr.; *sceleratus*, Lat.] A villain; a wicked wretch. A word introduced unnecessarily from the French.—*Scelerats* can by no arts stifle the cries of a wounded conscience. *Cheyne.*

SCELLIERES, a petty town in the east of France, department of the Jura, on the small river Brene. Population 1200; 6 miles west of Poligny.

SCELOTYRBE [σκελοτυρβη, Gr.], in Medicine, a disease described by the ancients, and characterised principally by a contraction of the limbs; quasi *cruris perturbatio.*

There has been some difference of opinion, however, as to the nature of this contraction; some writers supposing it to be of a paralytic nature; others deeming it a convulsive affection, resembling St. Vitus's dance; and others referring it to scurvy.

SCEMI, in Botany, a name given by some authors to the carob, or sweet pipe-tree.

SCENA [Ital.], a scene in Music, is a detached portion of an opera, sung at concerts, public and private, as a cantata. It generally consists of a recitative and an air, and sometimes of two recitatives and two airs. It is, however, very inferior in plan to a cantata for concerts, which has a beginning, a middle, and an end. Whereas these unconnected scenes begin, and often end so abruptly, that they convey no more meaning to an audience than a solfeggio, or a poem would do, if sung backwards.

SCE'NARY, *s.* Properly SCE'NERY. The appearances of place or things.—He must gain a relish of the works of nature, and be conversant in the various *scenary* of a country life. *Addison.*—The representation of the place in which an action is performed.—The progress of the sound, and the *scenary* of the bordering regions, are imitated from Æn. vii. on the sounding of the horn of Alecto. *Pope.*—The disposition and consecution of the scenes of a play.—To make a more perfect model of a picture, is, in the language of poets, to draw up the *scenary* of a play. *Dryden.*

SCENE, *s.* [*scena*, Lat. σκηνη, Gr. a tent, a bower or arbour, in which sort of places public shows, and dramatic pieces, were anciently represented.] The stage; the theatre of dramatic poetry.—The general appearance of any action; the whole contexture of objects; a display; a series; a regular disposition.

Cedar and pine, and fir and branching palm,
A sylvan *scene;* and as the ranks ascend
Shade above shade, a woody theatre
Of stateliest view. *Milton.*

Say, shepherd, say, are these reflections true?
Or was it but the woman's fear that drew
This cruel *scene*, unjust to love and you? *Prior.*

Part of a play.

It shall be so my care
To have you royally appointed, as if
The *scene* you play were mine. *Shakspeare.*

So much of an act of a play as passes between the same persons in the same place.

If his characters were good,
The *scenes* entire, and freed from noise and blood,
The action great, yet circumscrib'd by time
The words not forc'd, but sliding into rhyme
He thought, in hitting these, his business done. *Dryden.*

The place represented by the stage.

The king is set from London, and the *scene*
Is now transported to Southampton. *Shakspeare.*

The hanging of the theatre adapted to the play.—The alteration of *scenes* feeds and relieves the eye, before it be full of the same object. *Bacon.*

SCE'NERY, or SCE'NARY, *s.* Landscape.—The *scenery* is beautiful: the rock broken, and covered with shrubs at the top; and afterwards spreading into one grand and simple shade. *Gilpin.*—The apparatus that represents the site of a play.

SCE'NIC, or SCE'NICAL, *adj.* [*scenicus*, Lat.; *scenique*, Fr.] Dramatic; theatrical.—They dance over a distracted comedy of love, expressing their confused affections in the *scenical* persons and habits of the four prime European nations. *B. Jonson.*

Bid *scenick* Virtue charm the rising age,
And Truth diffuse her radiance from the stage. *Dr. Johnson.*

SCENKIA, a small town of the island of Gozzo, in the Mediterranean, near Malta. It belongs to Great Britain. Population 1500.

SCENOGRAPHICAL, *adj.* [σκηνη and γραφω.] Drawn in perspective.

SCENOGRA'PHICALLY, *adv.* In perspective.—If the workman be skilled in perspective, more than one face may be represented in our diagram *scenographically. Mortimer.*

SCENO'GRAPHY, *s.* [σκηνη and γραφω; *scenographie*, Fr.] The art of perspective.—Representation in perspective.—We shall here only represent to you the ichnography, and *scenography*, of the ancient burial-places of the Egyptians, near the pyramids, out of which the mummies are brought; with a prospect of Memphis, Babylon, Caro. *Greenhill.*

SCENOPEGIA [σκηνοπηγια, formed of σκηνη, *scene, tabernacle, tent*, and πηγνυμι, *figo, I fix*], the third grand festival among the Jews, at which all their males were to attend at the national altar, more usually called *feast of tabernacles*, instituted after the people of Israel were in possession of the land of Canaan, in memory of their having dwelt under tents in the wilderness.

The scenopegia was held for seven days successively, commencing on the fifteenth of September, i. e. on the fifteenth day of the month Tisri, the first of the civil, and seventh of the ecclesiastical year. To these seven days there was also added an eighth day, which was much the most solemn; both on account of the conflux of persons, and of the extraordinary tokens they all gave of their joy. This eighth day was called the feast of ingathering, on which they were to give thanks for their whole harvest. However, the feast of tabernacles, and that of ingathering, though properly distinct are sometimes spoken of as one feast, and the name of either indifferently applied to the other.

It is of this eighth day St. John must be understood to speak, when he tells us, our Saviour was at the feast of tabernacles on the last and great day.

The rabbies inform us, that there pertained to this feast a peculiar ceremony of drawing water out of the pool of Siloam, and pouring it, mixed with wine, on the sacrifice, as it lay on the altar. This they are said to have done with such expressions of joy, that it became a common proverb, "He that never saw the rejoicing of drawing water, never saw rejoicing in all his life." To this ceremony our Saviour is supposed to refer, John, vii. 37, 38.

SCENT,

SCENT, *s.* [from *sentio*, Lat.] To discern by the senses. Our old word is *sent*.—The power of smelling; the smell.—A hunted hare treads back her mazes, crosses and confounds her former track, and uses all possible methods to divert the *scent*. *Watts*.—The object of smell; odour good or bad.

Good *scents* do purify the brain,
Awake the fancy, and the wits refine. *Davies.*

Partake
The season, prime for sweetest *scents* and airs. *Milton.*

Chace followed by the smell.—He gained the observations of innumerable ages, and travelled upon the same *scent* into Æthiopia. *Temple.*

To SCENT, *v. a.* To smell; to perceive by the nose.

So *scented* the grim feature, and upturn'd
His nostrils wide into the murky air,
Sagacious of his quarry from so far. *Milton.*

To perfume; or to imbue with odour good or bad.

Balm, from a silver box distill'd around,
Shall all bedew the roots, and *scent* the sacred ground.
Dryden.

SCENT-BAGS, in Natural History, a name given by Tyson to those peculiar pouches, or bags, which certain animals, as the civet-cat and musk animal, have for the receiving the matter of their perfume. These bags are common to more animals than is generally supposed, and in all have much the same qualities, the matter they contain being, in most of them, fetid and disagreeable, while contained in the bag, and only becoming sweet and pleasant when dried, or taken at least from the animal, and smelt in small quantities. The weasel and polecat, with us, have bags of this kind; and the famous bag or pouch of the opossum is of the nature of these, though it serves also to the other great purpose of receiving and sheltering the young in time of danger. It contains, like the rest, a tough and viscous matter, which oozes out of the glands, and is of a very offensive smell while the creature lives; but as soon as it is taken out and dried, the smell changes into a fine perfume. The gland of the *aper moschiferus*, as Tyson calls it, is of this kind, containing a glutinous humour of a very offensive smell when fresh, but when dried, becoming sweet and perfumed as musk. *Philos. Trans.* N° 239.

SCE'NTFUL, *adj.* Odorous; yielding much smell.

A maiden gathering on the plains
A *scentfull* nosegay. *Browne.*

Quick of smell.

The *scentfull* osprey by the rocke had fish'd,
And many a pretty shrimp in scallops dish'd
Some way convey'd her. *Browne*

SCE'NTLESS, *adj.* Inodorous; having no smell.

SCEPASTRA, the name of a kind of bandage for the head, described by Galen.

SCE'PTIC, *s.* [from σκεπτικος, Gr.] One who doubts; generally opprobiously applied to those who doubt the authority of revelation.

SCEPTICISM, the doctrine and opinion of the Sceptics; called also *Pyrrhonism*, from the name of its author.

The term Sceptic, in its original Greek, σκεπτικος, properly signifies *considerative*, and *inquisitive*; or a man who is ever weighing the reasons one side and the other, without ever deciding between them. It is formed from the verb σκεπτομαι, *I consider, look about, deliberate.*

The ancient scepticism consisted in doubting of every thing, in affirming nothing at all, and in keeping the judgment in suspense on every subject. Sextus Empericus makes scepticism to consist in a faculty of opposing all appearances; of making all, even contrary things, equally probable; and of proceeding, first to an εποχη, or suspense of mind, and then to entire undisturbedness or tranquillity.

Hence, these great maxims of theirs:—Ου μαλλον τουτο η εκεινο, *this is no more than that;* Παντι λογω λογος, &c., *every reason has another against it;* and Ουδεν οριζω, *I determine nothing.*

The proper character, then, of scepticism, is an ακαταληψια, *neutrality*, or such a disposition of mind as does not, upon any occasion, incline to any thing more than the contrary thing.

It is from this acatalepsia of the Sceptics, that Descartes seems to have borrowed his great principle of doubting of all things; as is owned by many of his followers. It must be confessed, indeed, that there is some difference between the doubting of the Sceptics, and that of the Cartesians. In physical matters, it is true, there does not seem a great deal of difference; and Descartes, in that respect, may, without much injustice, be deemed a Sceptic. But this may be said in his favour, that the great Socrates was so far a Sceptic himself: physical and sensible things, he held, were all dubious, and at best but probable.

The origin of scepticism is somewhat obscure. Pyrrho, who lived under Alexander the Great, and made the tour of India in his retinue, is usually reputed its author: whence the words Pyrrhonians and Sceptics are ordinarily used indifferently. See PYRRHONIANS.

SCE'PTRE, *s.* [*sceptrum*, Latin.] The ensign of royalty borne in the hand.

How, best of kings, do'st thou a *sceptre* bear!
How, best of poets, do'st thou laurel wear!
But two things rare the fates had in their store,
And gave thee both, to shew they could no more. *B. Jonson.*

The sceptre is an ensign of royalty of greater antiquity than the crown. The Greek tragic and other poets put sceptres in the hands of the most ancient kings they ever introduce.

Justin observes, that the sceptre, in its original, was an *hasta*, or spear. He adds, that in the most remote antiquity, men adored the hastæ, or sceptres, as immortal gods; and that it was upon this account that, even in his time, they still furnished the gods with sceptres. Neptune's sceptre is his trident.

Le Gendre tells us, that in the first race of the French kings, the sceptre was a golden rod, almost always of the same height with the king who bore it, and crooked at one end, like a crozier. Frequently, instead of a sceptre, kings are seen on medals with a palm in their hand.

To SCEPTRE, *v. a.* To invest with the ensign of royalty.—Thy cheeks buffeted, thy head smitten, thy hand *sceptred* with a reed. *Bp. Hall.*

SCE'PTRED, *adj.* Bearing a sceptre.

The *sceptred* heralds call
To council, in the city-gates. *Milton.*

Denoting something regal.

Sometime let gorgeous Tragedy
In *sceptred* pall come sweeping by,
Presenting Thebes, or Pelops' line,
Or the tale of Troy divine. *Milton.*

SCHAAF (Charles), a learned orientialist, born at Nuys, in the electorate of Cologne, in 1646, was the son of a major in the Hessian service. He was educated for the church, and at the request of the students in theology at that university, he was nominated, in 1677, teacher of the Oriental languages. Three years after this, he occupied a similar post at Leyden. He was afterwards appointed to the chair as Oriental professor. On the whole, he taught in that department of literature, three years at Duisburg, and fifty at Leyden. He died in 1729, at the age of 83. He was author of "Opus Aramæum, complectens Grammaticam Chaldaico-Syriacam cum Versione Latina," 8vo. 1686; "Novum Testamentum Syriacum cum Versione Latina," 4to. 1708; "Lexicon Syriacum concordantiale," 4to. 1717; "Epitome Grammatices Hebrææ," 1716. He was engaged, in the year 1711, by the curators of the university of Leyden, to draw up a catalogue of Oriental books and manuscripts in its library.

SCHABATZ, or Bogurdlen, a small town and fortress in the north of European Turkey, in Bosnia, on the Save. It was taken by the Austrians in 1788, but restored at the peace; 32 miles west of Belgrade.

SCHABIBAK, a small fort in the west of European Turkey, in Albania, in the neighbourhood of Montenegro.

SCHADIDA CALLI, in Botany, a name given by some authors to the plant, which affords the Euphorbium of the shops.

SCHÆFFERIA [so named by Jacquin, in honour of Jacob Christian Schæffer, superintendant of the church at Ratisbon; author of "Studii Botanici Methodus," 1758.—"Isagoge in Botanicam," 1759.—"Fungi," 1759.—"Botanica expeditior," 1760], in Botany, a genus of the class dioecia, order tetrandria.—Generic Character. Male—Calyx: perianth four or five-leaved; leaflets ovate, concave, spreading. Corolla: petals four, lanceolate-ovate, spreading: or, in the place of these, a four-cornered, convex nectary, in the middle of the flower. Stamina: filaments four, filiform, erect. Anthers roundish, erect. Pistil: rudiment of a germ, without style or stigma. Female—Calyx: perianth one-leafed, four or five-parted, inferior; segments obtuse, spreading. Corolla: petals four, lanceolate-ovate, concave, wider at the end, spreading, deciduous: or, in place of these, a nectary, which is a fleshy rim about the germ. Pistil: germ roundish. Styles two, very short, reflexed. Stigmas bifid, or entire compressed-headed. Pericarp: berry roundish, two-celled. Seeds solitary, hemispherical.—*Essential Character.* Male—Calyx four or five-leaved. Corolla four-petalled or none. Female—Calyx four or five-parted. Corolla four-parted or none. Berry two-celled. Seeds solitary.

1. Schæfferia completa.—This is a shrub ten feet high; in thick coppices frequently throwing out very long branches like the vine. Leaves lanceolate-ovate or ovate-roundish, acute or obtuse, quite entire, greasy to the touch, deciduous, coming out afresh after the flowers burst forth, one, two, or three from the same tubercle in alternate order. Flowers small. Berries the size of a small pea, yellowish-red.—Native of the West Indies.

2. Schæfferia lateriflora.—This is a small tree, with the trunk a fathom high or more, upright and smooth; and the branches round, smooth, ash-coloured. Leaves alternate, ovate-acuminate, membranaceous, beautifully veined. Peduncles lateral, subsessile or on very short pedicels, whitish-green. Calyx, in the male, sometimes but seldom five-leaved, white-ciliate, two smaller. Filaments four or five, longer than the calyx, villose at the base. Anthers twin, yellow, villose. Calyx, in the female, four or five-parted, ciliate. A compressed fleshy yellow rim at the base of the germ, instead of petals. Berry the size of a large peppercorn, pubescent, scarlet when ripe. It flowers in February; and was discovered in the island of Hispaniola, by Swartz.

SCHÆHHR, or Sahar, a considerable sea-port of Hadramaut, on the southern coast of Arabia, the chief trade of which consists in frankincense. The inhabitants are tolerably civilised, and give a kind reception to strangers. Lat. 14. 10. N. long. 47. 50. E.

SCHÆNICLOS, in Ornithology, the name of a bird, which, by the description of Bellonius, seems to be the same with that called by the French *alouette de mer*, the sea-lark, and by us the flint.

SCHÆRDING, a small town of Upper Austria, on the Inn; 6 miles south of Passau. It is well-built, defended by a strong castle, and contains 2000 inhabitants. On the 26th of April, 1809, it was bombarded by the French, and almost laid in ashes.

SCHÆSBURG, a district of Transylvania, in the province belonging to the Saxons, lying along the great Kockel, to the west of the district of Udvarhely. It contains 210 square miles, with about 20,000 inhabitants, of whom 14,000 are of Saxon, and the rest chiefly of Wallachian descent. Though hilly, it contains no high mountains. It is divided into the Upper and Lower circles, has good pasturage, and plantations of vines.

SCHÆSBURG, or Segesvar, a town of Transylvania, situated near the river called the Great Kockel. It is divided into the Upper and Lower town, besides the suburbs. The former stands on a hill, nearly 250 feet in height, and is fortified; the latter is built on the plain, and is open. The two together contain 6000 inhabitants, of whom above two-thirds are of Saxon descent, this being the chief place of one of the districts of the Saxon province. The inhabitants are chiefly Lutherans, and have here four churches, with a gymnasium. The principal branches of employment are the weaving of linen, and spinning of cotton. The environs produce vines and other fruit. The present town was begun in 1778; but several ruins, and a number of medals found here, shew that, if not a Roman colony, it was occupied by the Romans; 47 miles east-south-east of Clausenburg, and 120 north-east of Temesvar. Lat. 46. 10. 29. N. long. 24. 49. 18. E.

SCHAFEI (the surname of Abu Abdallah Mohammed Ben Edris), a celebrated Mohammedan doctor, was born at Gaza, A. D. 767. After visiting Bagdad and Mecca, he went to hear a famous Iman, in Egypt, where he died, in 819. He was the first of the Mohammedans who wrote on jurisprudence, and he was the author of a work entitled "Ossoul," or the fundamentals of Islamism, in which was comprised the whole Moslem law, civil and canonical. He wrote two other books on the law, entitled "Sonan" and "Mesnad," and his doctrine is regarded of such authority by the orthodox Moslems, that the famous Saladin founded a college at Cairo, in which it was forbidden to teach or profess any other. The magnificent mosque and college at Herat, in Khorasan, was appropriated to the doctors of the sect Schafei.

SCHAFFA, a small town of the Austrian states, in Moravia, with 1100 inhabitants, of whom the half are Jews; 46 miles west-south-west of Brunn.

SCHAFFHAUSEN, one the best towns in the north of Switzerland, is situated near the frontiers of Suabia, on the Rhine. It is a place of antiquity, and contains above 6000 inhabitants. Its public buildings are the large parish church of St. John, an academy with seven professors, besides other teachers, the town library, the town-hall, and the market-house. The transit trade of this place has been for many ages considerable, owing chiefly to its situation about a league above the celebrated cataract of the Rhine, which necessitates all the goods brought down the river to be landed here, and conveyed into the interior, or to where the river becomes again navigable. The manufactures of cotton, silk, and leather, are considerable for a small town, and the wine raised in the neighbourhood forms also an article of export. A wooden bridge of very ingenious construction, is here thrown across the Rhine, and forms the only channel of communication between this town and the rest of Switzerland. The bridge is 360 feet in length, and consists of two very wide arches. It was first erected in 1758, after the repeated destruction by inundations of the preceding stone bridge; and though burnt by the French troops in their retreat in 1799, has been rebuilt much in the same form as before; 25 miles west of Constance, and 50 east-by-north of Bale. Lat. 47. 42. 52. N. long. 8. 37. 21. E.

SCHAFFHAUSEN, a canton in the north of Switzerland, with an extent of 170 square miles, and a population of 32,000. It contains a number of small hills, but no mountains, except one called the Randen. The climate is temperate and healthy; the soil is various; the products are wheat, barley, and oats; also vines and other fruits; the pasturages are only local. The towns being inconsiderable, the manufactures and trade are of little account. The inhabitants are, with few exceptions, Calvinists, and partake more of the Suabian than of the Swiss character.

SCHAFFHAUSEN, Upper, a village of the west of Germany, in Baden, to the north of Freyberg. Population 1200.

SCHAFFILT,

SCHAFFILT, in Ornithology, the name of a very small owl, not larger than the thrush, called *noctua minor* by authors.

SCHAFHEIM, a small town of the west of Germany, in Hesse-Darmstadt; 17 miles east of Darmstadt, and 24 east of Frankfort. Population 1200.

SCHAFSTADT, a small town of Prussian Saxony: 10 miles west of Merseburg. Population 1300.

SCHAGEN, a small town of the Netherlands, in North Holland, containing 1500 inhabitants. Its vicinity was the scene of military operations between the French and British, in 1799.

SCHAGEN, a beautiful but small town of North Holland; 11 miles north of Alcmaar. Population 1500.

SCHAGTICOKE, Point, a township of the United States, in Rensselaer county, New York, on the east side of the Hudson; 17 miles north of Albany. Population 2492.

SCHAHARA, a mountain of Yemen, in Arabia; 12 miles north-west of Chamir.

SCHAHI, a town of Aderbijan, in Persia; 30 miles south-west of Tabreez.

SCHAIDE, a small town of Austria, in the Tyrol, circle of the Vorarlberg. Population 1200.

SCHAIDT, a small town in the north-east of France, department of the Lower Rhine, with 800 inhabitants.

SCHAKARILLA, or Schacarilla, in the Materia Medica, a name given by some authors to the medicinal bark commonly called *cortex thuris* and *cortex eleutherii. Montani, Exot.*

SHCAKEN, a large village of East Prussia, near the great maritime inlet the Curische Haff, which gives name to the district in which Konigsberg is situated. Here is the usual ferry over the Haff to Memel; 15 miles north-north east of Konigsberg.

SCHALFILK, a populous and extensive valley of the Swiss canton of the Grisons, extending eastward from Coire to Mount Strela. It is watered by the Plessour, one of the most impetuous torrents in the Rhœtian Alps.

SCHALK, a small town of Prussian Westphalia, near Cleves. Population 1200.

SCHALKEN (Godfrey), born at Dort, in 1643, was a painter, who obtained celebrity by painting scenes of candle and torch light with exceeding great neatness and delicacy of pencil. He acquired the first rudiments of the art under Van Hoogstraten, but afterwards improved himself in the school of Gerard Dow. On leaving that master, he endeavoured to enlarge his style, by imitating Rembrandt; but finding that taste above his comprehension, he pursued his former course, and persevered in the highly finished manner he had first adopted.

Though it is impossible not to admire the ingenuity with which Schalken's pictures are wrought, yet unfortunately they are not in general of a true tone, but are too red and yellow in the lights. He was led into this mistake by his mode of study. It was his custom to place the objects he took for his models in a closed room, illumined only by a candle or lamp; and looking at them through a small aperture, painted himself by day light. The contrast of the two lights naturally produced in the darkened chamber the red and yellow tones to his eye, which are not observable so distinctly at night.

The compositions of this painter are agreeable, and his well-managed *chiaro-scuro* heightens that character; and notwithstanding the defect we have observed in his colour, yet the general tones are managed with great dexterity and truth of imitation.

He passed some time in England, and painted king William, giving him a wax-candle to hold in his hand while he imitated its effect. He afterwards returned to Holland, and settled at the Hague, where he died in 1706, aged 63.

SCHALKLINGEN, a small town of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg; 8 miles west of Ulm. Population 800.

SCHALL, or Scial (John Adam), a celebrated missionary and mathematician, was born at Cologne, in the year 1591. He entered at an early age into the order of the Jesuits, and having studied at Rome, went to China, where, in 1630, he was made president of the tribunal of mathematics, and in 1644 he was raised to the dignity of mandarin by the emperor Chun-Ti. On the death of that prince, the enemies of the Christian religion took advantage of the minority of his successor, Can-Hi, to excite a severe persecution against the Jesuits. Schall was deprived of his office, imprisoned, and condemned to a cruel death; but this part of his sentence was not carried into execution. He died a natural death in August, 1666. He was the author of "Historica Narratio de Ortu et Progressu Fidei Orthdoxæ in regno Chinensi ab anno 1581, ad annum 1660, ex literis decem Adami Schall;" which was printed at Vienna, in 1665. He was author likewise of several works written in the Chinese lannuage.

SCHALMEY, a German wind-instrument, played with a reed: it is a 12th below the common clarinet. But the common clarinet is made a schalmey by the performer quitting the key under the thumb of the left hand.

The schalmey makes the lowest twelve notes of every clarinet, from E, third space in the base, to G, second line in the treble. And the treble clarinet has all the notes above that G to C in altissimo, with all the semi tones. The schalmey is probably the *shaum* mentioned in the sacred writings.

The instrument named *corno inglesi* is a tenor clarinet played with a reed. It is curved like a basset horn.

SCHAMACHI, a city of Persia, capital of the province of Shirvan. It was once large, populous, and commercial; but the city known to the early travellers under this name, is now ruined, and its remains entirely covered by thick brushwood. The present city is called New Schamachi. It is situated in a plain on the river Aksisi, about 30 miles from the Kur, and the same distance from the Caspian. It is of a quadrangular form, each side being 800 paces long, and the walls are in tolerable repair, built of unburnt brick, and surrounded with a very deep and broad ditch. Previous to its capture by Aga Mahommed, during the late civil war, it was supposed to contain 6000 inhabitants; but it was entirely destroyed by that tyrant, from whose ravages it has not recovered. Lat. 40. 27. N. long. 48. 45. E.

SCHAMANS, a denomination given in Siberia to the *Sammanes* or *Samaneans* of India. Both the people and the priests of the Schaman religion are at present illiterate; but the old Sammanes are said to have written many books in philosophy and theology. Persecuted by the Bramins, and driven by them out of India Proper, they are thought to have taken refuge in Pegu, Siam, and other countries beyond the Ganges; and it is supposed that the religion of those countries was derived from their principles. The religion of the Lamas in Thibet is also said to be a reformed Schamanism. As the followers of Budda were likewise persecuted by the Bramins, and they also fled to the other side of the Ganges, some are of opinion that he was worshipped there under the appellation of Somonocodom. But since the term for God is in the language of some of the Tartars *Kytai*, or *Gudai*, and in the Persian *Khoda*, which very much resembles our word God, Somonocodom may signify the "God of the Schamans." As to the word *Schaman*, Loubiere says it signifies a "man living in the woods," or a hermit, which is applicable enough to one who is addicted to a life of contemplation. The word *Talopoin* is said to have the same signification in the language of some of the neighbouring nations.

In the tenets and practices of the Schamans we may see a faint outline of the religion of the Hindoos. They believe in one God, the maker of all things; but they think that he pays no attention to the affairs of men, leaving the government of the world to inferior beings, to whom, therefore, all their devotions are addressed. Like the Egyptians and Hindoos, they represent the divine attributes by the figure of both the sexes. Both the celestial bodies, and all terrestial objects of considerable magnitude, are objects of worship to them, though some of them only believe that mountains, and great bodies

bodies of water, are the habitations of the gods, and not themselves animated. They have, however, a great variety of subordinate deities, whom they invoke for different purposes, viz., one for health, another for their cattle, another when they travel, another for the women, another for their children, another for their reindeer, &c. &c. &c.; thinking that particular spirits preside over, and have the care of them. But though they have goddesses, as well as gods, they do not believe that they are married. These spirits they suppose appear to their priests in the form of bears, serpents, or owls; and on this account they have a particular respect for those animals.

SCHAMBECK. See SAMBOK.

SCHAMHE, a river of West Florida, which runs into the Pensacola bay. Lat. 30. 28. N. long. 87. 12. W.

SCHAMS, or SCHAMSERTHAL, one of the principal valleys of the Grison country. It about 6 miles in length, but is narrow, and surrounded by lofty mountains. It contains 3000 inhabitants, and is highly romantic.

SCHANCK, CAPE, a cliffy head, with three rocks lying off it, on the south coast of New Holland, and the west point of the principal entrance into Western Fort. Lat. 38. 30. S. long. 144. 53. E.

SCHANCK (John), Admiral of the Blue, was born about the year 1746, went to sea early in life, and was for some time in the merchant service. In the year 1757, he served in a man-of-war, the Elizabeth, of 74 guns, commanded by Sir Hugh Palliser. This officer was appointed at this time to cruize between Cape Clear and Cape Finisterre; and when he afterwards removed to another ship, Mr. Schanck accompanied him in the capacity of master's mate. We next find Mr. Schanck in the Emerald frigate, Captain (afterwards Sir Charles) Douglas, with whom he went to the North Cape of Lapland, in order to observe the transit of Venus; an intention, however, which the prevailing gloominess of the weather prevented.

About the year 1771, our officer joined the Princess Amelia, of 80 guns, fitting for the flag of Sir George B. Rodney, who had recently been appointed to the command on the Jamaica station. In the month of June, 1776, after a laborious service of eighteen years' continuance, Mr. Schanck was promoted to the rank of lieutenant, and appointed to the Canceaux, an armed schooner, employed on the river St. Lawrence. This command he nominally retained for a considerable time; we say nominally, for almost immediately after the commencement of the war in Canada, the late Admiral Vandeput, with whom he had served as a midshipman in India, and who had conceived a just idea of his talents, recommended him as a proper person to fit out a flotilla, to act against the revolted colonists on the Lakes; in consequence of which he was appointed superintendant of the naval department of St. John's, and in the year following received a second commission, nominating him to the elevated station of senior officer of the naval department in that quarter. In fact, he might have been truly called the civil commander-in-chief, all the conjunct duties of the Admiralty and Navy Board being vested in him. The force under his direction was considerable; no less than four different flotillas, or squadrons of small vessels, being at one time subject to his direction in the civil line. His exertions and merit were so conspicuous, as to draw forth the highest encomiums from the admiral commanding on the station, particularly on account of the celerity and expedition with which he constructed a ship of above 300 tons, called the Inflexible, the presence of which on the Lakes struck with terror the American fleet. The Inflexible was originally put on the stocks at Quebec; her floors were all laid, and some timbers in; the whole, namely, the floors, keel, stem, and stern, were then taken down, and carried up the St. Lawrence to Chamblais, and thence to St. John's. Her keel was laid, for the second time, on the morning of the 2d September; and by sunset, not only the above-mentioned parts were laid and fixed, but a considerable quantity of fresh timber was, in the course of the same day, cut out, and formed into futtocks, top-timbers, beams, planks, &c. On the 30th September, being twenty-eight days from the period when the keel was laid, the Inflexible was launched; and on the evening of the 1st October she actually sailed, completely manned, victualled, and equipped for service. In ten days afterwards this vessel was engaged with the enemy; so that it may be said, without the smallest exaggeration of Lieutenant Schanck's merits, that he built, rigged, and completed a ship, which fought and beat her enemy, in less than six weeks from the commencement of her construction.

Exclusively of the armaments which he had fitted out and equipped for service on the Lakes Ontario, Erie, Huron, and Michigan, Lieutenant Schanck had the direction of four different dock-yards at the same time, situated at St. John's, Quebec, Carleton Island, and Detroit. In all these multifarious branches and divisions of public duty, his diligence and zeal were equalled only by the strict attention which he paid, on all occasions, to the economical expenditure of the public money; a rare and highly honourable example, particularly at that time of day, when peculation and plunder were charges by no means uncommon, and when the opportunities which he possessed of enriching himself, without danger of incurring complaint, or risking discovery, were perhaps unprecedented. His services on this occasion were not solely confined to the naval department. When General Burgoyne arrived from England, and placed himself at the head of a formidable army, by means of which, in co-operation with other assistance, it was expected that America would be completely subdued, Lieutenant Schanck's talents were again called into exertion. In a country so frequently intersected by creeks, rivulets, streams, and rapid rivers, the progress of troops was liable to an endless variety of obstructions. It is usual in Europe to make use of pontoons on similar occasions; but these were not always to be obtained in America, and even when procured became cumbersome and inconvenient in a forest, as they were to be carried through swamps and woods, sometimes impervious to waggons. To obviate the inconvenience to which General Burgoyne was subjected on this account, Lieutenant Schanck became not only the inventor, but the constructor of several floating bridges, by which the progress of the army was materially aided, and without which it would have been, in all probability, totally impeded much sooner than it really was. They were so constructed as to be capable of navigating themselves; and were not only equipped with masts and sails for that purpose, but, having been built at the distance of seventy miles from Crown-Point, were actually conveyed thither without difficulty, for the purpose of forming a bridge at that place. The glorious defeat of General Burgoyne's attempt at the subjugation of the colonies is well known; and it is almost unnecessary to remark, that the floating bridges, like the army destined to pass over them, were soon in the power of the enemy.

Schanck's services, however, could not but be followed by correspondent rewards; and we accordingly find him promoted, first to the rank of commander, and then to that of post-captain: the latter event occurred, Aug. 15, 1783.

It might naturally have been expected, that the interval of public tranquillity that ensued after the contest, which ended in the complete emancipation of our trans-atlantic colonies, would prove some bar, if not to the expansion, at least to the display of Captain Schanck's ingenuity and nautical abilities; this, however, was by no means the case. He invented, or, it may rather be said, he improved, a former invention of his own, relative to the construction of vessels, peculiarly adapted for navigating in shallow water. These were fitted with sliding keels, worked by mechanism.

While in America, our officer became known to Earl Percy, the late Duke of Northumberland; and it was during a conversation with that nobleman, that the idea of this new construction appears to have been first elicited. His lordship, who discovered a taste for naval architecture, amidst the devastations of civil war, and the various operations of a land army, happened one day to observe, "That if cutters were built flatter, so as to go on the surface, and not draw much water, they would sail much faster, and might still be enabled

enabled to carry as much sail, and keep up to the wind, by having their keels descend to a greater depth; and that the flat side of the keel, when presented to the water, would even make them able to spread more canvas, and hold the water better, than on a construction whereby they present only the circular surface of the body to the wave." Mr. Schanck immediately coincided in this opinion; and added, "That if this deep keel were made moveable, and to be screwed upwards into a trunk, or well, formed within the vessel, so that, on necessity, she might draw little water, all these advantages might be obtained." Accordingly, in 1774, he built a boat for Lord Percy, then at Boston; and she was found to answer all his expectations.

After many years' application, in consequence of a favourable report from the Navy Board, two vessels were at length ordered to be built at Deptford, of thirteen tons each, exactly similar in all respects, in regard to dimensions; one being formed on the old construction, and the other flat-bottomed, with three sliding keels. In 1790, a comparative trial took place, in the presence of the Commissioners of the Navy, on the river Thames, each vessel having the same quantity of sail; and although the vessel formed on the old model had lee-boards, a greater quantity of ballast, and two Thames pilots on board, yet Captain Schanck's beat her, to the complete satisfaction of all present, one half the whole distance sailed.

This experiment proved so satisfactory, that a king's cutter of 120 tons was immediately ordered to be constructed on the same plan; and Captain Schanck was requested to superintend her completion. This vessel was launched at Plymouth, in 1791, and named the Trial.

"The bottom of the vessel," says Captain Schanck, in a paper on the subject, "should be formed quite flat, and the sides made to rise perpendicularly from it, without any curvature, which would not only render her more steady, as being more opposed to the water, in rolling, but likewise more convenient for stowage, &c., while the simplicity of the form would contribute greatly to the ease and expedition with which she might be fabricated. Though diminishing the draught of water is, *ceteris paribus*, undoubtedly the the most effectual method of augmenting the velocity with which vessels go before the wind, yet as it proportionally diminishes their hold of water, it renders them extremely liable to be driven to leeward, and altogether incapable of keeping a good wind. This defect may, however, be remedied in a simple and effectual manner, by proportionally augmenting the depth of the keel, or as so large a keel would be inconvenient on many accounts, proportionally increasing their number, &c. Thus, then, it appears, that a vessel drawing eight feet water only, keels and all, may be made to keep as good a wind, or be as little liable to being driven to leeward, as the sharpest-built vessel of the same length, drawing fourteen, nay twenty, or upwards; and if a few more keels are added at the same time, that she would be little more resisted in moving the line of the keels than a vessel drawing six feet water only. These keels besides would strengthen the vessel considerably, would render her more steady, and less liable to be overset, and thereby enable her to carry more sail."

Such were the principles on which the Trial cutter was constructed. After making a number of experiments with her, all her officers certified, on the 21st February, 1791:—

"That with her three sliding keels she did tack, wear, and steer upon a wind, sail fast to windward, and hold a good wind. They also certified, that they never were in any vessel of her size or draught of water, that sailed faster, or carried a greater press of sail, or made such good weather."

She was inspected again, in 1792, by orders from the Admiralty Board; and the report, which was very favourable, stated, that she had outsailed the Resolution, Sprightly, and Nimble cutters, as well as the Salisbury, Nautilus, and Hyæna sloops.

The Cynthia sloop of war, and the Lady Nelson, were built on the same principle. The latter, although only sixty-two tons burden, and called by the sailors, in derision, "His Majesty's Tinder-box," made a voyage to New South Wales in 1800, under the command of Lieutenant Grant, and weathered some most severe storms in perfect safety.

After the commencement of hostilities with France, consequent to the French revolution, Captain Schanck's abilities were considered far too valuable to be neglected; and he was accordingly appointed to be principal agent of transports in the expedition sent to the West Indies, under the orders of Admiral Sir John Jervis, and General Sir Charles Grey. This fatiguing and important service he executed, not only with the strictest diligence, but with an attention to the national finances, uncommon, and perhaps unprecedented. He remained some time at Martinico, after the capture of that valuable island.

So conspicuous was his assiduity in the preceding service, that when the reverses of war compelled the British troops to quit Flanders, and retire into Hollaud, whither they were followed by the armies of the French Convention, Captain Schanck was appointed superintendant of all the vessels employed in the various services of conveying either troops, stores, or property, from one country to the other; and his exertions tended at least to reduce disaster within its narrowest possible limits.

The acquisition of coast gained by the enemy, and the general complexion of public affairs, causing an apprehension that an attempt might be made to invade Britain, a new and formidable system of defence was, by the orders of the Admiralty Board, projected, arranged, and completely carried into execution, under the direction of Captain Schanck. In short, the defence of the whole coast, from Portsmouth to Berwick-upon-Tweed, was confided to him; and few commands have ever been bestowed of more magnitude and importance, or requiring more extensive abilities. The objects he had to attain were infinitely more multifarious than generally fall to the lot either of a land or of a naval officer; for he was not only under the necessity of contriving and constructing a variety of rafts, and vessels of different descriptions, capable of receiving cannon, but he was also compelled to fit and adapt for the same purpose, the greater part even of the small boats which he found employed in different occupations on the coast. When even these difficulties were overcome, he had still to undergo the task of teaching the inhabitants throughout the several districts, the art of fighting and managing this heterogeneous, though highly serviceable flotilla, in case the necessity of the country should be such as to require their personal exertions. To have overcome these multiplied difficulties, would, in itself, be a matter of sufficient praise to entitle a man to the highest tribute public gratitude could bestow, were every other occasion that could call for it wanting.

In 1799, Captain Schanck was again appointed to superintend the transport service connected with the expedition to Holland; and on the formation of the Transport Board, he was nominated one of the Commissioners; a station he continued to hold with the highest credit and honour to himself, till the year 1802, when, in consequence of an ophthalmic complaint, he was under the necessity of retiring from the fatigues of public service.

On the promotion of flag-officers, which took place November 9, 1805, Commissioner Schanck was promoted to the rank of Rear-Admiral. He became a Vice-Admiral, July 31, 1810; and an Admiral of the Blue, July 19, 1821.

Admiral Schanck was one of the original members of the Society for improving Naval Architecture, set on foot by the late eccentric John Sewell, the bookseller; and some of the papers published by that Institution were the productions of this ingenious officer. He appears also to have been the inventor of gun-boats with moveable slides, for firing guns in any direction. He likewise fitted the Wolverine sloop with the inclined plane in her gun-carriages, which is justly considered as the greatest modern invention in gunnery.

On the 6th of March, 1823, Admiral Schanck died at Dawlish, in Devonshire, in the 83d year of his age.

SCHANDAU, a small town of Saxony, on the Elbe, near the Bohemian frontier. It contains 1000 inhabitants; and the environs are so mountainous, as to be called the Switzerland of Saxony; 4 miles east of Konigstein.

SCHANNIS, a small but well-built town in the north-east of Switzerland, in the canton of St. Gall, on the river Linth. It has a celebrated abbey, and is 10 miles north of Glaris.

SCHANOIRSKOI, a fortress of Kolivan, in Asiatic Russia, on the Irtysch; 48 miles east of Semipolatnoi.

SCHANTARSKIJA, three islands off the eastern coast of Asiatic Russia, in the sea of Okhotsk. Lat. 55. 15. to 55. 30. long. 138. to 139. E.

SCHAPHAN, the name of an animal declared unclean by the law of Moses; but interpreters do not agree in their explanation of this word.

SCHARA, or OSARA, a village in the Syrian desert, near the western bank of the Euphrates; 160 miles east-south-east of Aleppo.

SCHARAAZARGUNSKOI, a village of Irkoutsk, in Asiatic Russia, on the Chinese frontier; 128 miles west-south-west of Selenginsk.

SCHARANS, a large village in the Swiss canton of the Grisons, situated in the valley of Domlesch. The inhabitants are very subject to goitres. From the vicinity of this village, there is cut through the mountains into the valley of the Engadine, a road which in general is narrow, and in many places terrific to the traveller.

SCHAREDSJE, or ZAKA, an island in the Persian gulf, near the coast of Arabia, about 30 miles in circumference. Lat. 25. N. long. 54. 15. E.

SCHARFLING, a market town of Upper Austria, on the lake Atter; 10 miles west of Gmunden, and 42 west of Lintz.

SCHARHORN, a very lofty mountain of the Alps, in the Swiss canton of Uri, 10,200 feet above the level of the sea.

SCHARKARSKOI, a village of Tobolsk, in Asiatic Russia, on the Obi; 72 miles south-south-west of Beresof.

SCHARKIE, village of Siwah, in Northern Africa, near which there are some extensive ruins.

SCHARKIOI, a small town of European Turkey, in Bulgaria, east of Nissa, on the river Nissawa, with a fortress on an eminence.

SCHARNBECK, a small town of Germany, in Hanover; 10 miles north of Bremen. Population 1300.

SCHARNITZ, a mountain pass of Tyrol, on the Iser, near the frontiers of Bavaria. It was formerly fortified, and was the scene of several very obstinate actions between the French and Tyrolese, in the insurrection of 1809; 9 miles north-west of Innspruck.

SCHAR-PENY, SCHARN-PENY, or SCHORN-PENY. It appears, from our old books, that some customary tenants were obliged to pen up their cattle at night in the pounds or yard of their lord, for the benefit of their dung, or *scearn*, as the Saxons called it. In defect of this they were to pay a small compensation; which was hence called *schar-peny*.

SCHARTEN, a large village of Upper Austria; 15 miles west-south-west of Lintz.

SCHARZFELD, a village of Germany, in Hanover, at the foot of the Hartz mountains. Population 850; 15 miles south of Goslar.

SCHATTAU, or SCHATTOW, a small town of the Austrian states, in Moravia: 4 miles south-south-east of Znaym, and 35 south-west of Brunn. Population 1800.

SCHATTORF, a large village of the Swiss canton of Uri.

SCHATZK, a town in the interior of European Russia, in the government of Tambov, on the river Schata. It contains 5700 inhabitants, and has a considerable traffic in hemp and hardware from the surrounding country, and in silk imported from abroad; 96 miles north of Tambov, and 216 south-east of Moscow. Lat. 54. 26. N. long. 41. 56. E.

SCHATZLAR, a small town in the north-east of Bohemia; 75 miles east-north-east of Prague, and 8 north of Trautenau.

SCHAUENBURG, a district of the electorate of Hesse, in the north-west of Germany, situated at a distance from the rest of the elector's territories, and consisting of the south and east parts of the principality of Schauenburg-Lippe, ceded to his family in the 16th century. Its area is about 210 square miles: its population 24,000, almost all Lutherans. It is in general a level and fertile district, with very few manufactures. In its government it is independent of the other states of the electorate, having its own courts of administration and of law.

SCHAUENBURG, or SCHAUMBORG-LIPPE, a principality of the German empire, in Westphalia, bounded by Hanover, Prussian Westphalia, and the province of Schauenburg belonging to Hesse-Cassel. Its extent is above 210 square miles; its population 24,000. The soil is fertile, and adapted both to tillage and pasturages. The chief manufactures are of thread and linen. This principality was formerly much more extensive. Its ruler is a member of the Germanic confederation, and has a revenue of about 21,500*l.* sterling.

SCHAUENSTEIN, a small town of Germany, in Bavarian Franconia; 18 miles north-east of Culmbach.

SCHAUER-LEITHEN, a village of Lower Austria, in the quarter below the Wienerwald, with a rich coal mine.

SCHAVLJA, a small town of the north-west of European Russia, in the government of Wilna; 120 miles east-north-east of Konigsberg. Though the chief town of a circle, it is an inconsiderable place; and most of its inhabitants are Jews.

SCHAUMBURG, a domain in the west of Germany, in the duchy of Nassau, containing, with Holzapfel, about 40 square miles and 7000 inhabitants.

SCHAUM-EARTH. See MINERALOGY.

SCHAUT, a village of Oufa, in Asiatic Russia; 104 miles west-south-west of Oufa.

SCHAWNIK, a village in the north of Hungary, on the Hernath. Population 900; 6 miles south-south-east of Leutschau.

SCHEAT, or SEAT, in Astronomy, a fixed star of the second magnitude, in the junction of the leg with the left shoulder of Pegasus. Some call it *Scheat Alpheras*, and some *Scheat Pegasi*.

SCHEAT, or, as it is sometimes written, *Schead*, or *Sheart*, in Ichthyology, a name given by many to the jentling, a fish of the chub kind, caught in the Danube, and most of the larger rivers in Germany, and called by Gesner and Aldrovand *capito cæruleus*.

This is the *glanus* of Pliny, and the other old Roman authors, and is distinguished by Artedi by the name of the *silurus* with four beards, near the mouth. This is its character in which it differs from the lake, another fish of this kind; which, though a genuine species of *silurus* has only one beard. See SILURUS.

SCHEBSE, or SEPTZE, a small town of European Turkey, in Bosnia, with 3000 inhabitants. It has considerable ironworks.

SCHECHALLIAN, a mountain of Scotland, in Perthshire; 3673 feet above the level of the sea.

SCHECH SURE, or SURDE, a small island in the Persian gulf, with a village on the south coast, where vessels may obtain water and provisions. Lat. 26. 8. N. long. 54. 30. E.

SCHEDUAN, an island, or rather immense naked rock, in the Red Sea; 8 miles long and 5 broad, at nearly an equal distance between the coasts of Asia and Africa. Lat. 27. 35. N.

SCHE'DULE, *s.* [*schedula*, Latin; *schedule*, French. Dr. Johnson.—Formerly *cedule*, both French and English. See Cotgrave. And is pronounced, by most persons, as if still written *cedule*.]—A small scroll.—The first published *schedules* being brought to a grave knight, he read over an unsavory sentence or two, and delivered back the libel. *Hooker*.—A writing additional or appendant.

All

All ill, which all
Prophets or poets spake, and all which shall
B' annex'd in *schedules* unto this by me,
Fall on that man. *Donne.*

A little inventory.—I will give out *schedules* of my beauty: it shall be inventoried, and every particle and utensil label'd to my will. *Shakspeare.*

SCHEELIN Calcaire, in Mineralogy, a name given by Haüy to the mineral called *tungsten.*

SCHEELIN *Ferruginé*, a name given by the preceding mineralogist to *wolfram.*

SCHEEMDA, a village of the Netherlands, in the province of Groningen. Population 800; 8 miles north of Winschoten.

SCHEEPEL, in Commerce, a corn measure in Holland: the last of corn contains 27 mudden, 36 sacks, 108 scheepels, 432 vierdevats: 104,28 scheepels are equal to 10 English quarters, and each scheepel is equal to 1649 cubic inches.

SCHEER, a small town of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg. Population 900; 4 miles east-south-east of Sigmaringen.

SCHEFFEL, in Commerce, a corn measure in Germany. The scheffel, holding 2621 French cubic inches, or 3189 English ditto, is a common measure all over the country, and weighs, full of rye, about 82lbs. of Berlin weight. Sixty scheffels are equal to 89 English bushels.

Scheffel is also used for a land measure at Hamburgh. A scheffel of corn land is 166 English square perches, or 1 acre 6 perches.

SCHEFFER (John), a learned writer, was born at Strasburgh in the year 1621. He had, while he was young, made himself known by some philological writings, and at the age of 30 he went to Sweden by desire of the queen Christina, the great patroness of learning. He was appointed to the chair of eloquence and politics in the university of Upsal, in which he gave so much satisfaction, that her majesty settled upon him a good pension, which she continued after her abdication. To his other employments were added those of librarian to the university, and honorary professor of natural law; and he was likewise a distinguished member of an academy instituted for the investigation of Swedish antiquities. He died in the year 1679. Many of the works of Scheffer relate to classical antiquities, and have been published in the collections of Gronovius and Grævius. Among these may be mentioned, "De Militia Navali Veterum," 4to. In Swedish history and antiquities, he wrote "Upsalia Antiqua;" "Memorabilium Suecicæ Gentis Exemplorum Liber;" "De Antiquis verisque Regni Suecicæ Insignibus;" but the work by which he is chiefly known, is entitled "Lapponia, sive Gentis Regionisque Lapponum Descriptio accurata:" this has been translated into various languages.

SCHEFFER (Henry Theophilus), a celebrated Swedish chemist, grandson of the preceding, was born at Stockholm in 1710. Having lost his parents very early, he was taken under the protection of his uncle, and after going through a course of school education, he was sent to the academy of Upsal, where he prosecuted his studies from the year 1725 to 1733, and applied himself particularly to the mathematical sciences, under the celebrated Celsius. In 1731, he attended the college of mines, and went through a course of natural and experimental philosophy. He studied chemistry under Brandt, and established a private laboratory of his own. He visited the principal mines, and was appointed assistant to Von Svab at the gold mine discovered by that mineralogist about the year 1738. From this period he devoted his whole attention to chemical pursuits, and particularly to the art of dyeing, on which he made a great number of experiments. He drew up, and presented to the board of manufactures a long memoir on the indigenous vegetables which might be collected in Sweden for the purposes of dyeing: and gave some striking proofs that silks could be dyed with Swedish vegetable productions of a yellow colour, which would not fade in the rays of the sun. He was appointed, in the year 1740, assay-master in the royal college of mines, and in 1748, was invited to Stockholm, in order to form some establishments for dyeing. In 1756, he was ennobled, and he died in August, 1759. He was a member of the Royal Academy of Sciences at Stockholm, and furnished to its Transactions a great many papers on chemical and economical subjects; among which were, "A Treatise on chemical Analysis;" "Observations on dye-stuffs; on sal ammoniac; on ascertaining the specific gravity of tin; on potash; on coin, &c." The chemical lectures of this author, which were highly esteemed in their day, were published by Bergmann in the year 1776. *Gen. Biog.*

SCHEFFLERA [so named by Forster, in honour of Scheffler, physician and botanist at Dantzic, who inserted many new plants in Reyger's "Flora Gedanensis,"], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order decagynia.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth very small, five-toothed, superior, permanent; segment awl-shaped. Corolla: petals five, oblong. Stamina: filaments five, filiform, scarcely longer than the petals. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germ globular-depressed, inferior. Styles eight or ten, round, short, permanent. Stigmas simple. Pericarp: capsule globular-depressed, eight or ten-celled. Seeds solitary, semicircular, compressed.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-toothed. Corolla five-petalled. Capsule eight or ten-celled. Seeds solitary, semicircular.

SCHEIBEN (Adolphus), chapel-master to the king of Denmark, who, in 1737, began a periodical work called Der Critische Musikus, or the *Critical Musician*, which he continued to the year 1741. This work, which was collected into one thick volume in octavo, 1745, and printed at Leipsic, contains much musical criticism, as well as many characters and anecdotes of the great musicians who had then distinguished themselves throughout Europe.

SCHEIBENBERG, a small town of Saxony; 18 miles south of Chemnitz, with 1200 inhabitants. To the north of the town is a steep mountain, with basalt columns.

SCHEIBS, a large village of Lower Austria, on the east bank of the Erlaf; 23 miles west-south-west of St. Polten.

SCHEICH ALI, the name of a station in Arabia, where the caravans stop on the way from Egypt to Mecca; 12 miles west of Akaba.

SCHEICH ZAIAR, a pretty large village of Upper Egypt, on the western bank of the Nile; 15 miles south of Bebe.

SCHEIDE, a large village of Saxony, in the circle of the Erzgebirge, near Markersbach.

SCHEIDEGG, a great mountain of Switzerland, between the lake of Brienz and the Wetterhorn. Its elevation above the sea does not exceed 4700 feet; but the view from its top is extremely magnificent, comprehending a number of glaciers, mountains, streams, and lakes.

SCHEIDINGEN, a village of Prussian Westphalia, near Werl, remarkable only for an action fought here between the French and Hanoverians, in 1761.

SCHEIDT (Christian Lewis), known by the name of Scheidius, member of the Academy of Sciences at Gottingen, was born in 1709. He studied at the university of Altdorf, where he applied, with great diligence, to jurisprudence and history, which he pursued still farther at Strasburgh. After this he engaged as private tutor to some persons, and travelled through different countries on the continent. In 1737, at the dedication of the new university of Gottingen, he obtained the degree of doctor of laws; and in the following year he was appointed extraordinary professor of jurisprudence. In 1739, he was appointed professor in the university of Copenhagen. After this he was made professor of the laws of nature and nations, and in 1743 was nominated a counsellor of justice. He was now appointed by Christian IV. preceptor to the crown-prince. In 1748, he was recalled to Hanover, to fill the place of Gruber, who had been historian and librarian to the house of Hanover, and immediately

diately upon entering on his office, he set about rescuing from oblivion the useful works of his predecessors, Leibnitz, Eccard, and Gruber. In 1749, he published Leibnitz's Dissertation on the primitive State of the Earth; and in the following year that of Eccard, on the oldest History of the Germans. To these, and to the "Origines Guelphicæ," which he published about the same time, he prefixed long and learned prefaces, and he also took the opportunity of bringing forwards many original documents never before printed. Besides his occupations in the royal library, he carried on an extensive correspondence, and was consulted by almost all the German literati who were employed on historical works. In 1755, Scheidt removed to Gottingen, where he was involved in much trouble, owing to the infidelity of his wife. He died in 1761. His works were numerous, among which the following, as the most interesting, may be mentioned: "Schediasma, ex jure publico Danico, de regii Vandalorum tituli Origine et Causa;" "Juris publici et privati Convenientiæ et Differentiæ Principes;" "Tractatio Generalis de ratione Belli, seu, ut à Gallis dici solet, Raison de Guerre." *Gen. Biog.*

SCHEIFLING, a large village of the Austrian states, in Styria, on the Muhr; 10 miles west of Judenburg.

SCHEIK, a name given by the Turks to the prelates of the Mahometan religion, who pretend to be the legitimate successors of Mahomet. Their chief resides at Mecca.

SCHEINER (Christopher), a German mathematician and astronomer, was born at Wald, near Mindelheim, in Swabia. He entered, when he was twenty years old, into the order of the Jesuits, and became teacher of the mathematics and the Hebrew language at Ingoldstadt, Friburg, Brisac, and Rome. He afterwards was appointed rector of the Jesuits' college at Neiss, in Silesia, and confessor to the Archduke Charles. He died at Neiss, in the year 1650. He is thought to have been the first who observed the spots in the sun, but this fact has been disputed by Galileo, Harriot, and some other persons. Harriot claims for himself the precedence by a year: Galileo maintains that he had seen them before Scheiner. There is, however, apparently, no doubt that Scheiner first made them known to the public, and he contributed, in no small degree, by his assiduity, to establish the theory of their motion, from which he inferred that the sun turned about its axis once in a certain number of days. Scheiner afterwards continued his observations on the solar phenomena at Rome with the utmost diligence, making drawings of them, descriptive of their places, figures, magnitudes, revolutions, and periods, so that Riccioli declared there was little reason to hope for any better observations on these spots. The result of these observations was published in a work dedicated to one of the Orsini family, and thence entitled "Rosa Ursina, sive Sol, ex admirando Facularum et Macularum suarum Phænomeno varius," &c. Almost every page of this curious work is ornamented with an image of the sun, on which the different positions of the spots are represented. Scheiner likewise wrote works on optics, and other mathematical and philosophical subjects, among which are, 1. "Oculus, sive Fundamentum Opticum;" 2. "Pantographice, sive ars nova delineandi res quaslibet per Parallelogrammum lineare:" this last is a treatise on the pantograph, an instsument employed for reducing or enlarging figures.

SCHEINFELD, or Market-Scheinfeld, a small town of Bavarian Franconia. Population 1100; 25 miles north-by-west of Anspach, and 26 east-south-east of Wurzburg.

SCHEKSNA, a navigable river of Russia, which flows from the lake Bielo, and runs into the Wolga, opposite Ribnoi, in the government of Jaroslav.

SCHELDAR, the name of a silver coin, current in Denmark, and some parts of Germany.

SCHELDT, or Schelde (in French *Escaut*), a large river of the Netherlands, which rises in the French department of the Aisne, and flows in a northerly direction past Cambray, Bouchain, and Denain, to Valenciennes, where it becomes navigable. From Valenciennes it directs its course to Conde and Tournay, inclining to the north-east, after which it flows nearly north, passes Oudenarde, and reaches Ghent, where it is joined by the Lys. From Ghent it winds its course to Antwerp; and being now swelled into a wide river by the tide, becomes divided into the two branches of East and West Scheldt, both of which discharge themselves into the German ocean. The Scheldt, like the Thames, is of a slow current, and of a small body of fresh water, but in the lower part of its course, of great importance to navigation, from the influx of the tide. The Dutch, to increase the commerce of Amsterdam, kept it long blocked by two forts on opposite sides of the river. It has been free only since 1795. The number of merchant vessels that entered it in 1815, was 1000, of which 500 were British. The whole length of its course is about 200 miles.

SCHELEBY, or Zeleby, a village on the Euphrates, on the borders of the Syrian desert.

SCHELEISENKE, a small town of Austrian Illyria, in Upper Carniola, with a large manufacture of nails.

SCHELESTADT, or Schlettstadt, a town in the east of France, department of the Lower Rhine, situated on a canal that communicates with the Ille. It is covered on one side by marshes, which prevent all access; and on the other it is strongly fortified. It has manufactures of tobacco, caps, stockings, saltpetre, potash, soap, and earthen-ware, each on a small scale. The art of glazing earthen-ware is said to have been invented here; for this place formed a town so early as the time of Charlemagne. It was confirmed to France at the peace of Westphalia, in 1648. Population 7500; 25 miles south-west of Strasburg.

SCHELESTON, a village of Farsistan, in Persia; 66 miles west-north-west of Shiras.

SCHELETAU, or Zeletawa, a small town of the Austrian states, in Moravia; 15 miles south-south-east of Iglau, and 39 west of Brunn. Population 900.

SCHELKEN, or Selyk, Great and Little, two small towns of Transylvania, in the district of Mediasch. The latter is 8 miles north-north-west of Hermannstadt.

SCHELKLIGEN, a small town in the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg; 3 miles south-south-west of Blaubeuren, and 37 south-east of Stutgard. Population 800.

SCHELLENBERG, a military position in Bavaria, near Donawert, consisting of a fortified hill to the right of the great road leading to Donawert. It is famous for the defeat of a corps of Bavarians and French strongly intrenched on it, by the British and imperialists, under the duke of Marlborough, after a sanguinary conflict on 2d July, 1704. The loss of the victors was 5000; that of the vanquished, including deserters, about 7000.

SCHELLENBERG, a small town of the south of Bavaria; 2 miles north of Berchtolsgaden. Population 1800.

SCHELLENBERG, sometimes called Augustenberg, a small town of Saxony; 6 miles east of Chemnitz, with 800 inhabitants. Near it is the old palace of Augustusburg, now the residence of a provincial magistrate.

SCHELLEY, a village of England, in Sussex; 3½ miles north-east of Horsham.

SCHELLGADEN, a small town of the Austrian states, province of Salzburg, in the district called the Lungau. It has a mine of gold, and another of arsenic, each on a small scale; 52 miles south-by-east of Salzburg.

SCHELLIN, a petty town in the west of Hungary, on the Waag, taken by the insurgents in 1703, but retaken by the Austrian troops the following year; 22 miles north of Comorn.

SCHELLING, or Terschelling, a small island in the north of the Netherlands, situated between the islands of Ameland and Vlieland; about 9 miles from the coast of Friesland. It is about 15 miles long and 3 broad; and contains nearly 2300 inhabitants. In 1799 it was taken by the British.

SCHELLSBURG, a post township of the United States, in Bedford county, Pennsylvania.

SCHELSTRAATE (Emanuel), a zealous advocate for the authority

authority of the see of Rome, was born at Antwerp in the year 1649. He became a canon of his native city, and in 1678, he made himself known by a Latin treatise on the antiquities of the church. In 1681, he published a dissertation on the council of Antioch, held under pope Julius I. in 341. His reputation was now very considerable, and he was invited to Rome by pope Innocent XI., and by him appointed keeper of the Vatican library. He was employed by the pope on the following occasion:—The general assembly of the French clergy, in 1682, drew up four famous articles, containing an explicit declaration of the doctrine of the Gallican church, respecting the temporal and spiritual power. In the second of these, it declared its inviolable attachment to certain decrees of the council of Constance, in which the superiority of general councils to any other spiritual power on earth is positively established. Schelstraate, thinking that he had found in the Vatican manuscripts that which proved that one of these decrees had been corrupted by the fathers of the council of Basil, printed in 1683, at the pope's desire, a work, entitled "Acta Constantinensis Concilii ad expositionem decretorum ejus Sessionum IV. et V. facientia, nunc primum ex codicibus Manuscriptis in lucem eruta et Dissertatione illustrata." For this he was rewarded, in 1687, by a canonry of St. Peter's, and another of St. John of Lateran. In the same year he published a treatise on the patriarchal and metropolitan authority. His great work was entitled "Antiquitates Ecclesiæ illustratæ," of which he printed the first volume at Rome in 1690. During the printing of the second, in 1692, the author died.

SCHE'MATISM, *s.* [σχηματισμος, Gr.] Combination of the aspects of heavenly bodies. Particular form or disposition of a thing.—Every particle of matter, whatever form or *schematism* it puts on, must in all conditions be equally extended, and therefore take up the same room. *Creech.*

SCHE'MATIST, *s.* A projector; one given to forming schemes.—The noisy importunities of unexperienced, raw, newfangled *schematists* and speculators. *Fleetwood.*

SCHEME, *s.* [σχημα, Gr.] A plan; a combination of various things into one view, design, or purpose; a system.—Were our senses made much quicker, the appearance and outward *scheme* of things would have quite another face to us, and be inconsistent with our well-being. *Locke.*—A project; a contrivance; a design.

He forms the well concerted *scheme* of mischief,
'Tis fix'd, 'tis done, and both are doom'd to death. *Rowe.*

A representation of the aspects of the celestial bodies; any lineal or mathematical diagram.

It is a *scheme* and face of heaven,
As th' aspects are dispos'd this even. *Hudibras.*

SCHEME, or SCHEMA, σχημα, in the Ancient Music, is used for the varieties arising from the different positions of tones and semitones in a consonance. See also SCHEMA.

To SCHEME, *v. a.* To plan.—That wickedness which *schemed*, and executed, his destruction. *Stuart.*

To SCHEME, *v. n.* To contrive: to form or design. *Johnson.*

SCHE'MER, *s.* A projector; a contriver.

SCHE'MIST, *s.* A projector; a schematist.—One cannot enough wonder at the extreme folly of all such *schemists* as pretend to account for things upon principles of mechanism. *Coventry.*

SCHEMMERBERG, a large village of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, on the Riess; 3 miles north of Hohenberg. Population 1300.

SCHEMNITZ, or SELMECZ-BANJA, a large mining town in the north-west of Hungary. It stands in the midst of the most picturesque scenery, a few miles from the Raab, and contains a number of good houses and tolerably wide streets, though irregularly built, on account of the unevenness of the surface. It contains, including the suburb of Bela-Banja, about 23,000 inhabitants, of whom 12,000 are employed in or abou tthe mines. The mines of Schemnitz are the most extensive in Hungary, and are hardly surpassed by any in Europe. The extent of ground containing the ores is calculated at five or six miles square, and includes the town, which is undermined. The works are now at a great depth, the old tunnel for drawing off the water being nearly 1100 feet below the surface, and the new tunnel being still lower. The quantity of water in mines of such depth is very great, and the machinery for raising it by pumps to the height of the tunnels is simple and ingenious. Indeed the whole of the establishment displays more combination and arrangement than might be expected in a backward country. The rocks are composed of clay-porphyry, and the metallic ore is found imbedded in veins of rocks differing from the rest, and consisting chiefly in feldt-spar. The chief metals are gold, silver, and lead, combined with copper and arsenic. Those ores, which contain a small quantity of silver, are smelted here, after which the silver is sent to Kremnitz. Those which contain a larger quantity are sent at once to the smelting works at that place. The whole of the mining of Schemnitz is the property of government; but any individual may open a mine, on condition of disposing of the ore to government at a fixed price. The quantity wrought was considerably reduced during the wars of the French revolution, on account of pecuniary embarrassments. Schemnitz is a favourable situation for a mining-school, and there has been here one of celebrity since the middle of the 18th century. The course occupies three years; the branches taught are mechanics, mathematics, mineralogy, and drawing of plans and maps; also the care of forests and the conversion of timber. Of the students, in number from 200 to 300, a part are generally foreigners. A fund for experiments is allowed by government; 46 miles north of Gran, and 83 east-by-north of Presburg. Lat. 48. 47. 45. N. long. 18. 54. 5. E.

SCHENCK (John), commonly called Schenck of Graffenburg, was born at Friburg, in June, 1531. He received the degree of doctor of physic at Tubingen in the year 1554, and soon after obtained a public appointment as physician to his native town, where he lived with great reputation to the age of 67, and died on the 12th of November, 1598. He is principally known at present by a large collection of cases of rare and extraordinary diseases, which he compiled partly from books, partly from the communications of his friends and contemporaries, and partly from his own experience. From the period at which he lived, it will scarcely be expected that his collection should be void of a good deal of the marvellous, or that he should not exhibit many proofs of credulity, and of want of discrimination as to the authorities which he quotes. Nevertheless this collection still remains a monument of extraordinary industry and research, and a repository of much curious matter. The author published the work in seven successive volumes, between the years 1584 and 1597; the first at Basle, and the others at Friburg; some of them in octavo, and some in quarto. But they were collected together after his death by his son, John George Schenck, and published under the title of "Observationum Medicarum, rararum, novarum, admirabilium, et monstrosarum volumen, tomes septem de toto homine institutum;" Franc. 1600. The work has passed through several subsequent editions. See Eloy Dict. Hist. de la Méd.

SCHENECTADY, a county of the United States, in New York, on the Mohawk, bounded north-west by Montgomery county, north-east by Saratoga county, south by Albany county, and south-west by Schoharie county. Population 10,201.

SCHENECTADY, a city of the United States, a post township, and capital of Schenectady county, New York, on the Mohawk; 15 miles north-west of Albany. The city is situated on the south-east side of the Mohawk, on a handsome plain; it is regularly laid out, and contains a court-house, a jail, a bank, a college, an academy for young ladies, and four churches; one for Presbyterians, one for Dutch Reformed, one for Episcopalians, and one for Methodists, and had, in 1812, about 500 houses. A weekly newspaper is published here. An elegant bridge, 997 feet in length, is built in this place across the Mohawk. Union College is

situated on the east side of the city, on a spot of ground considerably elevated, and commanding a delightful prospect. It was incorporated in 1794, and is a very respectable and flourishing seminary. The buildings of the college consist of two brick edifices, each 200 feet in length, and four stories high, having two wings, each extending 156 feet. The college is richly endowed, and it is in contemplation to extend the buildings. Population of the township, 5909.

SCHENK, Gros, a district of Transylvania, in the province of the Saxons, lying to the north of the river Aluti, between the districts of Reps and Leschkirchen. It contains about 240 square miles, with 16,000 inhabitants. It is hilly, but produces corn, hemp, flax, and wine. It has also good pasturage.

SCHENK, Gros, or Nagy-Sink, a small town of Transylvania, and the chief place of the district; 18 miles east-north-east of Hermannstadt.

SCHENKAFELD, a market town of the Austrian states, in the quarter of the Lower Muhl; 3 miles west-north-west of Freistadt.

SCHENKENSCHANS, a fortress of the Netherlands, in the province of Gelderland, situated on the island of Gravenwood, in the Rhine. It was founded in 1586 by a Dutch magistrate of the name of Schenk, but is now in ruins.

SCHENKENZELL, a small town of the west of Germany, in Baden; 22 miles south-east of Offenburg. Population 1000.

SCHENKLENGSFELD, a small town of Germany, in Hesse-Cassel; 38 miles south-east of Cassel. Population 900.

SCHENKURSK, a small town of European Russia, in the government of Archangel, on the river Vaga; 140 miles south-south-east of Archangel.

SCHENUS, in Ancient Geography, a gulf of Asia Minor, upon the coast of Caria, between those of Thymnias and Bubessius, according to Mela, who places here the town of Hyla.

SCHEPPACH, a village of Bavaria, in the circle of the Upper Danube, district of Burgau. Population 900.

SCHEPPENSTEDT, a small town of the north of Germany, in the duchy of Brunswick. It is neatly built, and has 2100 inhabitants; 10 miles east of Wolfenbuttel.

SCHERBRO. See Sherbro.

SCHERDJE, a village of Yemen, in Arabia; 40 miles north of Mocha.

SCHERENBERG, a small town of Upper Saxony; 3 miles south-west of Sonderhausen, and 16 east-north-east of Muhlhausen.

SCHERM, in Navigation, a kind of light boat used in Egypt, with a lateen-sail, which, being without decks, is very dangerous. A sudden gust of wind throws this boat on its side and sinks it. The Bogaz, or Bogass, as the bar at the mouth of the Nile is called, is to boats of this kind a formidable shoal.

Scherm signifies, says Savary, the velocity with which the boats cut the water. The sailors of Provence, who are the principal navigators in France, have corrupted this word into *Germ*.

SCHERPENHEUVEL, a small but regularly built town of the Netherlands, in South Brabant, with 1700 inhabitants. It is noted for a miraculous image of the virgin, to which frequent pilgrimages are made; 15 miles east-north-east of Louvain.

SCHERPENZEEL, an inland village of the Netherlands, in Gelderland, with 900 inhabitants.

SCHERSTENIKOVA, a village of Irkoutsk, in Asiatic Russia, on the Lena; 24 miles south of Orlenga,

SCHERWEINER, a large village in the east of France, in the department of the Lower Rhine. Population 2200.

SCHE'SIS, *s.* [σχεσις, Gr.] An habitude; state of any thing with respect to other things.—If that mind which has existing in itself from all eternity all the simple essences of things, and consequently all their possible *scheses* or habitudes, should ever change, there would arise a new *schesis* in the mind, which is contrary to the supposition. *Norris.*

SCHESKEJEV, a small town in the interior of European Russia, in the government of Pensa, on a river of the same name. Population 1800; 26 miles west of Saransk.

SCHESSLITZ, a small town of Bavarian Franconia; 8 miles north-east of Bamberg. Population 1000.

SCHESTAKOV, a small town in the north-east of European Russia, in the government of Viatka, with 1200 inhabitants. There are in the vicinity considerable iron mines; also the ruins of an ancient town; 35 miles north-by-west of Viatka.

SCHETES, was formerly a term for usury; and the commons prayed that order might be taken against this horrible vice, practised by the clergy as well as the laity. Rot. Parl. 14 Ric. II.

SCHETIC Diseases, a term used by old writers in medicine to express such diseases as were not deeply rooted in the constitution, but might be easily removed.

SCHEUCHZERIA [so named by Linnæus, in memory of two brothers, John James, professor of mathematics, at Zurich, author of "Itinera Alpina;" and John Scheuchzer, professor of physics, at Zurich, author of a famous treatise on "Grasses,"], in Botany, a genus of the class hexandria, order trigynia, natural order of tripetaloideæ, junci *(Juss.)* —Generic Character. Calyx: perianth six-parted; leaflets oblong, acute, reflex-spreading, rude, permanent. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments six, capillary very short, flaccid. Anthers erect, obtuse, very long, compressed. Pistil: germs three, ovate, compressed, size of the calyx. Styles none. Stigmas oblong, blunt at top, fastened outwardly to the germ. Pericarp: capsules as many as there are germs, roundish, compressed, inflated, reflex-distant, two-valved. Seeds solitary, oblong.—*Essential Character.* Calyx six-parted. Corolla none. Styles none. Capsule three, inflated, one-seeded.

Scheuchzeria palustris.—Root perennial, creeping, jointed. Stem upright, a span high, round. Root-leaves few: stem-leaves two. Flowers from each axil of the floral leaves solitary, ou upright peduncles, of a yellowish-green colour. Germs commonly three, but frequently four or five in a flower.—Native of Lapland, Sweden, Denmark, Germany, Switzerland, Prussia, Dauphiné, Siberia, in marshes.

SCHEVELING, or Scheveningen, a large maritime village of the Netherlands, in South Holland, to the north-west of the Hague, and communicating with that city by a beautiful avenue of two miles in length, perfectly straight, and planted on each side with rows of oaks and limes. The village, whose population amounts to 2900, is protected from the sea by natural downs; but, in 1574, upwards of 100 houses were carried away by a high flood. Its inhabitants are for the most part fishermen, and remarkable for their attachment to the house of Orange.

SCHIACHA, a fruitful valley in the territory of Tripoli, in Africa, on the road from Siwah to Augila.

SCHIAVONI (Andrea), called Medula, was born in 1522, at Sebenico, in Dalmatia. As his parents were in a low station of life, they were not able to forward the inclination he exhibited at an early age for the art of design; but engaged him to a painter of houses at Venice, where, at his leisure hours, he employed himself in studying such prints from Parmigiano and other painters as his scanty means enabled him to procure. The works of Giorgione and Titian in the public buildings of the city, were to him delightful sources of recreation; and with these aids, and determined industry and perseverance, he cultivated his talents in retirement. At length some of his productions were seen by Titian, who being informed of his unfortunate situation, and pleased with his taste, took him under his own care, and soon afterwards employed him, with Tintoretto and others, in those grand works he had undertaken for the library of St. Marco. He had here a fair opportunity of displaying his power, and three entire cielings are shewn as the work of Schiavoni. His improvement was sufficiently great to encourage him to enter the lists against Tintoretto; and

and to paint, in competition with him, a picture for the church of the Santa Croce, representing the visitation of the Virgin to Elizabeth; and though his performance was not received as equal to that of his antagonist, yet he was not dismissed without a considerable share of applause. Tintoretto himself respected him highly as an artist, and as one of the greatest of the Venetian school; he is even said to have kept a picture of Schiavoni's painting in his own room as a model for colour, though he condemned the incorrectness of the drawing.

The necessity of providing for his subsistence, superadded to his natural taste, caused Schiavoni to work with rapidity; and his productions are characterized by that irregularity which necessarily attends such a mode of proceeding. They are always, however, fraught with grace and taste. His compositions are numerous and extended, managed with great dexterity, and executed with astonishing freedom. His attitudes and draperies are gracefully arranged, and the countenances of his figures, especially of his women, very agreeable, though he was by no means attentive to propriety of expression; or rather, like others of the Venetian school, it seems never to have been an object of attention with him. Colour, both in arrangement and execution, was the god of his idolatry; and to that he sacrificed every other requisite of the art. Two of the most admired works of this master are in the church of the Padri Teatini at Rimini, representing the Nativity and the Assumption of the Virgin. He died at Venice in 1582, at the age of 60.

SCHICKARD (William), a learned astronomer and orientalist, was professor of the Hebrew language at Tubingen, in the early part of the seventeenth century. To his knowledge of the Hebrew language he added that of the Oriental tongues, which then began to be studied in the different European schools. He published several works in this department of literature, of which the most considerable were "Beschinat Happeruschim; or, An Examination of the Hebrew, Chaldean, Cabbalistical, and Rabinnical Interpretations of the Book of Genesis;" "Tarich," or the series of Persian kings for nearly 400 years; "De Jure Regio Hebræorum;" "Horologium Hebræum," or a method of teaching the Hebrew language in twenty-four hours. Schickard was also professor of mathematics, and was author of various inventions for giving summary views of the Copernican system, and of the lunar motions and appearances. He died of the plague in 1635.

SCHIDLITZ, a small town of West Prussia, immediately adjoining to Dantzic, to which it is now united. Population 1900.

SCHIDLOW, a village of the Prussian states, on an island in the Oder; 18 miles south-by-east of Frankfort.

SCHIDONI, or Schedone (Bartolomeo), was born at Modena in 1560, He acquired the principles of the art of painting in the school of the Caracci; but when he left it he appears to have attached himself to the study of the works of Corregio; and no one has imitated the style of that incomparable master more happily than Schidoni. He had already acquired considerable reputation by some early performances in his native city, when Ranuccio, duke of Parma, took him into his service, and gave him a residence in his villa at Felegara, where he was at liberty to pursue his studies commodiously and in tranquillity. Here he painted several pictures for his patron; compositions of sacred subjects, and from the Roman history, in the adopted taste of Corregio; which afterwards found their way to the royal Neapolitan collection. On his return to Modena, he painted his admirable frescoes in the Palazzo Publico, of the history of Coriolanus, and of seven emblematical figures also, in which he emulated the grandeur of style found in the Duomo of Parma. In the cathedral there is an admirable picture of his, of S. Geminiano restoring a dead child to life; which has often been honoured by being mistaken for a work of Corregio. He also painted portraits of the princes of the house of Modena, with an equal degree of merit. Large works by Schidoni are extremely rare, and even his easel pictures of religious subjects, Madonnas, &c. are not frequently to be met with. He is said to have consumed much of his time in that powerful and unfortunate, propensity to gaming, which wasted his substance, and disturbed his mind; and at last to have fallen a sacrifice to it, not being able to overcome the mortification of having one night lost more than he was able to pay. He died at the age of 56, in 1616.

The imitation of which we have spoken, runs through every part of Schidoni's works. The actions of his figures, and particularly the delicate graceful airs of the head, and elegant turns of the limbs and fingers; the arrangement and management of the chiaro-scuro, in its breadth and tone, and the hues and impasto of the colouring of his pictures; all exhibit the characteristic qualities of his great prototype, and render it difficult sometimes to distinguish between them; and, no doubt, many a work of the pupil has past, and been sold, for a production of the master. Their inherent merit, however, justly entitles them to very high estimation, and their rarity gives them an additional value.

SCHIECH, or Scheich, the title of an officer in Arabia, of high birth, which can come only by descent, and is peculiar to sovereigns, princes, and independent lords. Among the Bedouins this title belongs to every noble, whether of the highest or lowest order. Their nobles are very numerous, and compose almost the whole nation; the plebeians are invariably actuated and guided by the schiechs, who superintend and direct in every transaction.

SCHIEDAM, a considerable town of the Netherlands, in the province of South Holland, situated on the small river Schie, a short way from its influx into the Maese. It is built like other Dutch towns, contains a population of 9000, and is noted for its very numerous distilleries of gin (Hollands), of which there are no less than 200 in the town. This article forms its chief export; but the inhabitants take part also in the herring fishery. Schiedam has a small harbour, and is 4 miles west of Rotterdam, and 6 south-by-east of Delft. Lat. 51. 55. 9. N. long. 4. 24. 0. E.

SCHIEDAM, a small island on the coast of Java, in Batavia bay.

SCHIEDLOWICE, a small town of Poland; 65 miles south of Warsaw, and 17 south-west of Radom. Population 1500.

SCHIERLING, a village of Germany, in Bavaria. This village was the scene of an obstinate conflict, on 20th April, 1809, between the Archduke Charles and Buonaparte, generally called the battle of Abensberg. The former was defeated, and, after an ineffectual attempt to check the advance of the French at Ratisbon, was obliged to retire, leaving open the road to Vienna. Population 500; 11 miles south of Ratisbon, and 10 east of Abensberg.

SCHIERMOND, or Schiermonikoog, a small island in the north of the Netherlands, on the coast of Friesland, to the north-east of the island of Ameland. Population only 1100.

SCHIERS, a district of the Swiss canton of the Grisons, containing 2900 inhabitants.

SCHIERSTEIN, a large village of Germany, in the duchy of Nassau, near Wisbaden.

SCHIEVELBEIN, or Schiffelbein, a small town of Prussia, in Pomerania, on the river Rega. Population 1700; 17 miles north of Dramburg, and 53 east-north-east of Stettin.

SCHIFFBAU, a large village of the Prussian province on the Rhine, in the government of Dusseldorf, near Neersen. Population 1900.

SCHIFFBECK, a small town of Denmark, in Holstein; 4 miles east of Hamburgh.

SCHIFFERSTADT, a large village of the Bavarian province of the Rhine. Population 1300; 8 miles north-north-west of Spire.

SCHILDA, a village of Prussian Saxony. Population 800; 44 miles north-west of Dresden, and 8 south-south-west of Torgau.

SCHILDBERG,

SCHILDBERG, a small town of the Austrian states, in Moravia; 34 miles north-west of Olmutz.

SCHILDESCHE, a small town of Prussian Westphalia. Here is a convent for ladies of family, both Catholic and Protestant. Population 2000; 2 miles south-south-west of Minden.

SCHILLER (Friedrich Johann Christoph), was born at Marbach, a small town of Wurtemberg, on the banks of the Neckar, on the 18th Nov. 1759. His father, who had been a surgeon in the Bavarian army, and had served in the Netherlands during the succession war, obtained a captain's commission from the Duke of Wurtemberg, and he was principally employed in laying out the pleasure grounds at Ludwigsburg and Solitude.

Young Schiller received his earliest instructions from one Moser, pastor and schoolmaster in the village of Lorch, and he seems to have at this time taken up the idea of devoting himself to the clerical profession. He accordingly studied at Ludwigsburg in reference to this profession; and he underwent in four successive years the annual examination before the Stutgard commission, to which young aspirants to the church are subjected.

The Duke of Wurtemberg having provided a free seminary at Stutgard, pressed Schiller's father to avail himself of its advantages for his son. This offer embarrassed them exceedingly; but, notwitstanding their previous determination, that young Schiller should be educated for the church, he was enrolled in the Stutgard school in 1773, for the purpose of following the profession of the law. The system of military drilling which prevailed in this school, and which gave formality to the amusements as well as to the studies of the pupils, accorded ill with the unconstrained freedom which Schiller had formerly enjoyed. Hence he was soon disgusted with his situation, and in 1775 he renounced for ever all views towards the profession of the law; but he passed only from the study of law to that of medicine, not as a more congenial pursuit, but as the means of detaching himself from one less attractive. He had begun to study in secret Plutarch, and Shakspeare, and Klopstock, Lessing, Herder, and Goethe. His admiration of the Messiah of Klopstock led him to compose, when he was only fourteen years old an epic poem called "Moses." His attention was next directed to the drama, by the great popularity of the Uglino of Gerstenberg, and the Gotz Von Berlichingen of Goethe; and he eomposed a tragedy called Cosmo Von Medicis, some fragments of which he inserted in his Robbers.

When Schiller was in his 19th year he began his tragedy of the Robbers, the publication of which excited the greatest iuterest. Translations of it immediately appeared in almost all the languages of Europe, and were every where read with the mingled feelings of admiration and aversion. In Germany it was received with the most extraordinary enthusiasm; and though the general opinion was in its favour, yet the severest censures were passed on its moral tendency. He was accused of having injured the cause of morality, and of having excited the fiery temperaments of youth to pursue the fortunes of his abandoned hero. It has even been stated, that, under its pernicious influence, several students at Leipsig deserted their college, and resolved to form a troop of banditti in the Bohemian forest; but this and similar stories were entirely false, and had their origin in the circumstance of a German nobleman having been driven to the highway by a long course of debauchery and extravagance.

Nothing seems to have been more remote from Schiller's intention than to produce any such effects; and he even speaks in his preface of the moral influence of his piece in terms which, while they do honour to his heart, evince at the same time his inexperience and ignorance of the world. Schiller had finished the original sketch of the Robbers in 1778, but he had kept it secret till he had completed his medical studies. In 1778, he wrote a Latin essay on the Philosophy of Physiology, which was never printed; and after pursuing his studies with assiduity, he was, in 1780, appointed surgeon to the regiment Augé in the Wurtemberg army. This promotion enabled him to print the Robbers at his own expense, as no bookseller could be found to undertake it.

Although Schiller had, by the publication of this tragedy, forfeited the good opinion of the Grand Duke of Wurtemberg, yet its great popularity gained him many new friends and correspondents. Among these was Freiherr Von Dalberg, superintendant of the theatre of Manheim, under whose patronage Schiller remodelled the Robbers, and had it brought on the stage in 1781. Schiller went to Manheim in disguise, to see the first representation of his tragedy; but he was discovered, and put under arrest during a week for the offence. Having committed the same act a second time, he dreaded more rigorous measures, and he was therefore induced to quit Stutgard in October, 1782. Afraid of residing so near Stutgard or Manheim, he went to Franconia, and was living principally at Oggersheim under the name of Schmidt, when Madame Von Wollzogen, whose sons had been his fellow students at Stutgard, invited him to their country-house at Bauerbach, near Meinungen. Beneath her hospitable roof he resumed his poetical labours, and in the course of a year he brought out his tragedies of Verschworung des Fiesco, (Conspiracy of Fiesco,) and Kabale und Liebe, (Court Intriguing and Love.) During his arrest at Stutgard he had begun Fiesco, which was published along with another piece in 1783, and soon after brought out on the Manheim stage.

Schiller had long been ambitious of being appointed theatrical poet at Manheim; and his friend Dalberg was now able to assist him in procuring that appointment, which he obtained in Sept. 1783, and which, while it gave him a situation of respectability, held out to him the prospect of a seasonable remuneration. He was soon after elected a member of the German Society at Manheim, and acknowledged a subject of the Elector Palatine.

Schiller now engaged himself in bringing out a periodical work devoted to the concerns of the stage, the main purpose of which was to advance the dramatic art. The first number of this work, entitled the Rheinische Thalia, enriched with three acts of his Don Carlos, appeared in 1785, and with the exception of one short interruption, was continued till 1794. This work, besides his dramatic speculations and performances, contains several of his poems.

About this period Schiller composed his Philosophical Letters, a short and unfinished fragment, which is interesting only as containing the speculations of its author on various metaphysical subjects, which must always possess a deep interest to every reflecting mind.

The first number of his Thalia had obtained Schiller such favour from the Duke of Sachsan Weimar, that this prince transmitted to him the title of a counsellor, and about the same time he received from Leipsig four miniature portraits, two of which were of very beautiful young ladies, who had admired his writings, and had sent him this hidden mark of their esteem. This little incident is supposed to have induced him to remove to Leipsig, which he did in the end of March, 1785. In this city, however, he did not long remain, and having received pressing invitations to Dresden, he followed the new impulse, and went to that capital at the end of summer. Here he took up his residence with the Apellationsrath Korner, who lived at Loschwitz, near Dresden; and he completed his Don Carlos, which was published in 1786. It is written in blank verse, and is the first of Schiller's plays that bears the marks of matured genius.

Schiller seems now to have taken a distaste to the drama, and to have occupied himself with the composition of various lyrical productions. Some of these have been mentioned by his biographer as among the most finished efforts of his genius, viz., the Walk, the Song of the Bell, his Ritter Toggenburg, his Cranes of Ibycus, and his Hero and Leander. Another poem, written about this time, and entitled The Freethinking of Passion, is said to have originated

ginated in a real but hopeless attachment to one of the first beauties of Dresden, who is said to have sat for the picture of the princess Eboli in Don Carlos. The celebrity of the thaumaturgic exploits of the conjuror Cagliostro at Paris, seems to have given rise to a novel which Schiller now produced, under the title of Geisterscher, or the Ghost Seer, two volumes of which were published.

The composition of this work seems to have given its author a dislike to fictitious writing, and he now resolved to devote his mind to the study of history. The composition of Don Carlos had led him to study the affairs of Spain under Philip II., and he was thus induced to take the Revolt of the Netherlands as the subject of his first history. While engaged in this work, he projected a more extended one under the title of a History of the most remarkable Conspiracies and Revolutions in the Middle and Later Ages, of which he published the first volume in 1787, but it is little more than a translation of St. Real's Conspiracy of Bedmar against Venice.

Our author had long contemplated a visit to Weimar, which he at last effected in 1787. In this literary city resided Goethe, Herder and Wieland. With the two last he became extremely intimate; but Goethe, from his dislike of the Robbers, avoided an introduction to Schiller. In the midst of the best society in Germany, and occupied with his historical work, he continued his residence at Weimar. His old patroness Madame Von Wollzogen again invited him to Bauerbach; and at Rudolstadt, where he staid during a part of that visit, he first saw the Fraulein Lengefeld, a lady who made a deep impression on his heart, and who entertained for him a reciprocal feeling.

The first volume of his History of the Revolt of the Netherlands appeared in 1788, and while it added greatly to his reputation, it obtained for him the more solid advantage of a permanent settlement in life.

A vacancy having taken place in the professorshsp of history in the university of Jena, by the resignation of Professor Eichorn, Goethe (whose dislike to Schiller terminated in a warm friendship) recommended him to Amelia, the regent of Sachsen-Weimar, and along with Voigt, the head chaplain of the court, solicited for him the vacant chair. This application having been seconded by the general voice, Schiller received the appointment and went to Jena in 1789. In the February following he married the Fraulein Lengefeld, and entered upon a new era in his life.

Thus occupied with the study of history as his profession, he devoted himself to the composition of a History of the Thirty Years War, which he published in 1791, and which is deemed in Germany his chef-d'œuvre in history. Soon after the appearance of this work, Schiller was seized with a disorder in the chest, which, though its violence was overcome, never quitted him during the rest of this life. The duties of his class were discharged by proxy, and he was obliged to abandon all his historical studies. In this distressing condition a ray of benevolence shone upon him from an unexpected quarter. The hereditary prince, now reigning Duke of Holstein Augustenburg, conjunctly with the Count Von Schimmelman, conferred on him a pension of a thousand crowns for three years, under no other condition than that he should be careful of his health, and make every exertion for its recovery. The delicacy and politeness with which this act of generosity was proffered, touched Schiller more than even the gift itself.

When the violence of his disease had abated, Schiller turned his thoughts into a new channel of speculation,—the study of the Kantian philosophy, a subject which had agitated all Germany. The views which he was led to take of this subject have been published in various treatises, the most elaborate of which are the essays on Grace and Dignity, on Naivé and Sentimental Poetry; the Letters on the Æsthetic Culture of Man; on Magic Art; on the Pathetic; on the Cause of our Delight in Tragic Objects; on Employing the Low and Common in Art.

After conceiving and abandoning a design of writing an epic poem, of which Gustavus Adolphus was to be the subject, he again returned to the drama, and resolved to compose his Wallenstein. In 1793 he gave up his Thalia, and, with the assistance of Goethe, he began a new periodical work, under the title of Horen. He also undertook the superintendence of the Musen-Almanach, a kind of work very common in Germany, the object of which is to preserve and publish annually a series of short poetical effusions collected from various quarters. The Musen-Almanach was celebrated by a collection of epigrams called the Xenien, or Xenia, a sort of German Dunciad, directed against the bad taste, dullness, and affectation, of a set of inferior authors who had viewed with a jealous eye the union of two such men as Goethe and Schiller. Although the Xenia were never completed, yet the parts which did appear excited a great commotion among the dull malignants against whom they were directed. The Musen-Almanach, in which they appeared in 1797, was continued till Schiller left Jena, and the Horen ceased some months before.

The great work of Wallenstein, at which he had been busy for seven years, at last appeared in 1797, and is considered by competent judges to be the best performance that he had yet produced. It is regarded indeed by some as the greatest dramatic work of the eighteenth century. It has been translated into French by Benjamin Constant, and the last two parts of it into English by Mr. Coleridge.

After the publication of Wallenstein, Schiller removed to Weimar in quest of a milder winter climate; and on this occasion the pension which he enjoyed from the Duke of Weimar was increased, as it had been four years before when he received an invitation to the university of Tubingen. He shared along with Goethe, the task of superintending the affairs of the stage. He remodelled, in conjunction with Goethe, his Don Carlos; and he now composed his Mary Stewart, a tragedy of much beauty, which appeared in 1800. In 1801 was published his Maid of Orleans, which is considered as one of the finest of modern dramas, and is supposed to evince more genius than any of the other productions of its author. It was highly popular on the stage, and added greatly to his reputation.

In 1803 he published his Bride of Messina, in which he has introduced the ancient chorus; but though it contains many fine pieces of lyrical poetry, yet it has found no imitator, and few admirers.

In the following year appeared his Wilhelm Tell, which is considered by his biographer as one of his very finest dramas, and "as exhibiting some of the highest triumphs which his genius, combined with his art, ever realised." "Less comprehensive and ambitious than Wallenstein, less ethereal than the Maid of Orleans, it has a look of nature and substantial truth which neither of its rivals can boast of."

In 1804, when Schiller was returning from Berlin, where he had been witnessing the exhibition of Wilhelm Tell, he experienced a violent attack of his former complaint; but he escaped its fury, and again resumed his labours. He executed various translations from the French and Italian, sketched a tragedy on the history of Perkin Warbeck, and finished two acts on Dimitri of Russia; but in the midst of these occupations he was again arrested by disease. The cold spring of 1805 brought back his complaint, and, notwithstanding all the assistance which medical skill could give, he expired on the evening of the 9th of May, in the 46th year of his age, leaving behind him a widow, two sons, and two daughters.

There were found among his papers his letters to Dalberg, which were published at Calsruce in a small duodecimo, in 1819. See *The Life of Frederick Schiller, comprehending an examination of his Works.* London, 1825.

SCHILLING, a money of account, and copper or base silver coin in several parts of Germany.

SCHILLINGSFURST, a small town of Germany, in Bavarian Franconia. Population 1500; 11 miles west of Anspach.

SCHILLINGSTADT, a large village of the west of Germany, in Baden; 44 miles east of Heidelberg.

SCHILPADS, two small islands in the Eastern Seas. Lat. 4. 45. S. long. 129. 8. E.

SCHILTACH, a petty town in the west of Germany, in Baden, on the small river Schiltach, in the valley of the Kinzag, with 1300 inhabitants; 21 miles south-east of Offenburg.

SCHILTER (John), a learned jurist, was born in 1632 at Pegan, in Misnia. He studied at Leipsic, and likewise at Jena: and he first settled as an advocate at Naumburg. He was appointed keeper of the archives to prince Maurice of Saxony, and in a few years afterwards he was nominated privy-counsellor to duke Bernard of Saxe-Weimar. After the death of that duke he removed to Strasburg, on being appointed counsellor and advocate of that city, and honorary professor in the university. He died there in 1705. As an author, the principal works of Schilter are; "Codex Juris Alemannici feudalis," 3 vols. 4to. "Thesaurus Antiquitatum Teutonicarum," 3 vols. fol. "Institutions du Droit Canonique," 8vo. "Institutiones Juris Publici," 2 vols. 8vo. "De Pace Religiosa." He likewise published a number of separate dissertations on subjects connected with what are denominated legal antiquities.

SCHILTIGHEIM, a small town in the north-east of France, in the department of the Lower Rhine, with 1700 inhabitants.

SCHINELÆON, a word used by the ancients to express an oil of mastick, or oil in which mastick was dissolved.

SCHINUS [Σχινος of Athenæus. From σχιζω, *findo*, to cleave], in Botany, a genus of the class dioecia, order decandria, natural order of dumosæ, terebintaceæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Male—Calyx: perianth one-leafed, five-parted, spreading, acute. Corolla: petals five, oval, spreading, petioled. Stamina: filaments ten, filiform, length of the corolla, spreading. Anthers roundish. Pistil: rudiment without a stigma. Female—Calyx: perianth one-leafed, five-parted, acute, permanent. Corolla: petals five, oblong, spreading, petioled. Pistil: germ roundish. Style none. Stigmas three, ovate. Pericarp: berry globular, three-celled. Seeds solitary, globular.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-parted. Female, berry three-celled.

1. Schinus molle, or Peruvian mastic-tree.—Leaves pinnate, leaflets serrate, with the end one very long, petioles equal. This rises with a woody stem, eight or ten feet high, dividing into many branches, covered with a brown rough bark.—Native of Peru.

2. Schinus areira, or Brasilian mastic-tree.—This differs from the preceding only in having the leaflets entire, and all equal in size.—Native of Brasil and Peru.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants are propagated best by seeds, which must be procured from the countries where they naturally grow; and should be sown in pots filled with fresh earth, and plunged into a moderate hot-bed. If the seeds are good, the plants will appear in about five or six weeks: and, if they are properly managed, by admitting fresh air daily to them, according to the warmth of the season, and are duly refreshed with water, they will be fit to transplant in about five or six weeks after, when they should be carefully turned out of the pots and their roots separated: then they must be each planted in a small pot, filled with soft loamy earth, and plunged again into a moderate hot-bed, shading them from the sun till they have taken fresh root; then they must be gradually inured to the open air, into which they should be removed soon after, placing them in a sheltered situation, where they may remain till autumn; but they must be removed into shelter before the first frosts, otherwise their tops will be killed, and thereby the plants are frequently destroyed.

These plants being tender when young, require a little warmth in winter; but after two or three years growth, they will live in a good green-house, where, as they retain their leaves all the year, they will make a good variety.

SCHINZNACH, or SCHINTZNACH, a village in the north of Switzerland, in the canton of Aargau, noted for its mineral baths, near the right bank of the Aar; 6 miles north-east of Arau.

SCHIO, a town of Austrian Italy, in the Venetian province of Vicenza, on the Timanjo. It contains 5000 inhabitants, and has some manufacturing establishments, particularly of woollens; 24 miles north-east of Verona.

SCHIPPENBEIL, a small town of East Prussia, on the Alle. Population 2000; 36 miles south-east of Konigsberg.

SCHIPUNOVA, a town of Kolivan, in Asiatic Russia; 88 miles south of Kolivan.

SCHIPUNSKOI, a cape on the south-eastern coast of Kamtschatka. Lat. 53. 6. N. long. 159. 44. E.

SCHIRAS. See SHIRAS.

SCHIRGISVALDE, a small town of Saxony, in Upper Lusatia; 6 miles south of Budissin.

SCHIRRHUS. See SCIRRHUS.

SCHIRVAN. See SHIRVAN.

SCHIRWIND, a small town of Prussian Lithuania, at the confluence of the Scheschupe and the Schirwind, a small stream which forms for some miles the boundary between East Prussia and Poland. Population 1400; 28 miles east-north-east of Gumbinnen.

SCHISANDRA [so named by Michaux, from σχισις, *a fissure*, and ανηρ, *a male*; because the anthers are merely separated by fissures in the receptacle of the flower], in Botany, a genus of the class monoecia, order pentandria, natural order sarmentaceæ, menisperma *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Male—Calyx: perianth of nine concave, coloured, deciduous leaves; the inner ones gradually smallest. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments none; anthers five, sessile on the receptacle of the flower, oblong; contiguous at the base; connected at the summit, above their cells; separated in the middle by chinks. Female—Calyx as in the male. Corolla none. Pistil: germens numerous, ovate, sessile on a receptacle which is finally elongated; style none; stigma pointed. Pericarp: berries obovate, single-seeded, forming a spike on the elongated thread-shaped receptacle. Seed ovate-oblong, somewhat cylindrical, nearly smooth.—*Essential Character.* Male—Calyx of nine leaves in three rows. Corolla none. Anthers nearly sessile, connected at the top. Female—Calyx as in the male. Corolla none. Pistils numerous, capitate. Berries single-seeded, attached to an elongated thread-shaped receptacle.

Schisandra coccinea, or scarlet-flowered schisandra.—Found in the shady woods of Carolina and Georgia; flowering in June. Brought to England by Mr. John Lyon, in 1806. *Hort. Kew.*—A climbing shrub, hardy, except in our very severe winters. The stem is smooth, slender, twining. Leaves stalked, alternate, ovate, pointed, wavy, smooth, three or four inches long; glaucous beneath. Flowers axillary, solitary, stalked, drooping; the internal leaves of their calyx of a fine scarlet; each flower about half an inch in diameter; the spike of ripe berries measuring in length rather more than an inch. The flower-stalks are about the length of the foot-stalks. They are neither stipulas nor bracteas. The genus is somewhat allied to menispermum.

SCHISDRA, a river of the interior of European Russia, in the government of Riasan, which falls into the Wolga.

SCHISM, *s.* [*schisme*, Fr. σχισμα, Gr. from σχιζω, *to divide, to cut asunder.* The word is pronounced *sism*, "contrary to etymology; the occasion of this was, that our old authors wrote it *sysmatike*, as Skelton, p. 108."] A separation or division in the church.—When a *schism* is once spread, there grows at length a dispute which are the schismaticks: in the sense of the law the *schism* lies on that side which opposes itself to the religion of the state. *Swift.*

SCHISM-BILL, the name of an act passed in the reign of Queen Anne, which restrained Protestant dissenters from educating their own children, and forbad all tutors or schoolmasters being present at any conventicle, or dissenting place of worship. The queen died on the day when this act was

to

to have taken place (Aug. 1, 1714), and the schism-bill was repealed in the fifth year of George I.

SCHISMA, in Music, is a minute interval, equal only to half a comma, and of which the ratio is a surd quantity: since, in order to express it by numbers, a mean proportional must be found between 80 and 81.

SCHISMA'TICAL, *adj.* [*schismatique*, Fr.] Implying schism; practising schism.—Here bare anathemas fall but like so many *bruta fulmina* upon the obstinate and *schismatical*, who are like to think themselves shrewdly hurt by being cut off from that body which they chuse not to be of, and so being punished into a quiet enjoyment of their beloved separation. *South.*

SCHISMA'TICALLY, *adv.* In a schismatical manner.—A great number of people—wilfully and *schismatically* refuse to come to their parish-churches. *Act for the Uniform. of Publ. Prayers.*

SCHISMA'TICALNESS, *s.* State of being schismatical.—As mischievous a mark as any of her carnality, is her dissension and *schismaticalness* even to mutual persecution; as also the unnatural and unchristian wars of one part of reformed Christendom against the other. *More on the Sev. Churches.*

SCHI'SMATIC, *s.* One who separates from the true church.

Thus you behold the *schismaticks'* bravado's:
Wild speaks in squibs, and Calamy in granado's. *Butler.*

SCHI'SMATIC, *adj.* [*schismatique*, Fr.] Practising schism.—Not one *scysmatyk* prest, fryer, nor chanon. *Bale.*

To SCHI'SMATIZE, *v. n.* [*schismatiser*, Fr.] To commit the crime of schism; to make a breach in the communion of the church. *Cotgrave.*

SCHI'SMLESS, *adj.* Not affected by schism; without schism. *Unused.*

SCHISSELITZ. See ZIZELITZ.

SCHISTAB. See SISTOVA.

SCHISTUS or SCHIST, in Mineralogy, is a name descriptive of the slaty structure of rocks, and is applicable to all which are divisible into thin plates: thus we have micaceous schist, or mica slate; argillaceous schist, or common slate; and chlorite schist, &c. See MINERALOGY.

SCHIT-ELU, in Botany, a name given by some authors to the plant which produces the seed called sesamum in the shops.

SCHITTUAR, or SHITWAR, a small island in the Persian gulf. Lat. 26. 59. N. long. 53. 24. E.

SCHIUL, a small river in the north of European Turkey, in Wallachia. It falls into the Danube.

SCHIUZAR, a village of Syria, in the pachalic of Aleppo, on the Orontes; 60 miles south of Aleppo.

SCHIZEA, in Botany. See ACROSTICHUM.

SCHIZANTHUS, [so called by the authors of the Flora Peruviana, from σχιζω, *to cut, or cleave*, and ανθος, *a flower*, because of the numerous and deep segments of its corolla], in Botany a genus of the class diandria, order monogynia, natural order personatæ, scrophulariæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth inferior, in five deep, linear, nearly equal, permanent segments. Corolla of one petal, ringent, reversed; tube compressed, the length of the calyx; upper lip in five deep segments, lower in three. Stamina: filaments four; two of them abortive, villous, under the upper lip (which by the reversed position of the flower stands lowermost); the other two perfect, inserted into the lower lip; anthers roundish, of two lobes. Pistil: germen superior, roundish; style thread-shaped, longer than the tube of the corolla; stigma club-shaped. Pericarp: capsule ovate, the length of the calyx, of two concave cloven valves, and two cells. Seeds several, kidney-shaped, rough. Receptacle orbicular, compressed, parallel to the valves, unconnected with them, rough and corrugated at the sides, where the seeds are inserted.—*Essential Character.* Calyx in five deep segments. Corolla two-lipped, reversed; the upper lip in five, lower in three, deep segments. Two barren stamens. Capsule superior, of two cells, and two cloven valves.

Schizanthus pinnatus.—Native of the borders of cultivated fields in Chili. The stem is herbaceous, erect, two feet high, branched, leafy, round, rough, especially in the upper part, with glandular viscid hairs. Leaves alternate, on short stalks, slightly hairy, pinnate, or rather deeply pinnatifid, with linear decurrent, bluntish, partly cut or subdivided segments. Stipulas none. Clusters opposite to the leaves, in the upper part of the branches, simple, of from six to twelve drooping flowers, with a pair of small roundish bracteas at the base of each partial stalk. Calyx and stalks hairy and viscid. Corolla about an inch long, variegated with shades of light purple, the upper lip having a darker spot in the middle; the segments of the lower lip falcate, the intermediate one abrupt. Valves of the capsule smooth, thin, almost membranous.

SCHKEUDITZ, a small town of Prussian Saxony, on the river Elster. Population 1500; 8 miles west-north-west of Leipsic.

SCHKIRI. See SKYROS.

SCHKLOV, a small town of the west of European Russia, on the Dnieper. It contains 2000 inhabitants, and is tolerably built, but almost all the houses are of wood; 23 miles north of Mohilev.

SCHKOPAU, a large village of Prussian Saxony, near Merseburg, on the Saale.

SCHKWORECZ, a small town of the interior of Bohemia; 15 miles east of Prague.

SCHLADEN, a large village of the north of Germany, in Hanover. Population 1100; 28 miles east-south-east of Hildesheim, and 11 north-north-east of Goslar.

SCHLADMING, a small town of the Austrian States, in Styria, on the Enns. There are productive mines in the neighbourhood. Population 1000; 45 miles west-north-west of Judenburg, and 26 west-south-west of Rotenmann.

SCHLAGE, or SCHLAWE, a small town of Prussia, in Pomerania, near the Wipper. Population 1800; 76 miles west of Dantzic, and 22 east-north-east of Coslin.

SCHLAGENDORF, or NAGY SZALOK, a small town in the north of Hungary, in the county of Zyps, among the Carpathians. Population 1000; 12 miles west of Seben.

SCHLAGENTIN, a small town of Prussian Saxony, in the duchy of Magdeburg; 4 miles from Genthin, with 2700 inhabitants.

SCHLAKENWALDE, a small town of the north-west of Bohemia. Here is a productive tin mine; 3 miles south-east of Elnbogen.

SCHLAKENWERTH, a neat but small town in the north-west of Bohemia, on the Weisseritz. Population 1300; 9 miles north-east of Elnbogen, and 5 south of Carlsbad.

SCHLAN, or SLANY, a small town in the north of Bohemia. It is surrounded by a wall and ditch, has a central school, and contains 3000 inhabitants, who have some manufactures of stockings and broad cloth; 18 miles north-west of Prague, and 16 north-east of Rakonitz.

SCHLANGENBAD, a mineral spring in high repute in the west of Germany, duchy of Nassau, situate in a pleasant valley, with a village and appropriate buildings for visitors.

SCHLAPANITZ, or LOPENITZ, a petty town of the Austrian states, in Moravia, with 900 inhabitants; 6 miles east of Brunn.

SCHLAPPEREBENE, a very high mountain of Austria, in the province of Salzburg, and district of the Pongau. Elevation 9640 feet above the sea.

SCHLATTEN, GREAT. See ABRUG-BANYA.

SCHLATTEN, LITTLE. See ZALATHNA.

SCHLAVENZIZ, a small town of Prussian Silesia. Population 1800; 24 miles south-south-east of Oppeln, and 7 east-by-north of Kosel.

SCHLECHTENDALIA, in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia-superflua, natural order compositæ oppositifoliæ, corymbiferæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Common calyx double; the outer of many, spreading, awl-shaped scales; inner of many, close, erect, linear leaves, longer than the outer. Corolla compound, radiated; florets

florets of the radius eight, female, ligulate, rounded, broad, entire; those of the disk numerous, perfect, tubular; their limb in six, seven, or eight linear, acute, very narrow segments. Stamina: filaments (in the disk only) five, capillary; anthers simple, united into a cylinder. Pistil: germen oblong, crowned with five bristles, and five short intermediate scales; style solitary, divided half way down into three parts; stigmas three, bristle-shaped. Seeds solitary, oblong, slightly pentagonal, tapering at the base, crowned with five erect bristles. Receptacle chaffy, its scales short, cup-like, toothed.—*Essential Character.* Receptacle chaffy. Seed-crown of five erect bristles. Calyx double; the outer of many bristles; inner of many equal leaves. Florets of the disk in six or eight segments.

Schlechtendalia glandulosa.—Native of Mexico, from whence it was sent to the garden at Madrid. Root perennial. Stems annual, a yard high, branched, leafy, round, reddish and smooth. Leaves numerous, mostly alternate, rigid, pinnate, with an odd leaflet; their common stalk channelled, fringed with bristles; leaflets about seven, opposite, ovate, decurrent, smooth, an inch long, toothed, often fringed with bristles, and bordered with scattered pellucid spots, or glands, in their substance, near the edge. Flowers corymbose, resembling the common zinnia in size and shape, scarlet; the disk palest. Each scale or leaf of the calyx ends in a red bristle, at whose base are two glands, in the inner calyx, one in the outer. The flower-stalks swell gradually upwards, and bear a few scattered bristles, resembling the outer scales of the calyx. This plant is certainly, as Cavanilles remarks, akin to tagetes, but differs in its double calyx, more numerous segments of the tubular florets, chaffy receptacle, and three stigmas; which last character, as this intelligent author appears to think, requires further investigation.

SCHLEIDEN, a small town of Prussian Westphalia. It was the birth-place of John Philippson, the historian of the Reformation, better known by the name of Sleidanus, which he took from this place. Population 1300; 54 miles north of Treves, and 32 south-west of Cologne.

SCHLEITHAL, a large village in the east of France, department of the Lower Rhine. Population 1800.

SCHLEITHEIM, a large village in the north of Switzerland; 8 miles west-north-west of Schaffhausen.

SCHLEITZ, a small town of Upper Saxony, situated in the county of Reuss. It contains 4700 inhabitants, and has a mansion in which the count resides; also some manufactures of woollen and cotton. A Prussian corps sustained a defeat here from the French, on the 9th October, 1806, a few days before the battle of Jena; 25 miles south-by-east of Jena.

SCHLEMMA, Upper, a large village of Germany, in Saxony, on the Flossgraben, near Schwarzenberg. Here are large manufactures of dye-stuffs and other colours, particularly smalts.

SCHLEMMEN, a term used by the smalt-makers, to express the substance of the smalt after fusion, when it is separated from the eschel; that is, a sort of grey ashes which adhere to it, and is ready for powdering for use.

SCHLETTAU, a village of Saxony. Population 800; 50 miles west-south-west of Dresden.

SCHLEUSSINGEN, a small town of Germany, in Upper Saxony, the chief place of the part of the Henneberg territory that belongs to Prussia, a district remote from the rest of the Prussian dominions. The town of Schleussingen stands on the small river Schleuss; 33 miles south-by-west of Erfurt, and 20 south-east of Smalcalden. It has a gymnasium or college, and contains 2200 inhabitants.

SCHLEY, a long and narrow bay on the coast of Denmark, near the town of Sleswick.

SCHLICHTINGSHEIM, a petty town of Prussian Poland, on the borders of Silesia, founded in the early part of the 17th century, by Lutheran refugees from Silesia. Population 900; 8 miles east-north-east of Gros Glogau.

SCHLIEBEN, a small town of Prussian Saxony, on the Kremitz. Population 1200; 30 miles south-east of Wittenberg, and 46 north of Dresden.

SCHLIENGEN, a small town of the west of Germany, in Baden, at the foot of a hill of the same name. An action was fought here during the retreat of Moreau, between the French and Austrians, on 20th October, 1796. Population 950; 14 miles north of Bale.

SCHLIERSBACH, or Mariensaal, a small town of Upper Austria; 14 miles south-west of Steyr.

SCHLIERSBACH, a large village of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, near Goppingen, with 1200 inhabitants.

SCHLIER-SEE, a small lake of Bavaria, in the circle of the Iser, to the west of the lake of Tegern. It is only two miles in length, and one in breadth.

SCHLITZ, a small town of the west of Germany, in Upper Hesse. It has 1300 inhabitants, and is 10 miles north west of Fulda.

SCHLOCHAU, or Schluchau, a small town of West Prussia. Population 1100; 62 miles south-south-east of Dantzic.

SCHLOGEL, a large village of Prussian Silesia, in the county of Glatz. In the neighbourhood are some coal mines, and a saltpetre work. Population 1300.

SCHLOPPA, a small town of West Prussia. Population 1150; 56 miles north-north-west of Posen.

SCHLOPPE, a small town of Prussian Poland; 56 miles south of Posen.

SCHLOSSBERG, a small town of the west of Hungary, near Presburg, inhabited chiefly by Jews.

SCHLOSSBERG, in Transylvania. See Deva.

SCHLOSSER FORT, an old stockade fort, now in perfect ruins, in Niagara county, New York.

SCHLOTHEIM, a small town of Upper Saxony, in the county of Schwarzburg-Rudolstad. Population 1000; 9 miles north-east of Muhlhausen.

SCHLUBBE, a small river of Prussia, in the Middle Mark of Brandenburg, between the Spree and the Oder, into the latter of which it falls.

SCHLUCHSEE, a small lake of the west of Germany, in Baden, on the Feldberg, a mountain of the Black Forest, nearly 2300 feet above the level of the sea.

SCHLUCHTERN, a small town of Germany, in Hesse-Cassel, and the county of Hanau. Population 1400; 16 miles south-south-west of Fulda.

SCHLUCKENAU, or Schlottenau, a small town in the north of Bohemia, on the borders of Saxony, with 2800 inhabitants; 30 miles east of Dresden. Lat. 51. 0. 30. N. long. 14. 26. 45. E.

SCHLUSSELBURG, a small town and fortress in the north of European Russia, situated at the spot where the Neva issues from the lake Ladoga. The town stands on the left bank of the river, has 3200 inhabitants, and manufactures, on a small scale, of cotton and porcelain. The fort is built on an island in the river (between 300 and 400 yards long), and, since the cessation of military operations in this part of Russia, has been frequently used as a state prison. The walls, built of stone and brick, are about 50 feet high, of great thickness, and fortified in the old fashion with turrets and battlements. The passage into the island is by a draw-bridge; 24 miles east of St. Petersburg.

SCHLUSSELBURG, a small town of Prussian Westphalia, on the Weser; 13 miles north-north-east of Minden. Population 800.

SCHMAHLE AUE, a small river of Hanover, in the duchy of Luneberg, which falls into the Seeve, above Testenberg.

SCHMALBROICH, a village of the Prussian province of Berg and Cleves, near Kempen. Population 800.

SCHMALCALDEN. See Smalcalden.

SCHMALLENBERG, a small town of the Prussian states, in the duchy of Westphalia; 22 miles south-south-west of Brilon, and 58 east by-north of Cologne. Population 800.

SCHMEGEN, or Szmiszany, a small town in the north of Hungary, on the Hernath; 12 miles south-south-east of Kesmark, and 120 north-north-east of Pest. Population 1100.

SCHMEIZEL (Martin), a German historical writer, was born at Cronstadt in the year 1679. He was educated partly at Jena, and partly at Wittenberg and Griefswald. In 1706 he accompanied a young gentleman in the quality of tutor to Halle, and thence to Jena. In 1709 he undertook a tour to Denmark and Sweden. In the latter country he was entrusted with the care of two young gentlemen, whom he carried with him to Jena, and in 1713 took them back to Sweden: on which occasion he was twice captured by Danish privateers, and conveyed to Copenhagen, but he soon obtained his liberty, and returned to Jena. After this he was appointed professor of philosophy in the academy, and at the same time librarian. In 1731 he was invited to Halle, to be professor of jurisprudence and history, with the honour of the title of counsellor of state to his Prussian majesty. He died in 1747. His works are numerous, and written partly in his native language, and partly in Latin: of these, the principal are as follow: "Tractatus de Coronis tam antiquis quam modernis;" "De Clenodiis et Ritu inaugurandi Reges Hungariæ;" "Præcognita Hist. Ecclesiasticæ;" "Catalogus Scriptorum qui Res Hungariæ Transilvaniæ, &c., illustrant et in Bibliotheca Martini Schmeizelii servantur."

SCHMELZ, a small river in East Prussia, which falls into the Curische Haff, at a place called also Schmelz.

SCHMERBLOCK, a large village of West Prussia, near Dantzic, on the Vistula, inhabited by the descendants of Dutch settlers.

SCHMIDEFELD, a small town of Prussian Saxony, in the Henneberg; 8 miles north of Schleassingen. Population 1100.

SCHMIDELIA [so named by Linnæus, in honour of Casimir Christopher Schmidel, professor of botany, at Erlang, author of Icones et Analyses Plantarum, 1747 and 1763, and various dissertations], in Botany, a genus of the class octandria, order digynia, natural order of sapindi *(Juss.)* —Generic Character. Calyx: perianth two-leaved; leaflets roundish, coloured, permanent. Corolla: petals four, roundish, sessile, erect. Stamina: filaments eight, simple, length of the flower. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germs two, pedicelled, compressed, longer than the flower. Styles filiform, bifid at the top. Stigmas simple. Pericarp: berries two, subglobular. Seeds solitary.—*Essential Character.* Calyx two-leaved. Corolla four petalled. Germs pedicelled, longer than the flower.

Schmidelia racemosa.—This is a tree in appearance resembling *Rhus trifoliata*, with flexuose branches, as in *Rhus Toxicodendron.* Leaves alternate, ternate: leaflets petioled, ovate-oblong, acuminate, subserrate, naked. Common petioles round. Racemes axillary, simple. Berry superior, oblong, smooth, black. Seed single, ovate, large, adhering all round to the pulp of the berry. It differs from Rhus in having the seed erect, and the radicle of the embryo not bent in.—Native of the East Indies.

SCHMIDT (Erasmus), was born in 1560, in Misnia, and studied at Wittenberg, where he afterwards became professor, first of the Greek, and then of the mathematics. He died in 1637, leaving behind him a Greek grammar, a treatise on the Greek dialects, and several Latin orations. He gave new editions, with translations and commentaries, of Hesiod, Pindar, Lycophron, &c.: he also published a Greek and Latin concordance of the New Testament.

SCHMIEDEBERG, a town of Prussian Silesia, among the Riesengebirge mountains. It is a straggling place, about two miles in length. Most of the inhabitants are linen weavers, and the traffic in that commodity is very important for so small a town. Its position between lofty mountains, without a fit channel to carry off the redundant waters after thaws or heavy falls of rain, renders it subject to dangerous inundations; and in 1810, a great injury took place from that cause. Population 3800; 22 miles south-south-west of Jauer, and 56 west-south-west of Breslau.

SCHMIEDEBERG, a large village of Prussian Saxony, at the confluence of the Elbe and the Mulda. Population 1500.

SCHMIEDEBERG, a large village of the north-west of Bohemia, in the circle of Saatz, near Weipert, on the borders of Saxony. Population 1300.

SCHMIEGEL, a small town of Prussian Poland; 17 miles north-north-east of Fraustadt, and 42 south-south-west of Posen. Population 2200, chiefly Lutherans.

SCHMITH (Nicholas), a writer in history, was a native of Oldenburg, in Hungary. He entered early into the Society of the Jesuits, and taught the belles-lettres and theology in the schools of his order with great reputation. He died in 1767. As an author, his chief works are, "Series Archiepiscoporum Strigonensium," 2 vols. 8vo.; "Episcopi Agriensis, fide diplomatica concinnati;" "Imperatores Ottomannici à capta Constantinopoli, cum Epitome Principum Turcarum ad annum 1718," 2 vols. fol. These works, especially the history of the Ottoman emperors, are said to abound in erudition, and to be composed in a pure and elegant style.

SCHMOGRA, or Smoger, a village of Prussian Silesia, 31 miles east of Breslau. Though now a small place, it appears to have been of some importance in former times; the first Christian church in Silesia having been erected here in 966. It was then also constituted a bishop's see; but that honour was long since transferred to Breslau.

SCHMOLLEN, a small town of the interior of Germany, in the principality of Altenburg. Population 2700; 57 miles west of Dresden.

SCHMOLNITZ, or Szomolnok, a small town in the north of Hungary, situated in a valley among the Carpathians. It is the chief town of one of the four mining districts of Hungary, and has a mint for coining copper money. In the neighbourhood are rich mines of silver, copper, iron, and sulphur. Population 5500, partly Catholic, and partly Lutheran; 114 miles north-north-east of Pest, and 22 west of Caschau.

SCHMUTTER, a small river of the Bavarian states, which falls into the Danube, at Ingolstadt.

SCHNACKENBURG, a small town of Hanover, in the principality of Luneburg, on the Elbe; 72 miles west-south-west of Hamburgh. Population 800.

SCHNAIDT, a large village of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, near Schorndorf. Population 1600.

SCHNAIDTHEIM, a large village of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg, department of the Kocher, near Heidenheim. Population 1000.

SCHNAITACH, a small town in the west of Germany, in Bavaria. It has 1000 inhabitants, partly Jews; 10 miles east-north-east of Nuremberg.

SCHNECKENSTEIN, a low insulated hill of Germany, in Saxony, in the Vogtland. It is remarkable for the stratified disposition of the rock which composes it, and for the topazes contained in it, which are found by making excavations with gunpowder.

SCHNEEBERG, a town of Saxony, 53 miles west-south-west of Dresden, and 7 west-north-west of Schwarzenberg. It contains 4400 inhabitants, has several public schools, and some manufactures, of which that of smalts is the largest in Saxony. The others are on a small scale, and chiefly of articles connected with the neighbouring mines. The quantity of gold extracted from these is said to have been considerable in former ages. At present it is small; and the chief products of the mines are silver, cobalt, bismuth, iron, along with some tin and lead. Lat. 50. 48. 25. N. long. 12. 31. E.

SCHNEEBERG, a petty town of Bavarian Franconia, near Amorbach. Population 800.

SCHNEEBERG, a lofty mountain of Lower Austria, which forms part of the boundary of the circles adjacent to the Wienerwald. The elevation of the highest point is 6700 feet.

SCHNEEBERG, or Snesnik, a lofty mountain of Austrian Illyria, connected with the Julian Alps.

SCHNEEBERG, a mountain in the north of Bavaria, belonging to the Fichtelgebirge range. Its elevation above the level of the sea is 3800 feet.

SCHNEEBERG, a great mountain of Prussia, in Silesia, county of Glatz. Elevation 4800 feet.

SCHNEEGEBIRGE, a mountain chain of Germany, which separates Moravia from Silesia and the county of Glatz. It is a part of the Riesengebirge; and its highest point is the Schneeberg, in the county of Glatz.

SCHNEEKOPF, the chief mountain of the forest of Thuringia, in Germany, is situated in the duchy of Saxe-Gotha, and is 3300 feet above the level of the sea. Lat. 50. 42. 16. N. long. 10. 45. 30. E.

SCHNEEKOPPE, the highest of the Riesengebirge mountains, in Prussian Silesia; 9 miles south-west of Hirschberg. Its elevation is 5070 feet. Lat. 50. 44. 18. N. long. 13. 46. 35. E.

SCHNEEN, Great and Little, two large villages of Germany, in the south of Hanover; 7 miles south of Gottingen, separated by the river Leine.

SCHNEIDEMUHL, a small town of Prussian Poland, on the river Kuddow; 15 miles south-east of Deutsche-Kron, and 50 west of Bromberg. Population 2300. Lat. 53. 9. 10. N. long. 16. 44. 45. E.

SCHNEIDER (Conrad Victor), a German physician, much distinguished by his anatomical researches, was a native of Bitterfield, in Misnia. He was professor of anafomy, botany, and medicine, in the university of Wittemberg, and filled those offices with great reputation. He was father of his faculty, when he died in August, 1680, at the age of 66. He wrote many treatises; those on anatomical subjects relating chiefly to the bones of the cranium, and to the pituitary membrane of the nostrils, to which, indeed, his name is still attached; the Schneiderian membrane being the common appellation of this part at the present day. He refuted an ancient error which was prevalent in his time, that the catarrhal mucus distilled through the os cribriforme from the brain; he demonstrated that no such distillation could take place, and that this mucus was secreted from the pituitary membrane. His principal works were, "Dissertationes Anatomicæ de partibus, quas vocant, principalioribus, corde, capite, hepate, cum Observationibus ad Anatomiam, necnon ad Artem Medendi pertinentibus," Witteb. 1643. "Disputationes osteologicæ aliquot," 1649. "De Osse occipitis, ejusdem vitiis ac vulneribus," 1653. "Disputatio Medica de ossibus temporum," 1653. "Liber de osse cribriformi, et sensu ac organo odoratus, et morbis ad utrumque spectantibus, de coryza, hæmorrhagia narium, polypo, sternutatione, amissione odoratus," 1655. "De Catarrhis Libri quinque," 1660. "Liber de Catarrhis specialissimus," 1664. "Liber de morbis capitis, seu cephalicis illis, ut vocant, soporosis," 1669. "Liber de nova gravissimorum trium morborum curatione; de Apoplexia, de Lypopsychia, et Paralysi," Francf. 1672. "Liber de Spasmonum natura et subjecto," Witt. 1678. The writings of Schneider, save those which relate to anatomy, are diffuse and obscure, and full of ancient hypothetical doctrines. See *Eloy. Dict. Hist. de la Med.*

SCHNEIDHEIM, a village of Bavaria, in the circle of the Upper Danube, county of Oettingen, with 1100 inhabitants.

SCHNELLWALD, a large village of Prussian Silesia; 10 miles south-east of Neisse. Population 1300.

SCHNEMT, a village of Upper Egypt, on the Nile; 9 miles north of Benisuef.

SCHNEPFENTHAL, a petty village of Upper Saxony, in the duchy of Saxe-Gotha, remarkable for a large boarding-school, erected here on a particular plan.

SCHNEY, a village of Germany, in Franconia, on the Maine. Population 1000.

SCHNOT-FISH, a name by which some call the hasela, or hasler, a fresh-water fish, approaching to the mullet or chub kinds, and at some seasons esteemed a very delicate dish.

SCHNOZENBACH, a large village of Germany, in Bavarian Franconia; 4 miles west of Schwarzenberg.

SCHOCKEL, a lofty mountain of Austria, in Styria, near Gratz.

SCHOCKEN, or Skoki, a small town of Prussian Poland; 20 miles north-north-east of Posen, and 21 north-west of Gnesna. Population 1100.

SCHODAC, a township of the United States, in Rensselaer county, New York, on the east side of the Hudson; 9 miles south of Albany. Population 3166.

SCHODAC LANDING, a post village of the United States, in Columbia county, New York.

SCHŒNANTHUS [from σχοινος, *a rush*, and ανθος *a flower*], in Botany, a synonym of the Juncus odoratus, or Camel's hay.

SCHOENAS, among the ancients, a land measure containing two parasangs, or sixty stadia, according to Herodotus, which make seven and a half of our miles. But Pliny computes it at five miles, or fifty stadia.

SCHOENBRUNN, or Beautiful Spring, a Moravian settlement of the United States, in Tuscarawas county, Ohio, on the Muskingum, 3 miles below New Philadelphia.

SCHOENECK, a small town of Saxony, in the Vogtland; 8 miles east of Oelsnitz, and 70 west-south-west of Dresden. Population 1000.

SCHOENECK, a small town of West Prussia, on the river Fers; 23 miles south of Dantzic. Population 1600.

SCHOENINGEN, a small town of the north of Germany, in the duchy of Brunswick, and the chief place of a large district, comprising the north-east part of the duchy of Wolfenbuttel. It contains 3000 inhabitants, and a salt spring, which produces about 500 tons of salt annually; 18 miles north of Halberstadt.

SCHŒNION, in Ancient Music, a nome or air for flutes.

SCHNŒNOBATES [σχοινοβατης, formed from σχοινος, *a rope*, and βαινω, *I walk*], a name which the ancient Greeks gave to their rope-dancers, by the Romans called *funambuli*.

The schœnobates were slaves, whose masters made money of them by entertaining the people with their feats of activity. Mercurialis, de Arte Gymnastica, lib. iii., gives us five figures of schœnobates, engraven after ancient stones.

SCHOENNIS. See Schannis.

SCHOENSEE, a small town of Germany, in Bavaria; 36 miles north-north-east of Ratisbon. Population 1000.

SCHOENUS [Σχοινος of Dioscorides. From σχοινος, funis, a rope: to making which this plant is adapted: from σχειν, retinere], in Botany, a genus of the class triandria, order monogynia, natural order of calamariæ, cyperoideæ *(Juss.)* —Generic Character. Calyx: glumes chaffy, one-valved, heaped. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments three, capillary. Anthers oblong, erect. Pistil: germ ovate-three-sided, obtuse. Style bristle-shaped, length of the corolla. Stigma bifid or trifid, slender. Pericarp none. Seed single, roundish, among the glumes. There are some species in which a few very small bristles springing from the proper receptacle surround the seed.—*Essential Character.* Glumes chaffy (one-valved), heaped, the outer ones barren. Corolla none. Seed one, roundish among the glumes.

I.—With a round culm.

1. Schoenus mariscus, or prickly or long-rooted bog-rush.—Root perennial. Culm three or four feet high, round, leafy, branched at the top. Leaves linear-lanceolate, sheathing at the base, very sharply serrulate along the edge and keel. Flowers ferruginous, in terminating and lateral corymbs, with sheathing alternate bractes. Glumes ovate-acuminate. —Native of Europe and Africa, in fens and ditches.

2. Schoenus junceus, or rushy bog-rush.—Culm round, almost naked, umbel sessile, lateral.—Native of Guinea.

3. Schoenus mucronatus, or dagger-pointed or clustered bog rush.—Culm round, naked, spikelets ovate, in bundles, involucre

involucre six-leaved, leaves channelled. Root perennial, creeping.—Native of the South of France, Spain, Italy, Barbary, and Smyrna, on sandy sea coasts.

4. Schoenus pilosus, or hairy bog-rush.—Culm round, sheaths of the leaves hairy, flowers in bundles.—Native of Guinea.

5. Schoenus filiformis, or slender-stalked bog-rush.—Culm round, capillary, head oblong, involucre three-leaved. —Native of the Cape of Good Hope, as are the two following.

6. Schoenus striatus, or striated bog-rush.—Culm round, head ovate, involucre three-leaved.

7. Schoenus capitellum.—Culm round, head ovate, involucre two leaved.

8. Schoenus scariosus.—Culm round, head oblong, involucre one-leafed, glumes scariose at the edge. This has the appearance of Scirpus palustris.—Native of the East Indies and the Cape of Good Hope.

9. Schoenus radiatus, or melancranis radiata.—Head nearly globose. Bracteas numerous.—From the same country. Perennial. Rather taller than the first. Bracteas, or barren scales, at the base of the head of flowers, from six to eight, one of them half an inch long, the rest gradually less, widely spreading, awl-shaped, rigid, and somewhat pungent. Head the size of a cherry, composed of innumerable, ovate, crowded spikelets; their accompanying scales striated and dotted with purple.

10. Schoenus nigricans, or black bog-rush.—Culm round, naked, head ovate, involucre two-leaved, with one of the valves awl-shaped and longer. Root perennial. Leaves linear, half round, shorter than the culm.—Native of Europe and Barbary, in bogs and marshes. In England not uncommon: flowering in June.

11. Schoenus compressus, or compressed bog-rush.—Culm roundish, naked, spike, distich shorter than the one-leafed involucre, spikelets many-flowered, leaves flat. Root perennial, fibrous a little creeping.—Native of Europe in bogs. On Hinton moor, and between Little Shelford and Whittlesford, in Cambridgeshire; near Darsingham-Bath, Norfolk; Chiselhurst, in Kent; Basford Scottum, in Nottinghamshire. Not uncommon in other counties of England: flowering in July.

12. Schoenus ferrugineus, or rust-coloured bog-rush.—This is very nearly allied to Schoenus nigricans, but it is six times shorter and narrower. Head ferruginous as in that, but composed of a double spike, and hence very narrow. Each of these spikes consists of two flowers, very like those of nigricans.—Native of Gothland.

13. Schoenus rufus, or brown bog-rush.—Culm round, naked, six inches high, spike, distich longer than the one-leafed, blunt, involucre, spikelets few-flowered, leaflets channelled. Root perennial, creeping, horizontal.—Native of Scotland, in marshes; isles of Mull and Skye; and Dunglas Castle: it flowers in July.

14. Schoenus fuscus, or dusky bog-rush.—Very like Schoenus albus in stature, size, appearance, and place, yet different in its glomerate brown spikelets, not fastigiate and white: it also flowers earlier.

15. Schoenus tristachyos, or three-spiked bog-rush.—Culm round, jointed, even, heads three, terminating.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope, as are also the two following.

16. Schoenus cuspidatus, or cusped bog-rush.—Culm round, spikes panicled, shorter than the involucres.

17. Schoenus aristatus, or awned bog-rush.—Culm round, leaflets, spikes aggregate, involucre one-leafed, glumes cusped.

18. Schoenus compar, or equal-spiked bog-rush.—Culm round, leaflets a foot high, spikes aggregate, involucres one-leafed, shorter, glumes acute.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

19. Schoenus flexuosus, or flexuose bog-rush.—Culm round, leafy, spikes panicled, glumes mucronate.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope, as is the following.

20. Schoenus capillaceus, or hair-leaved bog-rush.—Culm round, leafy, spike subracemed, glumes cusped, leaves capillary.

21. Schoenus ustulatus, or burnt bog-rush.—Culm round. leafy, spikes peduncled, pendulous, oblong, awned. It differs manifestly from Schoenus glomeratus, by its oblong spikes.—Native of the Cape.

22. Schoenus spicatus, or spiked bog-rush.—Culm round, capillary, heads spiked, involucred.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

23. Schoenus bobartiæ.—Culm compressed, head terminating, involucre five-leaved. Roots many, heaped, appearing to the bulbous with brown inflated coats, putting forth long perpendicular fibres. Leaves linear, often exceeding the culm; which is about a foot high.—Supposed to be a native of Ceylon.

24. Schoenus stellatus, or starry bog-rush.—Culm subtriquetous, spikelets conglomerate, with a leafy involucres coloured at the base. Root perennial. Plant a foot high or less. Spikes terminating, clustered, sessile, acuminate, whitish.—Native of the West Indies.

25. Schoenus bulbosus, or bulbous bog-rush.—Culm round, filiform, spikes racemed, directed one way, involucres solitary. Root bulbous, covered with the rudiments of fallen leaves. Leaves numerous, bristle-shaped, erect, almost the length of the culm, separated at the base by white membranaceous scales. Flowers red, glomerate, small, in three or four little sessile alternate balls towards the top of the culm.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

26. Schoenus inanis.—Culm round, leafless, spikes panicled, glumes acute.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

II.—With a three sided culm.

27. Schoenus cephalotes.—Culm leafy, three-sided, involucre four-leaved, bent down, head oblong, terminating, Distinct from Scirpus cepholates.—Native of Surinam.

28. Schoenus cyperoides.—Culm three-sided, leafy, umbel terminating, spikelets glomerate. Two feet high. Leaves sheathing, half a foot long, linear, smooth, with the keel of the leaves subserrate.—Native of Jamaica.

29. Schoenus cymosus.—Culm three-sided, leafy, umbel terminating, compound, spikelets ovate, striated, glomerate. Root perennial. Culm a foot high, erect. Leaves linear, keeled, numerous on the culm; the upper ones longer than the umbel.—Native of North America.

30. Schoenus glomeratus.—Culm three-sided, leafy, flowers in bundles, leaves flat, peduncles lateral, in pairs.—Native of Jamaica and North America.

31. Schoenus cladium.—Culm bluntly, three-sided, leafy, even, eight or ten feet high, leaves prickly in front, panicles diffused, spikelets one-flowered, sessile two stamened.—Native of Jamaica.

32. Schoenus effusus.—Culm leafy, bluntly, three-sided, even, leaves prickly in front, panicles more erect, spikelets one-flowered, sessile, two-stamened.—This also is a native of Jamaica.

33. Schoenus restoides.—Culms at bottom, compressed-ancipital, and very smooth, flowers panicled, sheath lanceolate at the top. Almost a fathom in height.—Native of the West Indies.

34. Schoenus Surinamensis, or Surinam bog-rush.—Culm leafy, three sided, peduncles corymbed, the lower ones alternate, distant, the upper ones crowded. From one to four feet high, growing in tufts.—Native of the West Indies, in Jamaica and Surinam: also in the East Indies and China.

35. Schoenus thermalis, or warm-bath bog-rush.—Head lateral, compound, subsessile, leaves ensiform, keeled. Root perennial. Culms six feet high, the thickness of a swan's quill, stiff, even. Leaves sheathed, strict, even, erect.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

36. Schoenus lævis.—Culm three-cornered, leafy, heads lateral, glumes mucronate, spikes ovate.—Native of the same Cape, as is the following.

37. Schoenus lanceus.—Culm three-cornered, leafy, spikes panicled, lateral, glumes and spikelets lanceolate.

38. Schoenus

38. Schoenus albus, or white-headed bog-rush.—Culm three-sided, leafy, flowers in bundles, leaves bristle-shaped. Root perennial, creeping.—Native of Europe, in bogs: it flowers in July and August.

39. Schoenus gracilis, or slender bog-rush.—Culm three-sided, leafy, very long, filiform, spikes lateral, peduncled. Height from three to six feet.—Native of Jamaica, in the highest mountains.

40. Schoenus setaceus, or bristle-stalked bog-rush.—Culm three sided, almost naked, leaves bristle-shaped, spikelets aggregate, flowers two-stamened. Height about a foot.—Native of the West Indies, in dry pastures, and Jamaica.

41. Schoenus pusillus, or dwarf bog-rush.—Culm three-sided, naked, filiform, spikelets terminating, sub-fascicled, sessile, with a leaflet beneath, equalling the spike. Height about an inch. Roots capillary, simple.—Native of Jamaica.

42. Schoenus capillaris.—Culm three sided, naked, capillary, leaves capillary, spikelets fascicled, reflex, involucred, involucret two-leaved. About a foot high.—Native of Hispaniola: flowering in spring.

Five new species of Schoenus are described in Vahl's Eclogæ Americanæ.

SCHOEPFIA [so named by Schreber, in honour of Johann David Schoef, president of the medical college at Anspach, author of Materia Medica Americana, &c.], in Botany, a genus of the class, pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of aggregatæ, caprifolia *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth incrusting the germ at bottom turbinate-angular, indistinctly five-toothed. Corolla one-petalled, bell-shaped, ten-grooved at the base, five-cleft: segments triangular, acute, reflexed. Stamina: filaments five, very short. Anthers twin, erect, in the mouth of the corolla. Pistil: germ turbinate, half inferior, within the corolla, crowned with a semiglobular porous gland. Style shorter than the corolla, cylindrical, erect. Stigma capitate, trifid. Pericarp: drupe, with a one-celled nut. Seed one.—*Essential Character.* Calyx double; outer bifid, inferior: inner superior, quite entire. Corolla bell-shaped. Stigma capitate. Drupe one-seeded.

Schoepfia Americana.—It is a small tree, eight or ten feet in height, with round, smooth branches. Leaves petioled, alternate, ovate, very smooth, attenuated, blunt, quite entire. Peduncles axillary, often in pairs, one-flowered, sometimes two or three-flowered. Calyx double; one inferior, one-leafed, sub-bifid, the other half superior, entire. Sometimes there are only four stamens. The genus is allied to lonicera and loranthus.—Native of Santa Cruz and Montserrat, where it was found by Von Rohr.

SCHŒPFLIN (John Daniel), a writer in history, was born in 1694, at Saltzburg, in the Brisgau. He studied at Basil, and also at Strasburg, and in 1720 he was chosen professor of eloquence and history at the latter university. Here he obtained a large share of reputation, and was invited by various princes and universities to come and reside among them, but he preferred continuing at Strasburg. In 1726 he travelled into France, Italy, and England, and on his return he was presented with a canonry of St. Thomas. Having planned a history of Alsace, he travelled into the Low Countries, Germany and Switzerland, in search of materials, and in 1751 he published the first volume of his "Alsatia illustrata." When he presented this to the king of France, he took the opportunity of pleading for the privileges of the Protestant university of Strasburg, and obtained a confirmation of them. In 1761 the second volume was given to the public, and during the interval he had published his "Vindiciæ Celticæ." which was an account of the origin, language, &c., of the Celts. He also prepared, as supplements to the history of Alsace, a collection of its charters, and an account of its learned men, which his successor in the professorship, M. Koch, published under the titles of "Alsatia diplomatica," and "Alsaticarum Rerum Scriptores." The last great work of Schœpflin was a most elaborate history of his native state, intitled "Historia Zuringo-Badensis," 7 vols. 4to. 1763-6. He was author of several dissertations printed in the Memoirs of the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres, of which one is an attempt to prove that Guttemberg first practised the art of printing at Strasburg, which M. Schœffer afterwards brought to perfection at Mentz. Schœpflin had collected a fine library and museum attached to it, which, in the end, he liberally presented to the city of Strasburg. Of this a description has been published by Oberlin, under the title of "Museum Schœpflinianum." This learned man died at Strasburg in 1771, at the age of 77.

SCHOGHR, a village of Syria, in the pachalic of Aleppo, on the Orontes; 40 miles west of Aleppo.

SCHOHARIE, a county of the United States, in the central part of New York, bounded north by Montgomery county, north-east by Schenectady, east by Albany county, south-east by Greene county, south-west by Delaware county, and west by Otsego county. Population 18,945.

SCHOHARIE, a post township and village of the United States, and capital of Schoharie county, New York. The township is watered by the river of the same name. The village is situated on Schoharie flats, and contains the county buildings, a printing-office, two churches, and a number of elegant houses.

SCHOHARIE, a river of the United States, in New York, which runs north through Schoharie county, into the Mohawk, west of Florida. Length 70 miles. The alluvial flats on this river are from one to two miles wide, and are very fertile.

SCHOHHAVA, a large mountain of Yemen, in Arabia, containing upwards of 300 villages, each governed by its chief, under the title of Schiech.

SCHO'LAR, *s.* [*scholaris*, Lat. ȝcolepe, Sax.] One who learns of a master; a disciple.

The *scholars* of the Stagyrite,
Who for the old opinion fight,
Would make their modern friends confess
The difference but from more to less. *Prior.*

A man of letters.—To watch occasions to correct others in their discourse, and not slip any opportunity of shewing their talents, *scholars* are not blamed for. *Locke.*—A pedant; a man of books.—To spend too much time in studies, is sloth; to make judgment wholly by their rules, is the humour of a *scholar:* they perfect nature, and are perfected by experience. *Bacon.*—One who has a lettered education.—My cousin William is become a good *scholar:* he is at Oxford still, is he not? *Shakspeare.*—One who in our English universities belongs to the foundation of a college, and who has a portion of its revenues.

Our candidate at length gets in
A hopeful *scholar* of Coll. Trin.
A scholarship not half maintains,
And college rules are heavy chains. *Warton.*

SCHOLA'RITY, *s.* [*scholarité*, Fr. Cotgrave.] Scholarship. *Not in use.*—I'll pay your *scholarity. B. Jonson.*

SCHO'LARLIKE, *adj.* Becoming a scholar; like a scholar.

Your grace shall find him —
— Courtly, and *scholarlike*, understandingly read
In the necessities of the life of man. *Beaum. and Fl.*

SCHO'LARSHIP, *s.* Learning; literature; knowledge.—Your publick profession hath in a manner no acquaintance with *scholarship* or learning. *Sir T. Bodley to Sir F. Bacon.*—It pitied my very heart to think that a man of my master's understanding, and great *scholarship*, who had a book of his own print, should write so outrageously. *Pope.*—Literary education.—This place should be school and university, not needing a remove to any other house of *scholarship. Milton.*—Exhibition or maintenance for a scholar. *Ainsworth.*

A *scholarship*

A *scholarship* not half maintains,
And college rules are heavy chains;
So, scorning the late wish'd-for prize,
For a fat fellowship he sighs. *Warton.*

SCHOLA'STIC, *adj.* [from *scholasticus*, Lat.] Pertaining to the school; practised in schools.—*Scholastick* education, like a trade, does so fix a man in a particular way, that he is not fit to judge of any thing that lies out of that way. *Burnet.*—Befitting to the school; suitable to the school; pedantic; needlessly subtle.—Sir Francis Bacon was wont to say, that those who left useful studies for useless *scholastick* speculations, were like the Olympick gamesters, who abstained from necessary labours, that they might be fit for such as were not so. *Bacon.*

SCHOLA'STIC, *s.* One who adheres to the niceties or method of the schools.—The shallow commenting of *scholasticks* and canonists. *Milton.*

SCHOLASTIC PHILOSOPHY, a name given to the dialectic or Aristotelian philosophy, which, loaded with metaphysical subtleties, had been studied and professed by several of the clergy towards the close of the 11th century, and which began at the opening of the 12th to be publicly taught in the schools, and to take the lead of every other kind of learning. It gained esteem at this period, because it was supposed to be the key of theology, without which it would be impossible to unlock the mysteries of sacred wisdom. It was on account of this fancied alliance between logic and theology, that the former was made the principal object of study in all the schools, and that those who excelled in the dialectic art were regarded with the highest admiration, and attended by crowds of pupils. There were also other collateral circumstances which contributed to the prevalence of a taste for logical disputations. The Aristotelian philosophy had for several centuries been studied by the Saracens, and was at this time taught in their schools in Spain. These schools were visited by many of the western Christians, who learned Arabic, that they might be able to read translations of Aristotle, and other philosophical writers in that language, and who afterwards translated many Arabic books into the European tongues. The first person who undertook this task seems to have been Constantine Afer, a monk of Cassino. Daniel Morley also, of Norfolk, a student in the universities of Oxford and Paris, visited Spain, and learned mathematics in the Arabic tongue at Toledo, and on his return published books in Latin, one "De inferiori et superiori parte Mundi," and another, "De Principiis Mathematicis." He was followed by Robert Retin, archdeacon of Pampelona in Spain, who wrote a Latin translation of the Koran, and Adelard, an English monk of the Benedictine monastery at Bath, in the reign of Henry I., who learned Arabic, and translated from that language many Greek writings, among which were the Elements of Euclid.

Another cause which seemed to establish a general taste of the Peripatetic philosophy, and particularly for the Aristotelian logic, was the circumstance, that about this period many Greek copies of the writings of Aristotle were brought from Constantinople into the west. This fondness for logical disputations, however, occasioned an inundation of new opinions, which alarmed the guardians of the church; and the synod of Paris passed a sentence, prohibiting the use of the physical and metaphysical writings of Aristotle in the schools; which sentence was afterwards confirmed by the council of Lateran, under pope Innocent III. These violent measures increased the evils against which they were directed; and it was at length found necessary, by degrees, and under certain restrictions, to favour the study of Aristotle; so that his dialectics, physics, and metaphysics, were by express statute received into the university of Paris. In several other countries, the Aristotelian philosophy was received with less opposition. The name of Aristotle, from the end of the 12th century, obtained universal dominion; and his writings were so far from falling under the censure of councils and popes, that the Aristotelian and Saracenic philosophy became the main pillars of the ecclesiastical hierarchy. During the period that elapsed from the 12th to the 14th century, though many persons professed to philosophise, true philosophy and learning made little progress. The Scholastics lost themselves in metaphysical darkness. They carried on their disputes with such vehemence, that many ludicrous and many bloody frays happened among them. The whole world was disturbed with the idle contests of the scholastic philosophy from the 12th century to the Reformation; and so deeply did this philosophy take root, that even to this day it has not been entirely extirpated.

The origin of the scholastic philosophy may be easily traced. The high reputation which St. Augustine obtained in the Christian Church, gave his treatise on dialectics universal authority, and led those who were inclined to philosophise, implicity to follow his method of applying the subtleties of Stoic reasoning, and the mysteries of the Platonic doctrine, to the explanation of the sacred doctrines of revelation. The dialectic art, thus introduced, was further encouraged by Latin versions of some of the writings of Aristotle, and of Porphyry's Introduction to the Categories. The study of logical subtleties was pursued under these guides in the schools of the monasteries, particularly in Ireland, whence many scholars from England and Scotland carried this kind of philosophy into their own countries; and from Britain it afterwards passed into France, and other parts of Europe.

From this time, the ecclesiastics, who, during a long period of tumult and barbarism, kept the small remains of learning and philosophy in their own hands, made no other use of them than as pillars to support the hierarchy, or as weapons of defence against its adversaries. The whole history of the church, from the 8th to the 11th century, proves that scholastic men, that is, the professors of philosophy and theology in the monastic schools, studied and taught philosophy only for this purpose; and there can be no doubt, that the violent ecclesiastical disputes of these times fostered that disposition towards subtle refinement in speculation, which at length brought the scholastic philosophy to maturity. Towards the close of the 11th century, this spirit so generally prevailed, that disputation upon theology and philosophy became the chief occupation and amusement of the learned; and, in process of time, various sects sprung up in which questions purely logical were confounded with points of theology, and dialectics were applied to the explanation of the scriptures. This kind of philosophy was taught not only in the monastic schools, but in public academies; and Aristotle, at first imperfectly represented in Arabic and Latin versions, and afterwards brought into full view in his own original writings, obtained sovereign authority in the whole Christian world. Thus the scholastic philosophy appears not to have been the invention of any one man, but to have risen up by almost imperceptible degrees from the 5th to the 12th century, when it attained its maturity.

The leading character of the scholastic philosophy was, that it employed itself in an ostentatious display of ingenuity, in which axioms assumed without examination, distinctions without any real difference, and terms without any precise meaning, were made use of as weapons of assault and defence, in controversies upon abstruse questions, which, after endless skirmishes, it was impossible to bring to any issue, and which, notwithstanding all the violence of the contest, it was of no importance to determine. The scholastic logic is not to be confounded with the genuine art of reasoning, from which it differs as much as dross from pure gold. These disputants made use of dialectics, not to assist the human understanding in discovering truth conducive to the happiness of man, but to secure to themselves the honours of conquest in the field of controversy. John of Salisbury complains, that the scholars of his time consumed not ten or twenty years, but their whole lives, in these disputes; and that when, through old age, they became incapable of any other

other amusement or pleasure, these dialectic questions still dwelt upon their tongues, and dialectic books still remained in their hands.

It is scarcely to be conceived with what ardour, approaching even to madness, the first geniuses of the age applied to this kind of study. Losing themselves in a wood of abstract conceptions and subtle distinctions, the further they proceeded the greater were the darkness and confusion, till at length what was commonly called philosophy no longer deserved the name. Ludovicus Vives, one of the most intelligent writers of the 16th century, speaking of the scholastic philosophy, says, "from the writings of Aristotle they have selected not the most useful, but the most intricate and unprofitable parts; not his books of Natural History or his Problems, but his Physics, and those treatises which most resemble theirs in subtlety and obscurity; for example—his books upon the First Philosophy, upon Heaven, and upon Generation. For as to the treatise on Meteors, they are so entirely unacquainted with the subject, that it seems to have been admitted among the scholastic books rather by accident than design. The truth is, that these philosophers are less acquainted with nature than husbandmen or mechanics; and so much offended are they with that nature which they do not understand, that they have framed for themselves another nature, which God never framed, consisting of formalities, hæcceities, realities, relations, Platonic ideas, and other subtleties, which they honour with the name of the metaphysical world; and if any man has a turn of mind averse to the study of real nature, but adapted to the pursuit of these visionary fictions, they say he is possessed of a sublime genius."

"The topics, upon which these philosophers spent the whole force of their ingenuity, were of a kind at once the most difficult and abstruse, and the most trifling and useless. Intention and remission, proportion and degree, infinity, formality, quiddity, individuality, and other abstract ideas. furnished innumerable questions to exercise their subtlety. Not contented with considering properties and relations as they subsist, and are perceived in natural objects, they separated, in their conceptions, the former from the latter, and by this artifice transferred them into universal notions. Then forgetting that these notions are merely the offspring of the reasoning mind, they considered them as real entities, and made use of them as substantial principles in explaining the nature of things. This they did not only in metaphysics but in physics, in which these imaginary entities confused and obscured all their reasonings. If these creatures of abstraction be brought back to their natural connection with real objects, and with the terms which express them, it will appear, that they had nothing more than an imaginary existence, and the whole contest concerning them will vanish into a mere war of words. Whence some judgment may be formed concerning the value of this most profound, angelic, and seraphic philosophy."

Notwithstanding all the homage which was paid to the name of Aristotle, it is certain that the scholastics were very imperfectly acquainted with the true sense of his writings: for, not to insist at present upon the difficulties which unavoidably attend the study of his works, arising from the abstract nature of the subjects upon which he treats, from the studied ambiguity with which he frequently writes, from the extreme conciseness of his style, and from his obscure and defective report of the opinions of preceding philosophers, it must be recollected that these philosophers engaged in the study of Aristotle without a previous acquaintance with history, or with the Greek philosophy, and even without the knowledge of the Greek language, and saw the doctrines of their master through the obscure medium of very imperfect translations. Hence they never understood his whole system in connection, and often created monstrous forms, at which the Stagyrite himself would have been terrified.

Another evil which arose from the scholastic philosophy was, that instead of attempting to distinguish the real differences of things, and to deduce clear conclusions from certain principles, in order to enlarge the boundaries of human knowledge, it employed all the powers of ingenuity, and all the arts of sophistry, to obscure the principles of science, to mix truth with fallacy, and to open the door to universal scepticism. By the help of confused notions, unmeaning distinctions, barbarous terms, and a sophistical method of reasoning, men were prepared to advance and defend the most frivolous and absurd positions; both theological and philosophical disputations degenerated into a mere trial of skill; and the honest inquirer after truth was left without any certain guide. The consequences were, that tenets destructive of all religion were often publicly maintained in the schools; a corrupt system of moral philosophy, which left open many avenues to dishonesty and debauchery, was taught; and great depravity of manners prevailed.

This corruption of opinions and manners was accompanied with barbarism of language. Little attention was now paid to the study of grammar, or rhetoric; a vast mass of terms, wholly unknown in the Augustine age, were introduced into the Latin tongue, to express the abstract notions of dialectics and metaphysics; and a verbose, puerile, and inelegant mode of writing generally prevailed. John of Salisbury, who took much pains to revive an attention to literature, complained, that in his time, those who professed to be acquainted with all arts, both liberal and mechanic, and to teach them in a short time, neglected the study of grammar; whence they were ignorant of the first art, without which it is in vain that any one attempts to become master of the rest. Even the best writers of this period were not wholly free from literary barbarism.

Although logic and metaphysics were the peculiar province of the scholastics, their labours in these branches of learning were of little use. Their logic was rather the art of sophistry than that of reasoning; for it was applied to subjects which they did not understand, and employed upon principles which were not ascertained. Their whole business being disputation, they sought out for such thorny questions as were likely to afford them sufficient exercise for their ingenuity. Their own care was to conduct themselves in the contest by the rules of art, and their whole ambition to obtain the victory. For want of clear principles, and accurate definitions, their metaphysical system was a chaos of abstract notions and obscure terms. They professed, indeed, to follow the metaphysics of Aristotle, but for want of understanding the ancient doctrine of physics and metaphysics, or even the language of Aristotle, they frequently substituted the fictions of their own imaginations in the room of the true Aristotelian principles.

Of this the manner in which they handled the subject of *first matter* affords a clear example. The Stagyrite, in his metaphysics, had called matter that of which considered in itself, neither quantity nor quality can be predicated, and in which being terminates. In this definition Aristotle had a reference to the ancient doctrine, that bodies are composed of corpuscles; and by mental abstraction, separated from these that which is the first formal cause of their existence, and called it *first matter*. But the scholastics, being ignorant of the ancient notion of body, and confounding the purely metaphysical conception of matter with an extended subject endued with form and quantity, fell into trifling disputes, and devised innumerable subtleties, by which the original obscurity of the doctrine of Aristotle concerning the first matter was greatly increased. The first matter, according to the followers of Thomas Aquinas, was simple power without actual energy. Others, who perceived that this was a mere phantom of the imagination, defended the real existence of matter, though they confessed themselves ignorant of its nature. Whilst others, concluding that the attributes ascribed to matter could belong only to God, contended that God was the first matter. Nor did these subtile reasoners trifle less on the subject of divine and spiritual natures. Bonaventure, in his "Compendium of Theology," treats of angels, their substance, orders, offices, language, and

and the like, as if he himself had been an inhabitant of the angelic world.

SCHOLA'STICAL, *adj.* [*scholasticus*, Lat.] Belonging to a scholar or school; scholarlike. *Cotgrave.*—In the most strict and *scholastical* sense of that word. *Barrow.*—Suitable to the school, or form of theology so called.—Damascen first reduced the body of divinity into a *scholastical* method. *Bp. Cosins.*

SCHOLA'STICALLY, *adv.* According to the niceties or method of the schools.—No moralists or casuists, that treat *scholastically* of justice, but treat of gratitude, under that general head, as a part of it. *South.*

SCHOLA'STICISM, *s.* The method or niceties of the schools.—The talents of Abelard were not confined to theology, jurisprudence, philosophy, and the thorny paths of *scholasticism:* he gave proofs of a lively genius, by many poetical performances. *Dr. Warton.*

SCHO'LIAST, *s.* [*scholiastes*, Lat.] A writer of explanatory notes.—The title of this satyre, in some ancient manuscripts, was the reproach of idleness; though in others of the *scholiasts* 'tis inscribed against the luxury of the rich. *Dryden.*

What Gellius or Stobæus cook'd before,
Or chew'd by blind old *scholiasts* o'er and o'er. *Pope.*

SCHOLIA'STIC, *adj.* Pertaining to a scholiast.—The true illuminated have met with such numberless commentators, whose *scholiastic* midwifery hath delivered them of meanings that the authors themselves, perhaps, never conceived. *Swift*

To SCHO'LIAZ, *v. n.* To write notes.—He thinks to *scholiaze* upon the Gospel. *Milton.*

SCHO'LICAL, *adj.* [*scholicus*, Lat.] Scholastic. *Not in use, yet a good word.*—It is a common *scholical* error to fill our papers and note-books with observations of great and famous events:—meanwhile things of ordinary course and common life gain no room in our paper-books. *Hales.*

SCHO'LION, or SCHO'LIUM, *s.* [Latin.] A note; an explanatory observation.—Some cast all their metaphysical and moral learning into the method of mathematicians, and bring every thing relating to those abstracted or practical sciences under theorems, problems, postulates, *scholiums*, and corollaries. *Watts.*

The term Scholium is much used in geometry, and other parts of mathematics; where, after demonstrating a proposition, it is frequent to point out how it might be done some other way; or to give some advice or precaution, in order to prevent mistakes; or add some particular use or application thereof.

SCHOLLERA [so named in honour of Frederick Adam Scholler], a plant described very imprefectly by Schreber, Gen. 785.

SCHOLLIA [so named by Professor von Jacquin, jun., in compliment to Mr. George Scholl, curator of the imperial garden of Belvedere], a genus previously called Hoya, by Mr. R. Brown. See RIVINA.

SCHOLT, or SZOLT, formerly a separate palatinate of Hungary, but now a part of the palatinate of Pest. It lies to the east of the Danube.

SCHO'LY, *s.* [*scholium*, Lat.] An explanatory note. "This word, with the verb following, is, I fancy, peculiar to the learned Hooker." *Johnson.*—That *scholy* had need of a very favourable reader, and a tractable, that should think it plain construction, when to be commanded in the word, and grounded upon the word, are made all one. *Hooker.*

To SCHO'LY, *v. n.* To write expositions.—The preacher should want a text, whereupon to *scholy*. *Hooker.*

SCHOMBERG (Frederic Amand), Duke of, a distinguished officer, the son of count Schomberg, by an English lady, the daughter of lord Dudley, was born in 1608. He was initiated into the military life under Frederic Henry, prince of Orange, and afterwards served under his son, William II. of Orange, who highly esteemed him. He then repaired to the court of France, where his reputation was so well known, that he obtained the government of Gravellines, of Furnes, and the surrounding countries. He was reckoned in no way inferior to any general in that kingdom, excepting mareschal Turenne and the prince of Condé. The French court, thinking it necessary to diminish the power of Spain, sent Schomberg to the assistance of the Portuguese, who were engaged in a war with that country respecting the succession to their throne. Schomberg's military talents gave a turn to the war in favour of his allies. The court of Spain was obliged to solicit peace in 1668, and to acknowledge the house of Braganza as the just heirs to the throne of Portugal. For his great services on this occasion he was created count Mentola in Portugal, and a pension of 5000*l.* was granted to him, with the reversion to his heirs. In 1673 he came to England to command the army, but the purity of his intentions being suspected, he found it necessary to return to France, which he soon left for the Netherlands. In June 1676 he forced the prince of Orange to raise the siege of Maestricht, after which he was almost immediately raised to the rank of mareschale of France. According to the writers in the "Dictionnaire Historique," he had been raised to that rank while he was serving in Portugal. Upon the revocation of the edict of Nantes, Schomberg, who was a Protestant, requested leave to retire to his own country. This petition was refused, but he was allowed to go into Portugal, where he imagined he should be kindly received on account of his past services. But the bigotry of the Portuguese, though it did not prevent them from accepting assistance from a heretic, when their kingdom was threatened with subversion, could not permit them to give him shelter when he came for protection. The detestable inquistion interfered, and the king was obliged to send him away. He then went to Holland, and soon after accepted from the elector of Brandenburg, and was invested with, the government of Ducal Prussia, and appointed commander-in-chief of the Elector's forces. He followed the prince of Orange to England, when he came to take possession of the throne of these realms; and when that prince was firmly established in the government, he appointed Schomberg to be commander-in chief of the forces, and master-general of the ordnance. In April 1689 he was made knight of the Garter, and naturalized by act of parliament; and in the following spring he was created a baron, earl, marquis, and duke of the kingdom of England, by the name and title of Baron Teys, Earl of Brentford, Marquis of Harwich, and Duke of Schomberg. The House of Commons voted to him 100,000*l.* as a reward for his services. Of this he only received a very small part, but after his death a pension of 5000*l.* was given to his son.

In August 1689 he was sent to Ireland, to reduce that kingdom to obedience. When he arrived, he found himself at the head of an army of 12,000 foot, and 2000 horse, while king James commanded an army three times more numerous. Schomberg thought it dangerous to engage so superior a force, and remained on the defensive for six weeks, during which, owing to the wetness of the season, he lost a considerable part of his army. Schomberg was blamed for not bringing the king to action; but others, and those excellent judges, admired his conduct as a real display of great military talents. Had he risked an engagement, and been defeated, Ireland must have been lost. At the famous battle of the Boyne, which decided the fate of James, Schomberg passed the river at the head of his cavalry, defeated eight squadrons of the enemy, and broke the Irish infantry. When the French Protestants lost their commander, Schomberg went to rally and lead them on to the charge. While thus engaged, a party of king James's guard attacked him with great fury, and gave him two wounds in the head These would not of themselves have been dangerous, but the French Protestants, thinking their general was killed, fired upon the guards, and shot the duke of Schomberg dead on the spot. He was buired in St. Patrick's cathedral. He is described by bishop Burnet as "a calm man, of great application;

application; who thought much better than he spoke; of true judgment, of exact probity, and of a humble and obliging temper."

SCHOMBERG, a small town of Prussia, in Silesia, at the foot of the Riesengebirge; 51 miles west-south-west of Breslau. Population 1900. Though surrounded by mountains, it stands at a very considerable elevation, being about 1600 feet above the level of the sea.

SCHOMBERG, or SZUMBERG, a town of the Austrian states, in Moravia; 29 miles north-by-west of Olmutz, and 55 north-by-east of Brunn. Population 3400. It has some manufactures of cotton goods.

SCHONACH, a large village in the west of Germany, in Baden and the Black Forest; 19 miles north-east of Freyberg. Population 1600.

SCHONACH, a small town of Germany, in Bavaria; 20 miles east-by-south of Ratisbon.

SCHONAU, a small town of the west of Germany, in Baden; 5 miles north-east of Heidelberg. Population 1200.

SCHONAU, another small town of Germany, in Baden, in the Wiesenthal; 23 miles north-east of Bale. Population 900.

SCHONAU, a large village of the north-east of Bohemia, in the circle of Konigingratz. Population 1300.

SCHONAU, a large village of Prussian Silesia; 4 miles south-by-west of Ober Glogau. Population 900.

SCHONAU, a small town of Prussian Silesia, on the Katsbach; 12 miles west of Jauer. Population 900.

SCHONAU, GROS, a large village, or rather town of Germany, in Saxony, in the territory of the town of Zittau. It contains, including a small track lying round it, 4000 inhabitants, employed chiefly in weaving linen; 6 miles west of Zittau.

SCHONBACH, a petty town of the north-west of Bohemia; 5 miles south of Krottau, with cotton manufactures.

SCHONBERG, a town of the Austrian states, in Moravia; 45 miles north-west of Olmutz. It contains 3400 inhabitants, and has in the environs extensive plantations of the Astragalus Balticus, a species of vetch, the fruit of which is used as a substitute for coffee.

SCHONBERG, a small town of the Prussian province of the Lower Rhine; 29 miles north of Treves.

SCHONBERG, a small town of the north of Germany, in the grand duchy of Mecklenburg-Strelitz; 12 miles east of Lubeck. Population 1000.

SCHONBERG, a large village of Switzertand; 14 miles south of Zurich.

SCHONBERG, a small town of the Prussian states in Upper Lusatia; 6 miles south-east of Gorlitz. Population 900.

SCHONBERG, a large village of Germany, in Saxony, on the borders of Bohemia; 63 miles west of Dresden.

SCHONBORN, a village in the north-west of Bohemia; 14 miles north of Leutmeritz. Population 809.

SCHONBORN, a village of the Prussian states, in Lower Lusatia, near Lukau.

SCHONBRUNN, a village and palace belonging to the emperor of Austria; about 3 miles south-west of Vienna. It is the usual residence of the imperial court; and was greatly improved by the empress Maria Theresa. The church, the pleasure grounds, the botanical garden (the best in Germany), the menagerie, the hall, with the statue of the emperor Francis I., are all deserving attention. Buonaparte had his head-quarters here in 1805 and 1809.

SCHONBRUNN, a small town of the Bavarian states, near the Maine; 3 miles south-west of Lichtenfels.

SCHONBUCHEL, a small town of Lower Austria, on the Danube; 12 miles west of St. Polten.

SCHONBUHEL, a small town in the north of Bohemia, in the circle of Leutmeritz.

SCHONBURG, a county in the interior of Germany, which belonged to Bohemia till the treaty of Teschen, in 1779, when it was ceded to Saxony, of which kingdom it continues to form a part. It adjoins the circles of Leipsic and the Erzgebirge, has an extent of about 340 square miles, and a population of 61,000.

SCHONEBECKE, a small town of Prussian Saxony, in in the duchy of Magdeburg, on the Elbe. It is an open, unfortified place, which, for its limited population (5100), covers a large space of ground. The inhabitants are employed partly in agriculture, partly in the sale of wood, but chiefly in the manufacture of salt from brine springs. Of this article they make not less than 40,000 tons annually, exclusive of Glauber's salt, sal ammoniac, &c.; 7 miles south-east of Magdeburg.

SCHONEICH, a large village of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg; 9 miles south-south-west of Stutgard. Population 1300.

SCHONEN. See SCANIA.

SCHONENBACH, a village in the west of Germany, in Baden; 18 miles east-by-north of Freyberg. Population 800.

SCHONENWALD, another village in the west of Germany, in Baden, 18 miles east-north-east of Freyburg. Population 950.

SCHONER (John), a German mathematician, was born at Carlstadt, in Franconia, in 1477. He studied at Nuremberg and Erfurt, where he applied himself to philosophy, and other branches of general science. He was settled some time as a clergyman at Bamberg, but, on the recommendation of the celebrated Melanchthon, he was, in 1528, made professor of the mathematics in the gymnasium of Nuremberg, where he published his astronomical tables, called, on account of their clearness, "Resolutæ," dedicated to the magistrates of that city, in the year 1536. Schoner, like many of his contemporaries, was much addicted to judicial astrology. He was, however, of considerable benefit to science by his labours. He died at Nuremberg, in the year 1547. After his death, his son published his works in 1551, under the title "Opera Mathematica Joannis Schoneri Carolostadii, in unum Volumen congesta et publicæ Utilitati Studiosorum omnium ac celebri Famæ Norici Nominis dicata. Denuo ab authoris filio correcta et locupletata." The son, who was editor of this work, published a work on dialling, which has been sometimes, though erroneously, ascribed to the father. It is entitled "Gnomonice Andreæ Schoneri."

SCHONFIELD, a small town in the north-west of Bohemia; 18 miles east of Egra. It contains 1900 inhabitants, and has the oldest tin mines in the country.

SCHONFLIES, a small town of the Prussian province of Brandenburg, near the lake of Sonnenburg, with 1800 inhabitants; 63 miles east-north-east of Berlin.

SCHONGAU, a small town of Germany, in Bavaria; 37 miles south-west of Munich. It is built in the form of a circle, round a small hill, at the east side of which runs the Lech. It contains only 1300 inhabitants, but has no less than four poor houses, and seven churches or chapels.

SCHONHAUSEN, a village and palace of Prussia; 6 miles north of Berlin. A walk of linden trees extends all the way to Berlin.

SCHONHEIDE, a small town of Prussian Silesia; 7 miles south-south-west of Grotkau, with 850 inhabitants.

SCHONHEIDE, a large village of Saxony, in the circle of the Erzgebirge; 9 miles west-south-west of Schwarzenberg. It contains 3300 inhabitants, and has several branches of manufacture, of a very distinct nature, viz., iron, plates, tobacco pipes, and on the part of the female inhabitants, the embroidering of fine cotton and gauze for the manufacturers at the neighbouring town of Plauen.

SCHONHOF, a village of Austrian Silesia, in the circle of Troppau, on the Luczina, with 1100 inhabitants.

SCHONLANKE, or TRESCHONKA, a small town of Prussian Poland, on the great road from Berlin to Bromberg; 63 miles west of Bromberg, and 15 west-south-west of Schneidemuhl. It contains 3600 inhabitants, of whom 600 are Jews. They manufacture a considerable quantity of broad cloth. Lat. 53. 2. 27. long. 16. 38. 13. E.

SCHONLINDE,

SCHONLINDE, a small town in the north of Bohemia; 35 miles east-south-east of Dresden, and 9 north of Bohmisch Kamnitz. Population 2200. Here are excellent and extensive bleach-fields, both for yarn and linen.

SCHONMATTENWAG, Lower, a village of Germany, in Hesse-Darmstadt, near Hirsch-horn, with 800 inhabitants.

SCHONNING, or, as it is more generally spelt, Schoning (Gerrard), a learned Norwegian, was born at Skatnæs, in Nordland, in 1722. He received the early part of his education at the school of Drontheim; and after having completed his studies at other seminaries, where he was distinguished by his great talents, he was, in 1751, elected a member of the Royal Society for improving the Danish language and history. In 1758 he became a member of the Academy of Sciences at Copenhagen, and was, a few years after, chiefly instrumental in forming the Drontheim Society, which obtained the title of the Royal Norwegian Society. In 1764 he was appointed professor of eloquence and history in the academy of Soroe; in 1772 he was chosen a member of the Historical Institute of Gottingen; and in 1774 appointed a counsellor of justice. In the years 1773, 1774, 1775, he went on a tour at the king's expense, through various parts of Norway, to examine the different remains of antiquity, and collect information in respect to the physical and economical state of the country. After this he became private keeper of the records to the king, and an active member of the society formed for the purpose of publishing Icelandic works from the collection of Arnas Magnæus. He died in 1780, bequeathing his library, which contained a large number of books, to the Royal Norwegian Society. His works are very numerous, of which the titles are given in the General Biography, and among which the following may be mentioned as the more important: "An Essay towards the ancient Geography of the Northern Countries, particularly Norway;" "Observations on the old Northern Marriages and Weddings;" "De Anni Ratione apud veteres Septentrionales;" "History of Norway from the Foundation of the Kingdom till the Time of Harold Haarfager;" "Travels through Norway," &c. Among the papers which this author caused to be inserted in the Transactions of the Norwegian Society, and of the Academy of Sciences at Copenhagen, were the following:—"On the Northern Lights;" "On the Knowledge which the ancient Greeks and Romans had of the northern Countries, and particularly of Scandinavia;" "On the Expedition of Darius Hystaspis into Scythia," and many others. *Gen. Biog.*

SCHONSTADT, a small town of Prussian Saxony, in Thuringia, near Langensalza, with 1900 inhabitants.

SCHONSTIES, a small town of the Prussian states; 63 miles north-east of Berlin.

SCHONWALD, a long straggling village of Prussian Silesia, which contains 1500 inhabitants, and, with the adjoining village of Peterwitz, forms a succession of houses nearly 4 miles in length, and extending to the small town of Silberberg.

SCHONWALD, a village in the north of Bohemia; 48 miles north-by-west of Prague. Population 900.

SCHOOCKIUS (Martin), a critic and miscellaneous writer, was born at Utrecht in 1614. He was successively professor of languages, eloquence, history, &c., at Utrecht, Deventer, Groningen, and lastly at Frankfort-on-the-Oder, where he died in 1669. He was author of a great number of works in Latin, and many of them on very singular subjects. Among the more important were the following:—"De Statu Reipublicæ Fœderati Belgii;" "De Imperio Maritimo;" "De Lingua Hellenistica;" and "Exercitationes Variæ."

SCHOODIAK, a river of America, which bounds the province of Maine on the side of New Brunswick, and runs into the Passamaquoddy bay. It is navigable for ships 25 miles. Lat. 45. 10. N. long. 67. W.

SCHOODIC LAKES, lakes of the United States, in Washington county, Maine; about 40 miles north-north-west of Machias.

SCHOOL, *s.* [*schola*, Lat. ȝcole, Sax. *schule*, Germ. *schole*, Teut. *ecole*, Fr.] A house of discipline and instruction.

Their age the same, their inclinations too,
And bred together in one *school* they grew. *Dryden.*

A place of literary education; an university.—My end being private, I have not expressed my conceptions in the language of the *schools*. *Digby.*—Writers on that subject have turned it into a composition of hard words, trifles, and subtleties, for the mere use of the *schools*, and that only to amuse men with empty sounds. *Watts.*—A state of instruction.

The calf breed to the rural trade,
Set him betimes to *school*, and let him be
Instructed there in rules of husbandry. *Dryden.*

System of doctrine as delivered by particular teachers.

No crazed brain could ever yet propound,
Touching the soul, so vain and fond a thought;
But some among these masters have been found,
Which in their *schools* the self-same thing had taught.
Davies.

The age of the church and form of theology succeeding that of the fathers: so called, because this mode of treating religion arose from the use of academical disputations.—A man may find an infinite number of propositions in books of metaphysicks, *school* divinity, and natural philosophy, and know as little of God, spirits, or bodies, as he did before. *Locke.*

To SCHOOL, *v. a.* To instruct; to train.

Una her besought to be so good
As in her virtuous rules to *school* her knight. *Spenser.*

He's gentle, never *schooled*, and yet learned. *Shakspeare.*—To teach with superiority; to tutor.

Cousin, *school* yourself, but for your husband,
He's noble, wise, judicious. *Shakspeare.*

SCHO'OLBOY, *s.* A boy that is at school.

Schoolboys tears take up
The glasses of my sight. *Shakspeare.*

SCHO'OLDAME, *s.* A schoolmistress.—Sending little children of two or three years old to a *schooldame*, without any design of learning one letter, but only to keep them out of the fire and water. *Echard, Gr.*

SCHO'OLDAY, *s.* Age in which youth is sent to school.

Is all forgot?
All *schooldays* friendship, childhood, innocence?
Shakspeare.

SCHO'OLERY, *s.* Precepts. *Not in use.*

To which him needs a guileful hollow heart
Marked with fair dissembling courtesy,
A filed tongue furnish'd with termes of art,
Not art of school, but courtier's *schoolery*. *Spenser.*

SCHO'OLFELLOW, *s.* One bred at the same school.

Thy flatt'ring method on the youth pursue;
Join'd with his *schoolfellows* by two and two:
Persuade them first to lead an empty wheel,
In length of time produce the labouring yoke. *Dryden.*

SCHO'OLHOUSE, *s.* House of discipline and instruction.

Fair Una gan Fidelia fair request,
To have her knight unto her *schoolhouse* plac'd. *Spenser.*

SCHO'OLING, *s.* Instruction; learning at school.—School-hire; stipend paid to a schoolmaster for instruction. *Sherwood.*—A lecture; a sort of reprimand.

You shall go with me;
I have some private *schooling* for you both. *Shakspeare.*

SCHO'OLMAID, *s.* A girl at school.

As *schoolmaids* change their names
By vain, though apt, affection. *Shakspeare.*

SCHO'OLMAN, *s.* One versed in the niceties and subtilties of academical disputation.—The king, though no good *schoolman*, converted one of them by dispute. *Bacon.*

Unlearn'd, he knew no *schoolman's* subtle art;
No language, but the language of the heart. *Pope.*

A writer of scholastic divinity or philosophy.

Let subtle *schoolmen* teach these friends to fight,
More studious to divide than to unite. *Pope.*

SCHO'OLMASTER, *s.* One who presides and teaches in a school.

I, thy *schoolmaster*, have made thee more profit
Than other princes can, that have more time
For vainer hours, and tutors not so careful. *Shakspeare.*

No person shall keep a school-master, who does not constantly go to church, or is not allowed by the ordinary, on pain of 10*l.* a month; and the schoolmaster shall be disabled, and suffer a year's imprisonment. Stat. 23 Eliz. cap. 1.

Recusants are not to be schoolmasters in any public grammar-school, nor any other, unless the persons be licensed by the bishop, under the penalty of forfeiting 40*s.* a-day. B. Jac. I. c. 4.

By 17 Car. II. c. 2., no person shall be schoolmaster, or take any boarders to be instructed by himself, or by any other, without taking an oath of allegiance therein mentioned, on pain of 40*l.*

Every schoolmaster keeping any public or private school, and every tutor in any private family, shall subscribe the declaration, that he will conform to the liturgy of the Church of England, as by law established, and be licensed by the ordinary, or he shall, for the first offence, suffer three months' imprisonment; for the second and every other offence, be imprisoned three months, and forfeit 5*l.*, &c. 13 & 14 Car. II. c. 4.

For the exemption relating to Popish schoolmasters, provided by statute, see TOLERATION.

By 19 Geo. III. c. 44., no dissenting minister, nor any other Protestant dissenting from the church of England, who shall take the oaths, and subscribe the declaration against Popery, and the other declaration enjoined by that act, shall be prosecuted in any court whatsoever, for teaching and instructing youth as a tutor or schoolmaster: provided, that this shall not extend to the enabling any person, dissenting from the church of England, to hold the mastership of any college, or school of royal foundation, or of any other endowed college or school for the education of youth, unless the same shall have been founded since the first year of King William and Queen Mary, for the immediate use and benefit of Protestant dissenters.

SCHO'OLMISTRESS, *s.* A woman who governs a school.

My *schoolmistress*, like a vixen Turk,
Maintains her lazy husband by our work. *Gay.*

SCHOOLY MOUNT, a post village of the United States, in Morris county, New Jersey.

SCHOONER, a small vessel with two masts and a bowsprit. The masts rake aft, but the bowsprit lies nearly horizontal. On the bowsprit are set two or three jibs; on the foremast a square foresail; and abaft the foremast a gaff or boomsail; and above those a topsail: abaft the mainmast set a boomsail, and above it a topsail. The main-stay leads through a block, at the head of the foremast, and sets up upon the deck by a tackle. By these means the sail abaft the foremast is not obstructed, when the vessel goes about, as the peak passes under the stay. Schooners sail very near the wind, and require few hands to work them. Their rigging is light, similar to that of a ketch, and the topmasts fix in iron rings, abaft the lower mast-heads.

SCHOONHOVON, a small inland town of the Netherlands, in the province of Utrecht, situated on the right bank of the branch of the Rhine called the Leek. It has a small port on the river, and a population of 2500.

SCHOORISSE, a very large village of the Netherlands, in the province of West Flanders. Population 3100.

SCHOOTEN (Francis), an eminent Dutch mathematician, flourished between the years 1627 and 1659. He was professor of mathematics at Leyden, and was one of the first who adopted the geometry of Descartes, upon which he wrote a commentary. He first translated the work into the Latin language, and then published it with comments. This was in the year 1649. Ten years afterwards he prepared a new edition, to which were added many interesting pieces; viz., the notes of M. de Baune; two letters of Hudde on the reduction of equations, and the maxima and minima; one by Van Heureat on the rectification of curves; two posthumous letters of M. de Baune on the nature and limits of equations; and the elements of curves, by De Wit. To the whole is subjoined a posthumous work of his own, entitled "De concinnandis Demonstrationibus Geometricis ex calculo Algebraico." According to Montucla, this work was generally approved, as containing every thing necessary for understanding the Geometry of Descartes, without that prolixity which is too frequent among commentators. Schooten was the author of a treatise, "De Organica Sectionum Conicarum in Plano Descriptione," in which he teaches the various methods of describing conic sections by one continued motion. Schooten published also "Exercitationum Mathematicarum Libri quinque," containing among other things, a hundred arithmetical and geometrical propositions; the construction of simple geometrical problems: "Sectiones Miscellaneæ triginta, quibus accedit Christiana Hugenii Tractatus de Ratiociniis in Aleæ Ludo."

SCHOOUBIAH, a sect among the Mussulmen, whose distinguishing tenet it is, that the Sonnites are not at all preferable to the Shiites, or Rafadhites, i. e. the orthodox to the heterodox, but that both the one and the other are equally true believers.

The Schooubiah, therefore, should be, properly, the latitudinarians in Mahometanism; yet are they not regarded by either party as much better than gentiles or heathens, as their name in that language imports.

There are many among the Mussulmen, who give into this sect, only secretly; Mahometanism, like all other false religions, being an avowed enemy to toleration.

SCHOPFHEIN, a small town in the west of Germany, in Baden, on the river Wiesen; 14 miles north-east of Bale, and 7 north of Rheinfelden. Population 1100.

SCHOPFHEIM, a small town in the west of Germany, in Baden; 6 miles south-south-west of Offenburg. Population 1000.

SCHOPP, a liquid measure at Francfort.

SCHOPPENSTADT, a small town of Germany, in the duchy of Brunswick, with 1700 inhabitants; 15 miles east-by-south of Brunswick.

SCHOPS, a small river of the Prussian states, in Upper Lusatia, which falls into the Spree.

SCHOREL and SCHORELDAM, two villages of the Netherlands, in North Holland; the first 5 miles north-north-west, and the second 5 miles north of Alkmaar. They were the scene of some obstinate fighting between the British and Russian allied forces, and the French, in 1799.

SCHORL, in Mineralogy, a mineral which is said to have derived its name from Schorlaw, in Saxony, where it was first observed. No word has been used by mineralogists with more latitude than schorl: according to Cronstedt it denotes any stone of a columnar form, with great hardness, and a specific gravity from 3 to 3.4. Werner first defined the word schorl precisely, and restricted it to one species of stones. It occurs commonly in granite, gneiss, and similar rocks. The colour of common schorl is velvet-black; it is found

found both in masses and crystallized. The crystals are three-sided prisms, having their lateral edges truncated, and are mostly long and slender, and are either aggregated in parallel or diverging concretions. The fracture is imperfectly conchoidal; it is opaque, and fusible into a black glass. The hardness is somewhat inferior to quartz. Haüy classes common schorl as a variety of tourmaline, owing to the presence of iron. Schorl does not always acquire electricity by being heated, which is the case with tourmaline.

The constituent parts of schorl, as given by Gerhard, are: —Silex 38, alumine 20, lime 20, oxyd of iron and manganese 19, loss 3. Total 100.

SCHONDORF, a town of the west of Germany, in Wurtemberg, on the Rems; 17 miles east of Stutgard. It contains 3500 inhabitants, and is neatly built. The chief manufacture is coarse woollens. The environs have always been noted for their fertility, and produce very good wine. Lat. 48. 47. 54. N. long. 9. 31. 19. E.

SCHOTANUS (Christian), an historical writer, was born in 1603, at Scheng, a village in Friseland. He was chosen professor of Greek and ecclesiastical history at Franeker, as well as one of the ministers of that place. He died in 1671. His principal works were, "A Description of Friseland," with plates; "A History of Friseland," to the year 1558: these are both in the Dutch language: "Continuatio Historiæ Sacræ Sulpitii Severi;" "Bibliotheca Historia, Sacræ Veteris Testamenti, sive Exercitationes in historiam sacram Sulpitii Severi et Josephi," in 2 vols. folio.

SCHOTIA [so named by Jacquin, from Richard Vander Schot, his companion in his travels], in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order mongynia, natural order of lomentaceæ, leguminosæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, coloured; tube turbinate, sub-compressed, fleshy, permanent; border half-five-cleft; segments ovate, concave, blunt, erect, equal. Corolla: petals five, placed on the tube of the calyx, oblong, concave, blunt, erect, equal, lying over each other at the sides, sessile, twice as long as the segments of the calyx. Stamina: filaments ten, awl-shaped, erect, a little longer than the petals, inserted in a ring into the tube of the calyx. Anthers oblong, incumbent. Pistil: germ oblong, compressed, pedicelled. Style filiform, length of the stamens. Stigma simple, blunt. Pericarp: legume pedicelled. Seeds two.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-cleft. Petals five, inserted into the calyx, closed by the sides lying over each other. Legume pedicelled.

Schotia speciosa, or lentiscus-leaved schotia.—It is found to be a native of Senegal, as well as of the Cape of Good Hope. For the description and culture, see GUAIACUM AFRUM.

SCHOTT (Andrew), a learned Jesuit, was born at Antwerp in 1552. He studied at Louvain, and was for some time in the family of the famous Busbequius at Paris, where he formed connections with some of the most eminent literary characters. He afterwards visited Spain, and resided some years with the archbishop of Tarragona, from whose house he entered into the order of the Jesuits in 1586. He taught Greek at several of their colleges, and was at length made professor of eloquence at Rome. Returning to Antwerp, he passed his remaining years in learned labours, and died in 1629. As a man, he possessed an open and liberal disposition, taking pleasure at all times in obliging men of letters, without any respect to their country or opinions. He was distinguished for his deep knowledge of the Greek, and published several works of the philological class. He gave an edition of Photius, with a Latin version and notes; likewise editions of several of the fathers, enriched with notes and commentaries on a number of ancient writers. He wrote biographical accounts of St. Francis of Borgia; Ferdinand Nunez, James Laynez; and Peter Ciaconius; and was author of a work entitled "Hispania illustrata," 4 vols. fol.

SCHOTT (Gaspard), a Jesuit, famous for his discoveries in natural and experimental philosophy, was born in 1608, in the diocese of Wurtzburg. He passed several years at Palermo, whence he removed to Rome, where he contracted an intimacy with the celebrated Kircher, who communicated to him several of his observations on the arts and sciences. Schott was author of several works, of which the most remarkable are, 1. "Physica curiosa; sive Mirabilia Naturæ et Artis;" 2. "Magia naturalis et artificialis," four vols. 4to.; 3. "Technica curiosa;" in this work is found the first idea of the air-pump; 4. "Anatomia Physico-hydrostatica Fontium et Fluminum;" 5. "Organum Mathematicum." In the various writings of this Jesuit are to be met with the germs of the greater part of modern experiments in physics. His name was, nevertheless, entirely forgotten, till it was brought to notice in 1785 by the abbé Mercier, in his *Notice Raisonée.*

SCHOTTEN, a small town of the west of Germany, in Hesse-Darmstadt, on the Vogelsberg, with 1700 inhabitants; 26 miles north-east of Frankfort-on-the-Maine.

SCHOTTWEIN, a small town of Lower Austria, at the foot of the Sommering, with 800 inhabitants; 42 miles south-by-west of Vienna.

SCHOUSBOEA [so denominated by Willdenow, in honour of Mr. Schousboe, a celebrated botanist, who made many botanical discoveries in his travels, between the years 1790 and 1793, through the kingdom of Morocco, where he resided as Danish consul], in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order monogynia, natural order of calycanthemæ, onagræ *(Juss.)* — Generic Character. Calyx: perianth superior, of one leaf, bell-shaped, five-toothed, coloured, deciduous. Corolla: petals five, elliptic-lanceolate, acute, equal, inserted between the teeth of the calyx. Stamina: filaments ten, thread-shaped, twice the length of the calyx, and inserted into its lower part: anthers ovate, of two cells. Pistil: germen inferior, ovate, furrowed; style thread-shaped, the length of the stamens; stigma acute. Pericarp: berry oval, with five angles, of one cell. Seed solitary, with a membranous tunic.—*Essential Character.* Calyx superior bell-shaped, five-cleft, bearing the corolla. Petals five. Berry with five angles. Seed solitary, tunicated.

Schousboea coccinea.—Gathered by Aublet, on the banks of the Sinemari river, in Guiana, twenty leagues from its mouth. The stem is shrubby, six or seven inches in diameter at the bottom, climbing, by long twining branches, to the tops of lofty trees, from whence the extremities of those branches, laden with leaves and flowers, are pendulous. Leaves alternate, on short stalks, smooth, firm, rigid, oval, pointed, entire, four or five inches long, with one rib, and many transverse veins. Spikes terminal, solitary, long, many-flowered. Bracteas lanceolate, acute, green, nearly as long as the flowers. Calyx green at the base; of a coral red in the upper part. Petals veiny, red as well as the stamens. The genus is akin to Fuchsiar. The flowers and fruit are both to be found in October. Berry an inch and half long, pointed, yellow, pulpy.

SCHOUTEN'S ISLAND, an island on the east coast of Van Dieman's Land, consisting of lofty black mountains, separated by deep reaches. This was ascertained by the French navigators, who in this manner put an end to the notion that there were here several instead of one island.

SCHOWEN, an island of the Netherlands, forming part of the province of Zealand, and situated at the mouth of the Scheldt. Its extent, 15 miles in length and 5 in breadth), was formerly greater, a part of it having been overflowed by the sea. In 1809, it was for a short time occupied by a British force. The chief town is Zierikzee.

SCHRADERA [so named by Vahl, in honour of Henry Adolphus Schrader, author of "Spicilegium Floræ Germanicæ." Hann. 1794.], in Botany, a genus of the class hexandria, order monogynia.—Generic Character. Calyx: a superior rim, quite entire, closely surrounding the base of the corolla. Corolla: thick, one-petalled; tube half an inch long, gradually widening upwards, within smooth below, hairy above; border five or six-parted; segments fleshy, lanceolate, a little reflexed, above towards the throat

throat flat; in front triangular, on the compressed sides keeled; at the base of the keel a triangular fleshy toothlet; beneath flat. Stamina: filaments scarcely any. Anthers five or six, linear, between the segments of the border, three times shorter than the border. Pistil: germ inferior, four-cornered at the base, the sides a little pressed in, the corners acute. Style one, shorter than the tube of the corolla. Stigmas two, thick, oblong. Pericarp: berry one-celled. Seeds very many, minute.—*Essential Character.* Calyx a superior rim, quite entire. Corolla five or six-cleft. Stigmas two. Berry one-celled, many seeded; or involucre universal, many-flowered. Calyx superior, pitcher-shaped. Corolla five or six-cleft, bell-shaped, hairy at the throat. Berry many-seeded. *Willd.*

1. Schradera capitata.—A climbing parasitical shrub, with square branches, covered by an ash-coloured bark. Leaves opposite, roundish-elliptic, entire, coriaceous. Peduncle terminating, an inch and half long. Flowers in heads. Involucre coriaceous, one-leafed, five-cleft, containing about fifteen flowers, segments roundish, blunt. Calyx bell-shaped, permanent. The number of segments in the corolla and of the stamens, varies from five to six.—Discovered in the high mountains of the island of Montserrat.

2. Schradera cephalotes.—Involucre quite entire, calyx toothed, leaves acuminate.—Native of Jamaica.

SCHRAETSER, in Ichthyology, the name of a fish very common in the Danube, resembling our ruff, or small gilded pearch. See PERCA.

SCHRAMBERG, a small town in the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg and the Black Forest; 10 miles north-west of Rothweil. Population 1800.

SCHRANKIA [named by Willdenow in honour of Francis Von Paula Schrank, author of Primitiæ Floræ Salisburgensis], in Botany, a genus of the class polygamia, order monoecia, natural order lomentaceæ, leguminosæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth inferior, minute tubular, with five erect teeth, deciduous. Corolla: petals five, erect, lanceolate, inserted into the tube of the calyx, alternate with its teeth. Stamina: filaments ten, capillary, flaccid, inserted into the tube of the calyx, twice as long as the corolla, somewhat unequal; anthers versatile, roundish, incumbent. Pistil: germen superior, oval, slightly compressed; style thread-shaped; stigma obtuse. Pericarp: legume oblong, quadrangular, of one cell and four valves, the two opposite ones rather the shortest: Seeds numerous, quadrangular, compressed, in a single row. Some flowers are four-cleft; others are male only, on the same tree.—*Essential Character.* Calyx inferior, with five teeth. Petals five, inserted into the calyx. Legume of four valves, with many seeds. Some flowers male.

1. Schrankia aculeata, or Vera Cruz schrankia.—General leaflets two or three pair. Stem with four angles. Very frequent in all the sandy ground about Vera Cruz, according to Houstoun, who sent seeds to England, which, Miller says, succeeded in several gardens. The plant is herbaceous and perennial, requiring to be kept in a stove, where it blossoms in the summer months. The root is tuberous, as in the whole genus. Stems weak and trailing, but little branched, square, zig-zag, leafy, armed with numerous, compressed, hooked prickles, as are all the stalks and seed-vessels. Leaves abruptly doubly pinnate; their primary leaflets two or three pair, each of numerous pairs of crowded, imbricated, simple, elliptic-oblong, entire leaflets, each half an inch long. Flowers very numerous, in globose, axillary, solitary, rather long-stalked heads, of a beautiful red, with yellow anthers. Each head perfects but two or three acute, straight, spreading legumes, (as they are by analogy called,) about two inches long.

2. Schrankia hamata or beaked schrankia.—General leaflets four pair. Legume with a pointed beak. Stem with five angles. Flower-stalks very short.—Gathered by Humboldt and Bonpland in South America. Herbaceous, covered with hooked prickles. Heads of flowers on very short stalks. Each valve of the legume is armed with a triple row of densely crowded prickles. The ultimate leaflets are linear, not elliptical.

3. Schrankia uncinata or hooked schrankia.—General leaflets five to seven pair. Legume pointed. Stem with five angles. Flower-stalks longer than the foot stalks.—In old fields and meadows, from Virginia to Florida: flowering in June and July. It is known by the name of Sensitive Briar. *Pursh.*—This species resembles the two former in habit, but the primary divisions of the leaves are much more numerous. The flowers are of a fine rose-colour, with yellow anthers, and stand on long prickly stalks, sometimes two together. Legume beset with dense rows of prominent prickles.

SCHRAPLAU, a small town of Prussian Saxony, in the county of Mansfield; 6 miles south-east of Eiszleben. Population 900.

SCHREBERA [so named in honour of Jo. Christian Dan. Schreber, professor of Physic, &c. at Erlang, editor of Linnæus's "Genera Plantarum," and author of many works in botany], in Botany, a genus of the class diandria, order monogynia.—Generic Character. Calyx inferior, tubular, somewhat two-lipped, with the lips nearly equal, emarginate; often two lateral toothlets, one on each side, in the divisions of the lips. Corolla one-petalled, salver-form; tube cylindric, three times longer than the calyx; border spreading, divided into five, six, or seven wedge-formed truncate segments. Stamina: filaments two, short, inserted below the middle of the tube. Anthers oblong, hid within the tube of the corolla. Pistil: germ superior, oval. Style a little longer than the tube. Stigma bifid. Pericarp: capsule pear-shaped, scabrous, two-celled, two-valved. Seeds four in each cell, irregularly oval, compressed, with a long membranaceous wing.—*Essential Character.* Calyx two-lipped. Corolla from five to seven-cleft. Capsule pear-shaped, two-celled, two-valved. Seeds from eight to ten, membranaceous-winged.

Schrebera swietenioides.—Trunk erect, with a scabrous bark. Branches numerous, spreading in every direction, so as to form a large beautiful shady head. Leaves nearly opposite, on round smooth petioles; pinnate with an odd leaflet, about a foot long. Leaflets three or four pairs, opposite, on short pedicles; the lowest largest, and obliquely ovate, whilst those towards the apex become more lanceolate: all are entire, pointed, smooth on both sides, and three or four inches long. Panicles terminating, thin, trichotomous. Bractes small, falling. Flowers white and brown, variegated, very fragrant during the night. Capsule large, the size of a pullet's egg.

It is a large timber tree, a native of valleys in the mountainous parts of the Rajahmundry Circar; flowering about the beginning of the hot season. The wood is of a grey colour, very close-grained, heavy and durable. It is reckoned less subject to crack and warp than any other; on which account it is employed by weavers in many parts of their looms, particularly for the beam: it serves, also, for a great variety of other uses; and probably would answer well for scales to mathematical instruments. Though not so handsome as box, it is less subject to warp.

SCHRECKENBERG, a mountain of Germany, in Saxony, near Annaberg, with rich silver mines.

SCHRECKHORN, a very lofty mountain in the south-west of Switzerland, in the canton of Bern, near the valley of Grindelwald. It rises to the stupendous height of 13,812 feet, and its top is consequently far above the limits of perpetual snow. The elevated valleys between it and the neighbouring mountains are covered by glaciers, forming part of an immense sea of ice, which occupies one of the sides of the Schreckhorn, and runs up almost to its summit. The Aar rises near the base of this mountain. Lat. 46. 31. 42. N. long. 8. 8. 26. E.

SCHREIBENDORF, a large village of Prussian Silesia; 4 miles west of Landshut, and 51 west-south-west of Breslau. Population 1000.

SCHREIBERSHAU, a large village of Prussian Silesia; 65 miles west-by-south of Breslau. Population 2000.

SCHREIGHT,

SCHREIGHT, *s.* A fish. *Ainsworth.*

SCHREM, or SCHRIM, a small town of Prussian Poland, in an island formed by the river Wartha; 20 miles south of Posen. Population 1500.

SCHREVELIUS (Cornelius), a native of Holland, was one of the principal compilers of the notes to the Variorum editions of the classics, in the exercise of which task he is thought to have displayed more industry than taste or judgment. His name, however, is familiar to every student in the Greek language, by a lexicon in Greek and Latin, which has been frequently reprinted in almost every part of Europe. It is, however, very inferior to the work of Hederic, which is also very indifferent; a good Greek dictionary being a great desideratum at present. To many editions of his lexicon are added divers pieces, well calculated to aid the young in their classical studies: such as "Breves Sententiæ Græcæ," with a Latin translation; "Tabellæ Dialectorum;" "Tractatus de resolutione Verborum," &c.

SCHRIESHEIM, a small town of the west of Germany, in Baden, at the foot of the Odenwald, and 6 miles north of Seidelberg. Population 2200. In 1766 the remains of some Roman baths were discovered in the neighbourhood.

SCHRITTENHOFEN, SUSCE, or SUTCHUTZ, a town in the south-west of Bohemia; 26 miles west south-west of Prachatitz, and 70 south-west of Prague. Population 2600. Lat. 49. 12. N. long. 13. 26. E.

SCHROBENHAUSEN, a small fortified town of Bavaria, on the river Paar; 21 miles north-east of Augsburg. Population 1500. It stands in a plain, and is surrounded by a marsh.

SCHRODE, a small river of Prussian Saxony, which falls into the Elbe at Magdeburg.

SCHROECK, a village of the west of Germany, in Baden, near the Rhine. Near this the Austrian army passed that river in July 1744, when they marched to the invasion of Alsace; 6 miles north-by-west of Carlsruhe.

SCHROTZBERG, a small town in the west of Germany, In Wirtemberg; 15 miles south-east of Mergentheim.

SCHTSCHIGRY, a small town in the interior of European Russia, in the government of Kursk, on a small river of the same name. Population 1500; 284 miles south-south-west of Moscow.

SCHUJA, or SCHUA, a small town of the interior of European Russia. It has 1500 inhabitants, and large soap manufactories; 68 miles north-east of Vladimir. Lat. 56. 42. N. long. 40. 34. E.

SCHUIT, in Commerce, a silver ingot, used as money in Japan. It weighs 4 oz. 18 dwts. 16 grs. English troy, and is 11 oz. fine, which gives its value 1*l.* 5*s.* 3*d.* sterling.

SCHULTENS (Albert), an eminent orientalist, was born at Groningen, about the year 1680. He studied at Leyden, and afterwards at Utrecht, under the celebrated Reland. Upon his entering the ministry, he was chosen pastor of Wassenaar, from which place he removed to Franeker, as professor of the Oriental languages. After this he was invited to fill the same office at Leyden, which he held with high reputation till his death, in 1750. He was a man of profound learning, accurate taste, and great judgment. The most considerable of his works are as follow: "A Commentary on the Book of Job," in two vols. 4to.; "A Commentary on Proverbs," 4to.; "Vetus et Regia Via Hebraizandi;" "Origines Hebraicæ;" "Animadversiones Philologicæ et criticæ ad varia Loca Vet. Test.;" "Grammatica Hebraica." He also translated from the Arabic, "The Life of Saladin.

SCHUMEG, or SOMOGYI-VARMEGYE, a palatinate in the south-west of Hungary, situated between the Balaton lake and the Drave. Its territorial extent is 2430 square miles; its population 170,000. The elevations being inconsiderable, the surface is generally level, and in many places marshy, so that it is reckoned unhealthy for strangers. The inhabitants are of various races, Magyars, Slowacs, Croats, Rascians, Germans, and Jews. The county takes its name from the old castle of Somogy, or Schumeg, but the chief town is Kaposvar.

SCHUMLA, SCHUMNA, or CIUMLA, a large town in the north-east of European Turkey, on the great road leading from Constantinople to Wallachia. It is situated in the province of Silistria, about 50 miles south of the Danube, which is here in the lower part of its course. Schumla is supposed to occupy the site of the ancient Marcianopolis. Though not in general well built, it contains several handsome mosques and baths. It has also a castle; and being one of the chief towns between Adrianople and the Russian frontier, was used for the assemblage of troops, or for their winter quarters, during the wars with that power. The population in this, as in other Turkish towns, is unascertained by register, but said to amount to no less than 30,000. Their trade consists partly in the wine of the country, partly in the manufacture of hardware, and the supply of ready made clothes for Constantinople; a business carried on with great vigour, in consequence of German cloth being cheaper here than in the Turkish metropolis. Unfortunately, although the position of Schumla is rather elevated, its atmosphere, from the marshy nature of the neighbouring country, is unwholesome, and strangers cannot remain here even a few days, without being seized with intermittent fevers. The great natural features of this part of Turkey are the Danube and the long mountain range of Balkan, the ancient Hæmus. They both extend from west to east, in a direction nearly parallel, at a distance of about 100 miles; and Schumla stands half way between them. It has on the east the Euxine at a distance of 70 miles; on the west the interior of Bulgaria; 227 miles north-north-west of Constantinople, and 75 south-east of Rustschuk. Lat. 43. 25. N. long. 26. 56. E.

SCHUNTER, a small river of the north of Germany, which passes by Brunswick, and joins the Ocker; 7 miles below that town.

SCHUPFEN, a large village of the Swiss canton of Lucerne, on the river Emme, and the chief place of the district called Entlibuch. Population 2800; 15 miles south-west of Lucerne.

SCHURGSWALDA, a petty town of Saxony, in Upper Lusatia, on the Spree, with 900 inhabitants; 10 miles south of Bautzen.

SCHURMAN (Anna-Maria), a very celebrated female, was born of a good family, at Cologne, in 1607. Her father removed with his family to Utrecht, being of the Protestant religion, and afterwards to Franeker, for the education of his sons; but on his death, his widow returned to Utrecht, which place was from this time the chief residence of the subject of this article. From a very early age Anna-Maria manifested extraordinary talents for ingenious works and ornamental accomplishments. As soon as she could use a pair of scissors, she employed herself in cutting out all sorts of figures in paper, without a pattern. She then acquired the arts of drawing, painting, embroidery, sculpture, engraving, and music. She wrote a most beautiful hand, modelled in wax with great perfection, and drew portraits on glass with the diamond. She applied herself very successfully to different branches of literature, and became a perfect mistress of the Latin, Greek, and Hebrew languages: she acquired a knowledge of several modern, as well as the ancient tongues. She was extremely well versed in astronomy, geography, and several of the other branches of experimental philosophy. She made theology and the holy scriptures objects of her particular attention. "All this wonderful extent of knowledge did not render her in the least vain, or disqualify her for the usual occupations of her sex; and her singular merit might have remained unknown to the world, had not Vossius, Spanheim, and other illustrious men, almost forcibly dragged her from obscurity. Her reputation soon spread through Europe, and the most distinguished literary characters became her correspondents." The celebrated poet and pensionary Catz offered her his hand, but she preferred the freedom of a single life. She was visited by almost all the persons of rank and eminence who passed through Utrecht, and enjoyed the esteem of the illustrious Elizabeth, princess palatine. She first appeared as a writer in

in a copy of Latin verses on the founding of the university of Utrecht, in 1636. Some of her letters were published, and in 1641, was printed part of her Latin Dissertation, "Whether the Study of Literature was suitable to a Christian Woman." After this she published her "Opuscula," consisting of pieces in prose and verse, in different languages. She now became a zealous follower of the mystic and enthusiast Labadie; whom she accompanied in his various migrations, and it was in her arms that he breathed his last, at Altona. After his death she sold her property, and took up her abode with an association of religionists of the same connection, at Wywert, near Leuwarden. Here she died, in 1678. Her "Opuscula" have been frequently reprinted.

SCHURTZFLEISCH (Conrad-Samuel), a man of letters, was born in 1641, at Corbach, in the county of Waldeck. He studied at his native place, at Giessen, and Wittenberg, and for some time taught in a school at Corbach, in the room of his father, after which he went to Leipsic, and engaged in private tuition; and in 1671 he obtained the professorship extraordinary of history, at Wittenberg. In 1678 he was promoted to the ordinary professorship of history in that place, to which was afterwards added that of Greek. He passed some time in foreign travel, and in 1700 he was appointed professor of eloquence at Wittenberg. He was also librarian to the duke of Saxe-Weimar, with the title of counsellor. He died in 1708. This learned man was author of a great number of works, of which the following may be mentioned: "Disputationes Historicæ civiles," 3 vols. 4to.; "Epistolæ arcanæ," 3 vols. 8vo.; and a continuation of Sleiden's work, "De Quatuor Imperiis." A satirical piece, which he wrote when he was young, entitled "Judicium de novissimis Prudentiæ civilis Scriptoribus," occasioned considerable commotion among the learned, and in the end caused his name to be struck out from the list of members of the university of Wittenberg. In 1744, a collection of his Dissertations on ecclesiastical history was published at Wittenberg.

SCHUSCHKINA, a village of Irkoutsk, in Asiatic Russia; 38 miles north-north-east of Orlenga.

SCHUT (Cornelius), was born at Antwerp, in 1600, and being possessed of a lively and inventive genius, was educated as a painter. He was placed as a disciple with Rubens, and became one of the principal ornaments of the school of that celebrated master. When he had acquired sufficient power to practise by himself, he was employed for the altars of several churches; and by the works he produced, obtained very considerable reputation: sufficient, unfortunately, to render him vain and presumptuous. To such a degree did his vanity urge him, that he offered himself as a rival to his great instructor; criticising his works with contumacious illiberality, and accusing him of want of invention and genius! His rashness was reproved by the gentleness of Rubens, who returned his railings with acts of kindness and liberality, applauding his pictures, and recommending him to employment.

The qualities of Schut, as an artist, were considerable; at least as far as the executive part of the art is concerned. He had a fertile and vivid imagination, which, however, he did not always exercise with discretion; being evidently much more intent upon producing a pleasing arrangement of light and colour, than interesting the mind, or engaging the heart: following, indeed, too closely the most prominent features of the school in which he had been educated. His talents had most ample field for employment, which he used with considerable success in the frescoes he painted in the cupola of the cathedral at Antwerp, and other large works of that nature, in this, his native city. Besides abundance of altar-pieces, he painted many historical subjects, his representations of which are scattered about in various collections, and, doubtless, not unfrequently offered to sale as the work of Rubens. He died at Antwerp, in 1660, at the age of 60.

This artist etched a considerable number of plates from his own designs, which are skilfully executed, with great clearness and precision.

SCHUTOUSKAIA, a village of Tobolsk, in Asiatic Russia on the Vagai; 40 miles south of Tobolsk.

SCHUTT, an insulated track in the west of Hungary, surrounded by the Raab, the Waag, and two branches of the Danube. Another arm of the Danube divides the island into two unequal parts, called Great and Little Schutt. The length of the whole is about 55 miles; the breadth 30.

SCHUTTEBA, a village of Yemen, in Arabia; 36 miles east of Chamir.

SCHUTTENHOFEN, or SUTTICZE, or SUSSYCZE, a small town of the Austrian states, in Bohemia, on the river Watawa. Population 2500; 71 miles south-south-west of Prague.

SCHUTTER, a small river of the west of Germany, in Baden, which runs into the Kinzig above Kehl.

SCHUTTORF, a small town in the west of Hanover, on the river Vechte, with 1000 inhabitants; 3 miles north-east of Bentheim.

SCHUTZEN, GERMAN and CROATIAN, or NEMET and HORVATH-SICZ, two large villages of the west of Hungary, in the county of Eisenburg.

SCHUTZEN, GREAT, or NAGY-LEVARD, a town in the north-west of Hungary. It contains 3000 inhabitants, partly of Sclavonian and partly of German descent. In religion they are still more divided, being Catholics, Anabaptists, and Moravians; 25 miles north-by-west of Presburg, and 33 north-east of Vienna.

SCHUYLER, a township of the United states, in Herkimer county, New York, on the north side of the Mohawk. Population 2107.

SCHUYLER'S LAKE, a lake of the United States, in New York, 9 miles long and 5 broad; 5 miles west of Lake Otsego.

SCHUYLKILL, a county of the United States, in Pennsylvania Orwigsburg is the chief town.

SCHUYLKILL, a township of the United States, in Berks county, Pennsylvania. Population 353.

SCHUYLKILL, a river of the United States, in Pennsylvania, which rises in Luzerne county, north-west of the Kittatinny mountains, through which it passes into a fine champaign country, and runs south-east into the Delaware, 6 miles below Philadelphia. It is 140 miles long, and navigable for boats 90. The Tulpehocken, a navigable stream, flows into the Schuykill, 1½ mile above Reading. There are falls on the river 5 miles above Philadelphia, and Swedes falls a little below Norristown. A canal, connecting the Swatara with the Tulpehocken, has been begun, which will unite the waters of the Schuylkill with those of the Susquehannah.

SCHWABACH, a town of Bavarian Franconia, in the principality of Anspach, on a small river of the same name, which divides it into two parts. It is a populous place, having nearly 7000 inhabitants, among whom are a few Jews. It is neatly built, surrounded with walls, and has four gates and four suburbs. On the revocation of the edict of Nantes, a colony of French Protestants settled here in 1686, and established some manufactories, which have progressively increased: the chief are of cotton, pins, tobacco, and broad cloth. The environs are well cultivated, and produce, among other articles, tobacco; 9 miles south-south-west of Nuremberg.

SCHWABENITZ, a small town of the Austrian states, in Moravia, in the circle of Olmutz. Population 1200.

SCHWABMUNCHEN, a small town in the south-west of Germany, in Bavaria. Population 2000; 11 miles south of Augsburg, and 16 north-east of Mindelheim. Lat. 48. 11. 30. N. long. 10. 44. 55. E.

SCHWACHAT, a small town of Lower Austria, at the influx of the Schwacha into the Danube. It contains, including the surrounding parish, 4000 inhabitants; 17 miles south-east of Vienna.

SCHWADORF, a small town of Lower Austria; 13 miles south-east of Vienna. It has considerable cotton manufactures.

SCHWALBACH, BURG, a small town in the west of

of Germany, duchy of Nassau; 8 miles north-west of Idstein.

SCHWALBEA [so named by Linnæus, from Schwalbe, a physician], in Botany, a genus of the class didynamia, order angiospermia, natural order of personatæ, scrophulariæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, tubular-ventricose, striated; mouth four-cleft, oblique; upper segment very short; lateral ones longer; lowest still longer, wider, emarginate. Corolla one-petalled, ringent; tube length of the calyx; border erect; upper lip erect, concave, quite entire; lower lip of the same length, trifid, blunt, the little segments equal. Stamina: filaments four, filiform, length of the corolla, of which two are a little shorter. Anthers incumbent. Pistil: germ roundish. Style in the same situation and of the same form and length with the stamens. Stigma thickish, recurved. Pericarp: capsule ovate, compressed, two-celled, two-valved; partitions folded. Seeds very many, chaffy, lanceolate, small.—*Essential Character.* Calyx four-cleft; the upper lobe very small; the lowest very large and emarginate.

Schwalbea Americana.—Stem quite simple, four-cornered, pubescent. Leaves lanceolate, pubescent. Flowers alternate; sessile. Calyx pubescent. Corolla dark-red, inclining. Seeds numerous.—Native of North America.

SCHWALITZ, a village in the north of Bohemia, in the circle of Bunzlau, near Niemes, with extensive iron mines.

SCHWALM, a river in the west of Germany, which rises on the Vogelsberg, in the grand duchy of Hesse, and joins the Edder.

SCHWAN, a small town in the north of Germany, in the grand duchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, on the Nebel; 10 miles south-by-west of Rostock, and 10 north-by-west of Gustrow.

SCHWAND, or SCHWANDT, a small town of the Bavarian states; 10 miles south of Nuremberg.

SCHWANDEN, a town of Switzerland, in the canton of Glaris, situated at the confluence of the Linth and the Seruf It is a well built and pleasantly situated place, with 4000 inhabitants. It has manufactures, which, for its size, are considerable, and it is the place where the Protestants of the canton hold their annual assembly; 5 miles south of Glaris.

SCHWANDORF, a village of Germany, in Bavarian Franconia, situated on the Nab, in a fertile valley. Population 1000; 21 miles north of Ratisbon.

SCHWANDORF, a small town of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg; 7 miles east of Tuttlingen.

SCHWANEBECK, a small town of Prussian Saxony, in the principality of Halberstadt, with 1700 inhabitants; 10 miles north of Quedlinburg.

SCHWANENSTADT, a small town of Upper Austria, near the river Ager, with 1500 inhabitants; 6 miles north-north-east of Vocklabruck, and 121 west of Vienna.

SCHWANINGEN, a large village of Germany, in Bavarian Franconia, circle of the Retzat, principality of Anspach.

SCHWANSEE, a village of the interior of Germany, belonging to Saxe-Weimar. It derived its name from a lake which has been drained and laid out in corn fields and pastures; 5 miles east of Erfurt.

SCHWANSFELD, GROS, a market town of East Prussia; 40 miles south-south-east of Konigsberg.

SCHWANZEN, a peninsula of Denmark, in the duchy of Sleswick, lying between the Schley and the Eckernford, two inlets of the Baltic. It has an extent of 90 square miles and 6000 inhabitants.

SCHWARTZ (Berthold), a native of Friburg, in Germany, and a monk by profession, lived in the thirteenth century. Being attached to the study of chemistry, an accident revealed to him the composition of that mixture of nitre with sulphur and charcoal, which forms *gunpowder;* which see. The invention was very soon perfected, and its use in the art of destruction so quickly suggested itself, that the Venetians, the French, and the English, made use of it in the art of war very early in the 14th century.

SCHWARTZBURG, a district in the interior of Germany, divided into two parts, each bearing the name of the county. One of these divisions adjoins Saxe-Gotha, the other, considerably farther to the south, is near the Russian province of Erfurt. The extent of the whole is 1166 square miles; the population about 100,000 partly Catholics, but in much greater proportion Lutherans. Both divisions are very hilly, though interspersed with fertile valleys, extending along the banks of the rivers. The land is adapted partly to tillage, more to pasturage. The forests are extensive, and contain mines of iron, alum, and cobalt; also quarries of marble, freestone, and slate. The manufactures are very insignificant. The princes of Schwartzburg are of great antiquity, and are now divided into the two branches of Sondershausen and Rudolstadt, residing respectively at the towns of these names. Both are members of the Germanic body, under the constitution of 1815; and the territories of both are nearly equal in population and income. Each county has its cabinet, its treasury, and its distinct courts of justice.

SCHWARTZENBERG, a small principality of Germany, in Franconia, in the dominions of Bavaria. Its area is somewhat less then 100 square miles; its population between 12,000 and 13,000. The prevailing religion is Lutheran. The princes of Schwartzenberg are descended from one of the oldest families in Franconia, and owe their revenue and political power less to this principality than to their extensive domains in Bohemia and other parts of Germany. The total population on their estates, or in towns in which they hold property, is computed at 130,000, The head of the house was made a prince of the empire in 1670, but mediatised in 1806.

SCHWARZA, a river of the Austrian states, in Styria, which falls into the Muhr.

SCHWARZA, a small river of Germany, which rises in the forest of Thuringia, and falls into the Saale between Rudolstadt and Saalfeld. At its influx stands a large village of the same name.

SCHWARZA, a river of the Austrian states, in Moravia, which rises on the borders of Bohemia; 8 miles west of Ingrowitz, it passes by Brunn, and after receiving the Iglawa, joins the Theya, near Mischau.

SCHWARZA, a small town of Prussian Saxony, with 1000 inhabitants; 8 miles north-east of Meinungen.

SCHWARZACH, a small river of Bavarian Franconia, which rises in a lake in the upper palatinate, passes by the village of Rasch, near Altdorf, crosses the territory of Nuremberg, and falls into the Regnitz below Neus, in the principality of Anspach. The Sulz, another small river, issues from the same lake, and flows southward till it joins in the Altmuhl, thus forming a natural communication between the German ocean and the Black Sea.

SCHWARZACH, another river of Bavarian Franconia, which rises to the west of Neumarkt, flows southward, and falls into the Altmuhl; 6 miles south-west of Berngries.

SCHWARZACH, another river of Bavaria, which rises near the confines of Bohemia, and flows westward till it joins the Nab; 4 miles south of Nabburg.

SCHWARZAU, a small town of Lower Austria, situated among hills; 40 miles south-south-west of Vienna, with 1100 inhabitants.

SCHWARZENAU, a village of Germany, in Bavarian Franconia, on the Maine; 12 miles east of Wurzburg, where the archduke Charles obtained a victory over the French. This is called the battle of Wurzburg, and was fought on 3d September, 1796.

SCHWARZENBACH, a large village in the north of Switzerland, in the canton of St. Gall, on the Thur; 14 miles west of St. Gall.

SCHWARZENBACH, a petty town of Germany, in Bavarian Franconia, on the Saale; 6 miles south of Hof. Population 1700.

SCHWARZENBERG, CANALS OF, two canals of Bohemia, remarkable less for their size than for the skill displayed in conducting them through a mountainous country. The

The one begins in the circle of Budweis, and terminates in the Danube; the other extends from the county of Prachin to the Muldau, and is only 10 miles in length.

SCHWARZENBERG, a small town of Germany, in Hanover, duchy of Luneburg, near the Elbe.

SCHWARZENBORN, a small town of the west of Germany, in Hesse-Cassel; 8 miles east of Ziegenhayn. Population 900.

SCHWARZENBURG, a petty town in the west of Switzerland, in the canton of Bern; 8 miles east of Freyberg.

SCHWARZENFELS, a petty place in the west of Germany, in Hesse-Cassel; 17 miles east of Fulda. Population 700.

SCHWARZWALD, a large range of mountains in the south-west of Germany, extending from north to south through the territory of Baden, and part of that of Wirtemberg. It consists more of elevated plains or table-land, than of insulated peaks; yet several of its mountains, such as the Feldberg, the Belchen, and the Kandel, are between 4000 and 5000 feet above the level of the sea. Without equalling in metallic riches the Hartz and some other ranges in Germany, they contain some valuable minerals, while their sides are covered with plantations or pasture grounds. Great quantities of timber are annually felled in this track, and sent down the Rhine to Holland.

SCHWARZWALD is also the name of a department in the west of the kingdom of Wirtemberg, lying adjacent to Baden. Its territorial extent is 640 square miles, its population 105,000. Comprising a track lying entirely in the Black Forest, it is mountainous, woody, and more calculated for pasturage than agriculture. The chief town is Calw.

SCHWARZWASSER, the name of five rivers of Silesia, three of which flow into the Oder; one 1 mile east of Breslau; another 1 mile east of Maltsch; a third 3 miles north-north-east of Wurtemberg; the fourth joins the Katzbach near Lieonitz; and the fifth joins the Stober near Bielitz. There is also a Schwarzwasser in Saxony, which flows into a lake near Torgau.

SCHWARZWASS, a river of Saxony, in the circle of the Erzgebirge, which falls into the Schneeberg Mulda.

SCHWARZWASSER, or STRUMIE, a small town of Austrian Silesia; 13 miles north-north-east of Teschen. Population 1300.

SCHWATZ, a town of the Austrian states, in Tyrol, on the Inn, and the capital of a large district, comprehending the Lower Innthal, with the part of the duchy of Salzburg lately added to it. The town has 4000 inhabitants, is well built, and contains two good churches. It has some manufactures, and in the environs are mines of copper and silver, which were formerly extremely productive, having in the 16th century given employment to many thousand workmen. The copper mines are still productive; but those of silver hardly defray the expense of working; 16 miles east of Innspruck, and 56 south of Munich. Lat. 47. 22. 50. N. long. 11. 39. 30. E.

SCHWEDT, a small town of Prussia, in the province of Brandenburg, on the Oder; 53 miles north-east of Berlin. It is neatly built, and has a palace called Monplaisir, which belonged formerly to a younger branch of the royal family of Prussia; but the male line having failed, it is now the property of the crown. The town has 3700 inhabitants chiefly Lutherans, and some manufactures of tobacco, starch, gunpowder, and leather. Lat. 53. 5. N. long. 14. 28. E.

SCHWEIDNITZ, a principality of Lower Silesia, bounded on the south by Bohemia, and included in the Prussian province or government of Reichenbach, with a territoral extent of not quite 1000 square miles. It contains above 180,000 inhabitants. The surface is partly hilly and partly level: it produces corn in large quantities; and the flocks of sheep are numerous; but its great population arises from its containing a number of manufacturing villages. The inhabitants of these prepare cottons, linen, and woollen, to a large annual amount.

SCHWEIDNITZ, a town of Prussian Silesia, the chief place of the preceding principality, and well known in the operations of the war of 1756. It stands in a pleasant country. Its fortifications are of old date, but were reduced into a regular form by the Prussians in 1748. The town also is modern, part of it having been burnt down in 1716, and other parts destroyed in the sieges in the middle of the 18th century. The inhabitants, 8000 in number, are partly Catholics, but chiefly Protestants. They have considerable manufactures of woollen and linen, and on a smaller scale, of silk, leather, stockings, and paper. The breweries in this, as in other German towns, are extensive. In the disastrous war against Buonaparte, the defence of Schweidnitz was not in correspondence to the strength of the place, or to its former reputation: it surrendered on 7th February, 1807; 30 miles west-south-west of Breslau, and 11 west north-west of Reichenbach.

SCHWEIG, a small town of the Prussian province of the Lower Rhine, on the Moselle; 6 miles north-by-east of Treves. Population 1050.

SCHWEIGERN, a small town of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg; 8 miles west of Heilbronn. Population 1800. It is the residence of the counts of Neipberg.

SCHWEIGERN, a small town of the west of Germany, in Baden, principality of Leiningen; 2 miles east-north-east of Boxberg. Population 1000.

SCHWEIGERS, a small town of Lower Austria, in the quarter above the Mannhartsberg. Population 900.

SCHWEIGHAUSEN, a large village in the east of France, department of the Lower Rhine. Population 1100.

SCHWEINA, a small town of the interior of Germany, in the duchy of Saxe-Meinungen; 6 miles east-by-north of Salzungen, and 7 north-north-west of Schmalcalden. Population 800.

SCHWEINAU, a large village of Bavarian Franconia, near Nuremberg, with 1000 inhabitants.

SCHWEINFURT, a town of Bavarian Franconia, on the Maine; 23 miles north-north-east of Wurzburg. Population 5200. The present town was founded in the 13th century, and surrounded with a wall, which still remains. The inhabitants are chiefly Lutherans, and the grammar school was founded by the great protector of Protestant Germany, Gustavus Adolphus. The Maine is navigable here, and is crossed by two bridges. The environs produce corn, vines, and tobacco. Schweinfurt was long a free town of the empire, and was given to Bavaria in 1802.

SCHWEINITZ, a large village of Prussian Silesia; 90 miles north-west of Breslau, and 5 west-south-west of Grunberg, with 1200 inhabitants.

SCHWEINITZ, a small town of Bohemia; 14 miles south-south-east of Budweis, and 85 south of Prague. Population 1000.

SCHWEINITZ, a small river of Germany, in Upper Lusatia, which falls into the Spree.

SCHWEINWART, a small town of Lower Austria, in the quarter below the Wienerwald, with 1000 inhabitants.

SCHWEITZ, or SCHWYTZ, a canton in the interior of Switzerland, lying contiguous to the lakes of Zug and Lucerne. Its extent, including some additions made to it since 1803, is 466 square miles; its population hardly 30,000. It is surrounded by Alpine mountains, between which are a few valleys. In its interior is a chain of hills, in the form of a large section of an ellipsis. The chief mountains are Rigi in the south-west corner, above 6000 feet in height; Pragel in the south-east, above 5500; and Mytten, situated between the two, and having an elevation of 6300 feet. Here are, however, no glaciers, and no snow in the autumn months, but the soil and climate are fitter for pasturage than for tillage, and the chief wealth of the inhabitants consists in their cattle. Manufactures are almost unknown; the cotting spinning introduced since the end of the 18th century, being carried on to a very limited extent. The religion of the inhabitants is the Catholic: their manners are very primitive. It was here, in the beginning of the 14th century that the standard of Swiss liberty was first erected, and this petty canton had the honour of giving a name to the confederation. The public revenue is very small, and arose formerly

formerly from payments made by foreign powers, for leave to levy soldiers within the canton. The inhabitants made a spirited but unavailing resistance to the French in 1798, and suffered severely in 1799, when Switzerland became the theatre of military operations.

SCHWEITZ, the chief town of the preceding canton, is delightfully situated in a valley, about two miles from the lake of Lowerz. It contains 5000 inhabitants, and has a large church, but no other public edifices of interest. Several of the private dwellings are good, but the inhabitants were long in recovering the losses caused by the military operations of 1798 and 1799; 26 miles south-by-east of Zurich, and 17 east of Lucerne,

SCAWELM, a small town of Prussian Westphalia, in the county of Mark, on the river Schwelm; 27 miles north-east of Cologne, and 22 east of Dusseldorf. Population 23000. The inhabitants of the town and neighbourhood have established manufactures of iron, cotton stuffs, linen, and silks; and their numbers have in consequence received much augmentation, a small district, by no means fertile, of 47 square miles, having now 10,000 inhabitants.

SCHWENCKFELDT (Gaspar de), a religious enthusiast, of a noble family in Silesia, was born at the castle of Ossig, in the duchy of Lignitz, in 1490. After passing some years with the duke, to whom he was counsellor, he began to learn the Greek language, and to study the scriptures and fathers of the church. He joined the Protestant party; but upon examining the doctrines and rites established by Luther, he found many things which appeared to him to be erroneous. He accordingly formed opinions for himself, and began to propagate them in Silesia, after which he went to Strasburg, Augsburg, and other imperial cities, every where inculcating his peculiar tenets, and every where encountering the enmity of the zealots of other sects. His morals were pure, his piety fervent, and his sincerity unquestionable; but he had a great propensity to fanaticism, which induced him to believe that he received the doctrines which he taught from immediate divine inspiration. He differed from Luther in three principal points:—1. With regard to the Eucharist, he inverted the words "this is my body," and would have them understood thus; "my body is this, that is, such as this bread which is broken and consumed; a true and real food, which nourishes and satisfies the soul. My blood is this, that is, such in its effects as the wine, which strengthens and refreshes the heart." 2. With respect to the efficacy of the divine word, he denied that the external word which is committed to writing in the scriptures, possesses the power of healing, illuminating, and renewing the mind; and he ascribed this power to the internal word, which, according to his notion, was Christ himself. 3. He would not allow Christ's human nature, in its exalted state, to be called a creature, or a created substance, which denomination appeared to him infinitely beneath its dignity. To these and other mystical notions he was so much devoted, that he passed a life of wandering and contention in propagating them, and by means of his eloquence and zeal, he obtained a great number of followers. He died at Ulm, in the year 1561. He had founded a church in Silesia. His works have been frequently reprinted.

SCHWENKFELDIA [so named by Schreber, in memory of Caspar Schenckfelt, a Silesian physician, author of a catalogue of the plants and fossils in Silesia], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of rubiaceæ.—Generic Character. Calyx: involucre four-leaved. Perianth one-leaved, five-parted, superior, permanent: segments lanceolate, acute. Corolla one-petalled, funnel-form: tube long, slender: throat hirsute: border five-parted: segments lanceolate, acute. Stamina: filaments five, inserted into the tube of the corolla. Anthers parallelopiped, incumbent. Pistil: germ inferior, ovate. Style filiform. Stigmas five, oblong. Pericarp: berry globular, crowned with the calyx, five-celled. Seeds very many, very small, fastened to semilunar receptacles.—*Essential Character.* Involucre four-leaved. Corolla funnel-form. Stigmas five. Berry five-celled, many seeded. (Corolla salver-form. Stigma five-parted. *(Willd.)*

1. Schwenkfeldia hirta.—Leaves ovate-lanceolate, acuminate, flowers peduncled. It is a climbing shrub, branched, with the stem and branches striated and hirsute. Stipules large, interposed between the petioles, wide, cordate-ovate, membranaceous, whitish. Peduncles axillary, from the bosom of the stipules, shorter than the petioles, umbelliferous. Flowers pedicelled, white, void of scent.—Native of Jamaica, in the western parts of the island, in mountain woods: flowering in April.

2. Schwenkfeldia cinerea.—Leaves oblong, acute, tomentose, hoary beneath, flowers subsessile. This is also a climbing shrub, with the stem and branches round and hispid; the branchlets scattered, spreading, tomentose.—Native of Cayenne and Guiana, in hedges.

3. Schwenkfeldia aspera.—Leaves elliptic, acuminate, rough, hoary beneath, flowers sessile.—Native of Guiana, on the banks of rivers.

SCHWENKIA [so named by Van Royen, from Martin Wilhelm Schwencke, physician and professor of botany at the Hague], in Botany, a genus of the class diandria, order monogynia, natural order of luridæ; scrophulariæ *(Juss.)* —Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, tubular, striated, straight, five-toothed, permanent. Corolla one-petalled: tube cylindrical, length of the calyx: border almost regular, length of the calyx, inflated at the throat, five-plaited: plaits closing the orifice in form of a star, with a glandular body growing upon the exterior angles of the plaits, the two upper ones longer than the glands. Stamina: filaments five; three shorter, bristle-shaped, castrated; two upper, longer, fertile. Anthers two, ovate, acute, two-celled. Pistil: germ globular. Style simple, length of the stamens. Stigma obtuse. Pericarp: capsule compressed like a lens, smooth, longer than the enlarged calyx, two-celled, two-valved. Seeds very many, very small, somewhat angular. Receptacle subglobular. In a natural order it approaches very near to Browallia.—*Essential Character.* Corolla almost equal, with the throat plaited and glandular. Stamina three, barren. Capsule two-celled, many-seeded.

Schwenkia Americana, or Guinea schwenkia.—It is a biennial plant, with alternate leaves and axillary flowers.—Native of Guinea: it flowers in August and September.

SCHWENNINGEN, a large village of the west of Germany, in Wirtemberg. Population 2500; 3 miles east of Villingen.

SCHWERIN (Curt, Christopher), Count Von, a celebrated Prussian general, was born of a noble family, in the year 1684. He was educated till the age of 13 at home, under the direction of able tutors; but having lost his father in 1697, he was left to the care of his mother and an uncle, the Hessian general Detlof von Schwerin, who had distinguished himself in the war in Brabant. By the friendly assistance of the latter, who sent for him to the Hague, he was enabled to prosecute his studies at Leyden, and other places; but in the 17th year of his age, he relinquished scientific pursuits, and entered into the Dutch service, in the regiment commanded by his uncle, and in which his eldest brother, who was afterwards killed, in 1704, in the storming of Donaverth, held a commission. In 1705, he was made captain at the early age of 21, and in the following campaign served under prince Eugene, and the duke of Marlborough, and from these able commanders learned those principles of the art of war, which, in the course of his military career, he practised with so much success. About this time his uncle quitted the army, with an intention of spending the remainder of his days in retirement, and on this account the nephew resigned his company, and entered into the service of the duke of Mecklenburg Schwerin, in which he obtained, in 1706, the rank of lieutenant-colonel. In the following year he obtained a regiment, and, by his excellent conduct, he gained the confidence so completely of his sovereign, that, in 1712, he was dispatched on a mission to Charles XII., of Sweden. In 1718 he became a major-general;

general; and in 1719, during the dispute between duke Charles Leopold and the Mecklenburg nobility respecting their privileges, he was employed, and displayed all the energy and prudence which the business seemed to require. His own property was situated in Pomerania, which, being ceded to the king of Prussia, he immediately entered into his service, and obtained a regiment in 1722. In consequence of disturbances at Thorn, he was sent by the king as envoy to the royal Polish and electoral court of Saxony; but being unable to accomplish the object of his mission, he quitted Dresden, with the consent of his sovereign, and resigned his office to his brother. In 1730, he was made governor of Peitz, and next year was promoted to be a lieutenant-general, and honoured with the order of the Black Eagle. In 1733, he marched, with three Prussian regiments, to Mecklenburg, and took possession of some places in that duchy, which were not restored to the duke till 1787. He now rose into great favour with the king, Frederic William I., was his constant companion, and accompanied him to all his reviews. In 1739, he became a general of infantry; and at the funeral of the king, in 1740, bore the banner of the kingdom. He was raised the same year to the rank of count, as was also his brother, by Frederic II., and at the same time nominated a field-marshal. On the death of the emperor, Charles VI., he was sent for by the king, that he might confer with him on measures necessary to be pursued in regard to the approaching war; and his regiment, which broke up in December, was the first that entered the Silesian territories. He shortly after reduced many strong places, and in January 1741, attended the king when he entered Breslau, and, shortly after, advancing and crossing the river Neiss, he occupied the important pass of Jablunka. In the month of February, having given up his command, he proceeded to Breslau, and after making some important preparations and establishing magazines, he returned to the army. In the month of April he obtained a great victory at Molwitz, which determined the future fate of Silesia. On this occasion, though wounded severely and often, he never quitted the field, and by his ability and great presence of mind, rallied the Prussian troops, after they had been thrown into a disorder, which rendered the issue of the battle, at one time, extremely doubtful. On the breaking out of the second Silesian war, Schwerin conducted a party of the Prussian army through the country of Glatz to Bohemia, took possession of many great towns, and levied heavy contributions. He was very instrumental in taking Prague, and signed the articles of capitulation on the part of the king of Prussia. After this, the king took a step contrary to the advice and opinion of his favourite marshal, which induced him to quit his command, and retire to his estate. The coolness that now subsisted between the king and Schwerin was not removed till 1747, when Frederic invited him to Berlin, and he was afterwards placed in a very conspicuous situation in the seven years' war. In 1756 he attacked very successfully, with his advanced guard, a body of Austrians, and destroyed the bridge on the Elbe at Schirsitz. About the same time the king had been conqueror in the bloody engagement at Lowositz, and having sent a letter to the field-marshal to acquaint him with the victory, the latter wrote him back that he heartily congratulated him, but had the battle been fought by a subject, instead of a king, he would thereby have exposed his life to danger. In 1757, having now done wonders in the cause in which he had embarked, he joined the royal army encamped before Prague. In this situation the king determined to give the enemy battle; the marshal opposed the plan, on account of the unfavourableness of the place; but when he found him determined, he, at length, yielded. The battle was fought on the 6th of May, and was one of the bloodiest in which the king was ever engaged. "The Prussians," says the historian, "performed wonders, and displayed a bravery beyond all praise; but in consequence of a most destructive fire of grape-shot, and the difficulty of approaching the enemy, they began to lose courage and to give way. Schwerin, who was posted before a narrow pass, seeing his regiment giving way, snatched the colours from an ensign of the second battalion; placed himself in front of the regiment, and calling out to his men, 'Do you not see the enemy turning their backs,' encouraged them by that address to advance." Scarcely, however, had he proceeded a few steps, before he fell covered with wounds, in the 73d year of his age. The last act of the hero turned the fate of the day, and secured for the Prussians a decided victory. The field-marshal's body was conveyed to a neighbouring convent, to which the king went for the purpose of viewing it, and deploring the fate of his general. To commemorate the event, a plate was engraved by Berger, and the king caused a statue of white marble to be erected in William's Place, at Berlin. Schwerin was a severe disciplinarian; he enforced subordination with great rigour; he possessed a most delicate sense of honour, which he made a great point of maintaining. He knew how to preserve his dignity with princes of the royal blood, and always obliged them to treat him with respect. He entertained an unfeigned reverence for religion, and paid particular attention to those who were actuated by the same principles, and often used to say, that a brave general ought to be a good Christian. *Gen. Biog.*

SCHWERIN, the capital of the grand duchy of Mecklenburg-Schwerin, in the north of Germany, is a considerable town, situated on the west side of the lake of Schwerin. Its position is very agreeable: the town is surrounded with a rampart, and is divided into the Old town, the New town, the Moor, and the suburbs. The grand ducal palace is situated on an island in the lake: it is fortified, and communicates with the town by a draw-bridge; but its principal ornaments are its picture gallery and its park. The chief buildings and institutions of Schwerin are the high church, formerly a cathedral, two other Lutheran churches, a Catholic church, a poor house, an orphan house, an infirmary, and a synagogue. The population amounts to 8500, almost all Lutherans. Here are several public offices for the business of the grand duchy, but the manufactures are trifling. Brewing and distilling are carried on to some extent. In 1759, this town was taken by the Prussians, after a bombardment, and laid under a heavy contribution. In 1806 it was occupied by the French; 60 miles east of Hamburgh, and 17 south of Wismar.

SCHWERIN, or Skwierzyna, a small town of Prussian Poland; 55 miles west-by-north of Posen, and 11 north of Meseritz, with fully 3000 inhabitants, of whom nearly a third are Jews.

SCHWERINSBURG, a well built but small town of Prussia, in Pomerania, near Anklam, with a magnificent castle and gardens, belonging to one of the counts of Schwerin.

SCHWERSENTZ, a town of Prussian Poland; 61 miles east of Posen. It contains 2700 inhabitants, of whom the half are Jews.

SCHWERTA, a large village of Saxony, in the south-east corner of Upper Lusatia. The inhabitants, who amount to 2300, are chiefly linen weavers and turners.

SCHWERTE, or Schwierte, a small town of Prussian Westphalia, in the county of Mark, on the Roer. Population 1400; 36 miles east-north-east of Dusseldorf.

SCHWETZ, a small town of west Prussia, on the Vistula; 3 miles north of Culm, with 2300 inhabitants, and some manufactures of woollens, leather, and earthenware.

SCHWETZINGEN, a small town of the west of Germany, in Baden; 6 miles west-by-south of Heidelberg. It stands in a fertile and beautiful district, and contains 2200 inhabitants. It has a palace which formerly belonged to the electors palatine, and was their usual residence during the 18th century. The adjacent gardens and pleasure grounds are equal to any thing of the kind in Germany, being ornamented with alleys, bowers, terraces, fountains, and statues. A canal to the Rhine was dug in 1749; and there is a shaded walk from this to Heidelberg.

SCHWETZKO, or Swieczechow, a small town of Prussian

Prussian Poland; 9 miles east-north-east of Fraustadt, and 41 south-south-west of Posen. It has 1400 inhabitants.

SCHWIEBUS, a small town of the Prussian province of Brandenburg, government of Frankfort-on-the-Oder. It contains 3000 inhabitants, and its principal branch of industry is the manufacture of woollens; 36 miles east of Frankfort-on-the-Oder, and 104 north-north-west of Breslau.

SCHWIEHAU, a small town in the south-west of Bohemia, on the river Bradlanka; 6 miles north of Klattau, and 64 south-west of Prague. Population 1000

SCHWIELOUCH SEE, a small lake of Prussia, in Lower Lusatia, traversed by the river Spree. It is only four miles long, and two broad.

SCHWIERTE. See SCHWERTE.

SCHWINDRATZHEIM, a village of France, in the department of the Lower Rhine, with 900 inhabitants.

SCHWINGE, a river of Hanover, in the duchy of Bremen, which falls into the Elbe near Stade. It is also joined to the Elbe by a canal.

SCHYNDEL, a very large village of the Netherlands, in North Brabant, containing 3100 inhabitants.

SCIACCA, or XACCA, a considerable sea-port on the south-west coast of Sicily, in the Val di Mazzara, called anciently *Thermæ Selinuntiæ*, from the warm baths in the vicinity. They are on the east side of the town, and are strongly impregnated with sulphur. It is situated at the foot of a mountain called St. Calagere, and has a good appearance from a distance, but is found on entering it to be wretchedly built. It is still surrounded by a wall. It contains 12,000 inhabitants, and is one of the towns which contain large subterranean granaries, under the direction of government, for warehousing corn for export. The great coast road leading from Mazzara on the west, to Girgenti, the ancient Agrigentum, on the east, passes through Sciacca. Agathocles, the well known, tyrant of Syracuse, was a native of this place; 27 miles south of Mazzara, and 41 south-south-west of Palermo. Lat. 37. 34. N. long. 12. 53. E.

SCIADEPHORI [σκιαδηφοροι, formed of σκιαδεια, *an umbrella*, and φερω, *I carry*], among the Athenians, an appellation given to the stranger women residing in Athens, because they were obliged, at the festival Panathenæa, to carry umbrellas to defend the free women from the weather.

SCIÆNA [from the word σκια, Gr. *a shadow*. The fish having this name from its being of a dusky or shadowy colour], in Ichthyology, a genus of fishes of the order Thoracici, of which the Generic Character is as follows:—the head is covered with scales; the scales are strongly fixed; the gill membrane with about six rays; the covers are scaly; it has two dorsal fins, frequently concealed in a longitudinal cavity. In Gmelin's edition of Linnæus, 29 species are described. The fishes of this tribe have their scales very minute, smooth, and towards the back and belly they are raised and loose; the jaws are of unequal length, furnished with a great number of sharp and incurvated teeth, covered with two thick lips; a single dorsal and anal fin, with a loose appendage beyond the rays; the ventral fins are placed on the thorax, a little behind the pectoral, and sharpened at the point. Many of the fishes belonging to this genus are black, and have obtained from the old naturalists the names of sea-crows, ravens, and umbres.

1. Sciæna cappa.—Sides of the head with a double row of scales.—It is an inhabitant of the Mediterranean.

2. Sciæna lipisma.—In this the dorsal fin is concealed between two scaly leaves.

3. Sciæna unimaculata.—This has a brown spot on the middle of each side.

4. Sciæna umbra, or sea-crow.—The body of this species is varied with black; the ventral fins are very entire. It is found in the Mediterranean and European seas. In shape it resembles a perch; the ventral and anal fins are as black as if dyed with ink; the back is variegated with undulating lines of dark brown and blue; the snout is sharp; the mouth capacious, and instead of teeth, it is roughened with small asperities; around the rostrum there are various small apertures; those of the nostrils wide and placed near the eyes. On the back are two fins so closely adjoining, that they appear single and contiguous.—It is a native of the Mediterranean, and is sold in great quantities in the markets of Rome, where it is called ombrino.

5. Sciæna cirrosa.—The upper jaw is the longer of the two, and the lower one has a cirrus.—It inhabits the European and American seas, and is about a foot long. The body is yellowish; beneath it is somewhat silvery, with oblique blackish stripes; the tail is semilunar.

6. Sciæna hamrur.—This species is red, with a coppery gloss; the fins are more dusky; the mouth is subvertical; the scales are membranaceous at the edges.—It is found in Arabia; the body is oblong, and the scales are small.

7. Sciæna vulviflamma.—This is yellowish, with longitudinal golden stripes; the sides are marked with a black spot; the dorsal fins convex.

8. Sciæna kasmira.—This is a yellowish fish, with four large stripes on each side. It is an Arabian fish, as are almost all the others.

9. Sciæna bohar.—Reddish, with whitish lines and clouds. The body is oblong, coated with smooth scales; it is of a doubtful genus; when alive, it has two large spots on the back, which disappear when the fish is dead.

10. Sciæna gibba.—Reddish, dotted with white; the back is gibbous; the body is oval; the scales are red, tipt with white. The upper and middle teeth are contiguous; the canine are distant, and twice as large as the others; the dorsal and anal fins are rectangular behind.

11. Sciæna nigra.—The body of this is black; the belly is of a whitish-brown. The scales are very entire.

12. Sciæna argentata.—Scales above are blackish, with silvery edges and tips; beneath pale rufous, with pale edges; it resembles the Sciæna bohar. The head is curved. with a blue patch running under the eye towards the mouth.

13. Sciæna rubra.—This is of a dusky red, beneath white, with eight longitudinal reddish-white stripes on each side, growing dusky towards the back. Its scales are a little spinous.

14. Sciæna murdjan.—Lips retuse; body with a metallic splendour; beneath it is paler. The body is of an oblong oval; the scales are broad and toothed.

15. Sciæna sammara.—The back of this species is red, with a brassy gloss; the sides are silvery, with ten darker stripes on each side; the lateral scales with a whitish spot surrounded with black. It is not more than two inches long, and beneath it is silvery.

16. Sciæna spinifera.—This fish is red; the dorsal fins are connected; the head is spinous; the anterior gill-covers have a very long spine. It is about a foot long; behind the eyes, on each side, and at the base of the pectoral fins, a dusky spot; the scales are broad and indented. In the crown are two fasciculi of elevated lines behind the eyes; before the eyes is a long, deep, unequal cavity; the eyes are surrounded with a spinous bony ring; the iris is red.

17. Sciæna ghanam.—Whitish; sides with a double white stripe. The gill-covers are spinous. Parallel with the back is a lateral line, with a white stripe on each side; there is another stripe, composed of dusky quincuncal spots, extending from the crown to the end of the dorsal fin.

18. Sciæna jarbua.—This species is of a silvery hue, with two curved stripes on each side, meeting on the back, and forming a ring; the spot on the middle of the back, and two bands on the front, black. Under the stripe, on each side, is a brown line, and beneath this is a yellowish one.

19. Sciæna stridens.—This is silvery-blue, with from three to five brown longitudinal lines on each side. It is about four inches long, feeds on herbs, and when first taken out of the water utters a low shriek.

20. Sciæna gaterina.—Blueish-yellow, speckled with black, and a few larger spots. There is a variety of this species which has on its body four brown stripes on each side; the fins are yellow.

21. Sciæna argentea.—Silvery, above speckled with black; the scales of this species are ciliate.

22. Sciæna

22. Sciæna nebulosa.—The body of this species is marked with longitudinal blue and yellowish-brown clouds; a variety has its body marked with obsolete longitudinal violet stripes. The head is sloping; fins filamentous, and the tail is forked.

23. Sciæna mahsena.—Body brown, lined, and with transverse waved silvery bands. The body is of an oblong oval; the scales are brown, with toothed ramifications.

24. Sciæna harah.—This is of a greenish colour; the fins are of a pale red; beneath the lateral line is a black linear spot on each side. It very much resembles the last.

25. Sciæna ramak.—Greenish-white, with obsolete longitudinal yellowish-violet lines; the fins are reddish.

26. Sciæna grandoculis.—Blueish; the lower lip is gibbous; it is of an oblong-oval form, with obsolete lines.

27. Sciæna cinerascens.—This is of a greenish-ash colour, with longitudinal lines. The body is of an oblong-ovate shape; the scales are very entire and rhombic; they are whitish, with a rusty yellow spot at the base on each side.

28. Sciæna safgha.—Oblong, silvery, without spots; the tail is forked. The jaws are indented, the lower one is the longer of the two; the gill-covers are finely serrate.

29. Sciæna armata.—This is silvery; between the head and dorsal fin is a rigid horizontal spine; the tail is forked. The body is compressed, oval, and pointed. The spine behind the head points forwards; the lateral line is straight, and the fins are white; the dorsal and anal fins are tipt with black; the tail is brown, and the inner edge whitish. To the foregoing may be added the following:

30. Sciæna labrax, or basse sciæna; of which the habit is that of the salmon; the size is considerable, growing, it is said, to the length of several feet. It is of a blueish silvery colour, with a dusky cast on the back; the scales are small; the eyes are reddish; the mouth and gill-covers tinged with red; the tail is slightly forked; the lateral line is nearly straight.—It is a native of the Mediterranean and Northern Seas, and often entering the rivers; it was known to the ancients by the names of *labrax* and *lupus*, and was much esteemed as an article of food, particularly by the Romans.

31. Sciæna diacantha.—This has longitudinal yellow lines, and two spined gill-covers. It is about twelve inches long, and like the labrax; the fins are glaucous, but the pectoral, ventral fins, and tail, are reddish at the base; the tail is slightly lunated; the eyes are yellow, and the scales are large, —It is a native of the Mediterranean.

32. Sciæna undecimalis.—The abdomen of this is silvery. the dorsal fins and tail brownish. It is about a foot in length. —Is a native of the American seas, and very common about the coasts of Jamaica.

33. Sciæna lineata.—This has the habit of a trout, and is a native of the Mediterranean.

34. Sciæna plumieri.—With transverse brown bands, and yellow longitudinal lines and fins; it has the habits of a perch, and is a native of the American seas, and was first described by Bloch from a drawing by Plumier.

35. Sciæna Mauritii.—This has a brownish black colour; the first dorsal fin is spiny, with nine rays. It is the size of a perch, and has the habit of a salmon; it is like the labrax, except in size.—It is a native of Brasil, described by Bloch from a drawing by Prince Maurice.

36. Sciæna fulviflamma.—With five or six longitudinal gold-coloured bands, and a middle black spot. The first dorsal fin is dusky; the second and other fins are yellow; the gold-coloured lines on the body are sometimes obscure; the teeth are strong, distant, and conic-subulate.

37. Sciæna macrolepidota.—With transverse brownish-violet bands and spotted fins. It is about a foot long; the head is short, and sloping rather suddenly; scales pretty large; the dorsal, anal, and caudal fins spotted with brown; the pectoral fins are plain, and tinged with violet; ventral fins red, eyes blue.—Native of India.

38. Sciæna cylindrica.—With several dusky girdles and spotted fins. It is six inches long; the eyes are prominent, and situated near each other at the upper part of the head.

SCIA'GRAPHY, *s.* [*sciagraphie*, Fr., σκιαγραφια, Gr.] Art of sketching.—Let those, who are delighted with *sciography*, paint out, if they please, these shadow-patriarchs. *Fuller.*—[In architecture.] The profile or section of a building, to shew the inside thereof. *Bailey.*—[In astronomy.] The art of finding the hour of the day or night by the shadow of the sun, moon, or stars. *Bailey.*

SCIAMACHIA [from the σκια and μαχω, Gr. *I fight*], the fighting with a person's own shadow, a sort of exercise prescribed by the ancient physicians, in which the motion of the arms, and other parts of the body, were of very great service in many chronic cases.

SCIAMAT, a village of Kerman, in Persia; 18 miles east of Kerman.

SCIARRI, the matter which runs down in burning torrents from the craters of Mount Ætna.

SCIATHE'RICAL, or SCIATHE'RIC, *adj.* [*sciaterique*, Fr., σκιαθηρικος, Gr.] Belonging to a sun-dial. *Dict.*—There were also, from great antiquity, *sciatherical* or sun dials; by the shadow of a stile or gnomon denoting the hours; an invention ascribed unto Anaxamines by Pliny. *Brown.*

SCIATHE'RICALLY, *adv.* After the manner of a sun-dial.—Let the plane he *sciatherically* prepared, and it shall be necessary for the shadow of the sun to go back. *Gregory.*

SCIATHERICUM TELESCOPIUM, a horizontal dial with a telescope, adapted for observing the true time, both by day and night, to regulate and adjust the pendulum-clocks, watches, and other time-keepers. It is the invention of the ingenious Mr. Molyneux, who has published a book with this title, containing an accurate description of this instrument, its uses, and application.

SCIA'TICA, or SCIA'TIC, *s.* [*sciatique*, Fr., *ischiadica passio*, Lat.] The hip gout.

Thou cold *sciatica*,
Cripple our senators, that their limbs may halt
As lamely as their manners. *Shakspeare.*

SCIA'TICAL, *adj.* Afflicting the hip.—In obstinate *sciatical* pains, blistering and cauteries have been found effectual. *Arbuthnot.*

SCIE, a small river of Normandy, which falls into the sea; 2 miles from Dieppe.

SCIEFAMES, a village of Palestine, celebrated for its cotton. Several ruins near it, prove it formerly to have been of some importance.

SCIEKOCINI, a small town of Poland, on the river Pilica.

SCIELAT, a station in the Nubian desert; 10 miles south of Syene.

SCI'ENCE, *s.* [*scientia*, Lat.] Knowledge.—The indisputable mathematics, the only *science* Heaven hath yet vouchsafed humanity, have but few votaries among the slaves of the Stagirite. *Glanville.*—Certainty grounded on demonstration.—So you arrive at truth, though not at *science*. *Berkeley.*—Art attained by precepts, or built on principles.—*Science* perfects genius, and moderates that fury of the fancy which cannot contain itself within the bounds of reason. *Dryden.*—Any art or species of knowledge.—No *science* doth make known the first principles, whereon it buildeth; but they are always taken as plain and manifest in themselves, or as proved and granted already, some former knowledge having made them evident. *Hooker.*

I present you with a man
Cunning in music and the mathematics,
To instruct her fully in those *sciences*. *Shakspeare.*

One of the seven liberal arts, grammar, rhetoric, logic, arithmetic, music, geometry, astronomy.

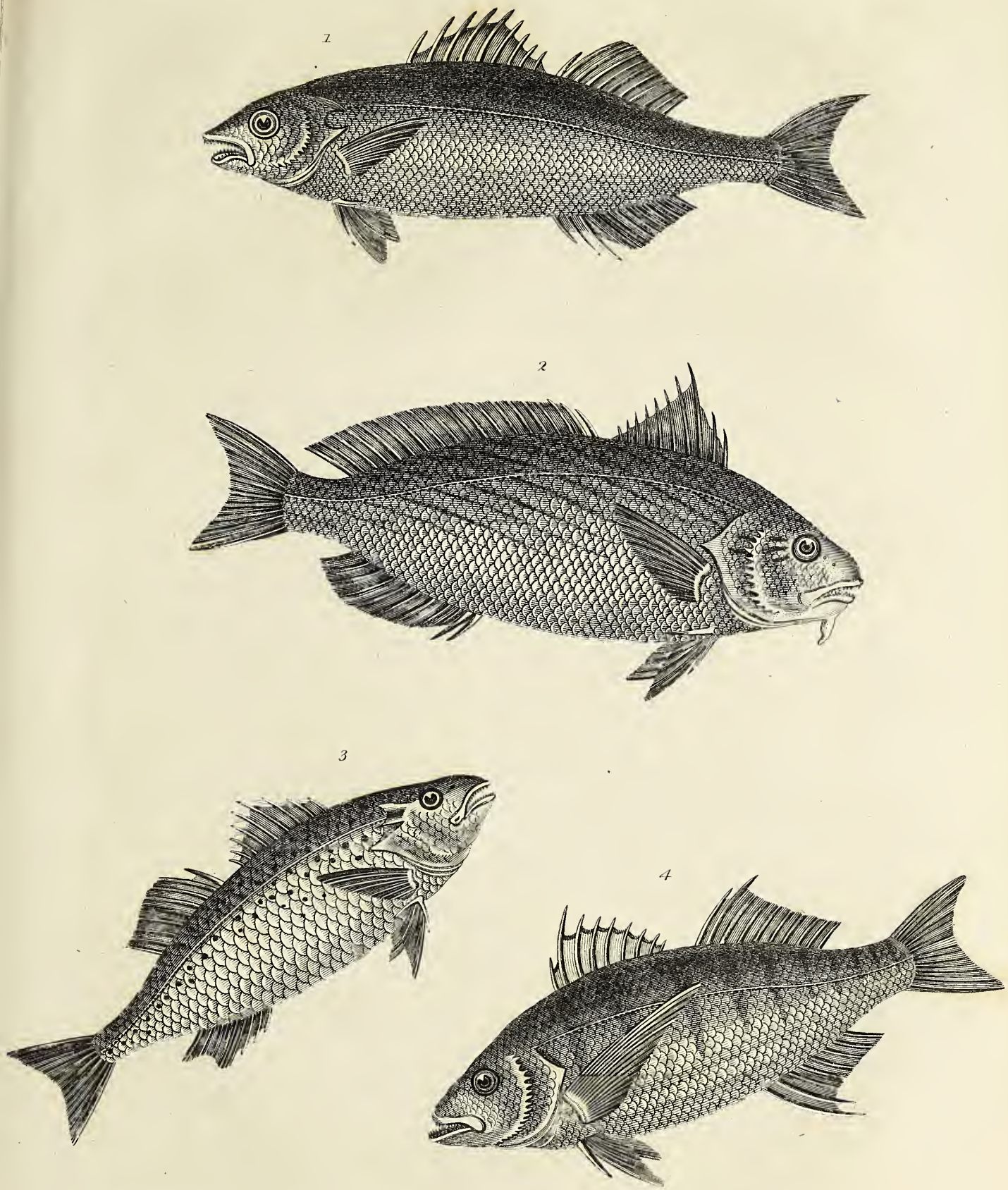
Good sense, which only is the gift of Heaven,
And though no *science*, fairly worth the sev'n. *Pope.*

SCI'ENT, *adj.* [*sciens*, Lat.] Skilful. *Not in use. Cockeram.*

SCIE'NTIAL, *adj.* Producing science.

From

SCIÆNA.



J. Pass sc.

1. S. diacanthæ. 2. S. cirrosa. 3. S. punctata. 4. S. plumieri.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1826.

From the tree her step she turn'd;
But first low reverence done, as to the power
That dwelt within; whose presence had infus'd
Into the plant *sciential* sap deriv'd
From nectar, drink of gods. *Milton.*

SCIENTIFICAL, or SCIENTIFICK, *adj.* [*scientia* and *facio*, Lat.] Producing demonstrative knowledge; producing certainty.—No man, who first trafficks into a foreign country, has any *scientifick* evidence that there is such a country, but by report, which can produce no more than a moral certainty; that is, a very high probability, and such as there can be no reason to except against. *South.*—The systems of natural philosophy that have obtained, are to be read more to know the hypotheses, than with hopes to gain there a comprehensive, *scientifical*, and satisfactory knowledge of the works of nature. *Locke.*

SCIENTIFICALLY, *adv.* In such a manner as to produce knowledge.—Sometimes it rests upon testimony, because it is easier to believe than to be *scientifically* instructed. *Locke.*

SCIERIA [Σκιερία, Gr.], in Antiquity, a festival in honour of Bacchus, kept in Arcadia.

It was so called, because that god's image was exposed υπο τη σκαιδι, i. e. under an umbrella. At this time the women were beaten with scourges, in the same manner with the Spartan boys at the altar of Diana Orthia, which punishment they underwent in obedience to a command of the Delphian oracle.

SCIGLIANO, an inland town of Italy, in the kingdom of Naples, in Calabria Citra. Population 5700. It stands near the great road leading from north to south; 12 miles south of Cosenza.

SCIGLIO, or SCILLA, a small town in the south of the kingdom of Naples, in the province of Calabria Ultra, on the strait of Messina, near the well known rock of Scylla. It has a strong castle, and 2000 inhabitants; 10 miles north of Reggio. See SCYLLA.

SCIGLIO, a cape on the south-west coast of Naples, at the entrance into the straits of Messina. Lat. 38. 12. N. long. 16. 1. E. See SCYLLA.

SCILLA [of Pliny, Σκιλλα, or rather σκιλλη of Theophrastus and Dioscorides], in Botany, a genus of the class hexandria, order monogynia, natural order of coronariæ asphodeli *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx none. Corolla: petals six, ovate, spreading very much, deciduous. Stamina: filaments six, awl-shaped, shorter by half than the corolla. Anthers oblong, incumbent. Pistil: germ roundish. Style simple, length of the stamens, deciduous. Stigma simple. Pericarp: capsule subovate, smooth, three-grooved, three-celled, three-valved. Seeds many, roundish. —*Essential Character.* Corolla six-petalled, spreading, deciduous. Filam, filiform.

1. Scilla maritima, or officinal squill.—Naked flowered with refracted bractes.—Root very large, somewhat pear-shaped, composed of many coats as in the onion, and having several fibres coming out at the bottom, and striking deep in the ground. From the middle of the root arise several shining leaves, a foot long, and two inches broad at their base, lessening all the way to the top, where they end in points; they continue green all the winter, and decay in the spring: then the flower-stalk comes out, rising two feet high, naked about half way, and terminated by a pyramidal thyrse of flowers, which are white.—Native of Spain, Portugal, Italy, Barbary, and Syria, on sandy coasts. Desfontaines says it is common in Barbary, in fields: flowering in autumn. In England it flowers in April and May.

There are two varieties; one with a red, the other with a white root; but the white is generally preferred for medicinal use.

2. Scilla lilio-hyacinthus, or lily-rooted squill.—Raceme few-flowered, peduncles without bractes, leaves lanceolate, pressed close to the ground, bulb scaly.—The stalk is slender, and rises a foot high; it is terminated by blue flowers; which appear in June.—Native of Spain, Portugal, and the Pyrenees.

3. Scilla Italica, or Italian squill.—Bulb roundish, solid, like that of the hyacinth. The leaves are very like those of the English hare-bells. Stem seven or eight inches high, terminated by clustered flowers of a pale blue colour; at first disposed in a sort of umbel or depressed spike, but afterwards drawing up to a point, and forming a conical corymb.—Miller affirms it to be a native of Portugal. Alliani says it is found in the county of Nice.

4. Scilla tetraphylla, or four-leaved squill.—Stemless, flowers in bundles, leaves in fours ovate-lanceolate.—Root bulbous. Flowers shorter by half than the leaves: peduncles filiform-setaceous, one-flowered, very abundant.—Native of Africa.

5. Scilla Peruviana, or Peruvian squill.—Root large, solid, raised a little pyramidal in the middle, covered with a brown coat; from this come out before winter five or seven leaves, six or eight inches long, of a lucid green, keeled, and spreading almost flat on the ground. From the centre of these come out one, two or three scapes, thick, succulent, six or eight inches high, terminated by a conical corymb of flowers, upon pretty long pedicels.

There are two varieties of this, one with a deep blue, and the other with a white flower. It has been long known in the English gardens by the name of hyacinth of Peru. How it came by that name is uncertain.—It is a native of Spain, Portugal and Barbary.

6. Scilla Japonica, or Japan squill.—Scape erect, simple, smooth, a palm high. Bractes on the scape and below the flowers alternate, lanceolate, shorter than the interstices. Flowers subumbelled, on pedicels about a quarter of an inch in length. Corolla spreading, white-purple.—Native of Japan.

7. Scilla amoena, or nodding squill.—Root large, solid, purplish, from which come out five or six leaves, lying on the ground, above a foot long, and an inch broad, keeled, channelled, and of a lucid green; from among these arise two, three or four purplish stalks, eight or nine inches high, sustaining towards the top five or six flowers, which come out singly from the side; they are of a violet-blue colour, and appear in April. The seeds ripen in June.—Native of the Levant.

8. Scilla præcox, or early squill.—Scape angular, raceme subcorymbed, peduncles twice as long as the flower, bractes obscure.—This is distinguishable at first sight from the preceding by its habit, smallness, and earliness of flowering: but it differs farther in the length of the peduncles, the lower ones being three times as long and more; the upper ones twice as long as the flower.

9. Scilla campanulata, or Spanish squill.—Bulb solid, raceme many-flowered, oblong-subconical, corollas bell-shaped erect, bractes two-parted longer than the peduncle, leaves lanceolate.—Corolla of a deep blue violet colour.—Native of Spain and Portugal: flowering in May.

10. Scilla bifolia, or two-leaved squill.—Root solid, flowers corymb-racemed without bractes, almost upright, leaves lanceolate by twos.—It varies with a white flower: and having sometimes three leaves, that is given also as a variety.—Native of Germany, Switzerland, Austria, France, Italy and England.

11. Scilla verna, or vernal squill.—Root solid, corymb hemispherical, few-flowered, bractes lanceolate obtuse, leaves linear channelled.—Native of Great Britain.

12. Scilla Lusitanica, or Portugal squill.—Raceme oblong, conical, petals marked with lines.—This resembles Scilla amoena.—Native of Portugal.

13. Scilla orientalis, or oriental squill.—Flowers erect, racemed, leaves elliptic-ensiform.—Root-leaves many, attenuated below, smooth, a span long. Scape erect, smooth, two feet high, with alternate spathaceous scales.—Native of Japan, in the island Niphon.

14. Scilla hyacinthoides, or hyacinth squill.—Raceme cylindrical many-flowered, petals half as long again as the germ, peduncles coloured, leaves lanceolate.—Flowers numerous,

merous, small, blue. Pedicels scattered, filiform, blue, three times as long as the flowers.—Native of the island of Madeira.

15. Scilla lingulata, or tongue-leaved squill.—Leaves lanceolate flat, raceme dense, conical, bractes awl-shaped equalling the pedicels. Bulb ovate, coated, solid. Leaves five to seven, acute, involved in a membranaceous sheath at the base. Scape slender, erect. Raceme short, ovate. Flowers on filiform pedicels, equal to the flowers.—Native of Barbary, in fields: flowering in winter.

16. Scilla villosa, or villose-leaved squill.—Leaves lanceolate, flat, villose, flowers corymbed. Bulb ovate, solid, coated. Leaves spreading in a ring, unequal obtuse or acute. Scape erect. Pedicels filiform.—Native of Barbary, in sands near Kerwan: flowering in winter.

17. Scilla obtusifolia, or blunt-leaved squill.—Scape lateral, leaves tongue-shaped, waved, flowersracemed without bractes. Bulb ovate, solid. Scapes often two, slender, round, simple, erect. Flowers like those of Scilla autumnalis, on filiform pedicels three times as long as the flowers. —Native of Barbary near La Calle.

18. Scilla parviflora, or small-flowered squill.—Leaves linear-lanceolate, acute, smooth, shorter than the scape, flowers racemed crowded, bractes very short. Bulb ovate, solid, with the outer coat brown and membranaceous. Leaves four to six, very finely striated. Scape slender, erect, often twice as long as the leaves, quite simple. Flowers like those of Scilla autumnalis, on filiform pedicels twice or thrice the length of the flower spreading out horizontally. —Native of Barbary, in fields about Algiers: flowering in winter.

19. Scilla undulata, or waved-leaved squill.—Leaves lanceolate, waved, flowers loosely racemed, bractes very short. Bulb ovate, compact, with the outer coats membranaceous and separating.—Very common in Barbary, on barren hills about Tunis, Constantine, Algiers, &c.: flowering in autumn and at the beginning of winter.

20. Scilla autumnalis, or autumnal squill.—Leaves linear, flowers corymbed-racemed, peduncles without bractes, ascending, length of the flowers. Bulb ovate-roundish, coated, whitish.—Native of France, Spain, Italy, Barbary and England.

The autumnal squill, or Starry hyacinth, as our old writers call it, is not very uncommon in dry pastures, in the southern and western parts of England.

21. Scilla anthericoides, or anthericum-like squill.—Raceme long, bractes awl-shaped, pedicels shorter than the corolla.—Bulb ovate, coated. Flowers loosely racemed, on filiform pedicels a little shorter than the corolla.—Native of Barbary, near La Calle: flowering in autumn and winter.

22. Scilla unifolia, or one-leaved squill.—Leaf subcylindrical subspiked at the side.—Native of Portugal.

Propagation and Culture.—1. The officinal squill growing on sea-shores, and in ditches where the salt water flows in with the tide, in the warm parts of Europe, cannot be propagated in gardens, the frost in winter always destroying the roots, and for want of salt water they do not thrive in summer. Sometimes the roots put out stems and produce flowers as they lie in the druggists' shops.

The other species are mostly hardy, and may be propagated by seeds or offsets.

SCILLONEORTE [Σκιλλων Ἑορτή, Gr.], in Antiquity, the festival of sea-onions. It was observed in Sicily. The chief part of it was a combat, in which youths beat one another with sea-onions. He that obtained the victory was rewarded by the gymnasiarch with a bull.

SCILLY ISLANDS, a group of islands, situated at the western extremity of the English channel, about 30 miles westward of the Land's End, and included in, or belonging to, the county of Cornwall. In fine weather they are easily discernible from the coast of Cornwall, appearing like a cluster of cliffs, or fragments of ruined castles, round which rolls the vast Atlantic. The principal mode of conveyance to these islands, is in vessels that sail from the port of Penzance. In good weather, the passage, a distance of 14 leagues, is generally accomplished in four or five hours; but it is rendered dangerous by numerous ledges of rock, one of which, called the Gulph or Walf, situated about mid-way, has been the occasion of many shipwrecks. The islands are numerous; but six only of them are inhabited, viz., St. Mary's, Tresean, St. Martin's, St. Agnes, Sampson, and Brehar. The climate here is mild and healthy, the extremes of winter and summer being moderated and equalized by the influence of the sea breezes. The views from these islands are in general extremely picturesque, and greatly diversified by the various vessels that are continually navigating the contiguous channels, or the more distant ocean. The inhabitants are chiefly engaged in agriculture, in fishing, and in the manufacture of kelp. Cattle are fed in most of the islands; but they are neither numerous, nor remarkable for size. The crops of corn principally raised are barley, pease, and oats, with a small proportion of wheat. A few acres are sown with pillis; and potatoes are grown in great quantities, especially in St. Mary's. The manufacture of kelp was first introduced here by a Mr. Nance, in 1684, who taught the inhabitants the process, and whose memory is still revered by them on this account. The civil government of the Scilly Islands is not vested in any properly constituted authority. Persons accused of felonies are sent to Cornwall, to be tried at the county assizes; but all minor crimes and civil suits are cognizable by a court delegated by the lord proprietor, who derives his authority for exercising this civil jurisdiction, solely from a patent granted by king William. His court consists of 15 of the principal inhabitants of Heughtown, in St. Mary's, and sits mostly there for the decision of causes. Vacancies are supplied by election; but the whole may be dissolved at any time by the lord proprietor. The number of inhabitants in all the islands is about 2000, of which the greater proportion are in St. Mary's. This is the largest, the most important, and best cultivated of the whole group. It possesses three towns, a pier, a garrison, custom-house, and other public buildings. Its length is about 2½ miles, and its circumference between 9 and 10 miles. The hills on it are rocky; they rise in some places to a considerable elevation, and are said to abound with metallic ores. The entrance into the sound is skirted by numerous small isles, covered with verdure to the water's edge, or are occasionally surrounded by bold assemblages of rocks, which in some places have a sublime, and in others a very grotesque appearance. St. Mary's contains about 1270 inhabitants. The principal settlement on, or the capital of, this island, is Newtown, or Heughtown, where nearly half the inhabitants of the island reside. It is situated on the low land of the isthmus that joins the main part of the island to the high ground of the garrison, and consists of one long street, intersected by two others of less extent. Here is the custom-house, to which belong a collector, a surveyor, and six other officers; also a council-house, and a prison. At the west end of the town is the pier, which was rebuilt by the earl of Godolphin, about the year 1750. It is 430 feet in length, and is calculated to receive and protect vessels of 150 tons burden. In the vicinity are the remains of an old fortress, with a mount, and likewise the ruins of several block-houses and batteries, supposed to have been constructed during the civil wars. The church stands about a mile from the town; and about a quarter of a mile farther along the shore is Old Town, formerly the principal place in the island. Adjoining this, on an eminence, are some vestiges of Old Town castle mentioned by Lleland. Giant's Castle bay, to the eastward, derives its name from an earthen-bank so called, which is ascribed to the Danes. Near it is one of those curiosities called rocking-stones; and the remains of Druidical monuments, consisting of circular stones, with sepulchral barrows, are found in different parts of the island. On the western side of the island are the barracks and several batteries; here is also the king's Star-castle, so called from its figure projecting every way, like rays from a star. It commands an extensive prospect of the

the island and the adjacent seas. This fortress was erected by Sir Francis Godolphin, in the reign of queen Elizabeth, and is now usually occupied by the commanding officer on the island, and a detachment from the barracks. It was here that Dr. John Bastwich was imprisoned by order of the court of star-chamber, in 1637, after having lost his ears on the pillory, for writing against the church and state. The other town on the island is Church Town. About one mile south-west of St. Mary's is St. Agnes, though more frequently called Light-house Island, from a very high and strong light-house, erected here as a warning from the rocks, which are here very numerous. Trescau, or Tresco, lies near St. Agnes, and is about half its size. The principal village here is called Dolphin, and consists of about 20 houses, and the church. The chief havens in the island are Old and New Grimsby harbours. Near the latter stand the ruins of Cromwell's castle, so named from its having been built by the parliamentarians. It was repaired in 1740, but is now decayed and completely neglected. On an eminence to the north-east are the remains of another fort, named Old Castle. On Tresco are the remains of the conventual church of St. Nicholas, which was founded in the 10th century, and was subsequently enriched by several of the earls of Cornwall. Tresco contains 465 inhabitants. St. Martin's lies about a mile eastward of Tresco, and is rather smaller. It is nearly six miles in circumference, and contains about 720 acres. It has of late years greatly increased in population, and has at present 235 inhabitants; about 150 years ago, it had none at all, and even in 1756, only 18 families. Here are several cairns, and also some circles of stones; and from the remains of inclosures that intersect the island in different directions, it seems to have been anciently well cultivated. Brehar or Bryer lies to the west of Tresco. Sampson island is composed of two circular hills connected by a low rocky ledge, and at a distance has a pleasing effect. The inhabitants consist of a few families. The Scilly islands appear to have been known to the ancients, at a very remote period, under the name of the Cassiterides. Diodorus, Strabo, Solinus, and other writers, mention that the Phœnicians, and after them the Carthaginians and Greeks, traded hither for tin, of which metal these islands are described as possessing many extensive and valuable mines. "These islands (says Strabo) are ten in number, and lie contiguous to each other. One of them is desert and uninhabited; the others are peopled by a race of men who wear black garments, and a long robe reaching down to their heels, and bound about their waists, and who walk about with long staves, resembling the furies of tragedians. They have mines of tin and lead, which, together with hides, they exchange for earthenware, salt, and brass work." Of this ancient state of things, nothing now remains, and various speculations have been formed, to account for the change that has taken place; some ascribing it to the ravages of the ocean, separating the larger islands into numerous smaller ones, and of which separation many proofs are said to exist, in the appearance of hedges and ruins seen frequently between the friths, by the shifting of the sands; others to the actual submersion of a great proportion of the land. It is remarkable that the name of the group should be taken from that one, the Scilly, which is now one of the smallest. At what time the Scilly islands were first occupied by the Romans, is not recorded; but after the conquest of Britain, they seem to have been used as a place of confinement and exile for state criminals. Athelstane, king of the West Saxons, subdued them in the 10th century. During the civil wars of Charles I. they became of considerable importance. In 1645, they afforded an asylum to prince Charles, and his friends Hopton and lord Copel. At that period Sir John Grenville was governor of the island, which he fortified and held for the king, till he was forced to surrender to the troops of parliament. The property of these islands was bestowed by Athelstane, on certain monks of the Carmelite order, and passed through various successive hands, until in 1552 they were leased to the family of Godolphin, and are now held under that title by the duke of Leeds.

SCILLY ISLANDS, a group of islands or shoals in the Southern Pacific Ocean, extremely dangerous, and so named by Captain Wallis, who fell in with them in the year 1767. Lat. 16. 28. S. long. 155. 30. W.

SCI'MITAR, *s.* A short sword with a convex edge.

I'll heat his blood with Greekish wine to-night,
Which with my *scimitar* I'll cool to-morrow. *Shakspeare.*

SCIMPODIUM [Σκιμποδιον, Gr.], among the Ancients, a small couch or bed, on which one person only could rest at a time. It was on the scimpodium that the Romans used to lay themselves when weary or indisposed.

The scimpodium was sometimes used instead of the lectica, to carry both men and women, not only through the city, but likewise in journeys into the country.

SCINCOIDES, in Zoology. See LACERTA.

SCINCUS, the SCINK, the name of a species of lizard, called also by some the land crocodile, *crocodilus terrestris*, and formerly well-known in the druggists' shops as an ingredient in several compositions. See LACERTA.

SCINDE. See SINDE.

SCINK, *s.* A cast calf. *Ainsworth.*—In Scotland and in London they call it *slinc.*

SCINTI'LLANT, *adj.* [*scintillans*, Lat.] Sparkling; emitting sparks.

Who can view the pointed rays,
That from black eyes *scintillant* blaze? *Green's Spleen.*

To SCI'NTILLATE, *v. n.* [*scintillo*, Lat.] To sparkle; to emit sparks. *Cockeram.*

SCINTILLA'TION, *s.* [*scintillatio*, Lat.] The act of sparkling; sparks emitted—The *scintillations* are not the accension of the air upon the collision of two hard bodies, but rather the inflammable effluences discharged from the bodies collided. *Brown.*

SCIO, an island of the Grecian archipelago, the ancient *Chios*, 30 miles in length, from 10 to 18 in breadth, and 90 in circumference. It is composed of very high, and in many places rugged and rocky mountains; but these, by the industry of the inhabitants, are rendered very productive. The plain, extending for some leagues round the town of Scio, is celebrated for its extraordinary beauty and fertility. It consists almost wholly of country houses and gardens, filled with orange and lemon trees, so that it resembles the suburbs of a town, and appears from the sea like one continued city. The greatest part of the mountains consist of a red coloured marble, streaked with white. Around the city are also some quaries of a reddish freestone. The air of Scio is very good, though, from its great communication with other places, it is exposed to the ravages of the plague. It is watered only by a few streams, which can scarcely be considered as more than mountain torrents; but there are a great number of fine springs; and water is found almost everywhere by digging. The corn raised is not sufficient for the consumption of the island. The herbage is so scarce, that they give their cotton shrubs to the cattle, after the cotton is gathered, and preserve the dried leaves of the vines for them in winter. This want renders all animal food very dear, except goat's flesh; sheep being so scarce, that they are kept merely as domestic favourites. The evergreen oak, the pine, the wild mastic tree, and the caroul, are the only trees observed growing wild; but by industry they have introduced the mulberry and cotton, which are both cultivated to a great extent. One production almost peculiar to Scio is the mastic, with which it almost exclusively supplies Constantinople. This is a large shrub, sometimes fifteen feet high, bearing a small red berry, and growing on the sides of the hills. On the 9th of July, the natives puncture the rind with an instrument resembling an awl, making the ground below hard and smooth; in three days the gum begins to run, and in eight days it becomes hard enough to be taken up. The Turks are fond of chewing

ing it, both for amusement, and from believing that it whitens the teeth, and sweetens the breath. The turpentine of Scio is also considered of very superior quality. The chief trade consists in the export of manufactured damask, and other silks, to carry on which they import a large quantity of raw silk. Their wine was celebrated in antiquity; but though they make it still good, and in considerable quantity, it is not sufficient for their own consumption; so that they import wine from Ipsara and Mycone. They export a great quantity of lemons and oranges. The revenue while under the Turks was from the customs, from a poll tax of six to ten dollars a-head, and from a small rent paid for lands. The population of Scio, through the industry of its inhabitants was then considerable in proportion to its extent. Pocock reckoned it at 100,000, Olivier at 110,000, and Turner at 150,000. Of these, according to the latter, there were not more than 400 Turks. The natives enjoyed some privileges, partly in consequence of having become the property of the Sultana mother. The absence of the Turks gave a freedom to their manners, unknown in other oriental districts. In the towns and villages, seats are placed in the streets, where the inhabitants of both sexes sit and converse for a great part of the day; and in the evening, dances are carried on in the public squares. They do not, however, visit each other much at their own houses. The females deform themselves by a singular article of dress, which was remarked three centuries ago by Pietro della Valle, consisting of a thick quilted cushion, wrapped round the body. The number of towns and villages in the island amounts to about fifty. For the historical events in this country, see TURKEY.

SCIO, a city, capital of the island of the same name, situated in a shallow bay on its eastern coast. There is a good road for the largest shipping, and a mole, which forms a tolerable harbour, into which vessels can enter when they are unloaded. The castle is a large Venetian fort, which has been used as a place of confinement for state prisoners from Constantinople, but is now in a state of ruin. To the east of the present city is the Palaio castro, or the old town, chiefly inhabited by the lower rank of people. The town is built of stone and brick, and though the streets are narrow, contains many handsome houses, and is cleaner than is usual in this country. The population is stated by Mr. Turner at 35,000. Lat. 38. 23. 27. N. long. 25. 54. E.

SCIOHAIR, a village of Asiatic Turkey, in the government of Sivas; 60 miles south-south-west of Sivas.

SCI'OLISM, *s.* [*sciolus*, Lat.] Superficial knowledge; not sound knowledge.—The beautiful description here given of the state of Europe before the French Revolution, and all that follows, is calculated to raise, in every one who peruses it, a spirit equal to the difficulties of the time. Here are painted the mischiefs of the multiplication of political sciolists, and the progress of political *sciolism;* the decay of profound knowledge; the perversion of what we retain; and the decline of religion. *Brit. Crit.*

SCI'OLIST, *s.* [*sciolus*, Lat. *Dr. Johnson.*—We may suppose *sciolist* to have been introduced into our language in the earlier part of the 17th century. Cockeram notices it in his vocabulary. But, in 1622, the Latin form was used: "For Hippias, that vain-glorious *sciolus*, how great his knowledge was, there is no man ever testified but only he himself." Fotherby, Atheom. p. 190.] One who knows many things superficially.—These passages were enough to humble the presumption of our modern *sciolists*, if their pride were not as great as their ignorance. *Temple.*

SCI'OLOUS, *adj.* [*sciolus*, Lat.] Superficially or imperfectly knowing. *Not used.*—I could wish these *sciolous* zelotists had more judgment joined with their zeal. *Howell.*

SCIO'MACHY, *s.* [*schiamachie*, Fr., σκια and μαχη, Gr.] Battle with a shadow. This should be written *sciamachy.*—To avoid this *sciomachy*, or imaginary combat of words, let me know, Sir, what you mean by the name of tyrant? *Cowley.*

SCI'ON, *s.* [*scion*, Fr.] A small twig taken from one tree to be engrafted into another.

Sweet maid, we marry
A gentle *scion* to the wildest stock;
And make conceive a bark of baser kind,
By bud of nobler race. *Shakspeare.*

SCIOPODÆ, the name given by Pliny, and other of the old writers, to a nation of people which they place in Æthiopia, on the burning sands; and who, they say, when too hot, lie down upon their bellies, and shadow themselves from the sun by lifting up their feet, which are very large and broad, against it. These are some of the *gentes mirabilis figuræ* of Pliny, and are worthy to stand among the monocoli, and other such monsters.

SCIOPTIC BALL, or OX-EYE, as it is sometimes called, a sphere or globe of wood, with a circular hole or perforation, in which a lens is placed. It is so fitted, that, like the eye of an animal, it may be turned round every way, to be used in making experiments in a darkened room.

SCIORUM, a mountain of Arabia, which forms the southern boundary of Ommon, towards the sea.

SCIOTO, a county of the United States, situated on both sides of the river of the same name. It has the Ohio river south, Gallia east, Ross and Pike north, and Adams west. It is watered by the Scioto and Ohio rivers, Little Scioto river, Turkey, Pine, Stout's, Twin's, and Scioto creeks. The bottoms of the Ohio and Scioto, in this county, are wide, and of the first quality. The hills near the Ohio are covered with white oak and hickory, and generally of a third quality, but suitable to pasturage and wheat. Many unseated bottom tracks could be purchased for six, eight or ten dollars, at a bargain. Turkey and Pine creeks abound, with fine sites for mills, which are but partially improved. Population 3599. Portsmouth is the chief town.

SCIOTO, a township of the United States, in Ross county, Ohio. Population 840.

SCIOTO, a river of the United States, which rises in the state of Ohio, near the sources of the Sandusky. Its course is east-by-south; and it passes by Columbus, Cocleville, and Chillicothe, and runs into the Ohio, at Portsmouth, in Lat. 38. 34. N.; 352 miles below Pittsburg. It is navigable for large keel boats to Columbus, about 200 miles from its mouth, and for canoes almost to its head. There is a convenient portage between it and Sandusky, of four miles. Towards the source of the river, the country is marshy; in the middle level, though not absolutely flat, with much fertile soil; and towards the Ohio it becomes very hilly and broken.

SCIOTO, LITTLE, a river of the United States in the state of Ohio, which flows into the Ohio; 20 miles below the Scioto.

SCIOTO SALT SPRINGS, a post village of the United States, in Ross county, Ohio.

SCIPIO (Publius Cornelius), surnamed AFRICANUS, one of the most illustrious characters of the Roman republic, was the son of Publius Cornelius Scipio, an eminent commander, who, with his brother Cneius, lost his life in Spain during the second Punic war. This same Publius was consul, and commanded at the battle on the Ticinus, in the year 218, B. C., in which he was defeated by Hannibal, and would have been killed, had he not been rescued by his son, the subject of this article, who was then a youth of seventeen only. This young man fulfilled the promise of his early years by his conduct after the battle of Cannæ, when, being informed that certain persons of high consequence in the state had adopted the design of abandoning their country, he repaired with some followers to the place where they were assembled, and compelled them, by the threat of instant death, to take an oath of never abandoning the republic. He was appointed to the edileship, through the favour of the people, at the age of 21, which was some years before the usual age for that high office. In his 24th year he was appointed pro-consul, for the sake of endeavouring to retrieve the affairs that were in an unprosperous state in Spain. The high character which he had already obtained, he is said to have rendered still more the subject of admiration by practices,

practices, the result partly of enthusiasm and partly of artifice. He insinuated to the multitude, that he acted frequently from divine inspiration, or by the admonitions communicated to him by dreams; and he never undertook any public business without repairing to the temple in the Capitol, as if he were consulting the gods. Soon after his appointment, he embarked a considerable reinforcement of troops, and having, on his arrival, surprised and captured the capital of the Carthaginian dominions in Spain, he became master of a great number of prisoners, and immense treasures. It was upon this occasion he gave an example of continence, for which he has been celebrated by every historian who has written on the subject. A female captive, of singular beauty, was brought to him as part of his spoil; he was not insensible to her charms; but finding that she was betrothed to a Celtiberian prince, instead of using the supposed rights of a conqueror, he sent for her parents and lover, and surrendered her pure into their hands, at the same time bestowing the ransom which they pressed upon him as an addition to her marriage portion. This noble act, which deserved all the applause that has been bestowed upon it, filled the Spaniards with admiration, and not only the bridegroom joined Scipio's troops at the head of a body of cavalry, but the whole province of Celtiberia came over to the Roman party. In the next campaign Scipio marched against Asdrubal, the brother of Hannibal, with whom was Massinissa, the Numidian prince. He entirely routed them, and took possession of their camp, with a number of captives. Among these was a youth of a very prepossessing aspect, who was the nephew of Massinissa. Scipio treated him with great kindness, and thus laid the foundation of Massinissa's attachment to the Roman cause. He vigorously pursued his advantages over the Carthaginians, and after almost entirely destroying Asdrubal's army, obliged him to fly to Africa, leaving Spain entirely in the power of the Romans. In the end, the success of Scipio was complete; and the Roman senate being informed of the event, recalled him to Italy, sending two pro-consuls to take the command in Spain. He arrived at Rome near the time of the consular election, and though he was yet under the age prescribed for attaining that dignity, the splendour of his exploits caused him to be unanimously chosen by the people to the office of consul. This was in the year 205, B. C. It was his wish to be sent to command in Africa, but, through the influence of Fabius, he was appointed to a command in Sicily, with a conditional power of passing over to Africa with thirty ships. Being, in his own mind, determined to make that country the theatre of war, he assiduously employed himself in preparations for the purpose. The year of his consulship being ended, he was continued in the command as pro-consul, with the permission of carrying with him to Africa, such of the Roman troops in Sicily as he should think proper: he at length embarked at Lilybœum, amidst a vast concourse of spectators, and with all the circumstances of solemnity that might impress his soldiers with a sense of the magnitude of the undertaking, and the hope of victory. Almost immediately after his landing, he was joined by Massinissa, and having obtained some successes, he proceeded to lay siege to Utica. This, however, he was obliged to abandon, and he chose a place for his winter quarters, where he could readily receive supplies from Italy. In the mean time, his proconsular command having expired, it was continued to him by the voice of the people as long as the war should last. Syphax, having married the daughter of Asdrubal, was now fixed in the Carthaginian interest, and lay with his army encamped near that general. Scipio opened the campaign with surprising by night and burning the Numidian and Carthaginian camps, and with a great slaughter of their forces. After this he defeated Asdrubal and Syphax, and captured Tunis, and several of their other towns. The Carthaginians now sent deputies to Rome to treat for a peace, and Scipio agreed to a suspension of hostilities till their return. They had, however, in the mean time, recalled Hannibal from Italy, as the only antagonist fitted to oppose their successful invader. On his arrival, active hostilities recommenced; and the two great commanders met, at the head of their collected forces, near Zama, where a decisive battle was fought. This action, which happened in the year B. C., 202, ended in a complete victory over the Carthaginians. Peace was now restored, but the conditions to Carthage were extremely severe: her territories were restricted to Africa; her naval power was annihilated; and a vast sum was exacted from her by way of indemnification. With the ratification of this treaty terminated the second Punic war. Scipio returned to Rome crowned with glory, and was met at his entrance by the whole body of citizens. A triumph was decreed him by the united votes of the senate and people, together with the surname of Africanus, by which he has been distinguished from all the other branches of his illustrious family. In the year 199 B. C., he was nominated one of the censors, and in 194 he was elected consul a second time; but nothing occurred during the year of his office that gave him an opportunity of distinguishing himself. In 190 B. C., his brother Lucius was chosen consul, and Scipio proposed to accompany him as lieutenant, should he be sent to command in Asia against Antiochus the Great, in whose service his old antagonist Hannibal was engaged. The offer was accepted, and the two brothers, with their troops, marched for the Hellespont. They crossed the strait without opposition, Africanus staying some days after his brother, on account of his being occupied as a priest of the Salii in certain religious ceremonies, of which he was always very observant. The son of Africanus had been taken prisoner at sea, and brought to Antiochus, who treated him in the most honourable way, and offered to restore him without ransom, provided he might thereby secure the good offices of the father. Scipio rejected the offer, and advised the monarch to accept of peace upon any terms. Shortly after this, Scipio, while lying upon a sick bed at Elæa, was gratified with the sight of his son, restored to him by Antiochus. The decisive battle of Magnesia, soon after this, obliged Antiochus to submit to the conditions which the Roman senate imposed on him. Upon the return of Scipio to Rome, he appears to have retired to the repose of private life, which, however, he was not permitted to enjoy very long unmolested. He was accused of various misdemeanors when in office, and a day appointed for a hearing. After some preliminary inquiries, a second day was appointed; on this, when silence was proclaimed, he rose and said, "On this day, tribunes and Romans, I gained a decisive victory over Hannibal and the Carthaginians. Since, therefore, such a day should be exempt from strife and contention, I mean to go and pay my devotions to Jove and the other gods who preside over the Capitol, and return them thanks that, as well on this day as on many others, they have granted me the desire and ability of doing great service to the republic. You, my fellow-citizens, to whom it is convenient, go along with me, and pray that you may always possess leaders like myself: for as from the age of seventeen, to advanced life, you have outgone my years by your honours, so I have anticipated your honours by my actions." He then proceeded to the Capitol, followed by the whole assembly, not excepting the scribes and apparitors, so that the tribunes were left with no other attendants than their slaves, and the public crier. A more splendid mode of defeating an impeachment was never practised, and Livy prefers the glory conferred upon Scipio by his conduct on this day, to his triumph over Syphax and the Carthaginians. It was, however, but a temporary success; for his enemies returning to the charge, cited him a third time, but he refused to submit to what he felt an indignity, and retired to his country seat, his brother appearing in his stead, and pleading the excuse of ill health, which not being considered as satisfactory, the business was adjourned to another day. Tiberius Gracchus, father of the celebrated Gracchi, was one of the tribunes at this time, and as he was known to be an enemy to the Scipios, his refusal to put his name to this decree was thought a prelude to something still more severe; but it arose from the most honourable feelings: he declared that he would not suffer Scipio to be accused till he should return

return to Rome, and would then even protect him from the necessity of pleading his cause; adding some strong and severe reflections on the public prosecution of a man so venerable, from the very high services which he had performed for his country. This interposition was successful, and the generosity of Gracchus was rewarded by the hand of Cornelia, the illustrious daughter of Africanus: henceforth no mention is made of this great man; he probably died very soon after, at or about the age of 48. He desired to be buried at Linturnum, a town on the coast of Campania, to which he had withdrawn; and he manifested his displeasure against his countrymen, by the epitaph which he ordered to be engraved on his tomb: "Ungrateful countrymen, you shall not possess my bones." Livy speaks of him as a person more illustrious in his concerns in war, than for his conduct in peace; and he remarks, that little was added to his renown after the second Punic war, the glorious termination of which was justly ascribed to him. That the retirement of Africanus from public life was owing to inclination rather than necessity, may be inferred from a saying of his recorded by Cicero, that "he was never more employed than when at leisure, nor less solitary than when alone." To this great general Hannibal, when in exile, paid the following compliment. Being asked his opinion as to the greatest commanders of his time, and the order in which they should stand: "The first," said the Carthaginian, "is Alexander, the second Pyrrhus, and the third myself." And, said Scipio, "If you had conquered me, in what rank would you have placed yourself?" "In the first," said Hannibal.

SCIPIO (Publius Æmilianus), called also the Younger Africanus, was the younger son of Paulus Æmilius, but was adopted into the Cornelian family by Publius, son of the first Africanus. He served at the age of 17, in Macedonia, under his natural father; and during the war in Spain, in the year B. C. 151, when the report of the hardships suffered there deterred the Roman youth from enrolling their names in the new levies, he mounted the rostra, and in a spirited speech declared his own readiness to go in any quality that the consuls should appoint. This conduct produced such an effect, that the levies were very quickly completed, and he accompanied them as a legionary tribune. For his great services at this period, he obtained a mural crown, being the first in scaling the wall of a besieged town, and he slew, in single combat, a Spaniard of gigantic stature. The consul, Lucullus, then sent him to Numidia, where he was when the third Punic war broke out, in the year B. C. 148; at the commencement of which, the Carthaginian general, Asdrubal, obtained some advantages over the Romans; and the whole consular army would probably have been lost, had not Æmilianus, with a small body of horse, kept the force of the enemy in check, while the legions were crossing the river. He afterwards, by his valour and good conduct, saved a party which was surrounded by the enemy; and the whole of his conduct in this campaign was so extremely brilliant, that he gained universal reputation. On his return to Rome he was chosen consul, being then 37 years of age; and the conduct of the African war, which ended in the destruction of Carthage, was committed to him by a special decree. (See CARTHAGE.) Scipio, on his return to Rome, was honoured with a magnificent triumph, and the name of the *Second Africanus* was conferred upon him. He deposited an urn full of the ashes of Carthage in the temple of the Capitoline Jupiter, as the most acceptable offering he could make to the Roman god. The integrity and disinterestedness of this great man, on the capture of the rival city, are universally acknowledged, and highly applauded. On this occasion he convoked the Sicilians, who had been exposed to the pillage of the Carthaginians, and promised to restore to each city every relic of art, which should be recognised as having belonged to it. The Romans having kindled a war with the powerful city of Numantia, in Spain, and broken a treaty which the consul Mancinus had made with it, in order to save his army, elected Scipio consul a second time, B. C. 134, and committed to his management the war against the Numantines. In the course of the contest, he closely invested Numantia which was situated upon a hill, very difficult of access, and rejecting the submissive proposals of the citizens for peace, resolved to wait till famine should oblige them to surrender at discretion. His vigilance was exercised in obviating all attempts suggested by valour, reduced to despair; and when at length they were unable to hold out any longer, they still resolved never to surrender themselves to the disposal of an inexorable foe, and set fire to their town, at the same time destroying themselves and their families; thus leaving nothing to grace the victor but an empty triumph, and the surname of *Numantinus*.

During the contests carried on between the Gracchi and patricians, Scipio inclined to favour the latter party, and made himself unpopular by seeming to approve the assassination of Tiberius Gracchus, though he was a very near relation. After this he retired to his country retreat, near Caieta, in company with his intimate friend, the second Lælius, his connection with whom is still more celebrated than that of the first Lælius with the first Africanus. After a time, he returned to Rome, where he opposed some unconstitutional measures of the tribunes, and for which he was accused of aspiring to the dictatorship. He was, however, supported by the senators and the great body of the people, and some important event was on the eve of taking place, when Scipio was found dead in his bed, in the year 129, B. C. He was supposed to have been assassinated, but the people would suffer no inquiries to be made as to the cause of his death. He was a great general, a lover and patron of letters, and a man of singular public integrity and private generosity. When he went to Africa, he was accompanied by the historian Polybius, and the philosopher Panætius; and Terence is said to have been the companion of his retirement, and even to have submitted his comedies to the correction of him and Lælius. He shewed a total disregard for wealth, and an excellence of disposition, by relinquishing his inheritance in favour of his mother, his brother, and sisters; and the whole property which the conqueror of Carthage left behind him was only 32 pounds weight of silver, and $2\frac{1}{2}$ of gold.

SCIPIO, a name given by the Romans to a baton, or sceptre of ivory, borne by the consuls as a token of their dignity. Under the republic, it was no more than a rod without any additional ornaments. Under the emperors, and principally those of Constantinople, it was surmounted with an eagle, and terminated by a bust, which represented the reigning emperor.

SCIPIO, a post township of the United States, in Cayuga county, New York, on the east side of Cayuga lake; 180 miles west of Albany. Population 7100. It is 10 miles square, and well cultivated.

SCIQUITA, a river of South America, which rises in the vast plains which border the great river Amazons. It enters the Amazons by the north part, in Lat. 3. 7. S.

SCIRA [Σκιρα, Gr.], a festival among the Athenians, otherwise called Scirrophoria.

SCIREDUN, a village of England, in Devonshire, on the river Dart, between Dartmore and Ashburton.

SCI'RE'FA'CIAS, *s.* [Lat.] A writ judicial, in law, most commonly to call a man to shew cause unto the court, whence it is sent, why execution of judgment passed should not be made. This writ is not granted before a year and a day is passed, after the judgment given. *Cowel.*

SCIRONA, a word used by some of the ancients to express the autumnal dews.

SCIRPO-CYPERUS, in Botany, Mich. Gen. 47. t. 31, was so called by that author, because, as he conceived, it had the heads, or flowers, of a Scirpus, and the stem of a Cyperus. Micheli distinguishes thirteen species of this supposed genus, all reduced by Linnæus to SCIRPUS. See that article.

SCIRPOIDES, Mont. Prodr. 17, with a figure, so called on account of a resemblance in the inflorescence to Scirpus, is a genus founded by Monti, on some of the androgynous Carices of Linnæus, as *vulpina*, *muricata*, &c. See CAREX.

SCIRPUS

SCIRPUS [of Pliny], in Botany, a genus of the class triandria, order monogynia, natural order of calamariæ, cyperoideæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: spike imbricate all round: scales ovate, from flat bent in, distinguishing the flowers. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments three, finally becoming longer. Anthers oblong. Pistil: germ very small. Style filiform, long. Stigmas three, capillary. Pericarp none. Seed one, three-sided, acuminate, surrounded with villose hairs shorter than the calyx, or without any.—Those villose hairs in some species are fastened to the tip, in others to the base of the seed.—*Essential Character.* Glumes chaffy, imbricate every way. Corolla none. Seed one, beardless.

I.—With a single spike.

1. Scirpus mutatus.—Culm three-sided, naked, spike cylindrical terminating.—It is frequent in all the shallow standing waters of Jamaica, especially those to the east and west of Kingston.

2. Scirpus spiralis, or spiral club-rush.—Culms aggregate almost naked, three-sided, spike cylindrical terminating, florets wedge-form truncate, disposed spirally.—Native of the East Indies.

3. Scirpus articulatus, or half-jointed club-rush.—Culm round, almost naked, half jointed, head glomerate lateral. Root in bundles, fibrous, eatable.—Native of Malabar, Egypt and Japan.

4. Scirpus plantagineus.—Culms round, joined, naked, three or four feet high, spike terminating, cylindrical, naked. Leaves short and compressed towards the end.—Native of the East Indies.

5. Scirpus nutans.—Root fibrous. Culms several, a span high, filiform, compressed, in a manner four-cornered by a deeper streak on the narrower sides, having short brown scales at the base, and one or two leafless sheaths an inch in length. Spike naked, with ovate, entire, scarious brownish scales.—Native of Malacca.

6. Scirpus palustris, or marsh creeping club-rush.—Culm round, sheathed at the base, spike suboval terminating, glumes acute, root creeping.—It varies in height from six inches to two feet or more: hence some authors make two varieties of it.—Native of Europe, Asia and Africa. Very common in England, in ditches, ponds, marshes and rivulets: flowering in June and July. Swine devour the roots greedily when fresh, but will not touch them when dry.

7. Scirpus multicaulis, or many-stalked club-rush.—Culm round, sheathed at the base, spike ovate terminating, glumes obtuse equal, root fibrous.—Native of Lapland.

8. Scirpus geniculatus, or knee-joined club-rush.—Culm round, naked, spike oblong terminating.—Found in Jamaica.

9. Scirpus cæspitosus, or scaly-stalked club-rush.—Culm round, striated, sheathed at the base with numerous scales, spike terminating, outer glumes very large. Root fibrous, tufted. Culms numerous, upright, varying much in height. —Native of Europe in bogs: flowering in July.

10. Juncus pauciflorus, or chocolate-headed club-rush.—Culm round, striated, sheathed at the base, spike terminating, few-flowered, longer than the outer glumes. Root tufted, blackish.—Native of Sweden, Germany, Switzerland, France and Britain.

11. Scirpus campestris.—Culm striated, naked, spike terminating, scarcely exceeding the two-valved calyx, calyx-glumes oblong, membranaceous at the tip, blunt, almost equal. —Native of the Duchies of Oldenburgh and Bremen.

12. Scirpus capitatus.—Culm round, naked, bristle-form, spike subglobular, terminating.—Native of Virginia and the Caribee islands.

13. Scirpus ovatus.—Culm sub-compressed, naked, filiform, spike ovate, terminating, naked, flowers two-stamened. This differs from acicularis in habit, in having much larger ovate heads of a bay colour, and a longer culm which is yellow, not green.—Native of Germany and Silesia.

14. Scirpus atropurpureus.—Culms setaceous, round, in bundles, spikes terminating, ovate solitary, flowers one-stamened. This resembles Scirpus capitatus, but it is more slender.—Native of the East Indies, in boggy grounds.

15. Scirpus polytrichoides.—Culms compressed setaceous, spikes terminating, solitary, somewhat nodding, one-stamened.—Very common in low wet pastures in Ceylon. Also in Amboyna.

16. Scirpus acicularis, or least club-rush.—Culm quadrangular, with a beardless sheath at the base, spike ovate, acute, terminating, outer glumes larger. Root fibrous, tufted. Stems numerous, from two to four inches high, very slender. Common in England.

17. Scirpus fluitans, or floating club-rush.—Stem leafy, flaccid floating, peduncles alternate naked, spikes solitary terminating. Root small, fibrous.—Native of Germany, France, Flanders and England, in ditches and little pools upon grassy commons and heaths, where the water is apt to be dried up in summer; in which case it sometimes grows more luxuriantly.

II.—A round culm with several spikes.

18. Scirpus lacustris or tall club-rush or bull-rush.—Panicle cymed, decompounded, terminating, spikelets ovate. Roots creeping under water horizontally, thick and strong. Stems straight, four or five feet or much more in height, naked, round, smooth, dark green, very spongy and full of watery juice within, with several alternate sheathing scales at the base.—Native of Europe, Siberia, Japan and Jamaica; growing abundantly in clear ditches and streams, fens, pools and lakes: flowering in July and August. Bottoms of chairs are very commonly made of the bull-rush: if cut at one year old, it makes the fine bottoms; coarse bottoms are made of it at two years old; such as are still older, mixed with the leaves of Flag, (Iris Pseudacorus) make the coarsest bottoms. Mats are likewise made either of this alone, or mixed with Flag-leaves. Cottages are sometimes thatched, and pack-saddles stuffed with it. It is of a soft pliant texture, totally destitute of the roughness or cutting edges of many grass-like plants. In hard seasons cattle will eat it.

19. Scripus glomeratus.—Culm naked umbel glomerate, involucre two-leaved short, flowers two-stamened.—Roots long, filiform.—Native of Ceylon.

20. Scirpus arvenus.—Culms compressed, striated, two feet high, umbels simple, involucre one-leafed short.—Native of Ceylon.

21. Scirpus truncatus.—Culm round, head glomerate-globular, involucre two-leaved, leaves linear.—This and the four following all natives of the Cape of Good Hope.

22. Scirpus laciniatus.—Culm round, head triangular, glumes ovate ciliate, involucre two-leaved.

23. Scirpus membranaceus.—Culm round, head angular, glumes ovate membranaceous, involucre three-leaved.

24. Scirpus pilosus.—Culm compressed, head ovate, glumes lanceolate, ciliate, involucre four-leaved.

25. Scirpus Hystrix.—Culm capillary, head commonly two-spiked, glumes acuminate squarrose, involucre one-leaved.

26. Scirpus holoschoenus, or round cluster-headed club-rush.—Culm round, naked, heads glomerate, peduncled or sessile, involucre two-leaved, unequal, leaves channelled. Root tufted.—Native of England, Germany, the southern parts of Europe and Barbary. There are three varieties.

27. Scirpus nodosus.—Culm compressed, knotted, head glomerate, mucronate.—This and the next are natives of the Cape of Good Hope.

28. Scirpus radiatus.—Culm round, head hemispherical, involucre many-leaved.

29. Scirpus setaceus, or least club-rush.—Culm naked, setaceous, spikes lateral, commonly two, sessile, without bractes. Root fibrous, tufted.—Native of most parts of Europe, in wet sandy ground, and on sandy coasts: flowering in July and August.

30. Scirpus supinus.—Culm round, naked, 18 inches high, spikes sessile, glomerate in the middle of the culm.—Native of France near Paris, the March of Brandenburgh, and Cochin-china.

31. Scirpus

31. Scirpus natans.—Culm compressed, leafy, flexuose-erect, spikes two, lateral.—This and the next are natives of the Cape of Good Hope.

32. Scirpus vaginatus.—Culm filiform, heads lateral, alternate, shorter than the involucre.

33. Scirpus tristachyos.—Culm capillary, head three-spiked, glumes entire, involucre two-leaved. Head lateral, immediately below the top of the culm, composed of from three to seven spikes. It varies in size.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

34. Scirpus uncinatus.—Hairy, culm round, leafy, spikes conglomerated into a head terminating and axillary.—Native of the East Indies.

35. Scirpus aristatus.—Culm striated, round, leafy, panicle terminating, two-leaved, spikelets ovate, squarrose-echinate.—Native of the East Indies.

36. Scirpus autumnalis.—Culm ancipital, naked, umbel decompounded, spikelets ovate. This has the appearance of Juncus pilosus.—Native of Virginia and Jamaica.

37. Scirpus diphyllus.—Culms semi-cylindrical, striated, two-leaved, two or three feet in height, umbel compound, with a two-leaved involucre longer than it. Stigma bifid.—Native of Tranquebar.

38. Scirpus fastigiatus.—Culm filiform, head convex, compressed, outer glumes mucronate, involucre none.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

39. Scirpus globulosus.—Culm compressed, naked, panicle terminating, spikelet single, sessile, several peduncled, globular. Culms a span high, the thickness of a coarse thread.—Native of the East Indies.

40. Scirpus globiferus.—Culm naked, round, umbel terminating, compound, heads globular, composed of several spikelets closely heaped.—Native of Teneriffe.

41. Scirpus capillaris.—Culm naked, capillary, spikes peduncled in threes, the middle one sessile.—Native of Ceylon.

III.—Culm three-sided, panicle naked.

42. Scirpus trispicatus.—Culm angular, naked, spikes terminating in threes, sessile, naked.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

43. Scirpus lateralis.—Culms three-sided, naked, filiform, a span in height, spikes subtern, lateral, involucre one-leafed, short.—Found in Ceylon.

44. Scirpus triqueter, triangular club-rush or bull-rush.—Culm three-sided, straight, naked, acuminate, three feet high, spikes lateral, sessile or peduncled.—Native of Germany, England, and some other parts of Europe; also of North America.

45. Scirpus mucronatus.—Culm triangular, naked, acuminate, spikes conglomerate, sessile, lateral. This is easily distinguished from the preceding by its greater stature, its thicker culm with the sides hollowed, its thicker ovate spikelets, twenty or more collected into a head, finally by the point or upper part of the culm not being upright but bent horizontally.—Native of Switzerland, the south of France, Carniola and Italy.

46. Scirpus dichotomus.—Culm three-sided, naked, umbel decompounded, spikes in the forks sessile.—Native of Ceylon. It is an annual plant, which few of the scirpi are.

47. Scirpus echinatus.—Culm three-sided, naked, a span high, umbel simple, spikes ovate.—Native of both Indies.

48. Scirpus retrofractus.—Culm three-sided, umbel simple, floscules of the spikes retrofracted.—Native of Virginia.

49. Scirpus ferrugineus.—Culm three-sided, almost naked, involucres length of the panicle and ciliate. This species varies remarkably, from a span to two feet in height. It is easily distinguished by its unequal ciliate involucre.—Native of Jamaica and other islands of the West Indies, both in dry and wet situations.

50. Scirpus spadiceus.—Culm three-sided, naked, two feet in height, umbel almost naked, spikes oblong, sessile and terminating.—Native of South America, Virginia, and Jamaica.

IV.—Culm three-sided, panicle leafy.

51. Scirpus anomalus.—Culm three-sided, leafy, panicle terminating, short, spikelets ovate, flowers corolled, the lower one-stamened, the upper two-stamened.—Native of the East Indies.

52. Scirpus miliaceus.—Culm three-sided, naked, umbel superdecompound, intermediate spikes sessile, involucres setaceous.—Native of the East Indies.

53. Scirpus maritimus, or salt-marsh club-rush.—Culm three-sided, panicle conglobate, leafy, terminating, glumes mucronate, lacerate-trifid.—Native of Europe, Barbary, and Siberia, on sea-coasts, salt marshes, &c.: common in England.

54. Scirpus pubescens.—Culm three-sided, leafy, pubescent at top, spikelets few, directed one way, terminating, ovate, glumes mucronate.—On banks of lakes near La Calle in Barbary: flowering in summer.

55. Scirpus grossus.—Culm three sided, naked, umbel superdecompound, spikes pedicelled, involucre three-leaved, lanceolate-subulate, very long.—Native of the East Indies.

56. Scirpus luzulæ.—Culm three-sided, naked, umbel leafy, proliferous, spikelets roundish.—Native of the East Indies.

57. Scirpus sylvaticus, or wood club-rush.—Culm three-sided, leafy, cyme leafy, terminating, peduncles naked, superdecompound, spikes clustered.—Native of Europe and Siberia, in wet woods and shady places: abundant in many parts of England.

58. Scirpus corymbosus.—Culm three-sided, leafy, corymbs lateral, simple, the terminating one proliferous, spikes subulate.—Native of the East Indies.

59. Scirpus æstivalis.—Culm depressed, three-sided, naked, two inches high, umbels compound, involucred, flowers one-stamened.—Found abundantly in Ceylon.

60. Scirpus squarrosus.—Culm three-sided, naked, setaceous, spikes in threes, sessile, ovate, squarrose.—Native of the East Indies.

61. Scirpus dipsaceus.—Culms setaceous, three-sided, umbel simple, heads oblong, squarrose, floscules subulate, recurved, two-stamened, germ echinate.—Native of the East Indies.

62. Scirpus junciformis.—Culm naked, filiform, subtrigonal, spikelets of the panicle sessile and peduncled, involucre two-leaved.—Native of China.

63. Scirpus michelianus.—Culm three-sided, head globular, involucre many-leaved, long. Flowers one to four.—Native of Germany, France about Montpellier, Italy, Media, and Morocco by the river Sebon. It is an annual.

64. Scirpus ciliaris.—Culm three-sided, leafy, umbels scattered, scales of the calyx with ciliate awns.—Native of the East Indies. Annual.

V.—Culm three-sided, head terminating.

65. Scirpus Hottentottus.—Culm three-sided, leafy, head globular, calycine scales lanceolate, rough-haired.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

66. Scirpus antarcticus.—Culm three-sided, naked, head globular, involucre one-leafed.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope and Guinea.

67. Scirpus argenteus.—Culms setaceous, three-sided, involucre four-leaved, very long, spikes cylindrical, very many, glomerate into a head.—This and the next natives of the East Indies.

68. Scirpus monandrus.—Culm setaceous, three-sided, involucre three-leaved, long, head sessile, glomerate, floscules one-stamened.

69. Scirpus cephalotes.—Culm three-sided, naked, head ovate, squarrose, involucre three-leaved, long.—Native of China.

SCIRRHO'SITY, *s.* An induration of the glands.—The difficulty of breathing, occasioned by *scirrhosities* of the glands, is not to be cured. *Arbuthnot.*

SCI'RRHOUS, *adj.* Having a gland indurated; consisting of a gland indurated.—How they are to be treated when

SCIRPUS.

1. S. setaceus. 2. S. sylvaticus. 3. S. acicularis. 4. S. cespitosus.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1826.

when they are strumous, *scirrhous*, or cancerous, you may see. *Wiseman.*

SCI'RRHUS, SCIRROMA or SCIRRHOSIS, *s.* [*schirre*, Fr., σκιῤῥος, Gr.] An indurated gland.—Any of these three may degenerate into a *scirrhus*, and that *scirrhus* into a cancer. *Wiseman.*—See SURGERY.

SCIRRONES, a name given to a sort of small lice breeding under the skin.

SCIRROPHORIA, Σκιῤῥοφορια, in Antiquity, an anniversary solemnity at Athens, upon the twelfth day of the month Scirrophorion, in honour of Minerva, or, as some say, of Ceres and Proserpine. The name is derived from Sciras, a borough between Athens and Eleusis, in which was a temple dedicated to Minerva, surnamed Sciras.

SCIRROPHORION, Σκιῤῥοφοριων, in Ancient Chronology, the twelfth and last month of the Athenian year. It contained twenty-nine days, and answered to the latter part of our May and beginning of June.

It had its name from the feast of Scirrophoria, kept in it.

SCISCITA'TION, *s.* [*sciscitatus*, Lat.] Enquiry: an unusual word.—Without all *sciscitations* to go blindfold whither he will lead us. *Bp. Hall.*

SCI'SSIBLE, *adj.* [from *scissus*, Lat.] Capable of being divided smoothly by a sharp edge.—The differences of impressible and not impressible, *scissible* and not *scissible*, and many other passions of matter, are plebeian notions. *Bacon.*

SCI'SSILE, *adj.* [*scissile*, Fr., *scissilis*, Lat.] Capable of being cut or divided smoothly by a sharp edge.—Animal fat is a sort of amphibious substance, *scissile* like a solid, and resolveable by heat. *Arbuthnot.*

SCI'SSION, *s.* [*scission*, Fr., *scissio*, Lat.] The act of cutting.—Nerves may be wounded by *scission* or puncture: the former way they are usually cut through, and wholly cease from action. *Wiseman.*

SCI'SSOR, *s.* [This word is variously written, as it is supposed to be derived by different writers; of whom some write *cisors*, from *cædo*, or *incido*; others *scissors*, from *scindo*; and some *cisars*, *cizars*, or *scissars*, from *ciseaux*, Fr.] A small pair of sheers, or blades movable on a pivot, and intercepting the thing to be cut.

His beard they have sing'd off with brands of fire;
And ever, as it blaz'd, they threw on him
Great pails of puddled mire to quench the hair:
My master preaches patience to him, and the while
His man with *scissars* nicks him for a fool. *Shakspeare.*

SCI'SSURE, *s.* [*scissura*, Lat.] A crack; a rent; a fissure.—Thus let out at the *scissure*, as at the window. *Hammond.*

SCITAMINEÆ, in Botany, a very natural and important order of plants, the eighth among the *Fragmenta* of Linnæus, and equivalent to the *Cannæ* of Jussieu. Its name alludes to the aromatic qualities of most of the species, and particularly to the use made of some of them in cookery or in medicine; *scitamentum* being expressive of any thing rendered grateful to the palate, by seasoning or other preparation. Accordingly, the ginger, turmeric, zedoary, and various sorts of cardamoms, belong to this order. It stands between the Orchideæ and Spathaceæ, but is perhaps most related to the former, though essentially distinct from both, in many decisive respects.

The genera referred to this order by Linnæus are *Musa*, *Heliconia*, *Thalia*, *Maranta*, *Globba*, *Costus*, *Alpinia*, *Amomum*, *Curcuma*, *Kæmpferia*, *Canna*, *Renealmia* and *Myrosma*.

The order of *Scitamineæ*, including the *Cannæ*, coming at the very threshold of the Linnæan artificial system, and being in themselves very attractive, curious, and rare, have particularly engaged the attention of several distinguished botanists, but with very unequal success. No plants have been less understood, by Linnæus and his immediate followers, with regard to their genera, and the principles upon which these ought to be founded. None of these writers indeed have been furnished with sufficient materials for the purpose. Koenig, who had access to many more species of this family in a living state, than any other Linnæan botanist, has contented himself with drawing up full descriptions of each, without adverting to principles of arrangement. His descriptions, published by Retzius in his third fasciculus of *Observationes Botanicæ*, are a fund of useful matter; and the contemplation of them seems to have suggested to Retzius an idea of the only true principle by which the genera of these plants can, with any certainty, be distinguished, which is derived from the *shape of the stamen*. The writer last-mentioned has, nevertheless, not turned this principle to any account. The ingenious professor Swartz, who has so well illustrated the *Orchideæ*, and whose attention was called to the *Scitamineæ* by their near affinity to that tribe, as well as by the great obscurity in which he found them involved, has not thrown any light on their generic distribution. On the contrary, he asserts that their genera are so nearly akin as hardly to be distinguishable by botanical characters. The French botanists have done absolutely nothing to clear up this family, but have adopted the ideas, and all the mistakes, of Linnæus.

Mr. Brown in his Prodr. Nov. Holl., thus defines the true *Scitamineæ*:—Perianth superior, double, both tubular; the outer (probably accessory) shortest, its margin somewhat three-lobed: inner with a double limb; the outermost in three deep, nearly equal, segments; the anterior segment (which, by the reversed position of the flower, often becomes posterior) sometimes differently shaped from the rest; the innermost dissimilar, deeply three-cleft; its larger segment, or lip, inserted between the lateral divisions of the outer limb, and often two or three-lobed; its lateral segments smaller, sometimes diminutive, like little teeth, or scarcely discernable.

Stamen one, inserted into the throat, within the anterior segment of the outer limb, and therefore opposite to the lip. Filament mostly dilated, and resembling a petal, often extended beyond the anther, in a simple or divided form. Anther closely attached lengthwise, except at its base, to the filament, of two distinct parallel lobes, each lobe of two cells, bursting longitudinally, the inflexed edges of their suture being originally connected with their internal partition, which last finally disappears; the base of each lobe is often not attached to the filament, and occasionally ends in a spur. Pollen globose, smooth.

Corpuscles two, which are in fact barren stamens, small, nearly cylindrical, close to the base of the style, sometimes combined, rarely wanting.

Germen of three, sometimes incompletely separated, cells, with the rudiments of many seeds in each, which are inserted, in a double row, into the inner angle of the cell. Style thread-shaped, received into a channel of the filament. Stigma dilated, hollow.

Capsule with three cells, three valves, occasionally becoming pulpy, and many seeds. Partitions almost always central, inserted into the axis of the valve, frequently separated therefrom at length, and of a different substance.

Seeds roundish, generally becoming angular by mutual pressure, either tunicated or naked. Albumen farinaceous, of a radiated substance, deficient at the scar. Vitellus fleshy, somewhat funnel-shaped, contrary to the scar, mostly, perhaps always, perforated at the base, for the transmission of the radicle. Embryo sheathed by the vitellus, but not attached to it, monocotyledonous, nearly cylindrical. Radicle reaching almost as far as the scar, for the most part naked, and not enclosed either in the vitellus or albumen.

These are aromatic herbs, of rather a peculiar habit, growing chiefly between the tropics, and scarcely reaching so far as the thirty-fourth degree of latitude. The root is perennial, mostly tuberous, creeping. Stem simple, sometimes very short. Leaves simple, with a single midrib, sending off, at acute angles, very numerous, crowded, perfectly simple veins: the footstalk sheathing, split at one side, and either naked at the summit, or crowned with a membranous appendage, as in grasses, which is sometimes entire, forming a lesser sheath above the insertion of the leaf itself. Inflorescence

florescence either a dense spike, or a cluster, or somewhat of a panicle, terminating the stalk or stem, rarely lateral; sometimes, from the extreme shortness of the stalk, almost radical. Common bracteas either permanent or deciduous; partial ones spathaceous, hooded, most usually two-flowered, one flower earlier than the other, which last is sometimes abortive.

The discriminative characters of the order consist in the double perianth; solitary stamen; two-lobed anther; and seeds furnished with a vitellus.

Mr. Roscoe of Liverpool, has first suggested a method of reducing the genera of the *Scitamineæ* to regular order, by essential characters derived from the structure of the stamen, particularly its filament. This principle is found to be the only one which, while it is clear and precise in defining technical essential characters, leads to the establishment of natural genera; for the inflorescence, of which Adansón had first shown the importance in this respect, though not admitted by Mr. Roscoe into his characters, goes along with, and confirms, them all. The labours of Giseke seem not to have come under the inspection of this ingenious writer, nor would they, certainly, have yielded him any assistance. He reviews the attempts of other preceding botanists, and after shewing the insufficiency, or uncertainty, of other modes of generic definition, proposes his own, according to which he defines all the known genera of this natural order, ranging under each all the species of which he could discover any certain indications. His treatise on the subject may be found in the Transactions of the Linn. Soc. v. 8. 330.

Mr. Roscoe's ideas of a scitaminean flower are exactly consonant with Mr. Brown's, except that he considers the inner perianth of the latter as a corolla with a double limb, Some have called the largest segment of the inner limb, which usually makes the most conspicuous and beautiful part of these flowers, the lower lip of the nectary, and the filament its upper lip. But there is less reason than usual for adopting the term nectary here. It is quite unnecessary, and with regard to the filament, certainly erroneous; for that has no connexion, nor scarcely any thing in common, with the other; which last indeed, on account of its peculiar form, situation, and appearance, is still commodiously denominated the lip of the flower, without any implication of its being a nectary or not.

The Scitamineæ, as well as the Cannæ, are properly placed in the Monandria Monogynia of the Linnæan sexual system.

SCITUATE, a post township and sea-port of the United States, in Plymouth county, Massachusetts, on a bay of the same name. Lat. 42. 12. N. long. 70. 36. W.

SCITUATE, a post township of the United States, in Providence county, Rhode Island. Population 2563.

SCIURIS, in Botany, a genus of the class diandria, order monogynia.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, five-toothed, short, acute. Corolla one-petalled, tubular, curved in, two-lipped. Upper lip trifid, with the middle segment a little longer: lower, a little shorter, bifid. Stamina: filaments two, short, inserted into the upper lip, fenced by two scalelets at the base, antheriferous; three longer, inserted into the lower lip, hairy at the base barren. Anthers oblong, bifid at the base. Pistil: germ five-cornered, surrounded by a gland. Style length of the corolla, curved in. Stigma flattish, three-lobed. Pericarp: capsules five, united, outwardly rounded, depressed, one-celled, two-valved, opening inwardly. Seeds solitary oblong. —*Essential Character.* Corolla unequal, with the upper lip trifid, the lower bifid and shorter. Stamina five, but three barren. Capsule five, united, one-celled, one-seeded.

Sciuris aromatica.—This is a shrub, two feet in height, with opposite divaricating branches. Leaves opposite, petioled, ternate: leaflets oblong, acuminate, quite entire. Spikes axillary, nodding. The leaves have pellucid dots scattered over them. Each flower has a little bracte.—Native of Guiana, in woods.

SCIUROFIA, a village of Kerman, in Persia; 99 miles south-east of Kerman.

SCIURUS, the Squirrel, a genus of animals of the class mammalia, and order glires. The Generic Character is, that it has two fore-teeth, of which the upper are wedged, the lower are acute: there are five upper grinders on each side, and four lower ones; the clavicles are perfect; the tail is shed on each side; the whiskers are long. The animals composing this elegant genus are remarkable for the liveliness of their disposition, the celerity of their motions, and the general beauty and neatness of their appearance. They inhabit woods, live entirely on vegetable food, and take up their residence in trees, where they prepare their nests. Some species are furnished with an expansile lateral skin, reaching from the fore-legs to the hind; by the help of which they are enabled to spring to a greater distance than the rest of their genus, and to transport themselves occasionally from one tree to another; but this momentary support in the air, is all that they are capable of; and though called, from this circumstance, flying squirrels, they are unable to continue that action in the manner of bats. There are two divisions in this genus, containing about thirty species, of which we shall now give some account.

I.—Squirrels having climbers, but no flying membrane.

1. Sciurus vulgaris, or common squirrel.—The ears of this species are bearded at the tip; the tail has the same colour with that of the back: it is large, with lively black eyes; the head, the body, the legs, and the tail, are of a bright reddish-brown; the breast and belly are white; the hair on each side of its tail is flat.—It is a native of almost all parts of Europe, as well as of the northern and temperate parts of Asia; but it is observed to vary in the cast of its colours in different climates, and in the northern regions it becomes grey in winter. It varies in its size; but the general measure of the European squirrel is about eight inches from the nose to the root of the tail, and the tail is nearly as long. In the spring these animals seem peculiarly active, pursuing one another in the trees, and exerting various efforts with great agility. They appear to dread the heat of the sun; for during the day they commonly remain in their nests, making their principal excursions by night. Their habitation is so contrived as to be perfectly clean, warm, and impenetrable to the rain; and it is composed of moss, dried leaves, and other things of a similar nature. It is situated in the fork of two branches, having only a small aperture near the top, which is of a conical form, so as to throw off the rain. The squirrel generally produces three or four in number. It feeds on the buds and young shoots of trees, and is said to be particularly fond of those of the fir and pine; it collects likewise great quantities of nuts, which it deposits in the hollows of trees for its winter food, together with beech-mast, acorns, &c. Those that inhabit Siberia collect various kinds of fungi for this purpose. In a state of captivity, nuts form its principal food, but it will eat other vegetable substances, and is delighted with sugar and other sweets. In some parts of Siberia the squirrel is found entirely white, with red eyes: in other parts, and particularly at Baikal, it is often perfectly black. In this country, and other parts of Europe, it is found with a tail milk-white, the other parts are of the usual colour. From these circumstances the varieties of this species are enumerated as follow:—1. The upper parts are reddish-brown; the breast and belly are white. 2. The tail of a pure and beautiful white. 3. Those that are, in winter, blueish-ash, in summer red and the belly white. 4. Uniformly black. 5. Entirely white, but with red eyes. 6. Glossy silver-grey.—The squirrel, if it has more food than it can eat, hides the remainder: it drinks but little: it is said to pass rivers upon a piece of bark or wood, erecting its tail for a sail: the flesh is esteemed in some places as fit food: it is preyed upon by vermin, serpents, and many other animals: the skins are valuable: it brings forth young twice a-year, and is gravid a month.

2. Sciurus albipes, or white-legged squirrel.—The ears of this species are slightly tufted; the body above is reddish-brown, beneath it is white; the tail is dusky.—It inhabits Ceylon: the tail is shorter than that of the last.

3. Sciurus

SCIURUS.

1. S volans. 2 S. vulgaris. 3. S. Getulus.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis, 1826.

3. Sciurus Niger, or black squirrel.—This is without ears; the body is black. A variety has the nose, neck, and tip of the tail white. It is entirely of a shining black, except that the muzzle and the tip of the tail are sometimes white: specimens have also been seen with a white ring round the neck.—It inhabits North America and New Spain: it is gregarious; very mischievous to fields of maize: tail shortish.

4. Sciurus vulpinus, or cat squirrel.—This is said to be equal in size to the grey squirrel, which comes next in order. The ears are not bearded; the body is tawny, mixed with ash, and large. In a variety the general colour is white; the throat, inside of the legs, and thighs black.—It inhabits North America, and is the size of a small rabbit; the fur is coarse; ears at the tips and tail tawny.

5. Sciurus cinereus, or grey squirrel.—The ears of this are not bearded; the body is cinereous, the belly is white. This species is confined entirely to North America, in many parts of which it is extremely common. In its general form, as well as in its way of life, it resembles the European squirrel. It is about half the size of a full-grown rabbit; the whole animal is of an elegant pale grey, with the insides of the limbs, and the under parts of the body, white; the ears and tail are sometimes tinged with black; in some specimens a yellowish cast prevails. It is frequently so numerous as to do incredible mischief to plantations of corn; hence it is a proscribed animal, and so much as three-pence per head have been given for every one killed, and at this rate, it is said, that in the year 1749, eight thousand pounds were paid in rewards. The grey squirrel resides principally among trees, in the hollows of which it makes its nest. The great dexterity which it exhibits in changing its place on trees, renders it extremely difficult to kill. It is readily tamed, and in that state will associate with other domestic animals.

6. Sciurus Hudsonius, or Hudson's bay squirrel.—Ears naked; back dark grey; belly ash-coloured; tail dark grey, annulate, and tipt with black.—It is a native of the colder parts of North America, and particularly of the region from whence it takes its name. It is found in the pine-forests of that country, and feeds chiefly on the cones. It is smaller than the common European squirrel, and the tail is neither so long in proportion nor so full of hair. It does not alter its colour during the whole year. In winter it keeps in its nest, and makes its appearance on the return of the warm season.

7. Sciurus Carolinensis, or Carolina squirrel.—Ears naked; body mixed grey, white, and rusty; beneath white; tail brown, mixed with black and edged with white.—Inhabits Carolina, as its name imports. It is the size of the last, and has by Dr. Shaw been considered as a variety of it.

8. Sciurus Virginianus, or Virginian squirrel.—The body is a mixed dirty-white and black; the fur is coarse.—It is a native of Virginia, and is about the size of the Sciurus cinereus. The throat, insides of the legs, and thighs, are black; the tail is short, dull, and yellow.

9. Sciurus Persicus, or Persian squirrel.—The ears are plain; the body dark, sides white, belly yellow; the tail is mixed with black and ash, with a white ring.—It inhabits the higher mountains of Persia. It resembles the Sciurus vulgaris, but does not vary in colour.

10. Sciurus anomalus, or Georgian squirrel.—Ears plain, rounded; body above yellow, mixed with brown, beneath it is dark tawny; the tail is the same as the upper parts.—It is a native of Georgia in Asia. Its mouth is white; the nose is black at the tip; the cheeks are yellow; whiskers and orbits brown; the ears are flame-coloured, and within whitish.

11. Sciurus bicolor, or Javan squirrel.—Ears plain and acute; the body above is black, beneath tawny; the thumb-claw of the fore-feet is large and round.—It is found at Java, and is about a foot long.

12. Sciurus erythræus, or ruddy squirrel.—Ears slightly bearded at the tip; the body above is mixed yellow and brown, beneath red, mixed with tawny; tail the same, with a longitudinal dark stripe.—It inhabits India, is larger than the Sciurus vulgaris; a large warty protuberance instead of the thumb.

13. Sciurus macrourus, or Ceylon squirrel.—The tail is grey, and twice as long as the body.—It is a native of Ceylon, and is thrice as large as the Sciurus vulgaris.

14. Sciurus maximus, or great squirrel.—This is the largest among all the known species of squirrels, it being the size of the common cat.—It is a native of India, and was first described by M. Sonnerat, who says it is found in the Malabar country, where it feeds on fruits, and is particularly fond of the milk of the cocoa-nut, which it pierces when it is ripe, in order to obtain the liquor. The fur on the whole animal is long and full; the top of the head, ears, back, and sides, are ferruginous; and a small band of a similar colour commences beneath each ear, passing along the neck towards the sides. This animal is said to be easily tamed, and is called about the coasts of Malabar by the name of the great wood-rat.

15. Sciurus Abyssinicus, or Abyssinian squirrel.—Body above rusty-black, beneath cinereous; tail about eighteen inches long.—It is, as its specific name imports, a native of Abyssinia, and has been thought to be only a variety of the maximus. It is very good-tempered and sportive.

16. Sciurus Indicus, or Bombay squirrel.—Ears tufted; body above dull purple, beneath yellow; tail orange at the tip.—It is sixteen inches long, and is a native of Bombay.

17. Sciurus flavus, or fair squirrel.—Ears plain, roundish; body pale yellow; tail round.—It inhabits near Carthagena, in America. It is a very small animal; the hair is white at the tips; the fore-thumb consists of only a small nail.

18. Sciurus palmarum, or palm squirrel.—Body greyish, with three yellowish stripes; tail annulate, with whitish and black.—This is an inhabitant of the hotter parts of Asia and Africa. It feeds on cocoa-nuts, and is extremely fond of the wine made from the palm-tree. It is not more than three inches long; the tail is erect, not shadowing the body; the ears are short, broad, hairy, roundish.

19. Sciurus getulus, or Barbary squirrel.—The body of this animal is brown, with four whitish longitudinal stripes.—It inhabits Barbary, and is about five inches long.

20. Sciurus badjing, or plantane squirrel.—The body is of a pale chesnut colour, with a stripe along the sides.—It is a native of Java, and is very shy.

21. Sciurus striatus, or striped squirrel.—Body is yellowish, with five longitudinal brown stripes of a blackish colour.—This is a native of the colder regions of Asia and North America, and it has been found, but not very frequently, in some parts of Europe. It differs from the major part of the squirrel tribe in its manner of life, which rather resembles that of the dormouse. It resembles some of the mouse tribe in this, that it is provided with cheek-pouches for the temporary reception of food, a peculiarity not to be found in any other species of squirrel. Its general length is not six inches, and its tail is about the same. On the upper parts its colour is a reddish-brown, and on the under white; down the ridge of the back runs a black streak; and on each side the body are two others; the included space between each being of a pale yellow tinge; the tail is marked with circular spaces, like that of a mouse; but the fur spreads slightly on the sides, as in other species. These animals are extremely common in Siberia, inhabiting the maple and birch woods of that country, and generally forming their nests near the root of some tree. They never ascend trees in the manner of other squirrels, unless suddenly surprised or pursued, when they will climb with great expedition, and conceal themselves among the branches. They collect their stores during the autumnal season, and on the setting in of the winter conceal themselves in their burrows, the entrances of which they stop, and pass the greatest part of the cold weather in sleep, and in feeding on their collected stores; but if, by the great length of the winter, their provisions happen to fail, they then sally out in quest of fresh supplies, and will occasionally make their way into granaries, and even into houses. They are very

choice

choice in their food, always preferring the superior grain, as wheat to rye or barley. They are very wild, and not easily reconciled to a state of captivity, continuing extremely timid, and manifesting no symptoms of attachment to their owners. They are caught merely on account of their skins, which are highly esteemed by the Chinese. It has been doubted, whether those found in America be really of the same species with the European and Asiatic kind.

22. Sciurus æstuans, or Brazilian squirrel.—Body grey above, beneath yellow; a white stripe along the belly; the tail is round, annulate, black, and yellow. A variety is described, as having a body mixed dusky and yellow; the sides marked with white stripes; the tail is black.—It is a native of Brazil and Guiana. It is eight or nine inches long, and the tail is still longer; the ears are roundish and plain; the fur is soft.

23. Sciurus dschinschious, or Carnatic squirrel.—Body brick-dust colour; lateral stripes and orbits white; the tail is black.—It inhabits the Indian Carnatic, and is larger than the Sciurus vulgaris.

24. Sciurus variegatus, or varied squirrel.—Body above variegated with black, white, and brown; belly yellow.—It is a native of New Spain. Burrows and collects stores of grain under the roots of trees, and is twice as large as the Sciurus vulgaris. Of this species the ears are short, plain, white; the mouth is also white; the head is orange-colour, mixed with the other colours; the whiskers are long and black; and the claws are black.

25. Sciurus degus, or Chilese squirrel.—Body is of a dusky yellow, with a black line on the shoulders.—It inhabits, as its trivial name imports, Chili, in large societies. Burrows and lays up stores of fruits and roots for winter provision. It does not become torpid. The flesh is sometimes eaten by the natives. It is larger than the black rat.

26. Sciurus Mexicanus, or Mexican squirrel.—The body of this is of a brownish ash, with from five to seven whitish longitudinal stripes. This animal is known only from the figures and description of Seba. It is much smaller than the vulgaris, and is of a mouse-colour, with seven white lines or streaks on the back, extending to some distance down the tail. The female has only five streaks.—It inhabits New Spain. There is a variety of this species, in which the body is uniform in colour: the scrotum is large and pendulous.

27. Sciurus Bancrofti, or Guiana squirrel.—Body above is of a pale yellowish-brown; the sides and belly are white; the tail is long, hairy, and spotted.—It is native of Guiana.

28. Sciurus Guajanensis, or Cayenne squirrel.—Body reddish, and very small.—It inhabits Cayenne; lives solitary on trees; feeds on seeds; it is naturally very fierce, but may be tamed; it brings forth two young ones once a year; it is the size of a rat.

29. Sciurus Madagascarensis, or Madagascar squirrel.—Middle toe of the fore-foot naked, very long; thumb-nail of the hind-feet rounded.—This species is found on the eastern side of the island of Madagascar; it lives under ground, is slothful, timid, slow; it feeds on worms, which it extracts, by means of its claws, from the hollows of trees.

30. Sciurus Capensis, or Cape squirrel.—The body above is of a pale rusty colour, mixed with black; it has a white line from the shoulder down each side; the tail is black in the middle, the sides are hoary; the ears are scarcely visible.—This species inhabits the northern mountains beyond the Cape of Good Hope; it lives in burrows; never climbs; feeds on bulbous roots, and is very tame.

II.—Squirrels with a flying membrane.

31. Sciurus volucella, or Virginian flying squirrel.—The membrane is of a moderate size; the tail is long and hairy. This species is much smaller than the volans, from which it differs in colour, being of an elegant brown, or sub-ferruginous mouse-colour above, and yellowish-white beneath; the edges of the flying membrane, as it is called, are of a darker or blacker tinge than the rest of the fur, contrasting with the white border of the under part; a few dusky undulations are found about the back and shoulders; the tail is of a flattened shape, or with the hair spreading towards each side, and the extremity somewhat sharpened; the eyes are large, and the ears rather short, almost naked, and slightly rounded. It is not more than five inches long to the tail, and the tail itself measures four inches.—It is a native of the temperate parts of North America, and has been found also in some of the southern parts of the American continent. It is an animal of great beauty, and is frequently kept in a state of captivity, being readily tamed, and shewing a considerable degree of attachment to its possessor. It is naturally of a gregarious disposition, and they may be seen flying, it is said, to the number of ten or twelve together, from tree to tree. It is chiefly a nocturnal animal, lying concealed during the day, and commencing its activity in the evening. It prepares its nest in the hollow of trees, with leaves, moss, &c.; several of them will inhabit the same nest. These animals reside constantly on the upper parts of trees, and never willingly quit them for the ground. They are capable of swimming, in case of necessity, in the same manner as other quadrupeds, and after leaving the water, can exert their power of flight as readily as before. They produce three or four young at a time. A variety has its membrane including the chin and ears; the body above is reddish; beneath of a yellowish-ash colour.—It is a native of Virginia.

32. Sciurus Hudsonius.—The membrane of this does not include the fore-legs; the body above is reddish-brown; beneath it is of a yellowish-white; the tail is flat and hairy.—It is found in North America, about Hudson's bay.

33. Sciurus volans, or Lapland flying squirrel.—This has a large membrane, extending to the base of the fore-feet; the tail is rounded at the hairy end. This is the European flying squirrel of Pennant, and is the only one of the kind that has been discovered belonging to this quarter of the globe; and this is extremely rare, being found chiefly in the more northerly regions, as in Finland, Lapland, &c. It also occurs in some districts of Poland. It is more common in many parts of Asia, and abounds chiefly in the birch and pine woods of Siberia. It has, by some authors, been confounded with the Sciurus volucella, but is a totally distinct species. On the upper parts it is an elegant pale or whitish-grey, and on the under parts milk-white. It is not so large as the Sciurus vulgaris, is thickly furred, of a slightly flattened form, and rounded at the extremity. Previously to the observations of Dr. Pallas, little more was known of this animal than its general form and manner of flight, or rather of springing, which is performed by means of an expansile furry membrane reaching from the fore-foot to the hind. For the better management of this part, the thumb of the fore-feet is stretched out to a considerable length within the membrane, so as to appear in the skeleton like a long bony process on each of the fore-feet. The flying squirrel generally resides in the hollows of trees towards the upper parts, and it prepares its nest of the finest mosses. It is a solitary animal, and is seen in pairs only during the breeding season. It rarely makes its appearance by day, emerging only at the commencement of twilight, when it may be seen climbing about the trees, and darting with great velocity from one to the other. It feeds chiefly on the young shoots, buds, and catkins of the birch, as well as on those of the pine. In winter it remains in its nest, coming out occasionally in mild weather; but it does not become torpid during that season. This animal is said to spring to the distance of full twenty fathoms, and by this motion to convey itself from the top of one tree to the middle of another, to which it directs its flight, which is always with a declination. It seldom descends to the surface, and, when taken and placed on the ground, it runs or springs aukwardly, with its tail elevated, and as soon as it gains a tree, instantly begins to climb with great activity, sometimes elevating, and sometimes depressing the tail. The young are produced about the beginning or middle of May; they are at first blind, and almost entirely void of hair; and the parent fosters them by covering

covering them with her flying membrane, leaving her nest only at the approach of evening, and carefully concealing the young with the moss of the nest. The young begin to acquire their fur when about six days old, but they continue blind for the space of about thirteen days. These animals bear confinement with great difficulty, and for want of the proper food are rarely preserved any great length of time. In their manner of sitting and feeding, as well as in the action of washing their face with their paws, they resemble the common squirrel. Their voice resembles that of the mouse. The fur of this species, though soft and beautiful, is not much esteemed, on account of the slightness of the skin, and its want of durability.

34. Sciurus sagitta, or Javan flying squirrel.—The body of this is rusty brown above, beneath it is paler; the tail is much flattened and truncate.—It is found chiefly in Java.

35. Sciurus petaurista.—The body in this species is of a deep chestnut, beneath it is pale rusty; or above black, beneath hoary; the tail is longer than the body, very hairy, round, blackish, rusty in the middle.—It inhabits the islands in the Indian ocean, and is about eighteen inches long. The head is rounded; whiskers and claws black; it has six pectoral and abdominal teats; the pupils, like those of the cat, are long and narrow, and adapted to climbing animals.

36. Sciurus Australis, or southern flying squirrel.—It inhabits New South Wales, and it is the largest and most elegant of the tribe.

37. Sciurus Norfolcensis.—Body above dark grey, beneath white, a dusky black dorsal line from the nose to the tail; the ears are short, tail long and bushy.—It inhabits Norfolk island, and is nine or ten inches long.

SCKOHLEM, a small town of Prussian Saxony, in Thuringia; 6 miles south of Naumburg.

SCLAVO CHORIO, a pleasant village of the Morea, in Laconia, with a grove of olives, supposed to be the ancient Amyclæ. It contains several remains of antiquity.

SCLAVONIA, a province in the south of the Austrian empire, which, in official documents, still bears the title of Kingdom of Sclavonia. Its shape is long and narrow, the Drave and Danube running along its northern frontier, and separating it from Hungary; while the Save, also a great river, extends along its southern confines, dividing it from Turkey. Its area is about 6600 square miles; its population about 530,000. It lies between the 45th and 46th degrees of north latitude; and being a frontier province, its inhabitants are exempt from taxes, but subject to military duty; Sclavonia containing the regimental district of Peterwaradein, Brod, and Gradisca.

Face of the Country.—Sclavonia is divided throughout almost its whole length, by a chain of lofty mountains, extending from east to west, and covered with forests. The rest of the country consists of fine plains, with a fertile soil, and a climate almost as mild as that of Italy. Considerable unhealthiness, however, is caused by the rivers frequently overflowing their banks, and leaving a quantity of stagnant water.

Products.—The mountainous tracks of Sclavonia are barren in dry years, and in the low grounds there are many districts too marshy for cultivation; but the greatest part of the country is well adapted to tillage, producing wheat, barley, maize, flax, hemp, and madder, The fruits are chesnuts, plumbs, and vines; also figs, almonds, and other products of a warm climate. The forests contain the finest oak; and water conveyance only is wanted to render it a valuable article of export. The domestic animals, horses, cattle, and sheep, are numerous, but reared with little care; of hogs, vast numbers are reared in the woods. Of wild animals, the bear, the wolf, the fox, the polecat, and the vulture, are common, and productive of considerable annoyance to the smaller domestic animals. Equal mischief is experienced from insects, which multiply surprisingly in the heats of summer, in consequence of the number of marshes. Gnats are exceedingly troublesome; and it sometimes happens, that a continuance of southerly winds brings a swarm of locusts from Turkey. The mineral treasures of Sclavonia have not yet been explored. At present, the only minerals known to exist in large quantities, are limestone, sulphur, coal, salt, and some ferruginous substances.

Manners, Religion, and Education.—Sclavonia was in all ages an ill cultivated and backward country; but its progress towards civilisation would have been less slow, had its situation, in a political sense, been more fortunate. It was, however, the theatre of war, not only between the Romans and their barbarian assailants, but between the Turks and Hungarians; and having been overrun by the latter in the beginning of the 16th century, continued in their possession until 1698, when it was ceded to Austria. In that unfortunate interval, many of its inhabitants emigrated. It has been in some measure improved since falling under the Austrian government; but the cottages are still little else than mud huts, or, in the forest tracks, wood covered with slate. The Sclavonians proper, or *aborigines*, do not now form the majority of the population, there being a number of settlers from Hungary and Germany. But no part of the population is characterised either by industry or by the degree of intelligence necessary to turn the natural advantages of the country to account. The peasantry keep cows only in sufficient number for their domestic consumption of milk and cheese; and their plough does little more than scratch the ground. The majority of the inhabitants are of the Greek church; there are a good many Catholics, but no Lutherans, except German colonists. The higher clergy of the Greek and Catholic churches have large incomes; the inferior are immersed in poverty and ignorance. The schools are on a very imperfect footing, except in the military districts, where the influence of government has been more successful.

Manufactures and Trade.—Manufactures are here in an almost primitive state, each peasant making for himself every article he requires, whether a cart, a plough, or other implements; while his wife and daughters weave the cloth and knit the stockings required in his family. The only manufacturing establishments are for making glass and potash. Government has improved several of the public roads; and there are exports of corn and tobacco; also of hides, wax, honey, and madder; all, however, in trifling quantities. Among the imports are iron, salt, and oil. The transit trade is less insignificant, in consequence of the three great rivers (the Danube, the Drave, and the Save,) which communicate, directly or indirectly, with a large track of country.

History.—Sclavonia formed under the Romans a part of the ancient Illyria, and derived its present name from a tribe of Sclavi or Slavi, who settled here in the 6th century. At a subsequent date, the Venetians having acquired possession of Dalmatia, extended their acquisitions to this country. It remained alternately subject to them and to the Hungarians, until overrun by the Turks, in whose possession it continued about 170 years. The Sclavonians form only a small part of the descendants of the Slavi, a nation whose language and habits are to be traced, not only throughout the Illyrian provinces, but in Hungary, Poland, the western part of Russia, and the east of Germany. It was in the 5th and 6th centuries that the Greek and Roman writers first mentioned the name of Sclavi, a word evidently derived from Slowen or Slowjan, the name taken by this rude people. The Franks, in their military successes before and during the age of Charlemagne, often encountered Sclavonic tribes, and carrying them into captivity, the name Sclave or Esclave, became synonymous with captive. The identity of origin may be traced in the present day by the correspondence of language throughout Poland, Hungary, Illyria, and part of Russia. The differences in point of harmony and idiom are necessarily great among tribes so long distinct and so widely separated; but it is still practicable for a Russian, a Pole, and a Bosnian, to understand each other in a number of words.

SCLAVO'NIAN, or SCLAVO'NIC, *adj.* Belonging to the Sclavonians. The language of this people.

The Sclavonic language is one of the great stocks, of which the languages of the North and western regions of Europe seem to be ramifications; the other two being the Celtic and the Gothic. The present Russian is thought to be the most faithful specimen of the original Sclavonic, which prevailed in those parts of Europe where the ancients placed the Sarmatæ.

SCLAVONIANS, Slavonians, Sclavi, or Slavi, in Ancient History, a numerous race who migrated from the northern parts of Asia, and established many colonies in different countries, or rather blended themselves with the original inhabitants. The Slavonian stock is said to be one of the most remarkable and most widely extended in the world. Next to the Arabians, who formerly prevailed from Malacca to Lisbon, there are no people on the globe who have diffused their language, their dominion, and their colonies, to so surprising an extent. From the shores of the Adriatic, northwards as far as the coast of the Frozen Ocean, and from the shores of the Baltic through the whole length of Europe and Asia, as far as America and to the neighbourhood of Japan, we every where meet with Slavonic nations. Towards the middle of the fourth century, the Sclavonians, who before that time had over-run the half of Europe and Asia, were subdued by Ermanarik or Hermanric, whose dominions extended from the Baltic to the Euxine, and incorporated with the Ostrogoths into one government. Soon afterwards, both the dominant Ostrogoths, and the servile Sclavonians, were subject to the victorious Huns. In the course of the succeeding century, when the disturbers of the world were either exterminated or driven to the farther side of the Danube, the Sclavonians began to shew themselves in Dacia, pressed between the Ungres and the Gepidæ, and occupied a part of the northern shore of the Danube. Here they blended themselves with the barbarians who menaced from the north the downfall of the declining Roman empire; hence they plundered the Roman provinces, commencing their attack in the time of Justinian I.: and hence they rushed like a torrent on the country of the Gepidæ, who had been almost entirely extirpated by the Longobards and Avari. The Avari arrogated to themselves a kind of sovereignty over the various Sclavonian tribes, and occasionally extorted from them a tribute; but these people were at length swallowed up by the Bulgarians, who extended themselves over all Dacia. Forced by their oppressions, the Dacian Sclavi for the most part abandoned their dwellings, and retreated (probably about the middle of the seventh century) from the Danube to the North. Some tribes withdrew to Poland, others to Russia, and some of them remained on the Danube. In this manner were the countries just mentioned peopled by Slavonian colonies; who, continually spreading further and further, and founding governments in every place, occasioned the most signal revolutions in the north of Europe. All the branches of the grand Slavonian stock, who formed peculiar states, may be ranged by their present condition in seven classes, viz., Russian, Polish, Bohemian, German, Illyrian, Hungarian, and Turkish Sclavonians. In every age the same race of Sclavonians appears to have maintained the possession of the same countries. Their numerous tribes, however distant or adverse, used one common language, and have been known by the resemblance of their form, which deviated from the swarthy Tartar, and approached, without attaining, the lofty stature and fair complexion of the German. Four thousand six hundred villages, according to the statement of Mr. Gibbon, were scattered over the provinces of Russia and Poland, and their huts were hastily built of rough timber, in a country deficient both in stone and iron; and situated in the midst of forests, on the banks of rivers, or at the edges of morasses. The fertility of the soil, rather than the labour of the natives, supplied the rustic plenty of the Sclavonians. Their sheep and horned cattle were large and numerous, and the fields which they sowed with millet and panic, afforded, in the place of bread, a coarse and less nutritive food. The incessant rapine of their neighbours compelled them to bury their treasure in the earth; but on the appearance of a stranger, it was freely imparted by a people, whose unfavourable character is qualified by the epithets of chaste, patient, and hospitable. As their supreme god, they adored an invisible master of the thunder. The rivers and nymphs obtained their subordinate honours, and the popular worship was expressed in vows and sacrifices. The Sclavonians disdained to obey a despot, a prince, or even a magistrate; but their limited experience, and headstrong passions, would not allow their forming a system of equal law or of general defence. Some voluntary respect was paid to age and valour; but each tribe or village existed as a separate republic, and all must be persuaded where none could be compelled. They fought on foot, almost naked, and, except an unwieldy shield, without any defensive armour. Their weapons of offence were a bow, a quiver of small poisoned arrows, and a long rope, which they dexterously threw from a distance, and entangled their enemy in a running noose. In the field, the Sclavonian infantry was dangerous by their speed, agility, and hardiness: they swam, they dived, they remained under water, drawing their breath through a hollow cane; and a river or lake was often the scene of their unsuspected ambuscade. But these were the achievements of spies or stragglers. The military art was unknown to the Sclavonians; their name was obscure, and their conquests were inglorious. For the name and nation, the situation and manners, of the Sclavonians, we refer to Procopius, Goth. l. ii. c. 26. l. iii. c. 14. The precise boundaries of the Sclavonians, and also of the Bulgarians, who were people of the same origin, cannot be precisely ascertained; nor do the people themselves seem to have been restrained within any definite and fixed limits. Their importance depended on their vicinity to the Roman empire: and in the time of Justinian, the level country of Moldavia and Walachia was occupied by a Sclavonian tribe, denominated Antes, whence Anticus is one of the titles of Justinian and of his successors. Against the Antes he erected the fortifications of the Lower Danube; and laboured to secure the alliance of a people seated in the direct channel of northern inundation, an interval of 200 miles between the mountains of Transylvania and the Euxine sea. But the Antes wanted power and inclination to stem the fury of the torrent; and the light-armed Sclavonians, from an hundred tribes, pursued with almost equal speed the footsteps of the Bulgarian horse. The payment of one piece of gold for each soldier procured a safe and easy retreat through the country of the Gepidæ, who commanded the passage of the Upper Danube. Three thousand Sclavonians, who divided themselves into two bands, passed the Danube and the Hebrus, vanquished the Roman generals who dared to oppose their progress, and plundered with impunity the cities of Illyricum and Thrace. But whatever praise the boldness of the Sclavonians may deserve, it is sullied by the wanton and deliberate cruelty which they are accused of exercising on their prisoners. Without distinction of rank, age, or sex, the captives were impaled or flayed alive, or suspended between four posts, and beaten with clubs till they expired, or inclosed in some spacious building, and left to perish in the flames, with the spoil and cattle which impeded the march of these savage victors. Such is, as we trust, the exaggerated relation of the cruelty of these people, given by Procopius; but for their mild and liberal behaviour to their prisoners, we may appeal to the somewhat more recent authority of the emperor Maurice. (Stratagemata, l. ii. c. 5.) Perhaps, says Mr. Gibbon, a more impartial narrative than that of Procopius would reduce the number, and qualify the nature, of these horrid acts; and they might sometimes be excused by the cruel laws of retaliation. In the siege of Topirus, situated near Philippi in Thrace, or Macedonia, opposite to the isle of Thasos, whose obstinate defence had enraged the Sclavonians, they massacred 15,000 males; but they spared the women and children, the most valuable captives were always reserved for labour or ransom; the servitude was not rigorous, and the terms of their deliverance were speedy and moderate. The Sclavonians and Finns were the aborigines of Russia. *Gibbon's Hist. Decl.*

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and Fall Rom. Emp. vols. vii. and x. *Tooke's Russian Emp.* vol. i.

SCLERANTHUS, [from σκληρος *hard* or *juiceless*, and ανθος, *a flower*], in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order digynia, natural order of caryophyllei, portulaceæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, tubular, half-five-cleft, acute, permanent, contracted at the neck. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments ten, awl-shaped, erect, very small, placed on the calyx. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germ roundish. Styles two, erect, capillary, length of the stamens. Stigmas simple. Pericarp none. Seed single, (or two) ovate, inclosed in the cartilaginous tube of the calyx.—*Essential Character.* Calyx one-leafed, inferior. Corolla none. Seeds two inclosed in the calyx.

1. Scleranthus annuus, or annual knawel.—Calyxes of the fruit patulous acute, stems spreading. Root annual, fibrous, small but striking deep, little or not at all branched. Stems very numerous, spreading in all directions, the outermost decumbent at the base only, not prostrate their whole length, all round, a little downy, branched at top, leafy, pale sometimes reddish. Leaves opposite, united at their base by a membranous downy margin, linear, ciliate at the bottom, of a grassy green. Heads of flowers of the same colour, sessile, terminating, leafy.—Native of Europe and Siberia.

2. Scleranthus perennis, or perennial knawel.—Calyxes of the fruit closed obtuse, stems procumbent. Root perennial. It has the habit of the preceding, but the stems are perfectly prostrate, and close pressed to the ground, downy in the upper part, much branched especially towards their extremities. The colour of the whole herb is glaucous, and somewhat glittering with shining pellucid tubercles.—Native of Europe and Siberia. In England it is much more rare than the preceding.

3. Scleranthus polycarpus.—Calyxes of the fruit spreading very much, and spiny, stem subvillose. Root annual. Stem branching and procumbent, a little villose and ash-coloured, as are also the leaves. Flowers terminating, whitish, with a calyx slightly membranaceous. Anthers twice as large as in the first species.—Native of France and Italy.

SCLERIA [so named by Bergius, from Σκληρος, *hard;* on account of the hardness of the seed and whole plant], in Botany, a genus of the class monoecia, order triandria, natural order of calamariæ.—Generic Character. Male flowers in the same spikelet or panicle mixed with the females. —Male: spikelets solitary, or androgynous. Calyx: glume from two to six-valved, many flowered: valves ovate, acute, keeled, concave, awnless, permanent. Corolla: glumes very many, oblong, awnless, longer and more slender than those of the calyx, separating the stamens. Stamina: filaments solitary or three, within each corolline glume. Anthers linear.—Female: spikelets solitary, axillary, terminating, or inserted between the male calycine glumes. Calyx: glume two to four-valved, one-flowered: valves ovate, acute, awnless keeled, concave, permanent. Corolla none. Pistil: germ roundish, attenuated at the base. Style filiform, length of the glumes, undivided or trifid. Stigmas capillary, reflexed. Pericarpnone. Seed: nut sub-globular or oblong, coloured, shining. Nucleus roundish, veined.—*Essential Character.* Male Calyx: glume from two to six-valved, many flowered awnless. Corolla glumes awnless. Filament one to three. Female: calyx from two to six-valved, one-flowered, awnless. Stigmas one to three. Seed: nut sub-globular, somewhat bony, coloured.

1. Scleria flagellum.—Culm three sided scandent very rugged, leaves prickly backwards three ways, flowers panicled, rachis villose.—Native of Jamaica, Surinam, and Africa.

2. Scleria mitis.—Culm three sided, scandent, leaves even, flowers panicled, rachis smooth.—Native of the East Indies, Africa near the Cape of Good Hope, and the Isle of Tanna in the Pacific Ocean.

3. Scleria lithosperma.—Culm three-sided somewhat rugged erect, leaves strict linear, rugged at the edge, flowers panicled, rachis rough.

4. Scleria filiformis.—Culm simple filiform even, two feet high, leaves subulate, spike almost simple, floscules smooth having a filiform leaflet under them.—This is a tufted grass. —Native of Jamaica and Hispaniola, in very dry rocky places.

5. Scleria birtella.—Culm simple, filiform, pubescent, leaves linear, spike simple, floscules rough-haired. This grass is scarcely a foot high. Roots small, filiform, black. —Native of Jamaica.

6. Scleria latifolia.—Culm three-sided, leafy, erect, even, leaves broad-lanceolate nerved, flowers panicled. This grass is a fathom in height.—Native of Jamaica, especially in the western parts, in dry mountain woods.

7. Scleria poæformis.—Culm leafless, panicles contracted with flexuose branches, spikelets sessile; female spikes axillary, males two-flowered.—Native of the East Indies.

8. Scleria tenuis.—Culm leafy, leaves unarmed, panicle capillary, flowers sessile, outer male, inner female.—This has the appearance of a slender rush.—Native of Ceylon.

9. Scleria lævis.—Culm leafy, leaves unarmed, branches of the panicle divided involucred; male spikes sessile and peduncled.—Native of the East Indies.

SCLERIA [formed of σκληρος, *hard*], a word used by medical writers to express a hardness of the inner part of the eye-lids.

SCLERIASIS, or SCLEROMA, in Surgery, a hard tumour. *An obsolete term.*

SCLEROCARPUS [from σκληρος, *hard*, and καρπος, *fruit*], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia frustranea, natural order of discoideæ, corymbiferæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: common, of six leaflets, of which three are exterior, three interior, alternately: exterior biggish, of the same structure and appearance with the leaves, spreading; two large, the third less: interior linear, channelled, acute, erect with a spreading tip, length of the floscules. Corolla: compound, radiate: corollets hermaphrodite, ten in the disk: female, three in the ray, each within one of the interior calycine leaflets.—Proper of the hermaphrodites tubular, five-cleft:—of the female ligulate, roundish. Stamina: in the hermaphrodites, filaments five, capillary. Anthers: five, small, united, each awned at the tip. Pistil: in the hermaphrodites, germ oblong, compressed, outwardly gibbous. Style filiform, length of the corollet. Stigma deeply bifid, revolute. In the females, germ slender. Style none. Stigma none. Pericarp none, except the chaffs involving the seeds. Seeds, in the hermaphrodites, solitary, oblong, compressed, with the outer margin gibbous, the inner straight. Pappus none. The females have no seed. Receptacle convex, small. Chaffs of the hermaphrodites cartilaginous, compressed, gibbous at the back, striated and tubercled, opening at the inner straight side, the margins converging inwards, flat and even, the apex terminated by a short, almost upright, neck: mouth oblique, acuminate outwards; each inclosing a single seed. Chaffs of the females straightish, cylindrical, slender, shorter.—*Essential Character.* Calyx six-leaved, three exterior larger, like the leaves, three interior smaller, like scales, alternate. Pappus none. Receptacle chaffy.

Sclerocarpus Africanus.—Herbaceous, but somewhat woody, with alternate three-nerved leaves, and terminating solitary flowers: flowrets in the disk about eight, fertile; in the ray from one to four, neuter. Chaffs permanent, hardening, acuminate. Seeds ovate, sub-compressed, remarkably narrowed downwards, black and shining, each wrapped up in the chaff.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope.

SCLERODERMA [from σκληρος, *hard*, and δερμα, Gr., *skin*], a genus of fungi. See LYCOPERDON.

SCLEROLÆNA [from σκληρος, *hard*, and χλαινα, Gr., a *covering*, because of the indurated calyx, which makes an outer coat to the seed, or a sort of spurious pericarp], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order digynia, natural order of holeraceæ, atriplices *(Juss.)* chenopodeæ *(Decandolle* and *Brown.)*—*Essential Character.* Calyx of one leaf, five-cleft. Corolla none. Stamens inserted into the bottom of the calyx. Seed vertically compressed, without albumen,

albumen, with a simple skin, tunicated, enclosed in the dry hardened calyx. Embryo curved. Radicle superior.—A genus from the south coast of New Holland, composed of small, usually hoary, or somewhat woolly, shrubs. Leaves alternate, linear, narrow. Flowers axillary, solitary or aggregate.

1. Sclerolæna paradoxa.—Flowers capitate. Calyx of of the fruit connate; its segments tipped with spines.

2. Sclerolæna biflora.—Flowers in pairs. Leaves linear, semi-cylindrical.

3. Sclerolæna uniflora.—Flowers solitary. Leaves linear, somewhat club-shaped, imbricated.

4. Sclerolæna divaricata. — (Anisacantha divaricata; *Brown.*)—Flowers four-cleft. Calyx of the fruit with unequal dorsal spines. From the same country. We presume to unite the Anisacantha of our learned friend with his Sclerolæna, as differing only in the number of the parts of fructification, and in the spines of the calyx being dorsal, not terminal. The stamens are three or four. This is a smooth little shrub. Leaves alternate, semi-cylindrical. Flowers axillary, sessile, without bracteas.

SCLEROPHTHALMIA [from σκληρος, *hard*, and οφθαλμος, Gr., *the eye*], in Surgery, an inflammation of the eye, in which there is an unusual dryness and hardness of this organ.

SCLEROSARCOMA, a hard excrescence on the gums.

SCLEROSIS, a hard tumour.

SCLEROTHAMNUS, in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order monogynia, natural order of papilionaceæ, leguminosæ *(Juss.)—Essential Character.* Calyx five-cleft, two-lipped, with a pair of appendages at the base. Corolla papilionaceous; keel the length of the wings. Style ascending, thread-shaped. Stigma simple. Legume turgid, with two seeds.

Sclerothamnus microphyllus, or small-leaved sclerothamnus.—Observed by Mr. Brown, on the south coast of New Holland. It was sent to Kew in 1803, by Mr. Peter Good, and flowers from April to June, being treated as a greenhouse shrub.

SCLERO'TIC, *adj.* [*sclerotique*, Fr., σκληρος, Gr.] Hard: an epithet of one of the coats of the eye.—The ligaments observed in the inside of the *sclerotick* tunicles of the eye, serve instead of a muscle, by their contraction, to alter the figure of the eye. *Ray.*

SCLEROTICA, in Anatomy [from σκληρος, Gr., *hard*], the external dense and firm membrane of the globe of the eye.

SCLERO'TICS, *s.* Medicines which harden and consolidate the parts they are applied to. *Quincy.*

SCLEROTIUM [from σκληροτης, Gr., *hardness* or *rigidity*, in allusion to its texture], in Botany, a genus of the class cryptogamia, order fungi, natural order of fungi, sarcocarpi *(Persoon.)—Essential Character.* Simple, oblong, variously shaped, firm; internally smooth and uniform; filled with minute seeds.

1. Sclerotium crocorum.—Subterraneous, tuberous, polymorphous, reddish, cohering by long fibrous roots. This grows parasitically on the root of the cultivated saffron, crocus sativus, in France, and is so pernicious as to have acquired the name of *la mort du Saffron.* Duhamel, who has written on the subject, in the Mémoires de l'Acad. Royale, for 1720, has observed the same fungus, as he believed, on the roots of asparagus officinalis, and sambucus ebulus. Fougeroux de Bondaroy has also given a paper on this noxious fungus, in the Mém. de l'Acad for 1782. It is very destructive to saffron, soon causing the whole bulb to perish, and spreading with great rapidity over a whole field of that valuable crop, if not speedily stopped by a trench, fifteen to eighteen inches deep, to cut off the communication between the infected and the sound plants. The smallest quantity of earth from an infected field is said to be capable of communicating this plague, even if the ground were not planted with saffron till twenty years afterwards. Hitherto this destructive parasite has not been heard of but in France. The plants are of an irregular knobbed figure, from half an inch to an inch long, of a light reddish-brown, scarcely bursting; granular and paler within. Long, branching, red, capillary roots are sent off in all directions, propagating the plant very extensively and rapidly by offsetts, which attach themselves to the saffron, and multiplying in the substance of the bulbs, soon destroy them.

2. Sclerotium fungorum. — Subterraneous, irregularly lobed, pale. Found on the roots of decaying fungi; frequently undermining that of agaricus tuberosus. The plants are whitish; at first the size of mustard-seed, but subsequently three to six lines long, and unequally swelling; the internal substance white.

3. Sclerotium muscorum.—Subterraneous, roundish, bright yellow, somewhat tuberculated. Found attached to the roots of mosses in summer. Each plant is two or three lines long, at length varying in shape, of the same golden hue within and without; its substance rather succulent.

4. Sclerotium lacunosum.—Subterraneous, nearly round, channelled, black. Found by Persoon in autumn, adhering, like a root, to the base of a remarkable agaricus, called by him racemosus. This species is the size of a small pea.

5. Sclerotium durum.—Ovate, hard, somewhat striated, of a dull black. Found in autumn and winter on the dried stems of umbelliferous, and other large herbs. Generally ovate, but often indeterminate in figure, closed pressed to the stem on which it grows, and often covered by the cuticle. Its substance is firm, internally white; and the surface is marked with oblong furrows.

6. Sclerotium complanatum.—Erect, pale, somewhat pear-shaped, compressed, with a short stalk. Found in winter, adhering to rotten hay or straw in dunghills. When young it is white, and scarcely compressed. Afterwards it generally becomes inversely heart-shaped, and of a pale dry hue.

7. Sclerotium radicatum.—Obovate, black, with numerous long roots. Found in September, growing on the earth, in moist shady places. Each plant is about the size of a pea, nearly globular, half immersed in the ground, of a compact rather juicy substance, with a very black smooth skin, finally bursting in the centre. The roots are simple, numerous, longer than the fungus itself.

8. Sclerotium brassicæ.—Oblong, depressed, black; dotted with black internally. Found in winter among rotten cabbage-leaves, laid by in cellars. Two or three lines broad, flattened, thin.

9. Sclerotium varium.—Roundish, or oblong, somewhat lobed, rugose, variable. White when young; then brownish, and black. Upon the stems and ribs of the leaves of cabbages in winter. This consists of little tuberous bodies, either solitary or from three to six crowded together, at first appearing in the form of minute snow-white globules, then becoming oblong, or kidney-shaped, obscurely lobed, various in size, changing to brown and black.

10. Sclerotium semen.—Clustered, spherical, blackish-brown, finally wrinkled: internally white. On rotten cabbages and parsneps; as well as, according to Persoon, on decaying stems of potatoes, when heaped up in the fields in autumn and spring. About one or two lines in diameter, rather soft and white, when young; becoming wrinkled by drying. This fungus has been mistaken for the seed of cabbages.

11. Sclerotium pubescens.—Clustered, globose, pale, villous at the base. Among the gills of a rotten agaric; late in autumn. About a line broad, sometimes slightly depressed in the centre.

12. Sclerotium erisyphe.—Granules aggregate, brownish-black, attached by white down to the leaves of plants. This is found on the leaves of various plants in autumn, which thence appear to be sprinkled with a white mealy powder, and assume a languid condition; except only hazel-leaves, on whose backs it sometimes occurs, without injuring them. The fungus itself is very minute, globose, at first smooth and yellowish, then brown, finally rugged and nearly black. Some specimens, especially those which grow

grow on the hazel, are hollowed, and somewhat villous at the summit, evincing an affinity to the pezizæ.

13. Sclerotium quercinum.—Nearly hemispherical, convex, smooth, of a dirty or blackish hue, scattered over the leaves of plants. Found on dry fallen oak leaves in summer. About a line and a half broad, hardish, attached to the leaves by about half its surface.

14. Sclerotium propulneum.—Crowded, partly sunk in the leaves of plants, roundish, or angular and confluent; reddish flesh-coloured: at length black. Found on the backs of dead leaves of the black poplar, in autumn and winter, and on aspen leaves in spring. It appears in the form of little black warts, covering the leaves, and giving them a rough or scaly appearance. When moistened, the dried fungus resumes its original flesh-coloured hue.

15. Sclerotium purpureum.—Scattered, minute, oval, perpendicular, very smooth. Found once only by Mr. Tode, early in March, on a fallen branch of oak, under the cuticle. It was visible by the help of a magnifier only. The surface was very smooth, and of a somewhat shining purple; the substance hard.

16. Sclerotium sphæroides.—Clustered, small, roundish, or elongated and angular, flattish, black. On young branches of populus tremula, bursting out of the bark, like a sphæria, one-third or half a line in dimensions, white internally, tumid and slightly fleshy, surrounded with the broken cuticle of the bark; its disk minutely wrinkled. The inside being neither hollow, nor filled with jelly. Persoon could not refer this fungus to sphæria, though he allows that its habit and mode of growth, are not exactly similar to other species of Sclerotium.

SCLIDO, a small town in the east of Austrian Italy; 13 miles from Vicenza.

SCLOBODA, a town of Poland, in the palatinate of Braclaw; 52 miles west of Braclaw.

SCLOPETOPLAGA [from *sclopetum*, a gun, and *plaga*, a wound], in Surgery, a gun shot wound.

SCNIPS, a name given by authors to the small species of gnat, always found about the oak-tree, feeding on the juices of its leaves, which it sucks by means of its sharp trunk.

It is supposed by some to be hatched of the small oblong white worm, that inhabits the oak-apples.

To SCOAT, or SCOTCH, *v. a.* To stop a wheel by putting a stone or piece of wood under it before. *Bailey.*

SCOBS, *s.* [Latin; any dross.] Raspings of ivory, hartshorn, or other hard substances; scoriæ of metals; potashes. *Chambers.*

SCODEPHINO, a pedantic name given to a knife, described by Scultetus, and used in performing the Cæsarean operation, by Rousset.

SCODINEMA, a word used by some old medical writers to express a heaviness of the head.

To SCOFF, *v. n.* [*schoppen*, Teut. probably from the Greek σκωπτω, to treat with insolent language or ridicule.] To treat with insolent ridicule; to treat with contumelious language: with *at*.

Such is love,
And such the laws of his fantastic empire,
The wanton boy delights to bend the mighty,
And *scoffs at* the vain wisdom of the wise. *Rowe.*

To SCOFF, *v. a.* To jeer; to treat with scoffs.—To *scoff* religion, is ridiculously proud and immodest. *Glanville.*

SCOFF, *s.* Contemptuous ridicule; expression of scorn; contumelious language.—Our answer therefore to their reasons is no; to their *scoffs*, nothing. *Hooker.*

With *scoffs* and scorns, and contumelious taunts,
In open market place produc'd they me. *Shakspeare.*

SCO'FFER, *s.* Insolent ridiculer; saucy scorner; contumelious reproacher.

Sell what you can; you are not for all markets:
Cry the man mercy, love him, take his offer;
Foul is the most foul, being found to be a *scoffer*.
Shakspeare.

SCO'FFINGLY, *adv.* In contempt; in ridicule.—Aristotle applied this hemistich *scoffingly* to the sycophants at Athens. *Broome.*

SCOGGERBAR, a village of England, in Cumberland, near the sea.

To SCOLD, *v. n.* [*schelden*, Teut. *schelten*, *schaelten*, Germ. *skaella*, Swed. to bark, to rail.] To quarrel clamorously and rudely.

Pardon me, 'tis the first time that ever
I'm forc'd to *scold*. *Shakspeare.*

To SCOLD, *v. a.* To rate.—She *scolded* her husband one day out of doors. *Howell.*

SCOLD, *s.* A clamorous, foul-mouthed woman.

Sun-burnt matrons mending old nets;
Now singing shrill, and scolding oft between;
Scolds answer foul-mouthed *scolds*. *Swift.*

A common scold, *Communis rixatrix*, in Law, is deemed a public nuisance to her neighbourhood; for which offence she may be indicted (Mod. 213.); and if convicted, shall be sentenced to be placed in a certain engine of correction, called the trebucket, castigatory, or cucking-stool, which, in the Saxon language, is said to signify the scolding stool; though now it is frequently corrupted into ducking-stool, because the residue of the judgment is, that when she is so placed therein, she shall be plunged in the water thrice, as some say, for her punishment. 1 Hawk. P. C. 198. 200. 3 Inst. 219.

SCO'LDER, *s.* [Teut. *schelder*.] One who scolds or rails.—Whether any be brawlers, slanderers, chiders, *scolders* and sowers of discord between one person and another. *Abp. Cranmer.*

SCOLDINGLY, *adv.* With rude clamour; like a scold. *Huloet.*

SCOLE, or OSMONDSTON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 2 miles from Diss.

SCOLECIA, in the Materia Medica of the ancients, a name given to a kind of verdigris.

Of this there were two species; the one found native in the earth, the other fictitious.

SCOLEX, a genus of the Vermes Intestina, class and order. The Generic Character is—body gelatinous, variously shaped, broadish on the fore-part, and pointed behind; sometimes linear and long, sometimes wrinkled and short, round, flexuous or depressed; the head is protractile and retractile.

1. Scolex pleuronectidis.—Head with four auricles. It is found in the intestinal mucus of the turbot, plaise, sole, gwinniad, and lump-fish. It is rarely visible to the naked eye. Head pellucid, with two oblong shining red dots behind; the auricles plaited in various forms; the neck is pellucid, short, with a lunate margin, which is red while the worm is in a living state.

2. Scolex lophii.—This is found in the intestinal mucus of the lophius piscatorius. The body is minute, and hardly visible to the naked eye, and is generally supposed to be a variety of the last.

SCOLIA, in Entomology, a genus of insects of the order hymenoptera. The Generic Character is as follows: mouth with a curved sharp mandible, crenate within; jaw compressed, projecting, entire, and horny; tongue inflected and trifid, very short; the lip is projecting, membranaceous at the tip, and entire; the feelers are four, equal, short and filiform, situated in the middle of the lip; antennæ thick and filiform, the first joint longer than the rest. There are thirty-nine species described in the Systema Naturæ.

1. Scolia atrata.—Hairy, black; wings ferruginous, tipt with violet.—It is an inhabitant of the South American islands,

islands. The antennæ of the male are long and cylindrical; of the female short and incurved; the abdomen is ovate, sessile.

2. Scolia nigrita.—The species is black; the wings are white, with a black rib.—It inhabits Africa.

3. Scolia quadri-maculata.—Hairy, black; abdomen with fulvous spots.—It inhabits North America. The abdomen is oblong; the second and third segments are marked with two round yellow spots; the edges of the segments are ciliate; the wings are brown, with a violet gloss.

4. Scolia flavifrons.—Black; front yellow; abdomen with four yellow spots.—It is an European insect. The antennæ are black or ferruginous; the front is yellow, with a brown spot in the middle; the thorax is black, with two yellow dots on the scutel.

5. Scolia sex-maculata.—Hairy, black; the abdomen is marked with three pair of yellow spots.—This is found in divers parts of Italy. The eyes have a yellow spot before and behind; the wings of the male are testaceous, tipt with blue.

6. Scolia hæmorrhoidalis.—Hairy, black; abdomen with two yellow bands; fore part of the thorax and tail with ferruginous hairs.—It inhabits Saxony. The wings are subtestaceous, tipt with brown.

7. Scolia rubiginosa.—This is black; the third segment of the abdomen with two fulvous spots; the hind ones with ferruginous hair; the tail is three-toothed.—It inhabits the East Indies. The wings are blue.

8. Scolia ruficornis.—Black; antennæ fulvous; wings blue. This is an African insect, and found in Senegal. It is of a large size; the first joint of the antennæ is black.

9. Scolia variegata.—Black; spotted with yellow; the first segment of the abdomen is yellow; the second, third, fourth and fifth, with two yellow spots; the rest immaculate; the tail is three-toothed.—It inhabits Cayenne, and is large. The antennæ are black; the head and lips are yellow; the thorax is black spotted.

10. Scolia bimaculata.—This insect is hairy and black; the abdomen is marked with two yellow spots; the antennæ are yellow.—It inhabits North America and Spain. The first joint of the antennæ is black; the wings are tipt with brown.

11. Scolia ciliata.—Black; segments of the abdomen with a ciliate fulvous margin.—Inhabits Spain. This is a large insect; the legs are black, covered with golden hair.

12. Scolia aurea.—This is a hairy insect, of a ferruginous colour; the head is black; the wings dusky.—It inhabits Barbary. Tail entire.

13. Scolia ferruginea.—This also is a hairy insect, and of a ferruginous colour; the wings are tipt with brown.—It inhabits New Holland. A specimen is preserved in Sir Joseph Banks's museum. The wings are ferruginous; the body is covered with ferruginous hair.

14. Scolia scutellata.—Black; the thorax is fulvous, and slightly toothed behind; the abdomen is marked with four fulvous spots. It is found at Naples, and is the size of the last. The thorax is black before, and fulvous behind; the margin is nearly five-toothed; all the legs are black.

15. Scolia radula.—Black, hairy; the abdomen is marked with four yellow bands.

16. Scolia tridens.—This also is black, but the abdomen has three yellow bands; the tail is three-toothed.—It inhabits Italy. Fore-lobe of the thorax is yellow on each side.

17. Scolia hortorum.—Black; abdomen with two yellow bands; the wings are ferruginous, tipt with blue.—It is found chiefly in Spain.

18. Scolia unifasciata.—Hairy, black; abdomen with a yellow band: wings ferruginous at the base, and brown at the tip.—This is found in Barbary, as is the next.

19. Scolia maura.—Deep black; wings blackish, but the tips are paler; tail three-toothed.

20. Scolia collaris.—Hairy and black; the crown, fore part of the thorax, and two bands on the abdomen, are cinereous.—It inhabits Spain. The wings are of a deep black.

21. Scolia quini-fasciata.—Hairy: abdomen blue, with five yellow bands; the tail is three-toothed.—It inhabits Africa. Sir Joseph Banks has a specimen. The antennæ are black; the head and thorax are downy and cinereous: the wings are brownish; the legs are of a hairy brown; the fore-shanks are yellow without.

22. Scolia bi-cincta.—Hairy, black; abdomen with yellow bands; the wings are of a blackish-blue colour.—It inhabits America. The second abdominal band is sometimes interrupted.

23. Scolia notata.—Black; abdomen with two yellow bands, the first with a black dot on each side.—It inhabits Italy. The head is marked with two yellow spots on the front, the lateral ones lunate; the abdomen is marked with a pair of small yellow dots behind the bands; the wings are blue.

24. Scolia quini-cincta.—Cinereous, hairy; the fore-edge of the thorax and scutel yellow; abdomen blue, with five yellow bands; the tail is three-toothed.—It inhabits Italy, and resembles the quini-fasciata.

25. Scolia verticalis.—Hairy and black; the crown is fulvous.—It is a native of New Holland. A specimen of this, and also of the next, exists in the museum of Sir Joseph Banks. The crown has three stemmata; the wings blueish.

26. Scolia quadri-pustulata.—Black; abdomen with four rufous dots; the wings are blue.—It inhabits Malabar.

27. Scolia quini-punctata.—Black; abdomen rufous in the middle, the tip black, with five white dots.—It is a native of Germany, and small. The antennæ petiolate; the head with a small white dot in the orbits; the thorax is marked with a white dot on each side; the abdomen with five white dots, the middle ones very small; the legs are short.

28. Scolia octo-guttata.—Black; abdomen with two transverse white dots; the wings are black.—It is found chiefly in Spain, on the Allium cepa.

29. Scolia quadri-guttata.—Black; abdomen with four white dots; the wings are hyaline.—It inhabits Germany. The antennæ are ferruginous beneath; the head is black; the front white.

30. Scolia sex-guttata.—Black; the abdomen is marked with six white dots; the wings are hyaline.—It inhabits Germany, and is small. The wings are white, with a black costal dot.

31. Scolia prisma.—Black; abdomen with three yellow bands, the first and last interrupted, and a small yellow dot at the tail.—This is a small insect, and a native of Saxony.

32. Scolia quadri-punctata.—Black; abdomen with four white dots; wings ferruginous, tipt with brown.—This is found chiefly in Italy, and is small. The body is hairy; the abdomen is marked with two dots.

33. Scolia sex-cincta.—Black, spotted with yellow; abdomen black, with six yellow streaks—It is a native of the South American islands. The head is black, and tip ferruginous; thorax black, spotted with yellow; the legs are ferruginous.

34. Scolia interrupta.—Black, with cinereous hair; abdomen black, with six yellow bands, the three upper ones interrupted; the tail is three-toothed.—This is an Italian insect. Lip with a yellow line on each side at the base; the thorax is marked with three yellow dots on the scutel; the fourth band of the abdomen with a black dot on each side; the legs are black; the four fore-shanks yellow above; wings whitish, the rib of the upper pair ferruginous.

35. Scolia senilis.—Cinereous-hairy; tail five-toothed and brown.—It is a native of Barbary. Lip yellow, with a black spot in the middle; the wings are hyaline, with a ferruginous rib.

36. Scolia

36. Scolia septem-cincta.—Cinereous-hairy; the abdomen is blueish, with seven yellow bands; the tail is three-toothed.—It is found in New Holland. A specimen is in the museum of Sir Joseph Banks. The tail has a short recurved sting; the wings are brown.

37. Scolia cylindrica.—This is a black insect; the edge of the segments of the abdomen and lateral dot near the edge are yellow.—It inhabits Italy. In the yellow lateral dot is a small black one; the legs are black; the fore-shanks yellow; the sting short and recurved.

38. Scolia bifasciata.—Black; the scutel and the two dots on the thorax are ferruginous; the abdomen is marked with two interrupted ferruginous bands.—It is a native of New York.

39. Scolia vespiformis.—This is ferruginous: the five segments of the abdomen are black on the fore part; wings are of a dirty yellow, with a black base and tip.—It inhabits China.

SCOLIA, or Songs of the Ancient Greeks. See Music.

SCOLIASIS, in Surgery, a distortion of the spine. *Obsolete.*

SCOLION, among the Ancients, a kind of bacchanal song used at entertainments.

SCO'LLOP, [written properly *scallop.*] A pectinated shell-fish.

SCOLOPAX, in Ornithology, a genus of birds of the order grallæ. This genus is characterized by a roundish bill, which is obtuse and longer than the head; the nostrils are linear; the face covered; the feet are four-toed, the hind toe consisting of many joints. There are about fifty species enumerated by Gmelin, which are scattered over different parts of the globe; of these, fifteen, as will be found, belong to our own country. This genus includes the curlews, the snipes, woodcocks, godwits, whimbrels, and green and yellow shanks.

1. Scolopax Guarauna, or Brasilian whimbrel.—Bill arched, yellowish; legs brown; head brown, streaked with white.—This is a native of South America, and is twenty-one inches long. The bill is brown, with a yellow base; feathers of the head and neck brown, with a whitish edge; the back and body beneath chestnut; shoulders, wing-coverts, rump and tail brown, with a green gloss; quill-feathers brown, the outer edge glossy green.

2. Scolopax Borealis, or Esquimaux curlew.—Bill and legs black; the body is brown, spotted with grey, beneath pale ochre.—This inhabits the moist and inundated meadows of Hudson's Bay; it is less than the common curlew: it feeds on worms and berries.

3. Scolopax Africana, or Cape curlew.—Bill arched, blackish-brown; legs brown; body cinereous, beneath it is white, and the breast is marked with rusty spots.—This inhabits the Cape of Good Hope, and is the size of a snipe. The face and rump are white; the edges of the wings are white mixed with grey; the quill-feathers are brown, with white shafts; the secondary wing-coverts tipt with white.

4. Scolopax pygmæa, or pigmy curlew.—Arched bill and legs black; the body is varied with ferruginous, brown and white; beneath it is white.—It is sometimes found in this country, though not at all common: it is the size of a lark; the rump is white; the quill and outer tail-feathers are edged with white.

5. Scolopax Madagascarensis, or Madagascar curlew.—Arched bill and legs reddish; the back with brown rhomboid spots.—It inhabits Madagascar: in its size and appearance it resembles the arquata, except that the bill is less arched; the chin is white; and the spots on the body are more distinct.

6. Scolopax arquata, or common curlew.—Bill arched, blackish; legs blueish; wings blackish, with snowy spots.—This species inhabits moist and fenny places in our own country, and in divers parts of Europe, Asia and Africa, in flocks; it feeds on worms and marsh insects; lays four eggs; it is of an olive colour, with brown spots; the flesh is very good. It is also described as having the lower mandible reddish at the base; the body above and breast are marked with dusky-brown streaks; the chin, rump, belly and vent white; the quill-feathers are black; within spotted with white; the legs are blueish; toes flat and broad, and it is nearly two feet long. There is a variety which is varied with rufous and black; beneath pale rufous; the legs are black; the wings are black, with reddish spots. It inhabits North America. The body is less; and the bill longer than those of the other.

7. Scolopax Luzoniensis, or Luzonian curlew.—This species is white; the head and neck with black streaks; the belly and tail with black bands; the back is brown, with white spots; the crown is black.—It inhabits Luzonia, and is less than the last.

8. Scolopax Tahitiensis, or Otaheite curlew.—The bill of this is brown, reddish at the base; legs blue-grey; crown brown; eye-brows pale; body reddish-white, with dusky streaks and spots; the back is black, waved with white.—This, as its trivial name denotes, inhabits Otaheite; it is twenty inches long. The quill-feathers are dusky, with paler edges; the tail is of a dirty yellow near the base, with spots, the rest with dusky bars.

9. Scolopax leucocephala, or white-headed curlew.—The bill in this is red; legs black, cinereous; head and neck white; the body is blue; and the quill-feathers black.—This is a native of the Cape of Good Hope.

10. Scolopax phæopus, or whimbrel.—The bill of this is arched and black; the legs are blueish; the back is marked with rhomboid brown spots; the rump is white; lower mandible reddish at the base; the body above and breast are brownish, with dusky brown streaks; the chin, rump, belly and vent are white; the tail is brown, with dusky bars; the quill-feathers are black, spotted with white on the inside. It is about half the size of the common curlew, but agreeing with it in appearance and habits. Although found in this country, it is rare.

11. Scolopax Hudsonica, or Hudsonian curlew.—Bill black; legs blue; body brown, spotted with white; the belly is white; the crown is of a chesnut-brown colour, with a longitudinal white line in the middle.—It inhabits Hudson's Bay; is the size of the last. The eye-brows are white, and the rump is the colour of the back.

12. Scolopax fusca, or dusky snipe.—Bill bent in at the tip; body black, waved with white; the rump and wings beneath are white.—It inhabits the north of Europe, and is twelve inches long. It migrates; the bill is black; the legs are brown; the lower part of the back and rump are white; the quill-feathers are brown, spotted with grey; the tail-feathers are brown, transversely streaked with white.

13. Scolopax cancrea, or Terek snipe.—The hill of this species is black; the legs are reddish-brown; the body cinereous, beneath white; wings with a whitish transverse band.—This is about the Caspian sea, is nine inches long, and gregarious; the bill is a little recurved, and black; throat and breast streaked with cinereous; the feathers are brown in the middle; the first quill-feathers brown; secondary cinereous.

14. Scolopax subarquata.—This has an arched bill, and black; head, neck, and spurious wings brown, waved with pale rusty; the body above is cinereous, beneath pale and rusty; the chin, vent and rump, are white.—It inhabits the Caspian sea, and is about eight inches long. In this species the lower mandible is the shorter of the two; the tongue is long, arrow-shaped, entire; the eyes are brown; the orbits whitish; lores brown; the rump and vent are marked with brown spots; the tail is rounded, and of a brown-ash colour.

15. Scolopax incana, or ash-coloured snipe.—Bill black; legs yellowish-green; the body is cinereous; spot behind the bill and eyes, chin, throat and middle of the belly, white.—This is a native of Palmerston island, and is eleven inches long; the bill is a little incurved at the tip; the chin is marked with brown stripes.

16. Scolopax

16. Scolopax grisea, or brown snipe.—The bill, legs, wing-coverts and quill-feathers, brown, the head, neck and shoulders are brown-ash, spotted with black; the back and belly are white.—It inhabits the sea-coasts of New York, and is eleven inches long; the band between the bill and eyes, and stripe on each side above the eyes, white; the secondary quill-feathers edged with white; the breast is varied with white and brown; tail and rump with black and white lines; the back toe is high and long.

17. Scolopax noveboracensis, or red-breasted snipe.—This is varied with black, cinereous, and red; the back and belly are white; wings cinereous; the tail is barred with white and black.—It is a native of New York. The bill and legs are brown; the fore-part of the neck is ferruginous, with black spots.

18. Scolopax nigra, or black snipe.—The bill and legs of this are red; the body is black.—This species inhabits the islands of the northern countries of Asia and America.

19. Scolopax nutans, or nodding snipe.—The bill is black; the legs greenish; the body cinereous; crown and upper part of the back dusky red, streaked; lower white, spotted with black.—This species inhabits Labrador, and is seen continually nodding its head. The cheeks are cinereous, streaked with black; the neck and breast mixed with cinereous and rusty, with dusky spots; the belly is white; the lesser wing-coverts cinereous, greater dusky edged with brown; the quill-feathers are dusky, the secondary tipt with white; the tail with black and white lines, and reddish at the tip.

20. Scolopax flavipes, or yellow shank.—Bill black; legs yellow; body whitish, spotted with black; the throat and breast varied with black and white; the belly and tail-coverts are white.—This is found at New York in the autumn of the year, and is eleven inches long; the bill is a little bent at the tip; the lesser wing-coverts are brown; primary quill-feathers dusky; the tail is marked with brown and white lines.

21. Scolopax melanoleuca, or stone snipe.—Bill black; legs yellow; body varied with black and white.—It inhabits, during the autumn, the sandy shores of Labradore, and is twice as large as the Scolopax gallinago, to be hereafter described: this is perpetually nodding its head. The tail and rump are marked with black and white lines; the primary quill-feathers are dusky.

22. Scolopax semi-palmata, or semi-palmated snipe.—Semi-palmate; legs and bill dusky; the head and neck are streaked black and white; the breast is white, dotted with black; the back is cinereous, with black arrow-shaped spots.—This inhabits New York. It is fourteen inches long; the belly is white; the flanks are white, with transverse black lines; the primary quill-feathers are dusky, with an oblique white band; the secondary are white; the middle tail-feathers cinereous, with black lines; the outer ones are white.

23. Scolopax rusticola, or woodcock.—Bill straight, reddish at the base; legs cinereous; thighs covered; the head has a black band on each side. Four varieties are noticed by Gmelin:—1. Body white. 2. Very pale straw-colour. 3. Head reddish; body white; wings brown. 4. The body is spotted; the wings are snowy. It is fifteen inches long, lays four or five eggs, rusty, with brown spots; the flesh, and even the intestines, are good.—The woodcock is reckoned very fine food, and is found in this country, and other northern parts of Europe, Asia and Africa. In the summer these birds retreat, in France, to the loftier mountains, and those of our own country towards the mountainous regions of Norway and Sweden. Few birds are more widely scattered over the whole continent than the woodcocks. They are found in great plenty as far south as Smyrna and Aleppo; and in the same season in Barbary, where the Africans call them, from their uncouth shapes, the asses of the partridge. Towards the East they are found as far as Japan, where they are common. In the summer, they are found in Canada and Cape Breton in such numbers, as renders it highly probable that the greater part of those that frequent Great Britain and Ireland come from that quarter of the globe. On the west of Scotland they are far more numerous than on the east, and on the western coast of Ireland the observation is still more just. They arrive there in such vast quantities, and are so completely exhausted by their long flight, that they may sometimes be taken by the hand.

Both in its native country, and during its migrations, the woodcock feeds upon small worms, which it obtains by means of its long bill in soft ground and moist woods. When these birds migrate, they generally fly in flocks, and take the advantage of the night, or of cloudy weather. They are, in some respects, night birds, for they feed most busily in the evening, and then their flights are most distant and rapid. Their nests are carelessly constructed of small twigs mixed with withered grass, built generally on the ground, at the root of a tree, and in them are found four or five white eggs, of a brownish-grey, marbled with deeper spots of the same colour. The young run as soon as they leave the shell, and fly when they have scarcely any other feathers than those of their wings.

24. Scolopax minor, or little woodcock.—Bill straight; legs brownish; front cinereous; hind-head black, with four transverse yellowish lines; chin white; body above black, waved with tawnyish; beneath yellow.—It inhabits America; is nearly a foot long; the flesh is reckoned a great delicacy. The lower mandible is much the shorter; from the bill to the eyes is a dusky line; the greater wing-coverts are marked with black and red angular lines, the inner are ferruginous; primary quill-feathers dusky; the tail is black, with a brown tip.

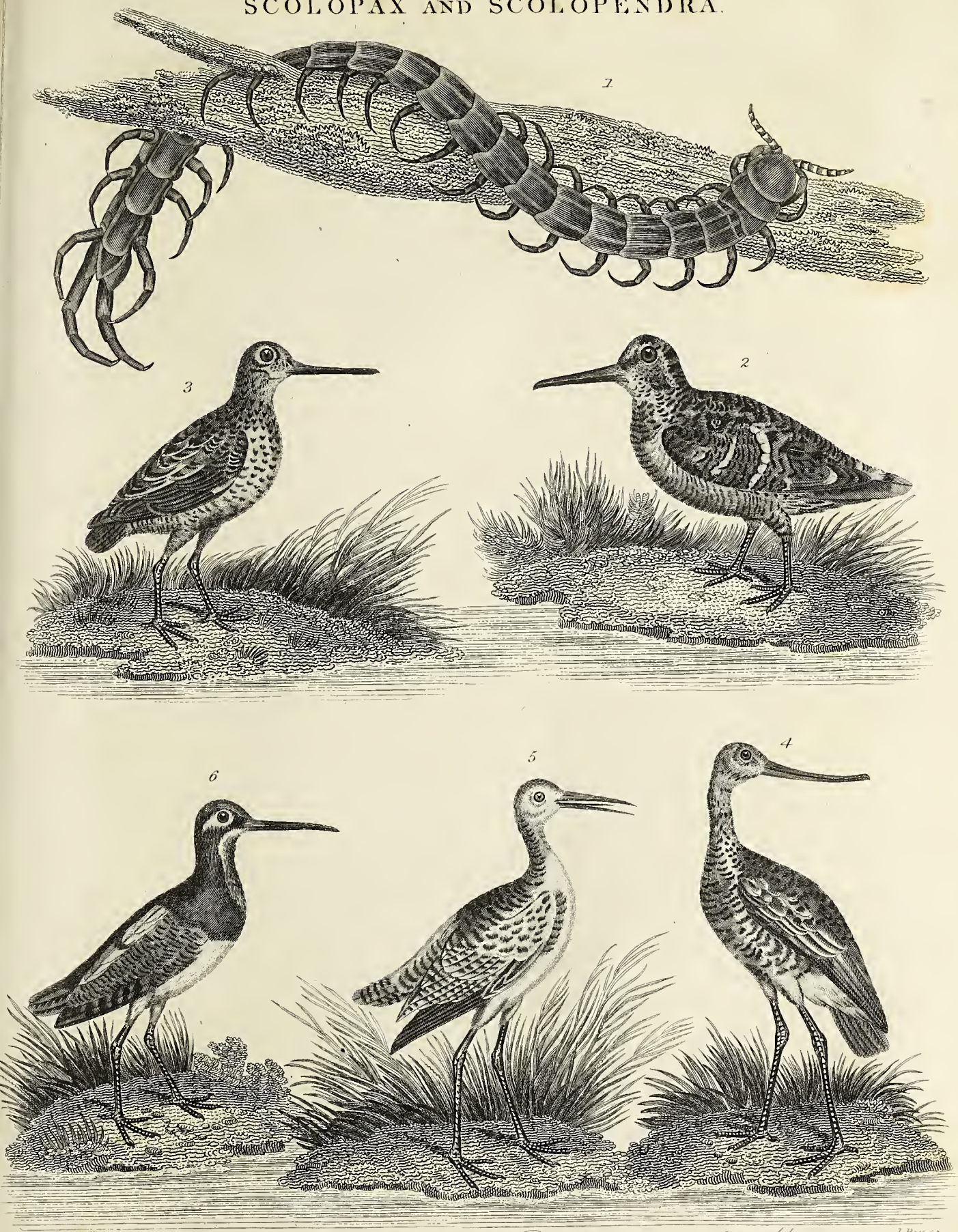
25. Scolopax paludosa, or savanna woodcock.—Bill and legs brown; lores and eye-brows black; the body is black, varied with rufous above, beneath with whitish.—It inhabits the savannas of Cayenne. The body beneath is varied with black spots.

26. Scolopax major, or great snipe.—Of this the legs and crown are black; the latter with a pale divided line down the middle, a pale streak above and beneath the eyes; the body varied above, white beneath; the bill like that of the woodcock; the lower feathers of the body, except the middle of the belly, edged with black; quill-feathers dusky; tail-feathers reddish, and, excepting the two middle ones, with black lines. It sometimes is found to weigh eight ounces; it is sixteen inches long.—It inhabits Siberia.

27. Soclopax Cayennensis, or Cayenne snipe.—Bill dusky, with a reddish base; the legs are brown; the body above ashy-brown, spotted with yellow; beneath it is white.—It inhabits Cayenne, and is thirteen inches long. The greater wing-coverts are whitish, the lower ones varied with a dusky kind of white; the quill-feathers are brown, the base, and some at the tip, are white; the throat is a little spotted; the rump is white, the tail is marked with dusky lines and tip.

28. Scolopax gallinago, or common snipe.—Bill straight, tuberculate; legs brown; body varied with blackish and tawny; beneath it is white; the front is marked with four brown lines. The weight of this species is seldom more, or indeed so much, as four ounces, though the whole length is about twelve inches.—It is met with in marshy situations in almost every part of the world, and is, in some seasons, rather plentiful in our own island. When there is very much rain, and for a long continuance, it resorts to the hills, but in general it is found in marshy grounds, where it can penetrate with its bill in quest of worms. Some few remain with us the whole year, and breed in marshes and bogs. The nest is formed of the materials, easily supplied by the neighbourhood, such as coarse grass, or heath; it is placed on a dry spot near a swampy place; the eggs, like those of the lapwing, being much pointed, are invariably placed with their smaller ends inwards. In the breeding season the snipe changes its note entirely. The male will keep on the wing for an hour together, mounting like a lark, uttering a shrill piping noise, and then descend with great velocity, making a bleating

SCOLOPAX AND SCOLOPENDRA.



J. Pass sc.

1. Scolopendra morsitans. 2. Scolopax Rusticola. 3. S. Major.
4. S. Lapponica. 5. S. Candida. 6. S. Capensis.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1826.

a bleating sound, something like that of an old goat, which is alternately repeated round the spot possessed by the female, especially while she is sitting upon her nest. The young will run off almost immediately after they are freed from the shell; but the parent bird attends them till their bills have acquired a sufficient firmness to enable them to provide for themselves. When undisturbed in its retreat, the snipe walks leisurely, with its head erect, and it keeps moving the tail at short intervals. It is, however, rarely observed in this state of tranquillity, being extremely watchful, and perceiving the sportsman, or his dog, at a great distance, and then concealing itself, or, as it happens more frequently, springing and taking flight beyond the reach of the gun. When first disturbed, it utters a feeble whistle, and generally flies against the wind. From its vigilance and manner of flying, which is in a zig-zag direction, it is extremely difficult to shoot. It is very highly esteemed, and indeed very delicious food, and though usually very fat, it rarely disagrees even with the weakest stomach.

29. Scolopax gallinaria, or Finmark snipe.—The bill of this species is straight and tuberculate; the legs are yellow; the head is grey, and the body is variegated.—It inhabits, as its trivial name denotes, Finmark.

30. Scolopax gallinula, or jack-snipe.—The bill in this species is straight, tuberculate; the body is variegated; the legs are greenish; the lores are brown; the rump is varied with violet.—It is found in various parts of Europe, Asia and America, and is eight or nine inches long. The bill is black; the body is variegated with testaceous, black, violet, and glossy green; the head is of a pale yellow, and black lines reaching from the bill to the hind head; the breast is spotted; the belly and vent are white.

31. Scolopax Belgica.—This is an inhabitant of the Netherlands. Its bill is very straight, tipt with black; the head, neck and breast are ferruginous; the belly is white; the back, wings, tail and legs are black. It feeds on land insects.

32. Scolopax obscura.—The bill of this species is straight and purple. The legs are of a flesh-colour; the head is cinereous; the quill-feathers are black-grey.—It inhabits the shores of the Caspian Sea.

33. Scolopax fedoa, or American godwit.—This is found in and about Hudson's bay, and is full sixteen inches long. The bill is tipt with black; the eye-brows are white; the lores are dusky; the cheeks and chin are white; the head and neck are varied with dusky and pale brown; the breast is marked with black lines; the belly is brown; the back and wing-coverts are varied with ferruginous and dusky; the quill-feathers are ferruginous without; the tail is marked with pale brown and black lines.

34. Scolopax glottis, or green-shank.—This inhabits Asia, America and Europe, and is fourteen inches long. The bill is black, the lower mandible bends a little upwards; the eye-brows and lower part of the back white; the head, neck and back pale cinereous; the shafts of the feathers are spotted with brown; the quill-feathers are dusky, spotted within with white; the tail is white, with dusky lines; the legs are very long. This species is sometimes found in small flocks, on our coasts in winter, as also in marshes and fens contiguous to the sea. Some few are supposed to remain with us all the summer, and to breed in our fens. The greater part, however, retire northward to breed, and are found in Sweden, Russia and Siberia. Their flesh, like that of the rest of the genus, is well-flavoured and reckoned good eating.

35. Scolopax calidris, or red-shank.—The bill is straight and red; the legs are scarlet; the secondary quill-feathers are white.—It inhabits Europe and America, and is twelve inches long. The bill is black towards the tip; the irides are of a reddish-hazel colour; the head and neck above are cinereous; the back and shoulders are of a greenish-brown; the wing-coverts cinereous, mixed with dusky brown and spotted with whitish; the secondary quill-feathers, except the two inner ones, are white towards the tip; the primary ones are dusky, the four or five inner ones are tipt with white; the lines over the eyes are white; between the bill and the eyes is a dusky spot; the chin and throat with short dusky streaks; the body beneath and the rump are white, with small dusky spots; the tail-feathers have each 12 or 13 transverse black lines. There is a variety of this species of which the body above is grey, beneath it is white; the neck beneath and side of the breast spotted with blackish; the rump and tail are barred with black and white.—It inhabits China. The calidris is common in many parts of England, in the fens: it lays four eggs; is of a solitary disposition, mostly seen alone.

36. Scolopax totanus, or spotted snipe; called also the red-legged godwit, or spotted red-shank.—This is blackish, with white spots; it is white beneath; the lines on the breast, and bands on the lateral tail-feathers, are blackish, and the legs are red.—It inhabits this country, and other parts of Europe; feeds on the smaller shell-fish and vermes. It is rather rare in this country.

37. Scolopax limosa, or lesser godwit.—Bill a little bent back, red at the base; the body is of a grey-brown, varied with rufous, beneath it is white, the quill-feathers are white at the base, the first four without spots; the tail is white at the base.—It inhabits Europe, and is seventeen inches long. It is gregarious, and is but seldom seen in Britain.

38. Scolopax Capensis, or Cape snipe.—The bill of this is straight, and with a line on the crown of a reddish colour; the band on the breast is black; the line on each side the back is white. Of this species there are said to be four other varieties:—1. Olive-green; neck black; crown and throat ferruginous; the orbits, scapulars and belly white; quill-feathers and tail with tawny spots. 2. This is waved with cinereous, grey and black; the head and neck are rufous; the orbits, chin, scapulars and belly white; the pectoral band and eye-brows black; wings and tail with yellow spots. 3. White; head and neck black, wings and back green; primary quill-feathers spotted with red. 4. The upper part is marked with black spots and lunules; the back is blueish; the wings are of a chesnut colour; the lower part of the breast is black; the cheeks, chin and belly white; orbits and line on the shoulders yellow.—They are all found at the Cape of Good Hope.

39. Scolopax Sinensis, or Chinese snipe.—This is variegated with blueish, brown, rufous and black; the eye-brows, line on the crown, chin and belly white.—It inhabits, as its name imports, China, and is about ten inches long.

40. Scolopax Madaraspatana, or Madras snipe.—The bill is reddish; the body above is varied with tawny and blackish; beneath it is white; the streak on the middle of the crown and each side the head black-brown; the throat is tawny, spotted with blackish.—It inhabits Madras.

41. Scolopax Indica, or white Indian snipe.—Bill and legs black; the body is of a dirty grey, waved with brownish; beneath whitish; the band across and beneath the eyes is grey.—It inhabits divers parts of the East Indies.

42. Scolopax lapponica, or red godwit.—The bill is a little recurved, yellowish; the legs are black, the body beneath reddish-rusty. In a variety of this species the head and neck are cinereous; the chin and belly are white.—It inhabits Europe and America, and is about eighteen inches long. Though found in this country, it is by no means common.

43. Scolopax ægocephala, or common godwit.—The bill is straight, reddish-yellow; the legs are greenish; the head and neck reddish; the three quill-feathers are black, with a white base.—This is found in many parts of Europe, Asia and Africa, as well as in this country. With us it continues the whole year, and resorts to the fens in spring for breeding. —In the winter it is found on our shores, particularly at the mouths of large rivers and inlets, where the mud and sand become bare at low water, where it feeds on insects. It is highly esteemed by epicures, and sells very high. It is caught in nets, to which it is allured by a stuffed bird in the same manner, and at the same season, as the ruffs and reeves.

44. Scolopax leucophæa, or godwit.—This is brown, edged with whitish; the neck is whitish, with small brown spots; the chin and belly are white, the quill-feathers are marked with black bands. The bill is a little turned up, brown with a purple base; the tail-feathers are white; the two middle ones wholly, the rest barred with brown on the outer side.—This species is found in many parts of Europe as well as in our country. They are all migratory, appearing in this island in September, and continuing the whole winter. They are taken in the fens of Lincolnshire with nets, and fattened for the London market with bread and milk, hemp-seed, &c.

45. Scolopax canescens, or cinereous godwit.—Legs long, cinereous; head, neck and back varied with cinereous and white; the chin and breast are white, and spotted with ash. Found chiefly in Lincolnshire.

46. Scolopax Cantabrigiensis, or Cambridge godwit.—Legs orange; the bill is red; the body above is of a brown-ash colour; beneath it is white; the wing-coverts and tail feathers barred with black.—This is found chiefly in Cambridgeshire.

47. Scolopax candida, or white red-shank.—Straight, bill and legs orange; the body is whitish; tail-feathers white, barred with grey.—This inhabits Hudson's bay, and is eleven inches long.

48. Scolopax curonica.—This is spotted with grey; the wings and bill are blackish; the lower mandible, from the base to the middle, scarlet; the legs are of a brick-dust colour.

49. Scolopax marmorata, or marbled godwit.—This is variegated with blackish and pale rufous spots; the middle of the belly, eye-brows, and chin whitish; the breast is waved with brown; quill-feathers reddish, the first four without are tipt with black.—This inhabits Hudson's bay, as does the next.

50. Scolopax Hudsonica, or Hudsonian godwit.—Brown, with white spots, beneath rusty chesnut, with brown bars; the eye-brows, chin, rump and base of the tail white. Of this species the bill and legs are blackish; the tail is short and black, with a white base.

SCOLOPAX, in Ichthyology, a species of CENTRISCUS; which see.

SCOLOPENDRA, a genus of insects of the order Aptera: the Generic Character is—antennæ setaceous; feelers two, filiform and united between the jaws; lip toothed and cleft; body long, depressed, consisting of numerous transverse segments: the legs are numerous; there are as many on each side as there are segments of the body. There are thirteen species, scattered over different parts of the globe; three of which are common to this country. In the Latin language they have obtained the name of *centipes*, from the number of their feet or legs: one of the species has literally a hundred legs on each side, for so numerous are the segments into which their bodies are divided. Of this hideous race, some live beneath the bark of decayed trees, or are found below stones and garden boxes; others inhabit fresh and salt waters: and they are all remarkable for the quickness of their motions; they prey on other insects.

1. Scolopendra lagura.—This species has twelve legs on each side; the body is oval; the tail has a white pencil of hairs.—It inhabits Europe, under the bark of old trees. The body is brown; the head black; the sides with nine tufts of hairs.

2. Scolopendra coleoptera.—Legs long, and fourteen on each side; the body is scutellate.—It is found in many parts of Europe. The antennæ are yellow, as long as the body; the thighs are prickly; the shanks are rough.

3. Scolopendra forficata.—Legs fifteen on each side, the last longer than the rest, and turning backwards, from a forked tail; the body is of a dun colour, smooth, and composed of nine scaly segments, without reckoning the head. —It is found in divers parts of Europe and America, as well as in this country, generally under stones and flower-pots.

4. Scolopendra gigantea.—Legs seventeen on each side; tail with two hooked styles.—This is an American insect.

5. Scolopendra morsitans.—The legs are twenty on each side; the eyes are eight in number.—It inhabits various parts of the East Indies. This is said to be the most venomous of the whole tribe.

6. Scolopendra ferruginea.—Legs twenty-two on each side; the body is ferruginous.—It inhabits Africa. The body is divided into twenty segments; the legs are of a pale yellow.

7. Scolopendra dorsalis.—Legs thirty on each side; the body is brown, with a ferruginous dorsal line.—It inhabits Tranquebar, and is a large insect.

8. Scolopendra clypeata.—This has thirty legs on each side; the body is brown and rough; the head shielded. —This is also found in Tranquebar, and is less than the dorsalis. The body is divided into sixteen narrow segments, which are substriate and rough, with raised dots; the head is covered with a rounded entire shield; the antennæ are short and pale; the tail is emarginate; the legs are pale.

9. Scolopendra electrica.—This species has seventy legs on each side; the body is linear.—It inhabits Europe, and our own country, in decayed wood, and shines in the dark. The body is very flat, tawny, with a black line down the back.

10. Scolopendra phosphorea.—This has seventy-six legs on each side.—It is an Asiatic insect, and shines like a glow-worm in the dark: it has been known to fall from the air into a vessel sailing on the Indian ocean, a thousand miles from any land. The head is ovate, yellowish, with two grooved lines, and another transverse one; the antennæ are subulate and ferruginous, with fourteen articulations; the body is filiform, and about as thick as a goose-quill, purplish, with two parallel lines.

11. Scolopendra occidentalis.—This has one hundred and twenty-three legs on each side.—It inhabits America. The body is ferruginous; the antennæ have fourteen articulations.

12. Scolopendra gabrielis.—This species has one hundred and forty eight legs on each side; the body is yellowish.—It inhabits Italy, and is four times as large as the Scolopendra electrica. The antennæ are short; fourteen articulations; the tail is semi-oval, with an appendage and two short styles.

13. Scolopendra marina.—The number of legs in this species is doubtful; the body is pale, with a rufous dorsal line.—It inhabits the Atlantic Ocean. In shape it resembles, in a considerable degree, the leech: and it builds small edifices, of a brittle and porous texture, on the shore at low water. These little masses are composed of a number of small funnels, each having the aperture closed with a covering of sand, to protect the inhabitant from danger.

It is said that in the East Indies, and also in America, there are scolopendræ from four to six inches long, and as thick as the finger: when of this bulk, they appear truly hideous, and their bite, particularly in hot climates, is reckoned dangerous. Some of these animals are said to be without eyes, and to direct their course by means of two feelers, that extend beyond the head. It has been asserted too, that in some of them, when cut to pieces, the segments, like those of the polypi, are capable of reproducing entire animals, but the fact is not at all certain.

Dr. Peyssonel describes a marine scolopendra of very small bulk, and square figure, whose body and head were formed of eighty rings, and which had a power of occasionally throwing out its intestines. The four sides of this animal were armed with prickles, and every ring had four bundles of them, which are sometimes spread out like fans; those under the body served the insect as feet. These Scolopendræ being placed upon the fingers, thrust a great number of their prickles into the skin, and caused a sharp pain, resembling the effect of fire, of some continuance. Phil. Trans. vol. li. art. 6.

SCOLOPENDRA SCUTATA, the name of an animal of

of the insect kind, found in the year 1736, by Klein, in Prussia, and at the same time by Mr. Brown, in some parts of Kent.

It was met with in Prussia in vast abundance, in the places where they take cray-fish, and having not been met with there before, surprised the people employed in that fishery so much, that they brought home many of them.

In Kent, its appearance was attended with greater singularity. Mr. Brown found it in a pond on Bexley Common, where the country people had observed vast numbers of them for five or six weeks before. The pond was quite dry on the 24th of June that year, but being filled by the thunder shower on the 25th of the same month, the pond was observed to swarm with them in two days, by a farmer watering his cows there; and what is very remarkable is, that there appears no channel into this pond that could convey them from any other place.

The creature is about an inch and a half in length, and somewhat less than an inch in breadth, and though so small, yet bears a great resemblance, in many of its parts, to the great Molucca crab, called by some the *buckler crab*. When the back is viewed, it is seen to be covered with a case or shield, so that it in some measure resembles a tortoise, only it is remarkably gibbous, or prominent all along the middle of the back, and has a triangular opening in the shell near the tail. On the head it has two short horns, standing in the common place of the antennæ. When the case or shell is taken off, the rings on the body are found to be about thirty in number. The legs are very extraordinary; they are forty-two on each side; the twenty that stand next the head are nearly of the same size, but then they grow gradually smaller towards the tail. The feet consist each of five membranaceous claws; these are flat, and have a stiff rib in the middle, and are beset at the edges with hairs, in the manner of the legs of a crab. The whole structure of the legs seem calculated for swimming rather than walking. Philos. Trans. N° 447. p. 151.

SCOLOPENDRITES. See ECHINUS.

SCOLOPENDRITES LAPIS, a name given by some authors to a species of the *lapis syringoides*, or pipe-stone, the tubules of which they suppose to resemble the figure of the body of the scolopendra.

SCOLOPENDRIUM, a name applied by the ancients to several herbs, whose long hairy stems, or roots with numerous fibres, bore some resemblance to the insect called Σκολοπενδρα, *Scolopendra*, or forty-foot. It has remained with the fern called *Lingua Cervina*, or harts'-tongue, as a specific name, and is retained as a generic one for the same plant, on its being separated from *Asclenium*, by Sir J. Smith. See the Linnæan term ASCLEPIUM.

SCOLOPIA [Σκολοπια from σκολος, *a sharp stake*, or *thorn*, the same with σκολοπενδρα or σκολοπενδριον, the name of a plant in Threophrastus], in Botany, a genus of the class icosandria, order monogynia.—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, three or four-parted, permanent: segments ovate, obtuse, concave, spreading. Corolla: petals three or four, oblong, subcoriaceous, obtuse, spreading, permanent, twice the length of the corolla. Stamina: filaments numerous, filiform, flattish below, villose at the base, spreading, permanent, length of the corolla, inserted into the calyx. Anthers linear. Pistil: germ roundish, superior. Style cylindrical, straight, longer than the stamens. Stigma thickened, three-lobed, impressed above with three little pits. Pericarp: berry roundish, crowned with the permanent style, one-celled. Seeds six, rounded, four-sided, arilled. Arils membranaceous, thin, pulpy, angular, two fastened to three ribs, glued to the inner wall of the berry. The ribs easily separate from the berry, and are resolved into six unequal threads, from the apex of which the arils hang down.—*Essential Character.* Calyx inferior, three or four-parted. Corolla three or four petalled. Berry crowned with the style, one-celled, six-seeded. Seeds arilled.

Scolopia pusilla.—Berry elliptic-spheroidal, crowned with a short style, fleshy-coriaceous, divided within into three incomplete cells by three prominences. Pulp separated every way from the cells by a very thin membrane, and formed into three soft oblong bags, in which the seeds are lodged. There are generally two seeds in each bag, seldom three, placed on each other, obliquely and irregularly truncate at the point of contact, in other parts subovate, convex on one side, angular on the other, black, and somewhat shining.—Native of Ceylon, where it is called Khatu-Kurundu, or thorny cinnamon; whence we may conjecture that it resembles the cinnamon in leaves and outward appearance, but differs from it in having thorns.

SCOLOPOMACÆRIUM, in Surgery, an incision-knife.

SCOLOSANTHUS [from σκωλος, *a thorn*, and ανθος, *a flower*], in Botany, a genus of the class tetrandria, order monogynia, natural order of luridæ, rubiaceæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one leafed, superior, small, four-cleft: segments linear-lanceolate, four times shorter than the corolla, acute, spreading. Corolla: one-petalled with claws, tubular, before it opens exactly four-cornered, the angles acute, a little curved in, gradually widening upwards; when opened bluntly four-cornered. Border four-cleft: segments ovate, acute, revolute. Stamina: filaments four, erect, scarcely placed at the bottom of the corolla, cohering a little at the base in a four-cornered smooth tube, a little hairy below. Anthers linear, erect, the length of the tube. Pistil: germ inferior, small. Style capillary, a little longer than the corolla. Stigmas two, small, obtuse, a little thicker than the style. Pericarp: drupe sub-globular, size of black pepper, smooth, succulent, mucronate with the permanent calycine segments. Seed one, in an oblong, somewhat stony, one celled shell.—*Essential Character.* Calyx four-cleft. Corolla tubular with a revolute border. Drupe one-seeded.

Scolosanthus versicolor.—This is a small shrub, approaching in habit to Justicia spinosa. Branches round, alternately compressed at top, remote, commonly opposite, the thickness of a packthread, green with a tinge of ash-colour, appearing pubescent when examined by a magnifier, jointed, the internodes about half an inch in length; the joints surrounded by a sort of ring formed by the short evanescent membrane of the stipules. Leaves subsessile, opposite, from two to five on each side, scarcely half an inch long; obovate, entire, sub-coriaceous, veinless, nerveless, shining. Spines commonly in pairs, from each alternate axil, connate at the base, divaricating, a little longer than the leaf, purplish, often floriferous at one of the tips. They are the younger spines that commonly bear the flowers, and they keep growing on after the flowers are fallen. Flowers on very short peduncles: those from the apex of a spine solitary a little smaller, purple, abortive: others axillary, solitary or more rarely two or four together, erect, saffron coloured, fertile. Fruit snow-white.—Discovered in the island of Santa Cruz.

SCOLYMUS [of Pliny, Σκολυμος of Dioscorides and Hesiod], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia æqualis, natural order of compositæ semiflosculosæ, cichoraceæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx, common, imbricate, ovate: scales numerous, lanceolate, spiny, loose. Corolla, compound, imbricate, uniform: corollets hermaphrodite, numerous, equal.—Proper one-petalled, ligulate, linear, truncate, very finely five-toothed.—Stamina: filaments five, capillary, very short. Anther cylindrical, tubular. Pistil: germ oblong. Style filiform, longer than the stamens. Stigmas two, reflexed. Pericarp none. Calyx unchanged. Seeds solitary, somewhat oblong, triangular, acuminate at the base. Pappus none. Receptacle chaffy, convex: chaffs roundish, flat, three-toothed at the tip, longer than the seeds and separating them.—*Essential Character.* Calyx imbricate, spiny. Pappus none. Receptacle chaffy.

1. Scolymus maculatus, or annual golden thistle.—This plant rises with a branching stalk four or five feet high, having leafy wings running along the sides from joint to joint,

joint, scalloped and indented; the borders of these are thinner than the other parts, and are armed all the way with very sharp spines; at each joint are stiff leaves, which are jagged and armed with strong spines; they are pale-green and sessile. The flowers are produced at the top of the stalks, inclosed in leafy involucres, longer than the flowers, and armed with very strong spines: within these the calyxes are armed with short spines. The flowers are composed of many golden flowrets.—Native of the south of Europe, and of Barbary.

2. Scolymus Hispanicus, or perennial golden thistle.—Flowers heaped; involucres leafy, tooth-spiny; stalks rise about three feet high, branching out on the sides the whole length; in other respects much like the foregoing. This flowers the second year, and has a fusiform root.—Native of the south of Europe, and of Barbary.

3. Scolymus grandiflorus, or great-flowered golden thistle.—Flowers solitary, the upper ones approximating, involucres coriaceous, nerved, lanceolate, acute. Root perennial, fusiform, white, the thickness of a finger. The whole plant milky. Stem simple or very sparingly branched, winged: wings unequally tooth-sinuate: teeth spiny at the end. This is a very beautiful species, flowering early in spring, and now cultivated in the European gardens.—Native of Egypt, and very common in the fallows of Barbary. The Arabs eat the stalks both raw and boiled.

Propagation and Culture.—Sow the seeds in March or April, on a bed of fresh undunged earth, in an open situation; when the plants come up, keep them clear from weeds, and thin them so as to leave them about two feet asunder. As they send forth tap-roots, they do not bear transplanting well. If the season should prove warm and dry, they will perfect their seeds in autumn; but in wet seasons they rarely perfect their seeds in England. In that case fresh seeds must be procured from abroad: or the second and third may be increased by offsets.

SCOLYMUS, in Natural History, a species of MUREX; which see.

SCOLYTES, in Entomology, a species of BOSTRICHUS, which lodges under the bark of the elm, and is very destructive.

SCOMBER, the Mackarel, in Ichthyology, a genus of fishes of the order Thoracici, of which the Generic Character is—head compressed and smooth; body smooth; the lateral line carinate behind; between the dorsal fin and tail are frequently several spurious fins. There are twenty-two species, in three divisions, which are distinguished either by having or not having spurious fins; and those that have spurious fins are divided into those that have them distinct and connected.

I.—Spurious fins distinct.

1. Scomber, or common mackarel.—This has five spurious fins; is marked with numerous transverse black lines; and has a silvery abdomen.—This very beautiful fish is a native of the American seas, generally appearing at stated seasons, and swarming, in vast shoals, round particular coasts; but its great resort is within the arctic circle, where it resides in innumerable troops, grows to a larger size than elsewhere, and is supposed to find its favourite food, consisting chiefly of marine insects, in far greater plenty than in the warmer latitudes. In the severity of winter it is said to be imbedded in the soft mud, beneath the vast crusts of ice surrounding the polar coasts, being thus sufficiently protected from the effects of the frost; and on the return of spring, it is generally believed to migrate in enormous shoals, of many miles in length and breadth, and to visit the coasts of more temperate climates, in order to deposit the spawn. Its route has been described as similar to that of the herring, passing between Iceland and Norway, and proceeding towards the northern part of our island, where a part throws itself off into the Baltic, while the grand column passes downwards, and enters the Mediterranean through the straits of Gibraltar. It must, however, be noticed, that this theory is subject to dispute, and by some writers it is thought more probable that the shoals which appear in such abundance round the more temperate European coasts, in reality reside during the winter at no very great distance; immersing themselves in the soft bottom, and remaining in a state of torpidity, from which they are awakened by the warmth of the returning spring, and gradually recover their former activity. In proof of this theory, it is said that at their first appearance their eyes are observed to appear remarkably dim, as if covered with a kind of film, which passes off as the season advances, when they are seen in their full perfection of colour and vigour. The length of the mackarel is from ten to fifteen inches; but in the northern seas it is still larger: the colour of this fish, on the upper parts, as far as the lateral line, is a rich deep blue, accompanied by a varying tinge of green, and marked by numerous black, transverse streaks, which in the male are nearly straight, but in the female beautifully undulated; the jaws, the gill-covers, and abdomen, are of a bright silver-colour, with a slight varying cast of gold-green along the sides, which are generally marked by a row of long dusky spots; the scales are very small, oval, and transparent; the spurious fins are small, and five in number, both above and below. The shape of the mackarel is so elegant, as to be regarded as one of the most beautiful of European fishes. As an article of food, its value has been maintained through a long succession of ages. It was highly esteemed by the ancients, who prepared from it the particular sauce known to the Romans by the name of *garum* and which was made by salting the fish, and after a certain period straining the liquor from it. This preparation is now, and has been for a long time, superseded by the introduction of the anchovy for similar purposes. The garum is, however, still in fashion at Constantinople; it was formerly prepared from various kinds of fishes, but that procured from the mackarel was always deemed preferable: the best was said to be manufactured at Carthagena, vast quantities of mackarel being taken near an adjacent isle, called from that circumstance *scombraria*. The mackarel is easily snared by a variety of baits; but the capture is said to succeed best in a gentle gale of wind.

2. Scomber colias.—The body of this species is varied with fine green and blue.—It inhabits about the coasts of Sardinia. It is nearly allied to the common mackarel, but is smaller.

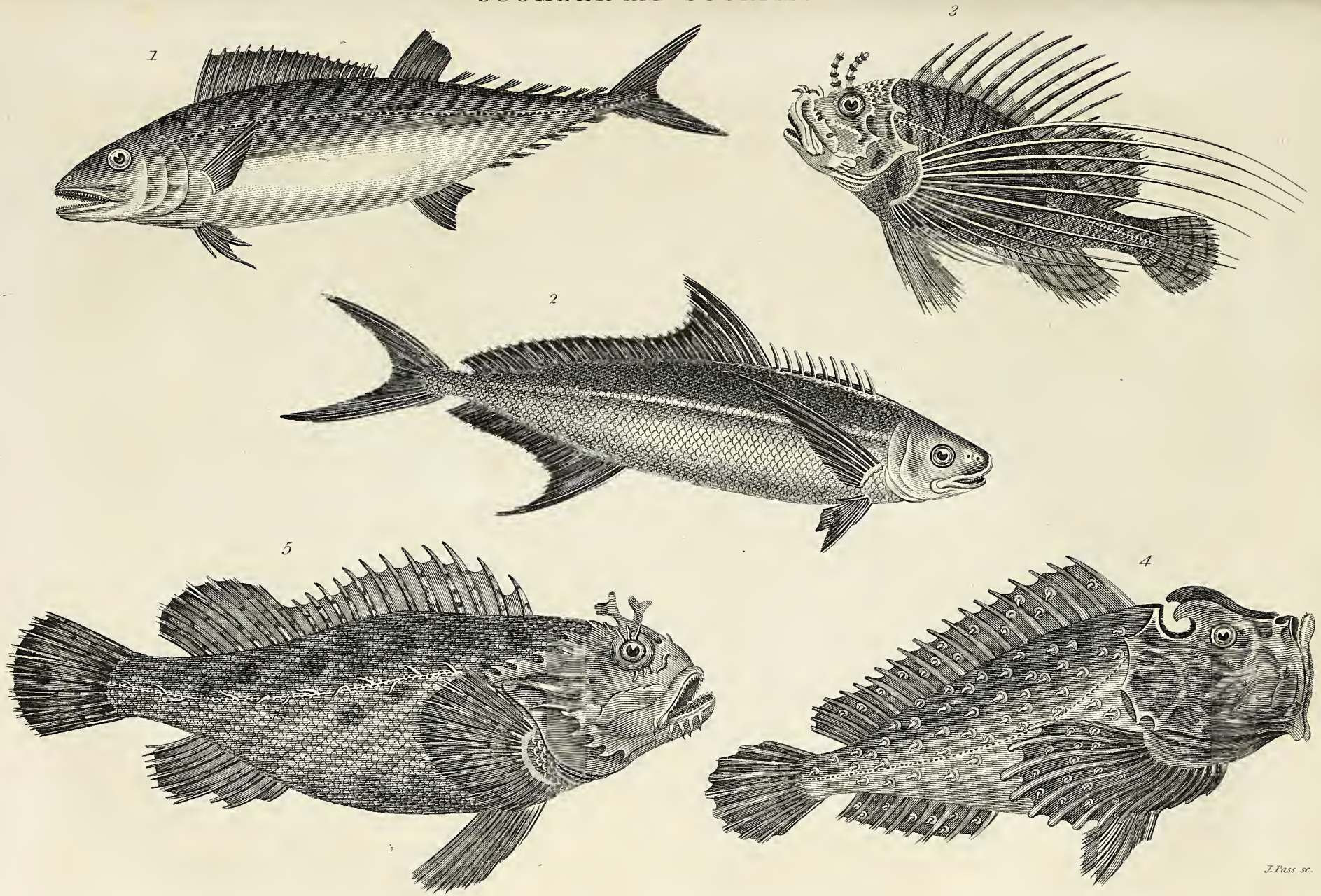
3. Scomber Japonicus, or blueish mackarel, with five spurious fins. It is also nearly allied to the common mackarel, so much so as to lead authors to doubt if it be a distinct species.—It inhabits near the Japan islands; is shaped more like a herring, and is not above eight inches long; the scales are very small; each jaw is ciliate with teeth, and the head is silvery.

4. Scomber auratus.—This is denominated the gold-coloured mackarel, with five spurious fins. It is very like the common mackarel, but differs in colour, as well as in the number of rays in the anal fin, which amounts to six only.—It is a native of the Japanese seas.

5. Scomber alatunga.—The pectoral fins are very small; it has seven spurious fins.—It inhabits the Mediterranean, appearing in considerable shoals, and is in high estimation as an article of food: it is periodical and migratory.

6. Scomber pelamis.—The spurious fins in this species are seven; the body has four black lines on each side.—It inhabits between the Tropics and the Atlantic.

7. Scomber thynnus, thunny, or tunny.—In this the spurious fins are from eight to eleven.—It is found in most seas, and is from two to ten feet long; the body is spindle-shaped and silvery; above it is of a steel-blue colour, and a little convex; it is extremely voracious, and swims with great velocity; it spawns in May or June, and periodically frequents the shores of the Mediterranean in vast shoals, swimming in a regular parallelogram, and making a prodigious hissing noise. It is an animal of great strength and fierceness, preying on all kinds of smaller fishes, and is said to be the peculiar persecutor of the mackarel and the flying-fish. Its flesh is coarse, but was much esteemed by the ancient Greeks



1. Scomber Sarda. 2. Scomber Niger. 3. Scorpæna antennata. 4. Scorpæna horrida. 5. Scorpæna Scrofa.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1826.

Greeks and Romans, who established their tunny fisheries, as in modern times, on many parts of the Mediterranean coasts, where this fish still continues to be taken in great plenty, more especially round the island of Sicily. In the British seas it is rarely observed in shoals; the individuals which occur being rather considered as accidental stragglers. In the Indian ocean this species is said to be seen of an enormous size, and to assemble in vast shoals. According to Pliny, the fleet of Alexander the Great was impeded in its progress by a shoal of tunnies, and so strongly wedged together, that he found it necessary to dispose his ships in battle array, in order to force through the opposing phalanx of fishes. The tunny fishery is of equal importance to the inhabitants of the countries on the Mediterranean coasts, as the herring fishery is to those of the more northern parts of Europe. The smaller fishes are chiefly sold fresh, while the larger are cut to pieces, salted, and barrelled up for sale.

The general colour of the tunny is a dark or dull blue on the upper parts, and silvery, with a cast of flesh-colour, on the sides and abdomen; the first dorsal fin and the tail are of a deep grey, the second, together with the pectoral, ventral, anal and spurious fins, yellow; the pectoral fins are of a lanceolate shape, and the tail pretty strongly lunated; the spurious fins vary in number, in different specimens, and consequently can afford no specific mark.

8. Scomber Cordyla.—In this the spurious fins are ten in number; the lateral line is mailed with bony plates.—It inhabits the American coasts; the body is compressed and broad.

9. Scomber fulvo-guttatus.—This has a single two-rayed spurious fin before the anal.—It is found on the Arabian coasts; the body is of a shining pale blue, with golden spots at the sides; the crown is hollow before the eyes; the iris is golden; from the head to the dorsal fin is a polished, naked, glaucous membrane; the lateral line is arched at the beginning; the first dorsal fin, when folded, is hid in a cavity; the ventral is approximate; the tail is very widely arched in an obtuse angle.

II.—Fishes without spurious fins.

10. Scomber glaucus.—The Specific Character of this is, that the dorsal spines are recumbent.—It is found chiefly near Ascension Island, hence it is named by some naturalists Scombra Ascensionis. The second ray of the dorsal fin is extremely long.

11. Scomber speciosus.—Pale golden; bands on the crown oblique; on the body are seven black alternate bands. This is found on the coasts of Arabia; the body is oval-lanceolate, it has no teeth, above it is brown, beneath pale; the scales are small, entire, deciduous; the crown is convex; naked, smooth; the iris is silvery and golden on the forepart; the lips are equal, obtuse, the upper one is protractile; the gill-covers are of three pieces, the anterior is scaled and the posterior naked; the lateral line nearer the back is arched at the beginning, and straight from the fifth band; the fins are yellow and the tail bifid.

12. Scomber ferdau.—This is oblong-oval, silvery, with golden dots on the sides; the body is marked with five obsolete transverse brown bands. There is a variety of this species, of which the pectoral fins are hyaline.—It inhabits Arabia; the body above is blueish; the scales are small and deciduous.

13. Scomber ignobilis.—Silvery; the back is blueish; the pectoral and ventral fins are reddish.—It inhabits Arabia; the scales are small and deciduous; before the anal fin there are two spines, connected into a spurious fin; the posterior spine is twice as large as the first.

14. Scomber sansum.—Shining silvery, without spots; the tail with an elevated equal ridge.—It inhabits Arabia, and very much resembles the scomber fulvo-guttatus. The crown has branched veins; each jaw with a row of teeth, the upper with numerous setaceous ones behind them; the ventral and pectoral fins are white, the rest brown; the dorsal one is black on the upper edge; the anal and caudal are yellow on the lower edge.

15. Scomber albus.—White; sides and tail yellow.—This inhabits the Red Sea; the body is lanceolate, covered with fixed scales; before the anal fin there are two spines connected into a small fin; the hinder spine is the longer.

16. Scomber falcatus.—Body rhomboidal; the second dorsal and anal fins are falcate.—This species is found in the Red Sea; the body is half as long again as it is broad; it is smooth, silvery, and the upper part is brown; the scales are thin, fixed, elevated at the tip; under the skin in the middle of the back are a few spines reaching to the dorsal fin, and before them a strong horizontal spine turned forwards and sometimes hidden under the skin, and before the anal fin are two spines.

17. Scomber filamentosus.—The breast of this is naked; the second dorsal and anal fins are filamentous.—It inhabits Sumatra; the body is silvery; above it is blueish; the scales are small and fixed.

III.—The spurious fins connected.

18. Scomber trachurus, the scad, or horse mackarel.—The dorsal spine is recumbent; the lateral line prickly.—This fish inhabits the European, American and Pacific Seas, and is from four inches to two feet long; the body is silvery; the front and back is of a mixed green and blue colour; the fish is long, compressed, and covered with thin, round, soft scales; the flesh is eatable, but tough. It is found frequently on our own coasts.

19. Scomber hippos.—Gill-covers with a black spot on the hind-part; the posterior dorsal fin is red; the ventral and anal are yellow.—This species inhabits Carolina and Otaheite. The teeth are in one row, the two front ones are larger; the lateral line bends very much; it is somewhat spiny or mailed as it approaches the tail; the dorsal fin is red; the ventral and anal are yellow.

20. Scomber chrysurus, or yellow-tailed mackarel.—The spurious fins are of a pale yellow, the mouth is without teeth. It inhabits Carolina; the spines before the anal fin are remote.

21. Scomber amia.—The last ray of the posterior dorsal fin is the longer.

22. Scomber pelagicus.—The spurious fins and dorsal, in this species are connected into one.

SCOMBRERA, or more properly Escombrera, a small island in the Mediterranean, at the entrance of the harbour of Carthagena, in Spain.

SCOMM, *s.* A buffoon. *A word out of use, and unworthy of revival.*—The *scomms*, or buffoons of quality, are wolvish in conversation. *L'Estrange.*—[Of this use of the word Dr. Johnson has taken no notice.] A mock; a flout; a jeer.—His vain ostentation is worthily scoffed with [the] *scomme* of the orator. *Fotherby.*

SCONCE, *s.* [*schantse*, Teut. from *schantsen*, to fortify; *skansa*, Su. Goth. the same.] A fort; a bulwark.

Honesty, in a young heart, doth prove
But a weak *sconce* against insulting love. *Fanshaw.*

Such fellows are perfect in the great commanders' names, and they will learn you by rote where services were done; at such and such a *sconce*, at such a breach. *Shakspeare.*—The head: perhaps as being the *acropolis*, or citadel of the body. *A low word.*—Why does he suffer this rude knave now to knock him about the *sconce* with a dirty shovel, and will not tell him of his action of battery? *Shakspeare.*—A pensile candlestick, generally with a looking-glass to reflect the light. *Dr. Johnson.*—This is probably borrowed from the old usage of the word: "*Sconse*, a little lantern." *Barret.* A *sconce* is still the Lancashire term for a lantern.

Golden *sconces* hang upon the walls,
To light the costly suppers and the balls. *Dryden.*

A fixed seat, or shelf; so used in the north of England. A mulct, or fine.

To SCONCE, *v. a.* [A word used in the universities, and derived plausibly by Skinner, whose etymologies are generally rational, from *sconce*, as it signifies the head; to *sconce* being to fix on any one's head.] To mulct; to fine. *A low word which ought not to be retained.*—Pease-pudding not boiled enough; cook reprimanded, and *sconced* in my presence. *Warton.*

SCONE, or SCOON, a village in a parish of the same name, in Perthshire, Scotland, is situated at the distance of a mile and a half north from the town of Perth. Though reduced to comparative insignificance, it was anciently of great distinction, the chief seat of the Scottish monarchs, and the place where the states of the nation met to deliberate on all important occasions. Some writers assert, that it was also the capital of the Pictish dominions. Kenneth II. removed hither from Argyle the stone chair which the kings of Scotland occupied during the ceremony of coronation. On a tumulus still in existence, they held their courts of justice, and promulgated laws. Here they sat to determine the pleas of their barons, whence the hill was denominated "Mons Placiti de Scona, Omnis Terra, or the Mote Hill of Scone." It is usually called by the vulgar Boot-hill, from a tradition, that at the "coronation of a king, every man who assisted, brought so much earth in his boots, that every man might see the king crowned standing on his own land." It has been said that Malcolm II., seated in the inaugural chair on this mount, "gave and distributed all his lands of the realm of Scotland among his men, and reserved nothing in propertie for himself, bot the royal dignitie, and the Mutehill in the towne of Scone." This distribution, however, as Guthrie justly remarks, ought to be taken in a limited sense, it being incredible, that any prince should totally divest himself of all his royal demesnes. It is most probable, therefore, that it referred to some general confirmation to his barons of the grants of their lands, which before that they probably held precariously, and at the will of the crown.

An abbey was founded at this place by Alexander I., in the year 1114, and was dedicated to the Holy Trinity and St. Michael; but long previous to that period, Buchanan and other authors affirm, that its site was occupied by a Culdee monastery, and their statement is far from improbable, as it does not seem likely, that a place of so much celebrity as Scone should have been destitute of some religious establishment till the era of Alexander's foundation. The inmates of the new building were canons regular of the order of St. Augustine, and were entrusted with the custody of the "fatal stone, the palladium of the Scottish monarchy," which was carried off by king Edward I., and still remains in Westminster Abbey church. The annual revenues of this abbey, even so late as the time of the reformation, were very considerable, amounting to 1140*l.* 6*s.* 6*d.* Scots, besides "16 chaldrons and 2 firlots of wheat, 73 chaldrons, 13 bolls, 2 firlots, and 2 pecks of beave; 62 chaldrons of meal, 18 chaldrons and 3 bolls, and 1 last of salmon." The buildings of the abbey were very extensive and magnificent. Connected with them was the palace where the Scottish monarchs resided when at Scone; the whole being enclosed by a wall comprising within it an area of twelve acres. Both the abbey and palace were burnt to the ground by a fanatical mob, during the fury of the reformation; so that scarcely any traces of them can now be discovered, and even the scite of the palace is uncertain. It is supposed, however, that part of it at least lies under the present palace, the seat of the earl of Mansfield. This structure was begun by the earl of Gowrie, and was finished by Sir David Murray of Gospatrick (the favourite of king James VI.), to whom that monarch had granted it; and the new possessor, in gratitude, put up the royal arms in several parts of the house. It is in the mixed style of architecture generally prevalent in the seventeenth century, both in England and Scotland. The length of it in front is about seventy yards, and its depth about thirty. The gallery, which looks towards the east, measures one hundred and forty feet long, and has a ceiling of arched timber-work. "On the one side of it is painted the hunting of a stag in all its different stages; on the other are represented the exercise of hawking, the hunting of the wild boar, and the wild bull. It is said that king James VI. appears in every scene; and that the groups of figures attending him are the nobles of the court, and that all of them are exact representations of the originals. The spaces between the different scenes are filled up with the arms of the family, with fruit and flower-pieces, and other ornaments." In a chamber adjoining this gallery, on the north, is a canopy of state, used by the second earl of Mansfield, when ambassador at the court of Versailles; and in another, called the king's room, is a curious old bed of orange-coloured damask sattin, and several antique chairs. A third room, on the west side of the house, is named the queen's room, and contains a bed of flowered crimson velvet, said to have been the work of Mary Queen of Scots, while a prisoner in the castle of Loch Leven. All these chambers are decorated with hangings of fine tapestry, and with portraits of the ancestors of the family, and other personages of celebrity. In the dining-room, a spacious and elegant apartment, are two full-length portraits of George III. and his consort.

The position of this house is in the midst of an extensive lawn, sloping gradually towards the river Tay, which flows gently beneath. Except on the south-west, it is shaded by a grove of young trees, intermixed with some old ones, which rank among the largest in Scotland. On all sides, but particularly to the westward, it commands very fine prospects. "On the left hand, at the distance of two or three miles, the hills above the Tay and the Earne seem to unite, forming a vast theatre decorated with plantations and corn-fields. On the right, at the distance of fifteen miles, the Grampian mountains assume a similar form, and in the middle, industry and skill have given a gay and cultivated aspect to a very extensive tract of country."

Some years after the destruction of the abbey, an elegant parish church was erected on the top of the Mote-hill, by the first viscount Stormont; but that structure being much out of repair, and too small for the parish, the present church was erected about thirty years ago in the village. In an aisle of the old church, which is still standing, are several handsome monuments to the memory of members of the Murray family. One of them, commemorating the founder, merits description. It is composed wholly of marble, and seems to have been designed to represent the interior of a chapel. In the middle, towards the lower part of it, is a statue of his lordship as large as life, clad in armour, kneeling on a cushion before an altar, a book lying open before him, and the palms of his hands joined, as if earnestly engaged in devotion. On each side stands the figure of a man in armour, somewhat smaller than the life; the one said to be the marquis of Tullebardine, and the other the earl mareschall; above these are several emblematical figures; towards the top are the arms of the family, and over all, the figure of an angel.

Scone parish extends three English miles in every direction, comprising about 4600 Scots acres, of which 3000 are under tillage, and 700 planted. The soil, though various, is in general extremely fertile; and the air is so dry and salubrious, that Scone has been styled the Montpellier of Perthshire. Here are several quarries of excellent free-stone for building; also an extensive bleaching-field, called Stormont Bleach-field, which is connected with the Tay by a canal three miles in length. The other principal employment of the inhabitants, besides agriculture, is the linen manufacture, which gives work to about seventy weavers. According to the late parliamentary returns (1811), this parish contains 318 houses, and 1953 inhabitants, of whom 500 reside in the village, which consists of two wide intersecting streets, and several lanes.

The remains of antiquity here, independent of those above mentioned, are two stone circles, placed within fourteen yards of each other, near the eastern boundary of the parish; a part of the Roman military way from the camp of Ardoch to

to the foot of the Grampians; the foundations of the ancient town of Bertha, and a fortification called Silver Castle, the history of which is unknown. The vestiges of the house of the famous John Hay, chief of the Hays, are still religiously preserved, and are pointed out by the inhabitants with exultation, that their parish should have given birth to a man, whose heroic conduct, aided by that of his sons and followers, retrieved the disasters of the field of Lancarty, and changed the inglorious flight of the Scottish army into a decisive victory.—Scone also boasts of having been the birth-place of the celebrated Earl of Mansfield.

SCONIE, a parish of Scotland, in Fifeshire, otherwise called Leven, from the town of that name, situated at the mouth of the river Leven, on the east bank of which the village of Leven is situated. Population of the parish and village, 1761.

SCONONDOA, a post village of the United States, in Oneida county, New York.

SCONSER, a small village of the Isle of Skye; 8 miles south of Portree, where there is a post-office.

SCOOP, *s.* [*schoepe*, Teut.] A kind of large ladle; a vessel with a long handle used to throw out liquor.—They turn upside down hops on malt-kilns, when almost dry, with a *scoop*. *Mortimer.*—A surgeon's instrument.—Endeavour with thy *scoop*, or fingers, to force the stone outwards. *Sharp.*—A sweep; a stroke. Perhaps it should be *swoop*.

O hell-kite!
What, all my pretty chickens and their dam,
At one fell *scoop!* *Shakspeare.*

To SCOOP, *v. a.* [*schoepen*, Teut.] To lade out.

The savory pulp they chew, and in the rind,
Still as they thirsted, *scoop* the brimming stream. *Milton.*

As by the brook he stood,
He *scoop'd* the water from the crystal flood. *Dryden.*

Contained in a hollow.

Melted Alpine snows
The mountain cisterns fill, those ample stores
Of water *scoop'd* among the hollow rocks. *Thomson.*

To empty by lading.

'Tis as easy with a sieve to *scoop* the ocean, as
To tame Petruchio. *Beaum. and Fl.*

If some penurious source by chance appear'd,
Scanty of waters, when you *scoop'd* it dry,
And offer'd the full helmet up to Cato,
Did he not dash th' untasted moisture from him? *Addison.*

To carry off, so as to leave the place hollow.

To his single eye, that in his forehead glar'd
Like a full moon, or a broad burnish'd shield,
A forky staff we dext'rously apply'd,
Which, in the spacious socket turning round,
Scoop't out the big round jelly from its orb. *Addison.*

To cut into hollowness or depth.

The genius of the place
Or helps the ambitious hill the heav'n to scale,
Or *scoops* in circling theatres the vale. *Pope.*

SCO'OPER, *s.* One who scoops.

SCOPARIA [from *scopa*, a broom; to form which it is adapted], in Botany, a genus of the class tetrandria, order monogynia, natural order of personatæ, scrophularia *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, four-parted, concave: segments slender, rugged. Corolla: one-petalled, wheel-shaped, spreading, concave, four-parted: segments tongue-shaped, obtuse, equal; throat bearded. Stamina: filaments four, equal awl-shaped, shorter than the corolla. Anthers simple. Pistil: germ conical. Style awl-shaped, length of the corolla, permanent. Stigma acute. Pericarp: capsule oblong-conical, acuminate, one-celled, two-valved. Seeds very many, oblong.—*Essential Character.* Calyx four-parted. Corolla four-parted, wheel-shaped. Capsule one-celled, two-valved, many-seeded.

1. Scoparia dulcis, or sweet scoparia.—Root annual. Stalk hexangular, rising near two feet high, and sending out many branches, which have three leaves placed round at each joint, about an inch long, and a quarter of an inch broad, serrate, and of a deep-green colour: the flowers come out from the side of the stalks at each joint on peduncles: they are small, white, and their petals have bearded threads on their edges.—Native of Jamaica and all the Caribbee islands and the neigbouring continent; also in Cochin-china.

2. Scoparia procumbens.—Leaves in fours, flowers sessile. This plant is scarcely half a foot high, with nearly the same habit as the preceding.—Native of Carthagena in New Spain, on the sandy coast about Boca Chica.

3. Scoparia arborea.—Leaves lanceolate, alternate, quite entire, corymb super-decompound trichotomous. This is a tree, having the habit of the Olive or Phillyrea. The inflorescence is very large and extremely compounded. The flowers are small.—Native of the Cape of Good Hope, where it was found by Thunberg.

Propagation and Culture.—Sow the seeds upon a hot-bed in the spring; and when the plants are fit to remove, plant them upon a fresh hot-bed, shading and watering them, until they have taken new root; after which admit air to them daily according to the warmth of the season, and refresh them frequently with water. In June they may be taken up with balls of earth to their roots, and planted into open borders, where they will flower, perfect their seeds in the autumn, and soon after perish.

SCOPAS, an eminent Grecian artist of the isle of Paros, flourished in the year before Christ 430. He was equally distinguished as a statuary and sculptor, and was the author of many works which placed his name on a level with those of Phidias and Praxiteles. One of the columns in the temple of Ephesus was his performance; also one of the four sides of the famous tomb of Mausolus. Rome possessed several fine works, the productions of Scopas, among which the most admired was the great group of Neptune, and other marine deities in the Flaminian circus, which, of themselves, might, according to Pliny, have been the labour of a whole life. The same writer speaks of a Venus, the work of Scopas, surpassing that of Praxiteles. Horace, in one of his odes, refers to Scopas as an artist at the head of his profession:

"——— Divite me scilicet artium
Quas aut Parrhasius protulit, aut Scopas
Hic saxo, liquidis ille coloribus
Solers nunc hominem ponere, nunc Deum."
Horat. Od.

SCOPE, *s.* [*scopus*, Lat.] Aim; intention; drift.

Your *scope* is as mine own,
So to inforce or qualify the laws,
As to your soul seems good. *Shakspeare.*

Thing aimed at; mark; final end.

He,
In what he counsels, and in what excels,
Mistrustful, grounds his courage on despair,
And utter dissolution, as the *scope*
Of all his aim. *Milton.*

Room; space; amplitude of intellectual view.—An heroic poet is not tied to a bare representation of what is true, but that he might let himself loose to visionary objects, which may give him a freer *scope* for imagination. *Dryden.*—Liberty; freedom from restraint.—If this constrain them to grant that their axiom is not to take any place, save in those things only where the church hath larger *scope*, it resteth that they search out some stronger reason. *Hooker.*

Ah, cut my lace asunder,
That my pent heart may have some *scope* to beat,
Or else I swoon with this dead killing news. *Shakspeare.*

Ample

Ample licence.

Being moody, give him line and *scope*,
'Till that his passions, like a whale on ground,
Confound themselves with working. *Shakspeare.*

Act of riot; sally.

As surfeit is the father of much fast,
So every *scope*, by the immoderate use,
Turns to restraint. *Shakspeare.*

Extended quantity.—The *scopes* of land granted to the first adventurers were too large, and the liberties and royalties were too great for subjects. *Davies.*—It is out of use, except in the three first senses.

SCOPELISMUS [σκοπελισμος, Gr.] A crime practised among the Arabians.

It consisted in placing a certain number of stones upon the farm or field of persons these miscreants had a pique at; which stones served as a denunciation of utter destruction to those, who for the future should attempt to till the ground on which they were laid. And such terror attended this malevolent threatening, that none ever ventured to till such fields.

SCOPELO. See Skopelos.

SCOPER-HOLES, or Scuper-Holes, in a Ship. See Scuppers.

SCOPIA, or Uscup, a considerable town of European Turkey, in Bulgaria, situated on the river Vardari (the ancient Axius), near the borders of Macedon. It is tolerably well-built, contains several mosques, has a fortified castle, an aqueduct, and other remains of antiquity. Its population amounts to 8000; and its chief manufactures are of leather; 50 miles south-south-west of Nissa, and 110 north-by-west of Salonica. Lat. 42. 40. N. long. 21. 2. E.

SCOPIA, a small town in the north-west of European Turkey, in Croatia, containing 1300 inhabitants.

SCOPOLIA [so named by Sir J. Smith, in memory of his friend John Anthony Scopoli, author of the Flora Carniolica, Entomologia Carniolica, Deliciæ Insubricæ, and many other learned works in every department of natural history], in Botany, a genus of the class pentandria, order monogynia, natural order of terebintaceæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth of one leaf, inferior, small, in five deep, ovate, acute, concave, spreading, permanent segments. Corolla: petals five, oblong, sessile, erect, bluntish, concave, keeled at the upper part behind. Nectary none. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, erect, opposite to the petals, and rather longer, dilated and triangular at the base; anthers roundish, incumbent. Pistil: germen superior, roundish, with five furrowed lobes; style scarcely longer than the germen, furrowed lengthwise, swelling in the middle; stigma three-lobed, obtuse. Pericarp: capsule of five cells, nearly globose, dotted, with a succulent coat, some of the cells often abortive. Seeds solitary, oblong, somewhat kidney-shaped.—*Essential Character.* Calyx inferior, five-cleft. Petals five. Nectary none. Stigma capitate. Capsule succulent, of five cells. Seeds solitary.

1. Scopolia aculeata, or prickly Scopolia.—(Paullinia Asiatica; *Linn.*) which see.

2. Scopolia inermis, or blunt-leaved Scopolia.—(Toddalia paniculata; *Lamarck.*) Stem without prickle. Leaflets obovate, obtuse, entire. Panicle terminal. Flowers four-cleft.—Native of the island of Mauritius. A shrub, resembling some of the Cape species of rhus. Fruit with four furrows.

3. Scopolia lanceolata, or lanceolate-leaved Scopolia.—(Toddalia lanceolata; *Lamarck.*) Stem without prickles. Leaflets lanceolate, taper-pointed. Panicle terminal. Flowers four-cleft.—Native of the islands of Mauritius and Bourbon. The leaflets of this are near three inches long, tapering at each end, very acute, shining, elegantly veined; somewhat crisped at the edges. Panicle terminal, many-flowered, with hairy stalks. The capsules have three, four, or five specimen, which seems to be this plant in fruit, with rather cells, and are, like the leaves, besprinkled with glandular dots.

4. Scopolia angustifolia, or narrow-leaved Scopolia.—(Toddalia angustifolia; *Lamarck.*) Stem without prickles. Leaflets linear-lanceolate, rather acute. Branches downy. Clusters axillary, much shorter than the leaves.—Gathered by Sonnerat in the East Indies. The leaflets are described by Poiret, in Lamarck's work, as narrow, shining, veiny, especially beneath, entire. Clusters small, very much shorter than the leaves, moderately branched. Flowers five-cleft. Fruit very small, with four or five cells.

To SCO'PPET, *v. a.* [*schoepen*, Teut.] To lade out. —In all either our sense or fear of evils, let us have our recourse to that Almighty hand which ordereth all the events of heaven and earth, and work him by our true repentance to a gracious cessation of vengeance; else, what do we with all our endeavours but as that fond man, who wearies himself lading out the channel with a shallow dish, while the spring runs full and unchecked: Vain man, can he possibly hope to *scoppet* it out so fast as it fills! *Bp. Hall.—A bad word.*

SCO'PTICAL, *adj.* [σκωπτικος, from σκωπτω, Gr. See *To* Scoff.] Scoffing: *a very bad word.*—The Roman orator, discoursing of *scoptical* urbanity, or jesting, how far it was allowable in speeches and pleadings, lays down an excellent rule. *South.*

SCO'PULOUS, *adj.* [*scopulosus*, Lat.] Full of rocks. *Johnson.*

SCOPUS, in Ornithology, a genus of birds of the order grallæ. Bill long, thick, compressed, a little hooked; the nostrils are linear and oblique; the feet are four-toed and cleft. There is but one species.

Scopus umbretta, or tufted umbre.—It inhabits Africa, and is twenty inches long. The hill is brown, with a longitudinal furrow on each side, in which are placed the nostrils; the lower mandible is narrower towards the end, and a little truncate; the crest is thick, tufted and lax; the body is brown; the tail is obscurely barred; legs longish, brown; toes connected at the base. The female is not crested.

SCOPWICH, a hamlet of England, in Lincolnshire; 9 miles north of Sleaford.

SCO'RBUTE, *s.* [*scorbutus*, Lat.] The scurvy. *Not in use.*—Another observation of this our author, is the scurvie or *scorbute*, whereunto they are much subject in navigations near the line. *Purchas.*

SCORBU'TIC, or Scorbu'tical, *adj.* [*scorbutus*, Lat.] Diseased with the scurvy.—Violent purging hurts *scorbutic* constitutions; lenitive substances relieve. *Arbuthnot.*

SCORBU'TICALLY, *adv.* With tendency to the scurvy; in the scurvy.—A woman of forty, *scorbutically* and hydropically affected, having a sordid ulcer, put herself into my hands. *Wiseman.*

SCORBUTUS, in Medicine, scurvy. See Pathology, p. 294.

To SCORCH, *v. a.* [ꝥcopcneb, Saxon; burnt. "Sine dubio a antiquo Goth. et Pers. *skic*, *skior*, ignis; cujus, quanquam deperditi, vestigia complura supersunt, e. g. Sueth. *skorsten*, caminus; Su. Goth. *skir*, *skaer*, *skiaer*, clarus." *Serenius.*] To burn superficially.—Fire *scorcheth* in frosty weather. *Bacon.*—To burn.

I rave,
And, like a giddy bird in dead of night,
Fly round the fire that *scorches* me to death. *Dryden.*

He, from whom the nations should receive
Justice and freedom, lies himself a slave;
Tortur'd by cruel change of wild desires,
Lash'd by mad rage, and *scorch'd* by brutal fires. *Prior.*

To SCORCH, *v. n.* To be burnt superficially; to be dried up.

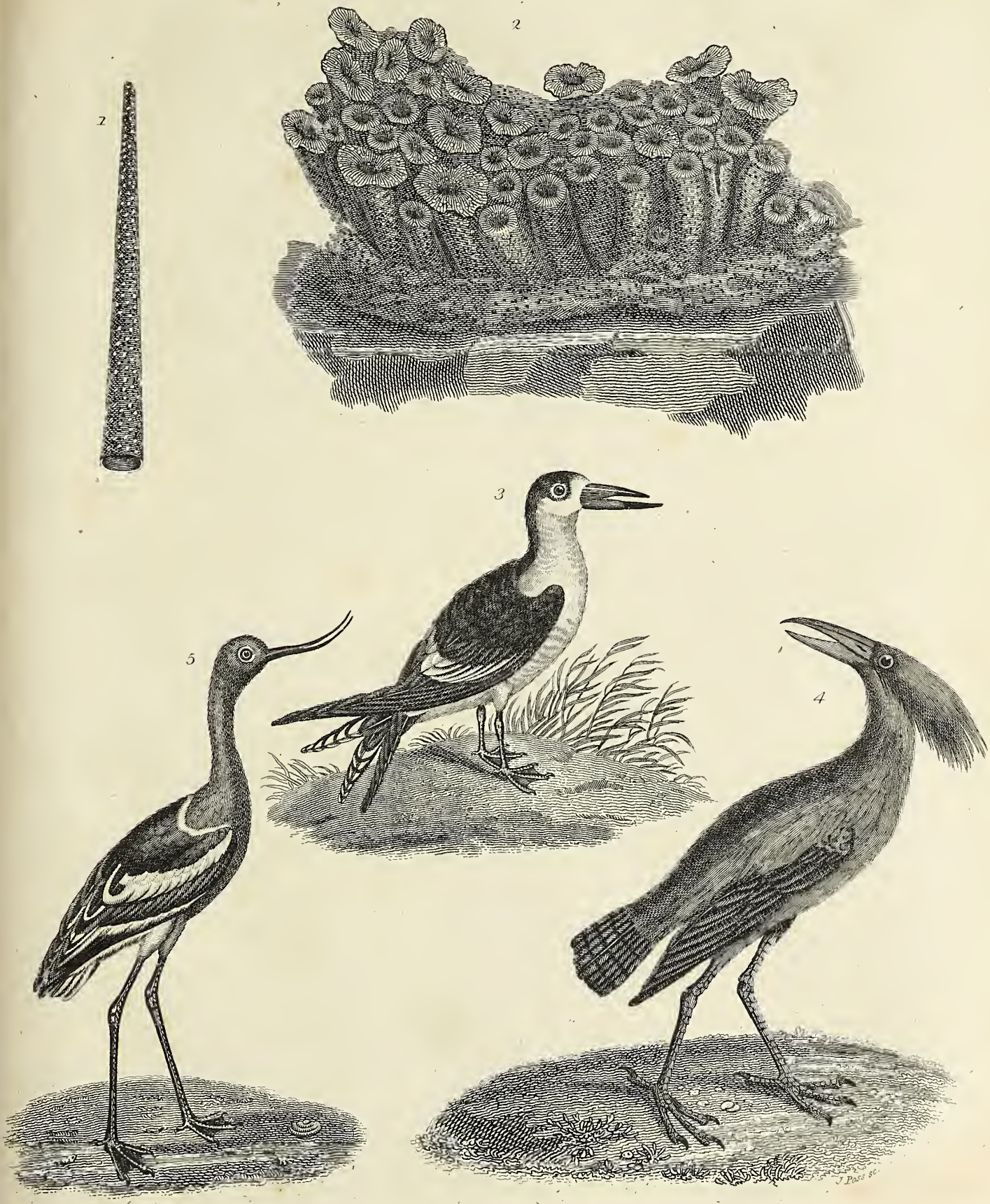
The swarthy Africans complain
To see the chariot of the sun
So nigh their *scorching* country run. *Roscommon.*

SCORCHING FENNEL, *s.* A plant.

SCO'RDIUM, *s.* [Latin.] An herb. *Ainsworth.*

SCORDICES,

RECURVIROSTRA, RYNCHOPS, SABELLA AND SCOPUS.



1. Sabella belgica. 2. Sabella alveolata. 3. Rynchops nigra. 4. Scopus umbretta. 5. Recurvirostra americana.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1827.

SCORDICES, a Celtic or Gaulish people, who inhabited the territory south of the Danube, and were some of the most warlike people in all Illyria. Some of them occupied the banks of the Noarus, on the coast of the town of Segeste; and others were situated on the confluence of the Danube and Save. Their limits extended to the mountains of Thrace and of Macedonia. These people were ultimately subdued by Tiberius, when he commanded the armies of Augustus in Pannonia.

SCORDIUM, in Botany. See GERNANDER.

SCORE, *s.* [*skora*, Icelandick, a mark, cut, or notch; from *skora*, "baculo incidere, annotare; *skaera*, Su. Goth. incidere; quoniam inculta vetustas non aliter computabat quâm unitates, &c., incisuris in baculo factis connotando." *Serenius.*—A notch or long incision.—Our forefathers had no other books but the *score* and the tally: thou hast caused printing to be used. *Shakspeare.*—A line drawn.—An account, which, when writing was less common, was kept by marks on tallies, or by lines of chalk.

He's worth no more:
They say he parted well, and paid his *score*. *Shakspeare.*

Account kept of something past; an epoch; an era.—Universal deluges have swept all away, except two or three persons who begun the world again upon a new *score*. *Tillotson.*—Debt imputed.

That thou dos't love her, strikes some *scores* away
From the great compt. *Shakspeare.*

Reason; motive.—If your terms are moderate, we'll never break off upon that *score*. *Collier.*—Sake: account; relative motive.—Kings in Greece were deposed by their people upon the *score* of their arbitrary proceedings. *Swift.*—Twenty. It is supposed because twenty, being a round number, was distinguished on tallies by a long score. [ꝥcop, Saxon.]

How many *score* of miles may we well ride
'Twixt hour and hour? *Shakspeare.*

A song or air in SCORE.—The disposition of the several parts set on the same leaf; as upon the uppermost range of lines are found the treble notes; in another, those of the bass; in another, the tenor; and so on; that they may be sung or played jointly or separately; commonly called the *score*. *Mus. Dict.*

To SCORE, *v. a.* To mark; to cut; to engrave.

Why on your shield, so goodly *scor'd*,
Bear you the picture of that lady's head? *Spenser.*

To mark by a line.

Hast thou appointed where the moon should rise,
And with her purple light adorn the skies?
Scor'd out the bounded sun's obliquer ways,
That he on all might spread his equal rays? *Sandys.*

To set down as a debt.

Madam, I know when
Instead of five you *scor'd* me ten. *Swift.*

To impute; to charge.

Your follies and debauches change
With such a whirl, the poets of your age
Are tir'd, and cannot *score* 'em on the stage;
Unless each vice in short-hand they indite,
Ev'n as notcht prentices whole sermons write. *Dryden.*

SCORIA, *s.* [Lat.] Dross; recrement.—The *scoria*, or vitrified part, which most metals, when heated or melted, do continually protrude to the surface, and which, by covering the metals in form of a thin glassy skin, causes these colours, is much denser than water. *Newton.*

SCORIFICA'TION, *s.* in Metallurgy, the art of reducing a body either entirely, or in part, into scoria. *Chambers.*

SCORING, in Agriculture, a provincial term, signifying the glazing, glossing, or making the furrow-slice shine in ploughing or turning land up, by the plough acting as a trowel.

SCO'RIOUS, *adj.* [from *scoria*, Lat.] Drossy; recrementitious.—By the fire they emit many drossy and *scorious* parts. *Brown.*

SCORITH, a word used by the chemical writers to express sulphur.

To SCORN, *v. a.* [*sceernen*, Teut., *escorner*, Fr. "Optimè Junius à Sax. ꝥceapn, Su. Goth. *skarn*, stercus." *Serenius.*]—To despise; to slight; to revile; to vilify; to contemn.

Back to the infernal pit I drag thee chain'd,
And seal thee so, as henceforth not to *scorn*
The facile gates of hell too slightly barr'd. *Milton.*

To neglect; to disregard.

This my long sufferance, and my day of grace,
They, who neglect and *scorn*, shall never taste;
But hard, be harden'd, blind, be blinded more. *Milton.*

To SCORN, *v. n.* To shew signs of contempt.

He said mine eyes were black, and my hair black;
And now, I am remember'd, *scorn'd* at me. *Shakspeare.*

To disdain; to think unworthy.

I've seen the morning's lovely ray
Hover o'er the new-born day,
With rosy wings so richly bright,
And if he *scorn'd* to think of night. *Crashaw.*

SCORN, *s.* [*escorne*, old Fr.] Contempt; scoff; slight; act of contumely.

Why should you think that I should woo in *scorn*?
Scorn and derision never come in tears. *Shakspeare.*

Diogenes was asked in *scorn*, What was the matter that philosophers haunted rich men, and not rich men philosophers? He answered, Because the one knew what they wanted; the others did not. *Bacon.*—Subject of ridicule; thing treated with contempt.—Is it not a most horrid ingratitude, thus to make a *scorn* of him that made us? *Tillotson.*

To think SCORN. To disdain; to hold unworthy of regard. *Not now in use.*—If he do fully prove himself the honest shepherd Menalcas his brother and heir, I know no reason why you should *think scorn* of him. *Sidney.*

To laugh to SCORN. To deride as contemptible.—He that sitteth in the heavens shall *laugh* them *to scorn;* the Lord shall have them in derision. *Psalms.*

SCO'RNER, *s.* Contemner; despiser.—They are very active, vigilant in their enterprises, present in perils, and great *scorners* of death. *Spenser.*—Scoffer; ridiculer.

They, in the *scorner's* or the judge's seat,
Dare to condemn the virtue which they hate. *Prior.*

SCO'RNFUL, *adj.* Contemptuous; insolent; disdainful.

The enamour'd deity
The *scornful* damsel shuns. *Dryden.*

Acting in defiance

With him I o'er the hills had run,
Scornful of Winter's frost and Summer's sun. *Prior.*

SCO'RNFULLY, *adv.* Contemptuously; insolently.

He used us *scornfully;* he should have shew'd us
His marks of merit, wounds receiv'd for's country.
Shakspeare.

SCO'RNING, *s.* Sign or act of contempt or disdain.—Our soul is filled with the *scorning* of those that are at ease, and with the contempt of the proud. *Psalms.*

SCORODOPRASUM, in Botany, compounded of σκοροδον, *garlick*, and πρασον, *a leek*, because the plant which bears this name is somewhat intermediate, in appearance and character, between both. See ALLIUM.

SCORPÆNA, in Ichthyology, a genus of fishes of the order thoracici. The Generic Character is as follows:—the head is large, aculeate, cirrous, obtuse, without scales, sub-compressed; the eyes are near to each other; teeth in body

the jaws and palate; the gill-membrane is seven-rayed; the body is thick and fleshy; the dorsal fin is single, long; the anterior rays are spinous. According to Gmelin there are nine species, but by other naturalists sixteen have been enumerated.

This genus is distinguished by a peculiar uncouthness of appearance; the head, in some species, being abruptly truncated in front, of vast size, and armed with protuberances and spines.

1. Scorpæna porcus.—Cirri near the eyes and nostrils.—This species is common in the Mediterranean, where it chiefly frequents the shores, lying in ambush among stones, sea-weeds, &c., and preying on the smaller fishes and insects; the head is large; the mouth is wide, with many rows of small sharp teeth; the eyes are large; the gill-covers are armed with strong spines intermixed with cirri; the body is covered with small rough scales of a dusky colour, varied with black on the back, and beneath pale, with a reddish cast. The dorsal fin is furnished with very strong spiny rays, which the fish, when caught, erects, and thus wounds its adversary. It is generally, when full grown, from twelve to fifteen inches long.

2. Scorpæna scrofa.—The lower lip has two cirri. This, in its general appearance, is very nearly allied to the porcus, so much so, that it might be mistaken for it; but it is larger, and has larger scales; it has also several cirri or processes disposed along the lateral line; the colour likewise is rather rufous than brown, as in the former kind. Of this species it is reported, that it preys not only on the smaller fishes, but even on marine birds that happen to come within its reach. It sometimes attains the length of four feet; it must, consequently, prove a formidable enemy to smaller marine animals. It is said to be an edible fish, notwithstanding its forbiding appearance.

3. Scorpæna horrida.—The body of this is beset with callous tubercles.—It inhabits the coasts of India. The body is variegated with brown and white, devoid of small scales, and all sides rough with cirri. The head is very large, covered with tubercles and prickles, and disfigured with cavities; eyes very small, the pupil is black, iris yellow, placed above a deep hollow; the mouth above is large, the inside is armed with numerous small sharp teeth; the lateral line beginning at the nape and bent downward near the anal fin, and ending in the middle of the tail; the fins are covered with a thick skin; the rays are forked.

4. Scorpæna volitans.—Pectoral fins are larger than the body.—It inhabits the fresh waters of Amboina and Japan. It is less than the river perch; it has the power of raising itself out of the water, and suspending itself in the air a short time by means of its long pectoral fins, when pursued by larger fish; the body is varied with brown bands, and intermediate orange and white lines, and covered with small imbricate scales. The flesh of this species is reckoned extremely delicious.

5. Scorpæna antennata.—This is known chiefly by a band across the eyes; it is variegated with brown and yellow; it has large violet-coloured pectoral fins. It is nearly allied to the volitans in its general appearance, but is somewhat larger, and with a sloping head; the body is variegated with numerous brown and yellow transverse stripes; the eyes are larger than those of the preceding fish, and immediately over the eyes are seated two long cylindrical tentacula or cirri, surrounded by several fibrous brown bars; upper jaw is longer than the lower; pectoral fins smaller than the flying scorpæna, and of a deep violet colour, with the rays projected greatly beyond the membrane; the scales on the body are larger than those on the flying scorpæna, and the head is nearly plain or whitish in front.—It is a native of the rivers of Amboina.

6. Scorpæna didactyla, or brown scorpæna.—Blotched and spotted with yellow, with two distinct appendages near the pectoral fin. This is not more than about a foot long, the form is extremely grotesque; the general colour is a dusky brown, varied above by transverse yellow streaks, and beneath by roundish spots of the same colour; the skin is destitute of scales; the head is depressed, and furnished on different parts with several abrupt fleshy cirri; the eyes are large, and situated on two protuberances; the snout is truncated, and marked on the sides by several angular wrinkles; as are also the lower parts of the gill-covers: the lower jaw is longer than the upper; the tongue is prominent, and marked with yellow granulations and black streaks; the cirri are fleshy, a very large one on each side on the lower jaw; the lateral line is parallel with the back; the vent is placed behind the end of the ventral fins; the fins are formed of numerous rays terminating in filaments; the pectoral fins are large, oval, and with rounded tail barred with black; the dorsal reaching from the head to the tail. This fish was first described by Dr. Pallas.—It is a native of the Indian seas, and preys on the smaller fishes, sea-insects, &c. It is an edible fish.

7. Scorpæna Capensis.—The head of this species is marked on each side over the eyes with four teeth or processes, and nearly an even tail. It is about a foot long; it is covered with small, rough, imbricated scales; the head is large; so also are the eyes, which are situated on each side; the mouth is wide; the jaws are equal; the gill-covers are each composed of two very large scaly plates, the upper of which terminates in four denticulations, and the lower in a single point; the back is arched and carinated; the pectoral fins are large and ovate.—It is a native of the Cape of Good Hope, and was described by Gronovius.

8. Scorpæna spinosa.—The dorsal fin of this is continued from head to tail, and it has a spiny lateral line. According to Dr. Shaw, the body is compressed; the head is spiny, and the lateral line is marked with spiny points; the dorsal fin is longer than in most of the genus, reaching from between the eyes to the tail.

9. Scorpæna Americana.—The mouth of this is bearded; the head spiny, and the pectoral fins suborbicular. The head is armed with protuberances and spines; it has two spines on the upper lip, and five or six on the lower; the last fifteen rays of the dorsal fin form a portion more elevated than the rest of the fin, and they are of a rounded figure; the anal fin, which is situated just beneath this part, is of a similar shape; the pectoral fins and tail are also rounded.—It is a native of the American seas.

Such are the species described by Gmelin; the following have been added since:—

10. Scorpæna plumieri.—Blackish, with feathered cirri on the head and lateral line. The upper part and sides of the head, together with the gill-covers, armed with triangular, flat, and sharp spines: between the eyes are situated four fringed cirri; and four others of similar form, but smaller, are placed on the upper lip; while several are disposed along a lateral line; the body is covered with scales of a moderate size; the first part of the dorsal fin, which is of a rounded form, is furnished with spiny rays, and the tail is also rounded; the general colour of the fish is of a very deep or blackish-brown, and on the pectoral fins are a few small brown spots.—It is a native of the American seas.

11. Scorpæna Commersonii.—The body and fins of this species are transversely banded with brown and yellow; the eye-brows are serrated, and the upper lip bearded. This species has been described by M. Cépède from the manuscripts of Commerson. The back is arched and carinated; the lateral line curving downwards; the body is covered with small scales; the head is large, and armed with numerous spines; the orbits of the eyes are elevated, and forming two denticulated crests, with a furrow between them; the lower is somewhat longer than the upper, which is extensile, and furnished on each side with three or four beards; the teeth are very small and close; the nostrils are each marked with a small filament; the gill-covers are composed of two plates; the dorsal fin is marked in different parts by large unequal sinuations; the pectoral fins are so long as almost to reach as far as the extremity of the back fin, and the tail

is

is of a rounded shape; the body is raised with brown and yellow transverse bands, and all the fins are variegated. This species was observed by Commerson about half a century ago, near the islands of Mahé.

12. Scorpæna bicapillata.—This species has an abrupt sub-depressed head, furnished at the back part with two extremely long filaments. It is about four inches long; the body is rather thick, and covered with minute scales; the head is large, and somewhat depressed, and marked with protuberances; the lower lip is much elevated, so as to make the head appear truncated in front; the eyes are small and near; and the pectoral fins very large, and so long as to reach as far as the middle of the body.—It is a native of the Indian seas. The colour is not mentioned by Cépède, whose description is taken from Commerson.

13. Scorpæna brachiata.—The head of this is abrupt and depressed; the ventral fins are attached to a brachial process. It is allied to the last, which it resembles in the shape of the head; the size and situation of the eyes: the conformation of the jaws; the smallness of the scales on the body, and rounded tail; but it differs in being destitute of the two filaments, so remarkable in the other species, as well as in having the membrane of the dorsal fin much less deeply scalloped; while each of the pectoral fins forms as it were a band, which reaches from the fore part of the branchial aperture to the vent.

14. Scorpæna aculeata.—The Specific Character of this fish is, that it has four spines above the eyes; and both plates of the gill-covers are spiny. It is distinguished from the other species by having four very strong recurved spines above the eyes; both plates of the gill-covers are aculeated; the dorsal and anal fins are more elevated on one part than the other; the elevated part being of a rounded form, as well as the pectoral fins and tail. This is described by M. Cépède, who does not mention its colour or country.

15. Scorpæna barbata.—The head of this species is marked in some parts by several protuberances, and in others by pretty large depressions or cavities; on the upper lip are two beards; and the pectoral fins are united to each other by a small membrane; the tail is almost rectilinear.

SCORPIACA, the name of an antidote recommended by Galen against the stinging of scorpions.

SCORPIO, Scorpion, in Astronomy, the eighth sign of the zodiac, denoted by the character ♏.

The stars in Scorpio, in Ptolemy's catalogue, are 24; in that of Tycho, 10; in that of Hevelius, 20; in that of Mr. Flamsteed and Mr. Sharp, 44.

SCORPIO, in Botany, a name by which some of the old authors have called the *genista spinosa*, or common furze bush.

SCORPIO, the Scorpion, in Entomology, a genus of insects of the order aptera. The Generic Character is, that it has eight legs, besides two chelæ, or hands, seated on the fore-part of the head; the eyes are eight in number; three of them are placed on each side of the thorax, and two on the back; it has two feelers, projecting cheliform; lip bifid and no antennæ; the tail is long, jointed, and terminated by a sharp crooked sting; on the underside, between the breast and abdomen, are two instruments resembling a comb. The insects of this tribe are all armed with a slightly pungent sting; none of them, however, are dangerous, except those in very hot climates; they prey upon worms, spiders, flies, &c., and even on one another; the larva and pupa are eight-footed, nimble, and resembling the perfect insect. There are ten species, all of which are of warmer climates than our own.

1. Scorpio Australasia.—Combs with six teeth; the hands are smooth.—It inhabits the Pacific islands. and is a very small insect. The body is depressed, above it is of a brown colour, the last joint of the tail is paler; the belly and legs are of a paler hue.

2. Scorpio Carpathicus.—Combs with six teeth; hands slightly heart-shaped and glabrous.—This species is found in the Carpathian and Helvetic mountains, and by some authors is thought to be a variety of the Australasia.

3. Scorpio maurus.—This species has combs with eight teeth; the hands are slightly heart-shaped and punctured.—It inhabits Africa.

4. Scorpio Afer, or African scorpion.—The combs of this species have thirteen teeth; the hands are slightly heart-shaped and hairy.—It inhabits Persia, India and some parts of Africa. The body is of a glossy brownish-black; the incisures of the abdomen are yellow; the first joint of the tail serrate. Of the several species of the scorpio, none are so remarkable for size and the malignity of their poison as this. It has been seen ten inches long, when measured from the end of the claw to the extremity of the tail. The general colour being of a dark brown, it is not easily distinguished from the rotten wood and furniture under or within which it lurks. The tail is the instrument which renders this animal formidable; and the reservoir which contains the poison is situated near the extremity, from whence it is ejected through two very small holes, one on each side the tip of the sting. These holes are so very minute as to elude the sight of any but a very accurate observer with the assistance of glasses. This species is dreaded in Africa, where the activity of the venom is frequently productive of very serious evils; and in some cases, where the evil has been neglected, the consequences have proved fatal.

5. Scorpio Americanus.—Combs with fourteen teeth; the hands are subciliate, with filiform claws.—It inhabits South America. The body is spotted with brown.

6. Scorpio Chilensis.—This species has combs with sixteen teeth; the hands are subangular.—It inhabits Chili, as its specific name denotes.

7. Scorpio Europæus, or Italian scorpion.—This has combs with eighteen teeth; the hands are angular.—It inhabits the southern parts of Europe, and is said to be viviparous, and is remarkably fond of spiders as a food, but with the larger kinds it has often very severe contests. The scorpion, after having stung its adversary to death, cuts off his limbs with his claws, and sucks the juice from his body.

8. Scorpio Hottentotta.—Combs with twenty-two teeth only; the hands are smooth, and the tail is rough.—It is found in Sierra Leona. The body is brown, and covered with small raised dots; the tail is marked with rough raised lines; the legs are paler.

9. Scorpio criseus.—Combs with twenty-five teeth; the hands are subciliate and ovate.—It inhabits the American islands; body pale testaceous; the tail is as long as the body.

10. Scorpio Australis.—The combs of this species are divided into thirty-two teeth; the hands are smooth. The body is brown; the legs are rufous; the hands are long and rufous, with filiform claws.

All the species of this genus are capable of stinging in a less or greater degree, and they all seem actuated by a similar malignant spirit; for they will attack each other with fury if confined in the same glass, and the survivor will devour the conquered. We are indebted to M. Maupertuis for the first accurate and philosophical account of the habits of these animals. According to him they are all viviparous; the body of the pregnant female exhibiting, when dissected, between 40 and 50 young. Each of these is separated from the rest by a thin membrane, while all are united by a common filament. This philosopher, in order to ascertain the strength of their venom, bred a great number together; and let them loose upon dogs and other animals, and he found that sometimes the sting was so poisonous as to cause the whole body of the wounded animal to swell, the consequences of which were frequently violent retching, convulsions and death. At other times he found the stings of the same species almost harmless.

These animals are said to cast their skins from time to time, and to live chiefly on worms and insects, on which, if they are well provided, they will live a long time in a state of confinement.

Redi took the pains of examining microscopically the stings of scorpions, brought alive from Tunis, Egypt and Italy, and found in all the trials which he made, a small drop of

of white liquor upon the sting. And Mr. Leeuwenhoek discovered an opening on each side of the sting of this creature, for the emission of the poison, which he supposes is not discharged till the sting is buried in the wound. *Baker's Microscope*, p. 213.

SCORPIO, a species of CURCULIO; which see.—Also, a species of CERAMBYX; which see. See also the preceding article.

SCORPIO, in Ichthyology. See SCORPÆNA.

SCORPIOIDES, the name of the BLENNIUS OCELLARIS, described by Artedi as having a furrow between the eyes, and a large spot on the dorsal fin, being of a faint green, variegated with black spots; and either wanting the eye fins, or else having them extremely minute.

SCORPIOIDES, in Botany, so named by Tournefort, from the resemblance of its contorted and jointed legume, to the tail of a scorpion. See SCORPIURUS.

SCO'RPION, [*scorpio*, Lat.] An insect. See SCORPIO.

Well, fore-warning winds
Did seem to say, seek not a *scorpion's* nest. *Shakspeare.*

Full of *scorpions* is my mind, dear wife. *Shakspeare.*—One of the signs of the zodiack.—The squeezing crab and stinging *scorpion* shine. *Dryden.*—A scourge so called from its cruelty.—My father hath chastised you with whips, but I will chastise you with *scorpions*. 1 *Kings.*—[*Scorpius*, Lat.] A sea-fish. *Ainsworth.*

SCORPION, WATER, *Scorpio palustris*, a name given to a very remarkable genus of water-insects. See NEPA.

SCORPION FLY, a name given by Mouffet, and other writers, to a kind of fly, remarkable for carrying the end of its tail turned up in the form of the scorpion's sting.

SCORPION, or SCORPIO, is also the name of an ancient military engine, used chiefly in the defence of walls, &c. See ARTILLERY.

SCORPION GRASS, in Botany: see SCORPIURUS.—SCORPION Grass, Mouse-ear: see MYOSOTIS.—SCORPION Senna: see CORONILLA.—SCORPION'S Thorn: see GENISTA.

SCORPIURUS [of Pliny. Σκορπιος ουρα, Scorpion's-tail; from the twisting of the pod], in Botany, a genus of the class diadelphia, order decandria, natural order of papilionaceæ or leguminosæ.—Generic Character. Calyx: umbel simple: perianth one-leafed, erect, inflated, very slightly compressed, half-five-cleft, acute: teeth almost equal: the upper ones less divided. Corolla papilionaceous; banner roundish, emarginate, reflexed, spreading; wings subovate, loose, with a blunt appendix; keel half-mooned, with the belly gibbous, acuminate, erect, two-parted below. Stamina: filaments diadelphous, (simple and nine cleft,) ascending. Anthers small. Pistil: germ oblong, cylindrical, a little reflexed. Style bent in upwards. Stigma a terminating point. Pericarp: legume oblong, sub-cylindrical, coriaceous, striated, rugged, revolute, divided internally into several transverse cells, obscurely knobbed externally by the contraction of the joints. Seeds solitary, roundish.—*Essential Character.* Legume divided by isthmuses or transverse partitions, revolute cylindrical.

1. Scorpiurus vermiculata, or common caterpillar.—Stalks herbaceous, trailing, above a foot long, lying on the ground, and having at each joint a spatulate leaf on a long foot-stalk. Peduncles axillary, sustaining at the top one yellow flower, which is succeeded, by a thick twisted pod, the size and appearance of a large green caterpillar.—Native of the South of Europe.

2. Scorpiurus muricata, or two-flowered caterpillar.—Peduncles two-flowered, legumes bluntly prickly outwards. This has stronger stalks than the first; and the leaves are much broader.—Native of the South of Europe.

3. Scorpiurus sulcata, or furrowed caterpillar.—This has slenderer stalks than either of the former; the leaves stand upon shorter footstalks, but are shaped like those of the first sort; the peduncles are slender, and frequently support three flowers; the pods are slender, not so much twisted as the former, and armed on their outside with sharp distinct spines.—Native of the South of Europe, and Barbary about Algiers.

4. Scorpiurus subvillosa.—Peduncles mostly four-flowered, legumes with acute spines in clusters outwardly. Stems striated, subvillose, procumbent. Leaves wide-lanceolate, entire, petioled, subvillose, acute.—Native of the South of Europe, and Barbary about Algiers.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants are propagated like all other hardy annuals, and are introduced into gardens, more for the curiosity of their fructification than their beauty; the pods at first sight appearing like green caterpillars feeding on the leaves.

The first sort is the best worth cultivating; the pods being large and more visible than the others, and more in form of a caterpillar.

SCORPIUS. See SCORPÆNA.

SCORPIUS *Marinus*, in Ichthyology. See COTTUS.

To SCORSE, *v. a.* [*skoja*, "Sueth. vulg. commutare, præcipuè equos." *Serenius.* The Exmore dialect has *scoace*, or *scorse*, to exchange. *Grose.* Sherwood notices this word as *scoursc*, to exchange, and adds to it "a hoarse-*scourser*."] To barter; to exchange.

But Paridel sore bruised with the blow
Could not arise, the counterchange to *scorse*. *Spenser.*

[*Scorso*, Ital. pursued.] To chase. *Not in use.*

Him first from court he to the cities coursed,
And from the cities to the townes him prest,
And from the townes into the countrie forsed,
And from the country backe to private farmes he *scorsed*.
Spenser.

To SCORSE, *v. n.* To deal for the purchase of a horse. See the Swedish term, particularly applied to horse-dealers, under the verb active.—Will you *scourse* with him? you are in Smithfield; you may fit yourself with a fine easy-going hackney. *B. Jonson.*

SCORSE, *s.* Exchange.

Therein sat an old old man, halfe blind,
And all decrepit in his feeble corse,
Yet lively vigour rested in his mind,
And recompenc'd them with a better *scorse*;
Weake body well is chang'd for mind's redoubled force.
Spenser.

SCORTICK, a lake of North America. Lat. 62. 5. N. long. 106. 20. W.

SCORTIUM, among the Romans, a measure of capacity of a round form, which used always to be heaped.

SCORTON, a village of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 1½ mile north-east of Catterich. Population 449.

SCORZONERA [quasi viperaria, from the Catalonian Escorso, a viper. *Tournefort*], in Botany, a genus of the class syngenesia, order polygamia æqualis, natural order of compositæ semiflosculosæ, cichoraceæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx common imbricate, long, subcylindrical: scales about fifteen, scariose at the edge. Corolla compound imbricate, reniform: corollets hermaphrodite numerous, the outer a little longer, proper one-petalled, ligulate, linear, truncate, five-toothed. Stamina: filaments five, capillary, very short. Anther cylindrical, tubular. Pistil: germ oblong. Style filiform, length of the stamens. Stigmas two, reflexed. Pericarp none. Calyx ovate oblong, converging and finally spreading and reflexed. Seeds solitary, oblong, cylindrical, striated, shorter by half than the calyx. Pappus feathered, (sessile, with chaffy and bristly rays mixed. *Gærtn.*) Receptacle naked.—*Essential Character.* Calyx imbricate with scales scariose at the edge. Pappus feathered, sessile. Receptacle naked.

1. Scorzonera tomentosa, or white viper's-grass.—Stem straight, simple, tomentose. Leaves alternate, scarcely half-embracing, sharpish. Branches floriferous, axillary, one or two-flowered, scarcely longer than the leaf. One or two lanceolate bractes.—Native of the Levant.

2. Scorzonera humilis, or dwarf viper's-grass.—Root thick,

SCORPIO.

1. Scorpio Europæus. 2. The under surface. 3. Scorpio afer. 4. The under surface. 5. S. linearis.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1827.

thick, striking deep, Stem almost naked, one-flowered, leaves broad-lanceolate, nerved flat.—Native of Europe.

3. Scorzonera parviflora, or small-flowered viper's-grass. —Stems branched, leaves linear-ensiform entire, ray of the corolla very short.—Native of Austria.

4. Scorzonera Hispanica, garden viper's-grass or Spanish scorzonera.—Stem branched, leaves embracing entire, serrulate. Root carrot-shaped; about the thickness of a finger, and covered with a dark-brown skin; it is white within, and has a milky juice.—Native of Spain, the South of France, Italy, Carniola, Siberia and the Levant.

5. Scorzonera undulata, or wave-leaved viper's-grass.—Leaves linear-lanceolate, attenuated tomentose waved, stem somewhat branched. Root perennial.—Common in parched ground in the kingdom of Tunis.

6. Scorzonera graminifolia, or grass-leaved viper's-grass. —Leaves linear-ensiform, entire, keeled. Stalks slender, about two feet high, branching towards the top, and sustaining pale-yellow flowers, smaller than in Hispanica and humilis. Root perennial, brown on the outside.—Native of Portugal, Italy and Siberia.

7. Scorzonera purpurea, or purple-flowered viper's-grass. —Leaves shorter than those of the preceding. Stalk taper, and branching at the top. Flowers pale purple.—Native of the March of Brandenburg, Austria, Carniola, Barbary and Siberia.

8. Scorzonera angustifolia, or narrow-leaved viper's grass. —Leaves subulate entire, peduncles thickened, stem villose at the base. This grows a foot and a half high. The peduncle immediately under the flower is thicker than it is below, and the lower part of the stalk is hairy. The flower is yellow.—Native of the south of Europe and Siberia.

9. Scorzonera hirsuta, or hairy viper's-grass.—Biennial.—Native of Apulia and Provence.

10. Scorzonera resedifolia, or spreading viper's-grass.—This is very like the laciniata, except that the stalks spread on the ground.—Native of Spain and the South of France.

11. Scorzonera calcitrapifolia.—Lower leaves lyrate, with the segments oblong and mucronate, the upper pinnatifid. Stem upright, herbaceous, a foot high, the thickness of a goose quill, striated, somewhat branched: branches of the same structure with the stem, spreading. Peduncles terminating, solitary, three or four inches long, somewhat grooved, one-flowered, having a small awl-shaped entire leaf at top.—Native of the kingdom of Tunis in Africa.

12. Scorzonera laciniata, or cut-leaved viper's-grass.—Leaves linear, toothed, acute, stem erect, scales of the calyxes from spreading mucronate. This rises with a smooth branching stalk two feet high, and has leaves like those of buck's-horn plantain, but larger. Flowers yellow, upon long naked peduncles, at the end of the branches.—Native of Germany, Switzerland, Austria, the South of France, Italy and Spain.

13. Scorzonera coronopifolia, or buck's-horn-plantain-leaved viper's-grass.—Leaves pinnatifid-laciniate pubescent, stem almost naked, simple, one-flowered. Root perennial, fusiform, in thickness from that of the little finger to the thumb.—Native of the mountains of Barbary.

14. Scorzonera orientalis, or Levant viper's-grass.—Leaves sinuate, toothletted acute, stems short, leafy, one or two-flowered. Leaves deeply toothed, almost like those of Dandelion.—Found in the East.

15. Scorzonera taraxacifolia, or Dandelion-leaved viper's-grass. — Leaves runcinate petioled, scap branched. The root of this is perennial, fusiform, and white, and scarcely the thickness of one's little finger: peduncles elongated, one-flowered: flowers deep yellow.—Native of Bohemia.

16. Scorzonera tingitana, or poppy-leaved viper's-grass. —All the leaves runcinate and embracing. Stem upright, smooth, branched. It is an annual plant.—Native of Tangier on the Barbary coast; in clefts of rocks.

17. Scorzonera dichotoma, or dichotomous viper's-grass. —Root-leaves runcinate, stem branched, dichotomous almost leafless.—Found by Vahl in the kindom of Tunis.

18. Scorzonera picroides, or various-leaved viper's-grass. —Upper leaves embracing, quite entire, lower runcinate, peduncles scaly. It is an annual plant.—Native of the South of France, and of Barbary.

19. Scorzonera pinnatifida.—Leaves pinnatifid half-embracing, panicle diffused terminating. Stem suffruticose, erect, three feet high. Flowers pale yellow, on sub-umbelled peduncles.—Native of the continent of eastern Africa, near Mozambique.

Propagation and Culture.—The first sort only is cultivated for the use of its roots, the others are preserved in botanic gardens for variety, but are seldom admitted into other gardens.

These plants may be propagated by sowing their seeds in the beginning of April, upon a spot of light fresh soil. The best method of sowing them is, to draw shallow furrows, by a line, about a foot asunder, into which you should scatter the seeds, covering them over about half an inch thick; and when the plants are come up, they should be thinned where they are too close in the rows, leaving them at least six inches asunder; and at the same time, you should hoe down all the weeds to destroy them; and this must be repeated as often as is necessary; for if the weeds are permitted to grow among the plants, they will draw them up weak.

SCOSTHORPE, a village of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 6 miles south-east of Settle.

SCOSTON, a village of England, in Nottinghamshire, on the Ryton, north-east of Worksop.

SCOT, *s.* [*escot*, old Fr., *skott*, Icel. ſceat, Sax. *schat*, Teut. See SHOT.] Shot; payment.

SCOT *and* LOT. Parish payments.—'Twas time to counterfeit, or that hot termagant Scot had paid me *scot and lot* too. *Shakspeare.*

SCOT, *s.* [*Scotus*, Lat. ȝcottaſ, Sax. Anciently, Ireland was called Scotland, and its inhabitants Scots. pibeꝑnia ȝcotta ealonȝ. *Bede.*] A native of Scotland.—The Highlanders are the true *Scots. Camden.*

SCOT-FREE, *adj.* [Sax. ſcot-ꝑreoh.] Untaxed; unhurt.—This companion escaped not so *scot-free* as his fellows. *World of Wonders.*

SCOT, CAPE, a cape on the north-west coast of Quadra and Vancouver's Island. Lat 50. 48. N. long. 231. 40. E.

SCOT'S BAY, a bay on the south-west extremity of Dominica; 4 miles south of Charlotte Town.

SCOT'S BAY, a bay of the North Pacific Ocean, on the west coast of America; 10 miles south of Queen Charlotte's Sound.

SCOT'S ISLANDS, a group of islands in the North Pacific Ocean, near the north-west coast of Quadra and Vancouver's Island. Lat. 50. 57. N. long. 231. 2. E.

SCOTAL, or SCOTALE, is used where any officer of a forest keeps an ale-house within the forest by colour of his office causing people to come to his house, and there spend their money, for fear of his displeasure. We find it mentioned in the Charter of the Forest, cap. 8. "Nullus forestarius faciat scotallas vel garbas colligat, vel aliquam collectam faciat, &c." Manwood, 216.

The word is compounded of scot and ale, and by transposition of the words, is otherwise called alescot.

SCOTBY, a village of England, in Cumberland, adjoining Kirkbride, near Carlisle.

To SCOTCH, *v. a.* [probably a corruption of the old Fr. *eschorcher*, to flay, or pluck off the skin; or, as Roquefort gives the word, *skorchir;* Ital. *scorzare*, the same.] To cut with shallow incisions.—He was too hard for him directly: before Corioli, he *scotcht* and notcht him like a carbonado. *Shakspeare.*

SCOTCH, *s.* A slight cut; a shallow incision.—Give him four *scotches* with a knife, and then put into his belly and these *scotches* sweet herbs. *Walton.*

SCOTCH, SCO'TISH, or SCO'TTISH, *adj.* Relating to Scotland;

Scotland; belonging to Scotland.—The *Scotch* universities hold but one term or session in the year. *Johnson.*

SCOTCH COLLOPS, or SCOTCHED COLLOPS, *s.* Veal cut into small pieces.

SCOTCH FIR, the common name of PINUS, which see.

SCOTCH FIR POINT, a cape on the west coast of North America, in the gulf of Georgia, so called by Captain Vancouver, from the Scotch firs found there, being the first they had seen on the coast. It lies on the north, at the entrance into Jervis's canal. Lat. 49. 42. N. long. 236. 17. E.

SCOTCH HOPPERS, *s.* A play in which boys hop over lines or scotches in the ground.—Children being indifferent to any thing they can do, dancing and *scotch hoppers* would be the same thing to them. *Locke.*

SCOTCH PLAINS, a post village of the United States, in Essex county, New Jersey.

SCOTER, a name of the *anas nigra*, called also the black diver.

SCOTFORTH, a village of England, in Lancashire; 1½ mile south of Lancaster. Population 466.

SCOTHERNE, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 5 miles north-east of Lincoln.

SCOTHOLM, one of the smaller Shetland isles. Lat. 60. 36. N. long. 1. 8. W.

SCOTIA, in Architecture, a semicircular cavity or channel in the bases of columns.

The scotia is a concave dark moulding; whence its name, viz. from σκοτος, obscurity, darkness.

The scotia has an effect just opposite to that of the quarter-round. Our workmen frequently call it the casement.

It is also called trochilus, partly from its form.

In the Ionic and Corinthian base there are two scotias, the upper of which is the smaller.

According to Felibien, the cavetto is a fourth part of the scotia.

SCOTIST, *s.* A follower of *Scotus*, the schoolman.

The Scotists were, like the Thomists, Peripatetics; only distinguished by this, that in each being, as many different qualities as it had, so many different formalities did they distinguish; all distinct from the body itself, and making, as it were, so many different entities; only those were metaphysical, and, as it were, superadded to the being.

The Scotists and Thomists likewise disagreed about the nature of the divine co-operation with the human will, the measure of divine grace that is necessary to salvation, and other abstruse and minute questions, which it is needless to enumerate.

SCOTLAND, one of the three chief divisions of the kingdom of Great Britain. It is situated, exclusive of the Hebrides on the west, and the Shetland and Orkney islands on the north, between 54° 37′ and 58° 42′ north latitude, and between 1° 47′ and 6° 7′ west longitude, from London. It is bounded on the south by the Solway frith, and the rivers Esk, Lark, Liddel, and Tweed, which divide it from England; on the east and north by the Northern ocean; and on the west by the waters of the Atlantic. Its greatest length, in a direction due north and south, is 275 miles, and its greatest breadth 147 miles; but its breadth is extremely various, and in one place does not exceed 36 miles. According to calculation, the superficial contents of the mainland amount to 25,520 square miles of land, 494 square miles of fresh-water lakes, and 5000 square miles of salt-water lochs, or lakes. The islands, comprehend an area of 4224 square miles, so that Scotland, with its lakes and islands, presents a surface of 30,238 square miles.

The history of Scotland, previous to the union of the two crowns, has been divided by Dr. Robertson into four periods; the first reaching from the most remote ages to the reign of Kenneth II.; the second, from Kenneth's conquest of the Picts to the death of Alexander III.; the third, from that event to the death of James V.; and the last, thence to the advancement of James VI. to the throne of England. The first of these periods, observes the same author, is the region of pure fable; truth begins to draw in the second period with a light, feeble at first, but gradually increasing: the events which then happened may be slightly touched, but merit no laborious inquiry. In the third period, Scottish history, chiefly by means of records preserved in England, becomes more authentic; not only are events related, but their causes and effects explained; the characters of the actors are displayed; the manners of the age described; and the revolutions in the constitution pointed out. During the fourth period, the affairs of Scotland were so much mingled with those of other nations; its situation in the political state of Europe was so important; its influence on the operations of neighbouring kingdoms was so visible; that its history becomes an object of attention.

We shall advert to the first periods only in a general way, and shall dilate our narrative, in proportion as events become more important.

I.—HISTORY OF THE FIRST AND SECOND PERIODS.

The aboriginal inhabitants of Caledonia were a colony of the Celtæ. This is proved by the remains of a celtic language amongst the Scots, but still more by the many typographical names abounding in the country, that are evidently derived from the same source. Respecting the period at which the Celts arrived in North Britain, and the route by which they reached the country, nothing is known; nor has record, or tradition, preserved to us the smallest trace of their history, till the period of Agricola's invasion, when their descendants appear to have been divided into twenty-one distinct clans, who are usually mentioned in the Latin writers by the generic name of Caledonians. On the advance of the Romans into their country, they united under the authority of Galgacus, one of their most powerful chieftains, to resist their progress. The utmost efforts of valour, however, proved unavailing against the military skill of the great Agricola, and the discipline of the legionary troops. In his first campaign in North Britain, A. D. 80, that celebrated general penetrated, according to Tacitus, as far as the river Tay; and in the year following he constructed a chain of forts between the friths of Clyde and Forth, within which he had retired for the protection of the southern country against the inroads of the free tribes of the North. The summer of 82 was employed in subduing and securing the district which extends from the Solway to the Clyde. Thus freed from the danger of a flank attack, he again passed the Forth, and advanced, without opposition, as far as Loch Leven, establishing, as he proceeded, military posts to keep the inhabitants in subjection. These posts the Caledonians had the hardihood to attack; and by this display of daring intrepidity, seem to have struck great terror into the Roman soldiers. In this dilemma, Agricola divided his army into three bodies, and pushed forward the weakest to Lochore, where he ordered it to encamp, while he stationed the other two at short distances on the right and left. The Caledonians, perceiving the Romans thus separated, made a vigorous attack during the night on the intrenchments at Lochore, and had already entered the camp, when Agricola arrived with the light troops of the other divisions, and, after a furious combat, repulsed the assailants, and forced them to a disorderly and precipitate flight. This victory, though dearly bought, inspired the Romans with renewed ardour; but it did not intimidate the Caledonians, who magnanimously resolved to dispute every foot of ground with the invaders. Agricola consequently found sufficient employment during the remainder of the year in subduing the Horestii, the inhabitants of the isthmus between the Tay and the Forth. The following year he advanced to the base of the Grampian mountains, where the Caledonian warriors lay encamped and prepared to receive him. The battle which ensued was contested with the most obstinate valour, but at length terminated in the complete overthrow of the Caledonians. Agricola, however, seems to have derived little advantage from his victory, for after a few days spent in ascertaining the condition of the enemy, he led his troops back to the

THE SHETLAND Is.
THE ORKNEY Is.
Caithness
SUTHERLAND SHIRE
CAITHNESS SHIRE
ROSS SHIRE
INVERNESS SHIRE
ABERDEEN SHIRE
BANFF SHIRE
KINCARDINE SHIRE
ANGUS SHIRE
FORFAR SHIRE
PERTH SHIRE
ARGYLE SHIRE
FIFE SHIRE
Kinross SHIRE
STIRLING SHIRE
DUMBARTON SHIRE
HADDINGTON SHIRE
EDINBURGH SHIRE
LANERK SHIRE
AIR SHIRE
BERWICK SHIRE
SELKIRK SHIRE
ROXBURGH SHIRE
DUMFRIES SHIRE
KIRKUDBRIGHT SHIRE
WIGTON SHIRE
HARRIS
N.th UIST
S.th UIST
SKYE
MULL
ILA ISLD
ARRAN
Caledonian Canal
Loch Ness
Loch Lomond
Loch Tay
Loch Leven
Loch Ness
Loch Lochy
Loch Shiel
Loch Ryan
Loch Fyne
Loch Maree
Loch Carron
Loch Broom
Loch Erribol
Loch Eriboll
Loch Ness
Loch Lomond
Loch Tay
Loch Leven

the country of the Horestii, and terminated the campaign. The Caledonians immediately advanced, and demolished all the forts in the territories which the Romans had abandoned. Agricola, in the interim, ordered the commander of the Roman navy to sail round Britain, on a voyage of discovery, and with the design of intimidation. This voyage was happily accomplished, by the return of the fleet to the Forth, before the commencement of winter. With these remarkable exploits the campaigns of Agricola terminated; for, having excited the jealousy of the emperor Domitian, by the splendour of his achievements, he was soon afterwards recalled to Rome.

From this period to A.D. 120, the Roman authors are entirely silent respecting the affairs of Britain; but from an incidental expression in Tacitus, some later writers have supposed, that, during that interval, the Caledonians succeeded in recovering the country conquered by Agricola, as far as the Solway on the west, and Tynemouth on the east. This opinion seems to receive some confirmation from the fact, that when the emperor Adrian visited our island in the year last mentioned, he caused a rampart to be constructed between these two estuaries. The emperor, on his departure, left Julius Severus as his lieutenant in Britain, who does not appear to have attempted any military exploit. Antoninus, who assumed the purple on the death of Adrian, named Lollius Urbicus to the chief government of the island; an officer who equally possessed talents for peace, and a genius for war. Having tranquillized some insurrectionary movements in the south, he carried his arms from the Forth to the Varar, and settled stations in the intermediate country; throwing the whole of that extensive district into the form of a Roman province. Under his directions was constructed the rampart of Antoninus (now called Grimes' dyke), which extends from Caer-riden on the Forth, to Alcluid on the Clyde, a distance of thirty-six miles, six hundred and twenty paces. Several military roads, and numerous stations and encampments, were likewise formed in all the provinces, both of North and South Britain. Lollius was succeeded in his government by Calphurnius Agricola, during whose time the Romans abandoned all the country north of Grimes' dyke. This retreat inspired the unconquered tribes with fresh vigour. Breaking through the barriers of Antoninus, they pillaged a large tract within that boundary, and put numbers of the Romans to the sword; but Ulfius Marcellus soon drove them back again into their own territories. They renewed their inroads again in the year 200, with better success, and for some years afterwards seem to have made such progress, as to induce the emperor Severus to assume the government of Britain in person. On his arrival at the head of a larger army than had ever before visited this island, the Caledonian tribes sued for peace, but Severus rejected their proposals, The particulars of his expedition into Caledonia are very imperfectly narrated. It is clear, however, that he penetrated as far to the northward as the frith of Cromarty, though, as Dion assures us, with the loss of no less than 50,000 men. Before he set out, he constructed a wall from the Solway to the Tyne, parallel with the rampart of Adrian, in order to facilitate his retreat.

On the return of Severus to York, he left his son Caracalla in the government of North Britain; whose conduct is said to have incited the Caledonians to acts of aggression. Irritated at this, the aged emperor issued orders to renew the war, and to spare neither age nor sex; but his death, and the contest for the empire between his sons, seem to have prevented their execution. At all events, it is certain that Caracalla made peace with the Caledonians, and gave up to them all the country northward of the Forth and Clyde. From this period, for nearly a century, we hear nothing respecting the Caledonians, who may therefore be presumed to have made no serious attempts to molest the Anglo-Romans. At length, however, about the year 306, we are informed that the emperor Constans found it necessary to come into Britain to repel "the Caledonians and other Picts." This, Chalmers affirms, is the first time the Picts are mentioned in history, and contends that the Caledonians were on this occasion called Picts, "owing to their peculiar seclusion from the Roman provincials on the south of the walls." Pinkerton, on the other hand, maintains, that they were a Scythian colony, who had possessed themselves of the eastern coast of Scotland before the Christian era; but his opinion is not supported by evidence or probability.

Constantius having driven back the Caledonians, and other Picts, within their own territories, retired to York, where he died July 25, A. D. 306. Almost forty years elapsed before they were again able to infest the territories of the Anglo-Romans, though the empire was harrassed by civil wars. In 343, however, they made some inroads, but were soon repelled, and the provincials again enjoyed peace for seventeen years. At the close of that period, when Constantine and Julian were contending for the imperial sway, the Scots and Picts made a formidable attack upon the provinces. Lupicinus, an able officer, was sent to oppose them, but does not seem to have effected the object of his mission. This is the first time the Scots are mentioned in the pages of Roman story. Ammianus, in whose work they are noticed, joins them with the Picts, as if they formed one army, though they had no connection whatever by neigbourhood, lineage, or interests: they were, in fact, an erratic people of Ireland, who were much accustomed to naval predatory excursions against the Roman provincials during the fourth and fifth centuries, but they had no territories in North Britain till about the year 503, as will be more particularly noticed in the sequel. The next attack upon the Roman provinces by the Picts and Scots happened in the year 364, and seems to have been more general and destructive than any former incursion by either of these people. For three years they continued gradually advancing towards the south, spreading death and desolation wherever they came. At length Theodosius, the most distinguished general of his age, was sent into Britain by the emperor Valentinian, to put a stop to their ravages and to restore tranquillity. In two campaigns he drove the Scots from the island, and the Picts beyond the wall of Antonine, which he repaired, and strengthened with additional forts, and constituted the territories within it into a province, by the name of Valentia. Such, indeed, was the energy of his operations, and the wisdom of his precautionary measures for the maintenance of peace, that the Scots and Picts did not dare to renew their aggressions till the year 398, and even then they were easily repelled. The Roman empire, however, was now rapidly on the decline. In 407, the revolt of the troops in Britain transferred the government to Gratian, and after his death to Constantine, who conveyed the army with him into Gaul. The British provincials, thus left in a manner to themselves, assumed a sort of independance, which was sanctioned by the emperor Honorius, who, conscious of his inability to protect this distant part of the empire, directed the British cities to rule and defend themselves. "But," to quote the words of Chalmers, "their inexperience soon occasioned them to feel their own weakness. And in A. D. 422, though the walls were then garrisoned by Roman troops, the provincials again applied for additional protection against the desultory attacks of a predatory people, who could be more easily repelled than tranquillized. A legion is said to have been sent, who chastised the invaders, and, for the last time, repaired the fortifications that had long overawed the Pictish tribes. From this epoch the provincials enjoyed twenty years' repose. The year 446, when Ætius was consul for the third time, is the memorable epoch, when the British provincials acknowledged themselves to be Roman citizens, by their supplication to that able supporter of a degenerate state for fresh assistance; but he was unable to gratify their desire, owing to the pressure of the barbarians upon Gaul. The provincials were again told, in a more desponding tone, that they must rely on their own efforts for their future government and effectual defence.

After this final abdication of the Romans, North Britain was occupied by two races of men, the Picts, and the Anglo-

Anglo-Romans of the province of Valentia. The latter, some authors contend, united themselves under one ruler to resist the inroads of the Picts, and thus formed the kingdom of Cumbria, or Strathcluyd. Of the existence of such a monarchy, however, within the limits of proper Scotland, there is much room to doubt. At all events, it is very improbable that this new nation was able to confine the Picts within their ancient boundaries. On the contrary, it is most likely that the Picts, in conjunction with the Scots from Ireland, conquered and occupied the greater part of Valentia.

Several ancient Scottish writers, upon the authority of monkish legends, contend that their ancestors first settled in Argyle 330 years before the Christian era; and they give a list of kings, and a narrative of their actions, from that remote period. Later investigations, however, have shewn that these details are most probably fictitious, and that the Scots did not colonize any part of present Scotland till the year A. D. 503, when a body of them passed over from the north of Ireland, their proper country, and fixed themselves in the district of the British Epidii, which they denominated Caentir. These colonists were led by Loarn, Fergus, and Angus, the three sons of Erc, a chieftain or petty king of Dalriada, viz., the portion of Rhiada in Ulster, whence the Scots were sometimes called Dalriads. The derivation of the name Scot is uncertain, but the most plausible opinion is, that it was a corruption of the word *sceite*, which signifies, in Irish, dispersed or scattered, and was therefore applied generally to denote the roving tribes who had habituated themselves to maritime excursions against the western shores of Romanized Britain.

Chalmers justly observes, that there scarcely occurs a period of history so perplexed and obscured as the annals of the Scoto-Irish, from the date of their settlement in Argyle, till their ascendancy over the Picts in 843. This confusion and obscurity originated in the want of contemporaneous writings, and were afterwards greatly increased, by the contests of the Irish and Scottish antiquaries for pre-eminence in antiquity as well as in fame. In the sister island, however, there have happily been preserved various documents, particularly the annals of Tigernich and Ulster, which throw many flashes of light on the transactions of that dark era. Several brief chronicles and historical documents, calculated to elucidate the same subject, have likewise been brought into notice by Innes; and Pinkerton first published a Gaelic poem, which professes to give a genealogical account of the Scoto-Irish kings. From an attentive consideration of all these, and from an accurate examination of other documents, Chalmers compiled his genealogical and chronological table of the Scottish monarchs, to Kenneth inclusive, from which it appears that they were twenty-nine in number, and occupied by their united reigns a period of 340 years. The first was Fergus, who became sole chieftain, or king of the new colonists, soon after their arrival. Their barbarous names which constitute all that history possesses of his successors, our readers will pardon the omission of. The only person of this dynasty worth notice is, Aidan, the son of Gawran. He was inaugurated by St. Columba in 574, on the holy island of Jona; and proved himself, throughout a reign of thirty-five years, to be a prince of great enterprise. He extended his dominions along the western coast of Valentia, which had been seized upon and colonized by various tribes of "Sceites" from Ireland, by consolidating the whole of them under his superior sway. In 577, having advanced into Cumberland, he engaged Rydderch, king of Cumbria, but the battle seems to have been indecisive. He afterwards entered into a league offensive and defensive with the Cumbrian monarch against the Saxons, who were defeated with great slaughter at Stanmore, in Westmoreland. Buchanan asserts this was a league as well against the Picts as the Saxons, and further intimates, that Aidan was monarch of the district, now included in the counties of Renfrew, Ayr, Wigton Kirkcudbright and Dumfries; and this view of the subject certainly bears the stamp of greater probability than the opinion which confines his territories to the i s thmuso Cantire and the neighbouring islands. Aidan, according to all the writers who treat of his reign, fought several battles against the Saxons, in most of which he was victorious; but in the year 603, he was completely defeated by Ethelfrid, king of Northumbria, at the battle of Dawstane, in Roxburgshire. This disaster, joined to the death of St. Columba, his kinsman and friend, so much affected him, that he died in the second year thereafter, at the advanced age of eighty, and was buried in the chapel of Ciaran at Campbeltown.

From the year 642 until 736, the events of Scottish history are so involved and unimportant, that we shall pass them over in silence, remarking only, that nine kings reigned in the interval, whose names are thus recorded by Chalmers: Conal II., Donal-duin his son, Mal-duin, Fercharfada, Eocha-rineval, Ainbhceallach, Selwach, Eocha III., and Muredach. The last monarch had been unwillingly drawn into hostilities with the Picts, and transmitted their enmity to his successor, Eoghan, or Ewan, a feeble prince, who died in 739, when Aodhfin seized the sceptre, and soon evinced himself equal to the arduous task of government, even in the most troublesome times. In 740 he boldly encountered the mighty Ungus, king of the Picts, and forced him to quit his territories. Aodhfin died soon after, having reigned with greater glory than any of his predecessors, for the long period of thirty years. He left his kingdom, but not his talents, to his son Fergus, who reigned about three years. The reign of his successor, Selvach II., lasted twenty-four years. The government of Eocha IV., or as he is called by Buchanan, Achaius, the next king, was marked by several important transactions. Some authors assert that he formed an alliance with Charlemagne, and instituted the most ancient order of the Thistle, but both these statements are erroneous. It is true, however, that he entered into a treaty of great importance to himself, his children, and his country, for he made peace with the Picts, and received the hand of Urgusia, daughter of Urguis, and sister of Constantine and Ungus, all of whom in succession swayed the Pictish sceptre. Eocha died in 826, after a reign of thirty years. Buchanan says, that the successor of Eocha was Congallus. He died in 833, when Alpin, the son of Eocha and Urguis, was acknowledged king. Buchanan, on the other hand, asserts that Alpin fell in a battle fought near Dundee against the Picts. Kenneth, the son of Alpin, next succeeded to the throne, and waging war against the Picts, after several obstinate battles overthrew their government, and united the two rival monarchies into one kingdom, under the name of Scotland.

Kenneth, having thus accomplished the union of the two kingdoms, endeavoured by every means in his power to render that union permanent. He enacted many excellent laws for the better administration of the government, and removed the stone chair in which the kings of Scotland were wont to be crowned from Argyle to Scone. After a reign of twenty-three years, sixteen of which he ruled over his new monarchy, he died in 854, when Donald, his brother, was proclaimed king. This prince relaxed the public discipline established by his predecessor, and gave himself up to the most shameful excesses. The Picts rose in open rebellion against his authority, and formed alliances with Osbretd and Ælla, monarchs of two of the Anglo-Saxon kingdoms adjoining Scotland. These princes entered Merch with a powerful army; and from thence dispatched heralds to Donald, requiring him to re-establish the Pictish monarchy. Donald, roused by a sense of his danger, marched against them, and totally defeated their united forces on the Jed, a river of Teviotdale. This victory enabled him to recover Berwick and all the territory to the north of the Tweed; but his success was of very short duration, for having indulged too far the natural licentiousness of his troops, the English took advantage of their carelessness, set upon them in the night, routed them with great slaughter, and made Donald prisoner. The enemy afterwards advanced to the Forth, which they attempted to cross in

in ships, when a violent storm arose, and occasioned the wreck of half of their fleet. This event so weakened their forces, that they were induced to conclude a peace with the Scots, upon the condition of their abandoning all the country southward of the Forth and Clyde. Of the Picts nothing was said in the treaty, and hence most of them, deceived in their hopes, passed over into Denmark and Norway. Donald, having returned from captivity, still continued his voluptuous conduct, which so exasperated the nobles, that they committed him to prison, where he laid violent hands upon himself in the year 858. Such is the account of Buchanan; but Chalmers speaks of him with praise, and says that he died at the palace of Balachoir in the year 863, and was buried at Icolm-kill.

Constantine, son of the great Kenneth, now mounted the throne. Being a prince of great valour and lofty spirit, says Buchanan, he was anxious to eradicate the ignominy which Donald had brought upon the kingdom, and to recover the territories he had lost, but his nobles dissuaded him from the attempt. He therefore directed his attention to the reformation of the public morals, particularly those of the military and priesthood. In this reign the Danes invaded Scotland, by landing a large army in two divisions in the isthmus of Fife. Constantine hastened to oppose them, and fortunately overthrew one division before the other could arrive to its assistance. Upon this, the rest of the Danes retreated to an intrenched camp, which they had constructed near their landing-place. The Scots, flushed with victory, too rashly assaulted the Danish works, and were defeated with the loss of their king and half their army. The Danes, however, had suffered so much, that notwithstanding this success, they immediately re-embarked for their own country.

Othus, or Aodth, brother to Constantine, succeeded him in the regal dignity. His reign was short, and disturbed by rebellion; and terminated, according to Chalmers, in consequence of a wound received in the battle of Strathal. Buchanan, on the other hand, asserts that he was thrown into prison by the nobles for his tyrannical and licentious conduct, and that he died there before he completed the first year of his reign. Gregory, or Grig, who next reigned, emulated the virtues and achievements of the great Kenneth. While his internal policy was mild and just, he rendered himself feared and respected by foreigners. The Danes having seized from the English the greater part of the country south of the Forth, he drove them out of it, and once more established the Solway and the Tyne as the northern boundaries of Scotland. He afterwards defeated the English, who had entered the western district of the kingdom, and compelled them to give up Cumberland and Westmoreland to the Scots. Gregory afterwards landed in Ireland, and having defeated the Irish in a battle fought on the river Bann, advanced to Dublin, which surrendered without resistance. Here he found king Duncan, then a minor, with whom he concluded a peace, and immediately returned to his own dominions, where he died in 892, greatly regretted by his own subjects. Such was the life of Gregory, as represented by the Scottish historians; but the researches of Chalmers have discovered, that instead of being a hero and a conqueror, he was a man of unprincipled morals, an usurper, and a hypocrite; and was driven from his throne by the indignation of his people. Gregory was succeeded by Donald, the son of Constantine, during whose reign the Danes made several descents upon Scotland, but were, in every instance, repulsed. Chalmers informs us, that the king fell, gallantly fighting in defence of his kingdom against a body of these invaders, who had penetrated almost to the Scottish capital. Buchanan, on the other hand, states that he died during an expedition to quell a feud betwixt the Rossians and the Merch-men; and Boethius asserts that he expired in Northumberland in 903. His successor was Constantine, the son of Aodth, the early part of whose reign was equally disturbed by the inroads of the Danes. He afterwards engaged in a war with Athelstan, king of England, who ravaged all the country as far as the Forth and Clyde, and forced Constantine to sue for peace. Constantine, however, only observed it till an opportunity for revenge occurred, and then, joining with Anlaf, one of the most powerful of the Anglo-Danish princes, their united forces sailed for the Humber, and disembarked without opposition. Athelstan, who had foreseen and prepared for this event, soon came up with the invaders, and after a battle, till then unexampled in the English or Scottish annals, gained a complete victory, and Constantine and Anlaf only saved the remains of their army by a speedy re-embarkation. In this action, Constantine having lost his son, and most of his nobility, resigned the kingdom in favour of Malcolm, the son of Donald, and retired to a monastery at St. Andrews, where he ended his days. Soon after the accession of Malcolm, the conquered provinces of Cumberland and Westmoreland revolted from the English monarch, who, fearful of his ability to retain them, agreed to surrender both to the king of Scotland, on condition, as Buchanan states, that Malcolm and his successors would acknowledge they held them of the crown of England, in fealty; the condition was accepted, and Malcolm passed the remainder of his reign in reforming the administration of justice, and the licentious character of his subjects. With this view he made a tour through the whole of his dominions every two years, and is stated to have been paying his last biennial visit to the north, when he was assassinated in Moray, in the fifteenth year of his reign. His successor was Indulfus, who formed an alliance with the English, and enjoyed peace during the first seven years of his rule. At length the Danes unexpectedly disembarked in Lothian; the Scottish king marched and gave them battle, overthrew them with great slaughter, but unfortunately perished himself in the ardour of pursuit.

Duffus, the son of Malcolm, next swayed the sceptre, and appointed Culenus, the son of Indulfus, governor of Cumberland. This monarch having held the reins of government with a firm hand, many of his nobles rose in open rebellion against the royal authority. By his vigorous measures, however, he was enabled to crush the insurrection, and to bring the leading offenders to punishment. He afterwards directed his endeavours to crush the banditti who infested the counties of Moray, Ross and Caithness. Many of these were slain in various skirmishes, but the principal of them were secured and brought to the town of Forres, in order to render their fate more exemplary. Here the king was assassinated by the governor and his wife, who had vainly interceded to save some of the criminals, their relations.

Culenus, the son of Indulphus, now mounted the throne; and immediately instituted an inquiry into the murder of his predecessor, and visited with condign punishment all who were concerned in that tragical event. But with these acts the merits of his reign cease, for scarcely had the executioner performed his duty, before the king abandoned himself to every species of vice, and gave equal licence to the younger nobility. Having been, in consequence, summoned to answer for his conduct in an assembly of the states convened at Scone, he was assassinated on his journey thither by the Thane of Methven, whose daughter he had injured. Culenus was succeeded by Kenneth, the brother of Duffus, a man in every respect the reverse of him in character and conduct. His first object was to put an end to the abuses of the former reign; which he had scarcely accomplished, when the Danes made a descent on Aberdeenshire, and pillaged the country as far as the town of Perth, to which they laid siege. The king hastened to give them battle, and after an obstinate and bloody contest, was defeated and put to flight. This disaster being perceived by the chief of the clan, Hay, he, and his sons and vassals, placed themselves in a narrow pass, through which the main body of the Scots fled, and by their exhortations and courageous conduct succeeded in changing the fortune of the day. The Scots turned upon their conquerors, and after a second rencounter, still more furious than the first, gained a complete victory. The gallant Hay was rewarded with extensive estates, and raised to the

the dignity of nobility, which is still enjoyed by his descendants. From that time peace continued for several years, during which period Kenneth attempted to regulate the succession to the royal dignity, so as to render it hereditary in his own family. In the pursuit of this object he committed the only crime with which his reign is stained, the murder of Malcolm, the son of king Duffus, who was considered by the nobility as the next successor to the throne. All his efforts, however, proved unsuccessful; for though he obtained a vote of the states in favour of his views, yet when the throne became vacant by his death, which happened in the year 994, Constantine the Bald was proclaimed king. Malcolm, Kenneth's son, collected a large body of troops to assert the preference of his rights, but on the approach of the royal troops he dismissed his army, and retired into Cumberland. Kenneth, his natural brother, regarding this conduct as dishonourable, prevailed on most of the soldiers to join his standard and continue the war. A battle soon afterwards ensued, in which both Constantine and Kenneth fell, each by the hand of the other, at the very moment when victory had declared for the latter.

In this critical emergency, the nobles elected Grimus, the son of Duffus, to the sovereign authority. This prince seems to have possessed greater popularity than his predecessor, for he was no sooner declared king, than most of his opponent's partizans deserted to his cause. Malcolm's party, therefore, deemed it advisable to negociate for peace, and accordingly a treaty was concluded, by which it was agreed that Grimus should retain the kingdom till his death, when it should revert to Malcolm and his heirs, according to the intentions of Kenneth. This peace was scrupulously observed during eight years; but after that period, Grimus having begun to evince a most tyrannical disposition, Malcolm thought himself justified in again taking up arms. He accordingly marched into Scotland, and as the tide of popularity was now decidedly in his favour, he soon acquired a large army. Grimus marched to oppose him, but being betrayed by his soldiers, he was severely wounded in the first battle, and soon after terminated his existence.

Malcolm, on assuming the sceptre, laboured to compose the various factions which agitated the state, and to destroy the numerous banditti of robbers who had taken advantage of the laxity of the old government, to infest almost every district of the kingdom. He renewed, in his capacity of king of Scotland, the league which he had formed with the English, as governor of Cumberland, and in virtue of its conditions sent a corps of troops to assist them in opposing the Danes. This measure so roused the indignation of the Danish monarch, that he dispatched a large fleet and army to invade the Scottish territories, under the command of two of his best generals, Olave and Euceus. A landing was effected in the province of Moray, which being subdued, the invaders laid siege to the fortress of Nairn. Malcolm, who, who, during these operations, had been busily engaged in levying forces, arrived while the garrison yet continued a gallant defence; but being defeated, they were compelled to surrender; and the fortresses of Elgin and Moray were evacuated without resistance.

Upon these successes the Danes resolved to fix their habitation in Moray, and with this view sent home their ships to bring over their wives and children. In the mean time Malcolm re-organized his army, and made head against the enemy again at Mortlich, in the district of Marr. At first the Scots, discouraged by the fall of three of their commanders, retreated to their camp, where they made a vigorous stand, and changed their flight into a glorious victory. Malcolm, however, did not deem it prudent to advance far in pursuit, nor to attempt the expulsion of the whole Danish colony before he had recruited his forces with new levies. This cautious policy afforded time to king Swein to dispatch a second body of troops to the assistance of their countrymen. They were commanded by Camus, a general of tried courage and abilities, and disembarked near Aberbrothick, in Angus, whence they marched forward to the village of St. Bride, near which the Scots lay encamped, and ready to receive them. The action that followed terminated in the total rout of the Danes, who, finding their retreat to their ships cut off, dispersed in different directions. Camus and the most considerable party fled towards the mountains, with the intention of penetrating to Moray; but before they had proceeded far from the field of battle, they were overtaken, and either slain or made prisoners. A similar fate attended all the other fugitive bands.

This second discomfiture, though more signal than the first, did not yet discourage the Danish king. Immediately on being apprized of it, he sent a third armament under his own son, Canute, which landed in Buchan without opposition, and plundered the surrounding country. Malcolm, who had scarcely recovered the losses sustained in former battles, nevertheless hastened to oppose this new invasion. At first he declined risking a general engagement, but when he had ascertained that his opponents were less strong than was originally supposed, he seized a favourable opportunity to fall upon them with his whole forces. The battle was the most dreadful hitherto fought against the Danes; the Scots remained masters of the field, but were unable to pursue the enemy, who retreated without molestation. Next day both parties, equally afraid to hazard another contest, eagerly listened to the interposition of the clergy, and concluded a peace, in which it was stipulated that all the Danes should leave Scotland, and that neither Swein nor Malcolm should, in future, wage war against one another.

Malcolm having seen the first article of the above treaty performed, disbanded his army, and reigned for some years in greater splendour and glory than any preceding monarch of Scotland. As old age approached, however, he acquired an exorbitant love for money, a passion which led him to commit many acts of oppression and injustice. This conduct excited the hatred of the nobility, and eventually occasioned his assassination, though authors are not agreed as to the perpetrators of the bloody deed.

Duncan, the grandson of Malcolm, by his daughter Beatrice, succeeded to the vacant throne. He was a prince of great popularity, which he had justly acquired; but while his virtues endeared him to the wise and good, they awakened feelings of enmity in the breasts of the turbulent and seditious. Macdugald, a chieftain of the west, first raised the standard of rebellion, and attracted to it many of the islanders, and a body of Irish, who joined him in the hope of plunder. The king dispatched one Malcolm, a thane of high rank, to quell this insurrection, but he was unfortunately defeated and taken prisoner. Alarmed at that event, Malcolm summoned a council, in which Macbeth, one of his relatives, declared, that if he were made general of an expedition, in conjunction with Bancho, thane of Loch Abyr, they would soon bring the traitors to punishment. Macbeth obtained the wished-for command, and performed his task almost without resistance; for such was the terror infused into the rebels by his known character for severity, that on his approach they endeavoured to save themselves by flight, but the main body was overtaken, and most of them put to the sword.

Thus was Duncan freed from domestic sedition, but he did not long enjoy peace. The Norwegians, under Swein, king of Denmark, soon after landed in Fifeshire, and again aroused him from his natural inactivity. Having entrusted to Macbeth the charge of levying a new army, he himself advanced, with such troops as he could collect, to oppose the invaders, whom he met at Culross, where a battle ensued, with terminated to the disadvantage of the Scots. Duncan retired to the town of Perth, which was immediately besieged by the Danes. In the mean time Macbeth advanced with the new levies, upon whose arrival the king made a sudden attack upon the enemy's camp, while they were totally unprepared, and routed them with such slaughter, that only Swein, and a few attendants, were enabled to reach their ships.

But no sooner was Duncan relieved from this second danger,

danger, than he was alarmed by the news of the landing of the Danes in Fifeshire. Bancho marched to oppose their progress, and beat them back to their ships. About the same time, Macbeth, whose ambition led him to aspire to the throne, was encouraged in his daring views by a dream, in which he imagined that three women, naked, and of uncommon beauty, appeared to him and saluted him, one as thane of Angus, another as thane of Murray, and the third as king of Scotland. Henceforth he determined to accomplish his purpose at all hazards; and accordingly, having brought over many of the nobles to his side, he waylaid and murdered the king at Inverness. Macbeth then hastened to Scone, where he was invested with the royal authority. The sons of Duncan astonished at these events, fled, one into Cumberland, and the other to the Hebrides. Shakspeare has dramatised some of these events in his admirable tragedy of "Macbeth."

The first act of Macbeth's reign was to suppress the feuds which subsisted between the thanes of Caithness, Ross, Sutherland, and Nairn. He afterwards defeated and slew Macgill, lord of Galloway, who refused to acknowledge his authority; and quiet having been thus restored to the kingdom, he applied his attention to the enactment of many salutary laws, and to the correction of abuses in their administration. Thus he reigned ten years with so much justice, that the manner of his obtaining the throne was totally overlooked. At the close of that period, however, he began to give way to the natural cruelty of his temper, and to convert his hitherto laudable government into an oppressive and cruel tyranny. The first shock of his inhumanity was vented against Bancho, whom he invited to a feast, and caused to be slain whilst returning home, giving out that the deed was perpetrated in an accidental fray or tumult. Upon this, most of the nobles departed to their own castles, and only a few of them occasionally repaired to court. Hence mutual distrust and jealously sprung up between them and the king, who upon the slightest pretences seized their property, and put them to death. The confiscated estates he employed to maintain a band of plunderers, whom he kept as a guard about his person. But even with their protection he did not consider himself in safety, and therefore resolved to erect a castle for his residence on the summit of Dunsinnan hill. In the accomplishment of this work, he ordered all the thanes of the kingdom to assist; but Macduff, thane of Fife, sent only workmen on his part: this disobedience exasperated Macbeth so much, that he swore vengeance against Macduff, who, fearful of the consequences, immediately fled to England, where he found Malcolm, the son of Duncan, royally treated by king Edward the Confessor. After several interviews with the Scottish prince, he encouraged him to assert his rights to the throne of Scotland. Malcolm, assured of Macduff's integrity, hesitated not a moment to adopt his views, and being assisted by king Edward with 10,000 men, he marched directly into Scotland, where he was joined by all ranks of the people. Macbeth, not daring to hazard a battle, endeavoured to escape, but was arrested and put to death.

Malcolm, having thus recovered his father's dominions, was declared king in the year 1057. This prince is said to have introduced into Scotland the titles of earl, baron, and knight. Macduff, to whose encouragement and exertions he owed the crown, is mentioned by Buchanan as having been the first who held the dignity of earl. At the same time, the privilege of placing the king in the chair of state at the ceremony of coronation was granted to him and his posterity.

But though Malcolm thus easily obtained the crown, he was not allowed to enjoy it long in peace. The faction of Macbeth proclaimed his son, Luthlac, king, and for three months contended openly for the maintenance of his pretensions. At length his followers were defeated and himself slain in Strathbogie. Malcolm now reigned for several years, undisturbed either by foreign or domestic enemies. In the interim Edgar Atheling, who with his mother and sisters had fled from England to avoid the suspicions of William the Conqueror, was driven by distress of weather into Scotland, where they were courteously received by Malcolm, who married Margaret, the sister of Edgar. The Scottish prince further protected all Edgar's banished friends, and assigned them lands for their maintenance. This conduct excited king William to declare war against Scotland; but after several unsuccessful attempts at invasion, he concluded a peace favourable both to Edgar and Malcolm.

The danger of foreign troubles being removed, several of the clans raised the standard of rebellion against the government, and for a time threatened its subversion; but the valour of Macduff, and of Walter, grandson of Bancho, eventually restored quiet; for which service the latter was constituted lord steward of Scotland, and from him the royal family of Stewart were descended. Malcolm now applied himself to the reformation of the public morals, and established the two new bishoprics of Caithness and Moray. In 1079 he took advantage of the civil war in Normandy, between king William and his son, Robert, to devastate the county of Northumberland: to revenge this aggression, the English monarch sent an army into Scotland, but Malcolm's cautious policy prevented it from effecting any important exploit, and a treaty was soon afterwards negociated between the two kingdoms. The accession of William Rufus, however, again proved the signal for hostilities. Malcolm advanced into England as far as Chester-in-the Street, whence he retreated, as soon as he understood that the English army was in march to oppose him. William, in his turn, prepared for the invasion of Scotland both by land and sea, and actually passed the borders, when the destruction of his fleet, and the intercession of Robert, duke of Normandy, and Edgar Atheling, induced him to conclude a peace with his antagonist. Malcolm promised the same homage which he had yielded to the conqueror; and William engaged to surrender to the Scottish king twelve manors, which Duncan had held in England, and to pay him twelve marks of gold annually: but peace did not continue long. William fortified Carlisle in the subsequent year; a measure which Malcolm pointedly resented: a personal interview was proposed in the hope of accommodating matters, but it had an opposite result. The Scottish king, therefore, led his army into Northumberland and besieged Alnwick; where he was surprised and slain, as was also his eldest son Edward Mowbray, on the 13th of November, 1093.

Donaldbane, the brother of Malcolm, succeeded, but he was soon driven from the throne by his nephew, Duncan, who was assisted in recovering his dominions by king William Rufus; Duncan, however, had not enjoyed his dignity above six months, before he was assassinated at the instigation of his uncle, who once more usurped the crown, and reigned about two years, when he was a second time dethroned, and Edgar, the son of Malcolm, set up in his stead. This prince cultivated peace with king William Rufus, and his successor Henry I., to whom he gave his sister Matilda in marriage. Edgar died at Edinburgh on the 8th of January, 1106—7, and was succeeded by his brother Alexander I., who likewise preserved peace with his southern neighbours; but his reign was disturbed by an alarming rebellion at home, and by the ecclesiastical pretensions of the archbishops of York and Canterbury. His promptitude and valour, however, soon quelled the former, and his steady opposition to the latter enabled him to maintain the rights of his country and the independence of his government. Alexander died in April 1134, and was succeeded by David, the younger son of Malcolm and Margaret. This prince, having been educated at the court of Henry I., had acquired a knowledge of the English laws, and gained considerable experience in the art of government. Like his predecessor, he resisted with success the efforts of the court of Rome to destroy the independence of the Scottish church. His attention was afterwards drawn to

to an insurrection raised by Angus, earl of Moray, who was defeated and slain at Stracathrow, one of the passes of Forfarshire. During these transactions David maintained the strictest amity with England, till the civil dissentions which ensued upon the death of Henry, when he took up arms in support of the empress Matilda; but he afterwards concluded a treaty with the usurper, Stephen. This lasted about two years, when David again passed the borders, and fought the battle of the "Standard" on the 22d of August, 1138. In that action the Scots were overthrown with great slaughter, and the king himself, with the remains of his army, found great difficulty in securing a retreat to Carlisle. David nevertheless soon recruited his troops, and shewed himself to be still formidable, by reducing the castle of Werk; but his further progress was arrested by the conclusion of peace. After this David applied himself chiefly to the laudable task of civilizing his yet semi-barbarous subjects. He founded several towns, and enacted the "Leges Burgorum," which still continue partly in force. He likewise introduced into the kingdom many Anglo-Saxon, Anglo-Norman, and Anglo-Belgic inhabitants, a measure that met with great opposition, but which nevertheless was eventually advantageous to Scotland. David died at Carlisle in May, 1153, and was succeeded by the grandson of Malcolm, who had scarcely seated himself on the throne, before Somerled, an Hebridean chief, invaded the Mainland, and forced him to take the field. After various conflicts, Somerled was repulsed, but not subdued; and Malcolm was forced to conclude a peace, with him, upon terms degrading to the dignity of the Scottish monarch.

About this time, the demise of Stephen placed the crown of England on the head of Henry II., who not only disregarded his solemn engagements to cede to Scotland the country lying between the Tyne and the Tweed, but demanded restitution of those territories which Malcom held in England. The latter, conscious of his inability to wage war with so powerful a monarch, complied with this unjustifiable demand; and in return, Henry conferred on him the honour of Huntington, for which he did homage in 1157, reserving all his dignities. Malcolm on that occasion was invested with the honour of knighthood; after which he accompanied Henry to France. These circumstances excited great discontent among the barons, and Somerled took advantage of the distracted state of the country to renew his inroads. Malcolm, however, on his return triumphed over all his adversaries; but did not long enjoy his good fortune, for he died at Jedburgh on the 8th of December, 1165.

William, the brother of Malcolm, now ascended the throne, and almost immediately repaired to the English court to demand the restoration of Northumberland. Henry amused him with fair promises for twelve months, when William began to perceive the futility of further solicitation; and therefore entered into a league with France, in 1168, though it does not appear that war was the immediate result. William, however, wasted the borders in 1173; and in the subsequent year engaged in a similar expedition, during which he was surprised in his camp at Alnwick, and taken prisoner, an event which cost him the ancient independency of his crown; for, in order to gain his liberty, he stipulated to do homage to Henry for Scotland and all his other possessions; engaged that all the barons and nobility of his kingdom should also do homage; that the bishops should take an oath of fealty; that both should swear to adhere to the king of England against their native prince, if the latter should break his engagements; and that the fortresses of Edinburgh, Stirling, Berwick, Roxburgh, and Jedburgh, should be delivered up to Henry till the performance of all these articles. "This severe and humiliating treaty," says Hume, "was executed in its full rigour. William, being released, brought up all his barons, prelates and abbots, and they did homage to Henry in the Cathedral of York, and acknowledged him and his successors for their superior lord. The English monarch stretched still further the rigour of the conditions which he exacted. He engaged the king and states to make a perpetual cession of the fortresses of Berwick and Roxburgh, and to allow the castle of Edinburgh to remain in his possession for a limited time." This is the first great ascendant which England obtained over Scotland.

These disgraceful measures, and the feeble conduct of William, rendered him extremely unpopular. The lords of Galloway and Ross successively displayed the standard of rebellion, and though eventually compelled to submit, kept the kingdom in a state of disquietude for some years. In 1188, Henry II. sent Hugh, bishop of Durham, and several priests, into Scotland, to collect a *disne* for the Holy Land; but this met with the warmest opposition. He next offered to restore the castles of Roxburgh and Berwick to William, if he would give the tenths of the kingdom for the holy war; and his consent was only withheld, in consequence of the barons and clergy indignantly declaring, that "they would not pay, although both kings should have sworn to levy them." This was the last proposal of Henry affecting the independence of Scotland, as he died soon afterwards, leaving his crown to his son Richard, who restored to William all the rights and territories which had been wrested from him during the government of his father: thus Scotland again resumed her independence, though her monarch became the baronial vassal of England, as earl of Huntington. In the latter capacity, William did homage to king John, A. D. 1200; and, after the ceremony, demanded restitution of the three northern counties of England, a demand which was tacitly refused. In 1209, both monarchs assembled their troops on the borders, but the interference of their respective barons effected a reconciliation without bloodshed. From this period William lived in peace till his death, which occurred on the 4th of December, 1214.

Alexander II., the son of William, succeeded to the throne, and almost immediately engaged in hostilities against king John, in support of the barons. John lost no time in making a signal retaliation. In 1216, he passed the Tweed, and burnt the towns of Dunbar and Haddington. Alexander next year entered England to join Lewis, the French prince; but the death of John, and the subsequent disasters of Lewis, prevented the accomplishment of his designs, and a treaty was soon after concluded with Henry III. This pacification lasted till the year 1233, when the English king thought proper to call in question the validity of Alexander's coronation, and even intrigued to deprive him of his crown. In an interview between the two kings at Newcastle, they endeavoured in vain to accommodate their differences. They adjusted them nevertheless at York, in September, 1237; but as the terms of their agreement were unequal, it was not of long duration. Jealousies arose between them in 1244; Henry collected a large force at Newcastle, and Alexander marched to the frontiers a highly disciplined army, amounting, as some writers state, to the number of 100,000 men, all animated with the most determined resolution, to defend their country. The appearance of so formidable a force induced the English barons to mediate a peace, which was accordingly agreed to. Alexander was next roused from repose by an insurrection in Galloway, which he had scarcely quelled, before Angus, lord of Argyle, assumed independence, and refused to acknowledge the sovereignty of the Scottish crown. The king marched against him, but died in Kerreray, an islet on the coast of Argyle, on the 8th of July, 1249. Chalmers remarks concerning this prince, that he is properly characterised by Fordun, "as a king, pious, just and brave; as the shield of the church, the safeguard of the people, and the friend of the miserable."

Alexander III. was crowned at Scone, July 13, 1249, after having been knighted by David de Berneham, bishop of St. Andrews. In 1251, he celebrated his nuptials with Margaret, daughter of Henry III., and on that occasion did homage for his English lands. The selfishness of Henry led him to demand homage for the kingdom of Scotland also, but the young king, with equal fortitude and prudence, replied,

plied, that he had come to England to be married, not to treat of affairs of state; and that he could not comply with his desire without the approbation of the great council of the Scottish nation. With this prince commenced that series of regal minorities which caused so much distraction to Scotland for several centuries, through the intrigues of the nobles, and of the court of England, to secure the chief influence in the state. Henry began to forward his views, by dismissing all the leading men attached to the late king, and elevating a more subservient faction to power; but this arrangement was quickly overthrown by a coalition of the nobles, headed by the Cumyns, who seized the persons of the king and queen, and ruled in their names. As this party consisted of the most powerful persons in the kingdom, Henry found it necessary to accommodate himself to the state of affairs, and a new regency was formed, including the chiefs of all the factions. Thus domestic peace was restored; but foreign invasion almost immediately succeeded. In the year 1263, Haco, king of Norway, came into the Clyde with a fleet of 160 sail, and landed a numerous army near Largs, in Ayrshire. The Scottish forces, commanded by Alexander, hastened to oppose him, and in a decisive battle fought on the 2d of October, in the same year, completely routed the Norwegians. Haco, with difficulty, escaped to his ships, attended only by a few followers, and soon after expired in Orkney. Magnus, his successor, made over to Alexander all the islands of the Hebrides in full sovereignty, but he still retained the islands of Orkney and Zetland. From this period the Scottish king was chiefly occupied, for several years, in asserting the independence of the Scottish church against the pretensions of the pope, and in curbing the ambition of his own clergy. In 1278 he went to London, to attend the coronation of king Edward I., and to do homage for the lands held by him in England. The events which ensued were at once afflicting to the king, and ultimately disastrous to the nation. Within one year, viz., in 1283, Alexander, the young prince of Scotland, and his sister Margaret, who had married Eric, king of Norway, died. The former had no issue, but the latter left an only daughter, Margaret, commonly called the Maid of Norway. The Scottish king, anticipating the dangers of a disputed succession, resolved, if possible, to avert them. He assembled the great council of the nation at Scone, in which it was declared that the princess of Norway should succeed to the throne, "failing any children Alexander might have, and failing the issue of the late prince," whose widow it was supposed might be pregnant. To add strength to these prudent measures, Alexander himself married, for his second wife, Joletta, daughter of the Count de Dreux; but the festivities for that event had scarcely ceased, when he was killed by a fall from his horse, near Kinghorn, on the 16th of March 1285-6.

II.—History of the Third Period.

On this fatal accident, Margaret was unanimously declared queen, and a regency, consisting of six principal prelates and barons, was appointed to govern the kingdom during her absence and minority. Through their exertions, and protected by her father, Eric, and her grand uncle, king Edward of England, she seemed firmly seated on the throne; a circumstance from which the English monarch was led to anticipate great advantages. Having lately subjugated Wales, he formed the plan of marrying his eldest son, Edward, to the Scottish queen, hoping thereby to consolidate the whole island into one monarchy. With this view he drew closer the ties of amity between England and Norway, and did all in his power to attach the Scottish regency and nobles to his interest. The friendship which had of late prevailed between the two nations greatly facilitated the execution of this design, so favourable to the happiness and grandeur of both kingdoms. The states of Scotland not only gave a ready assent to the marriage, but agreed that their young sovereign should be educated in the court of Edward. Anxious, at the same time, to ensure the independence of their country, they took care to stipulate very equitable conditions before they entrusted themselves into the hands of so ambitious a monarch. It was solemnly agreed that they should enjoy all their ancient laws, liberties and customs; that in case their queen should die without issue, the crown of Scotland should revert to the next heir, and should be inherited by him free and independent; that the military tenants of the crown should never be obliged to leave Scotland, in order to do homage to the sovereign of the united kingdoms, nor the chapters of cathedrals, collegiate or conventual churches, in order to make elections; that the parliaments summoned for Scottish affairs should always be held within the bounds of that kingdom; and that Edward should bind himself, under the penalty of 100,000 marks, payable to the pope, to observe all these articles. It is not easy to conceive that two nations could have treated upon terms of greater equality than Scotland and England maintained during the whole course of this transaction; and though Edward gave his assent to the article concerning the future independence of the Scottish crown, with a saving of his former rights, this reserve gave no alarm to the nobility of Scotland. The marriage treaty was therefore signed at Brigham, on the 18th of July 1290, with the cordial concurrence of all parties.

But this project, so happily planned, and so amicably conducted, failed of success by the sudden demise of the Norwegian princess, who expired in Orkney, while on her passage to Scotland, and left a very dismal prospect to the kingdom. Though for the present disorders were prevented by the authority of the regency, the succession of the crown was now become an object of dispute, and the regents could not expect that a controversy, which is not usually decided by reason and argument, would be peaceably settled by them, or even by the states of the kingdom, amidst so many powerful competitors. As the posterity of king William became extinct by the death of the Maid of Norway, the right to the throne devolved on the issue of David, earl of Huntington, brother of William, whose male line being also extinct, left the succession open to the posterity of his daughters.

The earl had three daughters, Margaret, married to Allen, lord of Galloway; Isabella, wife of Robert Bruce, lord of Annandale; and Adama, who espoused Henry, lord Hastings. Margaret, the eldest of the sisters, left one daughter, Devergilda, married to John Baliol, by whom she had a son of the same name, one of the present claimants. Isabella, the second, bore a son, Robert Bruce, who was now alive, and also urged his pretensions; Adama, the third, left a son, John Hastings, who contended that the kingdom of Scotland, like other inheritances, ought to be divided equally among the three daughters of the earl of Huntington, and that he had a right to a third of it, as representing his mother. Baliol and Bruce united against Hastings in maintaining the indivisibility of the kingdom, but each of them supported by plausible arguments the preference of his own title. This occasioned a long and complicated investigation and dispute. Edward of England was appointed umpire, and he pronounced in favour of Baliol; but as he treated him in many respects as a vassal, imposing upon him the most degrading services, Baliol was soon incited to resist his pretensions, and the two kingdoms were thus involved in a war, which terminated in the conquest of Scotland. Edward, having settled the government, and, as he thought, ensured tranquillity, returned to the south, carrying with him the stone chair in which the Scottish kings were seated during the ceremony of coronation. Baliol was sent a prisoner to the Tower of London, where he remained two years, and was only liberated upon the condition of residing upon the continent during the remainder of his life. At this period, William Wallace, one of the greatest heroes of which the annals of history can boast, appeared as the vindicator of his country's freedom. Beginning with small attempts, in which he was always successful, he gradually proceeded to more momentous enterprises, and discovered equal caution in securing his followers, and valour in annoying the enemy. His intimate knowledge of the country enabled him, when pursued, to ensure

ensure a retreat among the morasses, in the forests, or the mountains. At times he dispersed his associates in one place, and, collecting them again in some distant quarter, surprised and routed the English before they had any idea of his approach. Every day was marked by some daring exploit, which increased his influence and means. At length he resolved to strike a decisive blow, by attacking Ormesby at Scone. The justiciary, apprized of his intentions, fled hastily into England, and was followed by all his colleagues in office, an event which gave a new character to the efforts of Wallace. Many of the principal barons, and particularly Sir William Douglas, now openly countenanced his party, and the nation at large prepared to defend, by an united effort, that liberty, which they had so unexpectedly recovered.

In the mean time, the earl of Surrey having mustered an army of 40,000 men, hastened to suppress an insurrection, which had become formidable in a great measure from his own negligence. After traversing Annandale, he marched along the western coast to Irvine, where he found the Scots encamped, and sufficiently formidable by their numbers to have punished his temerity, if distrust and disunion had not weakened their ranks. Fortunately for him, however, the jealousies of the nobles were still stronger than their patriotism, and many of them auguring no advantage from resistance, submitted to the English, and received pardon. Others, who had not so unequivocally declared themselves, likewise joined the oppressors of their country. Wallace alone remained inexorable to bribe or threat; but thus deserted, he was unable to give battle to the governor, and therefore marched to the northward, with the intention of prolonging the war, and of turning to his advantage the mountainous districts of the Highlands. When Warrene arrived at Stirling, the Scottish hero lay encamped at Cambuskenneth, on the opposite side of the Forth; the English commander again endeavoured to negociate, but Wallace replied, that his object was not to treat, but to set Scotland free. This bold language irritated the English, and they demanded to be led against the enemy. Warrene hesitated, but Cressingham urged an immediate attack, and his counsels prevailed. The English began to pass the bridge that separated the two armies, but before half of them had reached the opposite side, they were attacked by Wallace, and either driven into the river or destroyed by the sword. Among the slain was Cressingham himself, whose memory was so hateful to the Scots, that they flayed his dead body, and made girths of his skin. The remainder of the English army precipitately retreated into England. Wallace pursued, and reduced the fortresses of Berwick and Roxburgh; Dundee and some other strong holds also capitulated.

Wallace was now declared guardian of the kingdom by the unanimous voice of his followers, and under this title he directed affairs in the name of the captive Baliol. As the misfortunes of war and an unfavourable season had produced a famine, he marched into England, laid waste the northern counties, and returned loaded with spoils.

Edward, who during these transactions was prosecuting the war in Flanders, having concluded a truce with France, hastened over to England, in the confident hope of recovering the important conquest of Scotland, which he always regarded as the chief advantage of his reign. For this purpose he assembled an immense army, with which he laid siege to the castle of Dirleton. Wallace, in the mean time, sensible of the jealousy of the Scottish nobles, voluntarily resigned his authority as guardian to the Stewart of Scotland, and Cumyn of Badenoch, men of eminent birth, under whom he hoped the great chieftains would be more willing to fight in the defence of their country. These two commanders took post at Falkirk, and determined there to await the assault of the English. Wallace also brought his troops hither, and placed them at the disposal of the regents. The resolution of the Scottish chiefs to risk a general battle was highly agreeable to Edward, whose army was already much straitened for provisions, and was in a state of mutiny. He advanced therefore with great rapidity to Falkirk, and immediately on his arrival led his troops to the attack. Cumyn, with his division, fled on the first onset, and left that of the Stewart to be cut to pieces. This cowardly conduct decided the fate of the day; but in the general route, Wallace's military skill enabled him to preserve his patriot bands entire. After a gallant resistance, he retreated leisurely along the banks of the Carron, followed by a corps of the English army, under the orders of Bruce, who demanded a conference with the Scottish hero, in which the latter fully convinced him of his want of patriotism, in espousing the cause of the oppressor of his country.

Soon after this victory, Edward returned to England, and the Scots once more rallied, and obtained many advantages over the forces left behind by the English monarch. Three victories were gained in one day, and the renown of these great exploits, seconded by the favourable disposition of the people, soon made the regent master of all the fortresses in the south, and it became necessary for Edward to begin anew the conquest of the kingdom.

The English king accordingly prepared for that event with his usual activity and prudence. He assembled both a great fleet and army, and entering the kingdom, proceeded almost to its furthest extremities, without encountering any opposition. All the nobles, and even the regent himself, made their submissions to the conquerer. The only fortresses which did not immediately yield, were those of Brechin and Stirling. So gallantly, indeed, did the garrison of the latter defend their trust, that it was nearly demolished before Edward, after a siege of four months, was enabled to take it by assault, an event which again placed the whole of Scotland under his power. Still, however, he distrusted the permanency of his success, for Wallace was yet alive, unsullied in his character, and unsubdued in his spirit. Edward employed every art to discover his retreat, and to obtain possession of his person; and he at length succeeded, through the treachery of Sir John Monteith, whom Wallace had always regarded as one of his bosom friends. By him he was arrested, and sent in fetters to London, where he was tried as a traitor, though he had never made submissions or sworn fealty to England, and was executed on Tower-hill, on the 23d of August, 1305. Such was the unworthy fate of the greatest hero of whom Scotland has to boast.

The execution of Wallace, by which Edward hoped to strike terror into the Scots, served only to inflame their resentment; even the nobles, whose jealousy of Wallace had prevented his final success against the tyranny which oppressed them, bewailed his fate, and vowed vengeance against his murderer. Bruce, in particular, became more confirmed in his purpose of asserting his rights, and vindicating the liberties of his country. He incited the people to rise against their oppressors, attacked and defeated the detached parties of the English, secured the possession of many fortresses, and having established his authority in most places of the south, proceeded to Scone, where he was solemnly crowned on the 27th of March, 1306.

Bruce having by repeated successes driven all the English from Scotland, except such as fled to the few fortresses still in their hands, Edward dispatched Aylmer de Valence to crush this new and formidable revolt. That nobleman advanced without opposition to Methuen, in Perthshire, where he found the Scottish forces encamped, attacked them before they were aware of his approach, and gained a complete victory. The Scottish king fought with great courage, but was at last obliged to quit the field, and to seek security for himself and a few followers in the Western islands. All the prisoners of note were executed as rebels, and many acts of outrageous oppression were exercised against those of inferior rank. On the death of Edward, which happened in 1307, Bruce resolved again to try the fortune of war. He attacked and brought under his dominion the territories of Argyle, and afterwards took the fortresses of Inverness, Forfar, and Brechin. By these exploits he gradually increased his influence, and reconciled the barons to his cause.

Indeed,

Indeed, such was the alacrity with which the people in general seconded his operations, that in three months the whole of Scotland, except one or two fortified places, were wrested from the English. Edward II. harassed by dissentions at home, now found it necessary to agree to a truce, which, though it was only of short duration, enabled Bruce to consolidate his power, and organize his government. At its conclusion he entered England, and gratified the revenge and cupidity of his followers by laying waste and plundering the northern counties. Edward, in his turn, became the assailant during the same year, and advanced beyond Edinburgh. But the want of provisions soon obliged him to retire, without having gained any material advantage. But though he abandoned Scotland for the present, he resolved to undertake its conquest again at no distant period. With this view he summoned the most warlike of his vassals from Gascony, enlisted numerous foreign troops into his service, and assembling the whole military force of England, marched towards the borders with an army composed of 100,000 men. The Scots at this time were besieging the castle of Stirling, and had compelled the governor to a capitulation, unless relieved by a certain day. Bruce, judging that Edward would endeavour to save this fortress, posted his army at Bannockburn, about two miles to the southward, where his right flank was protected by a precipitous hill, and his left by a deep morass. This gallant band consisted only of 30,000 combatants, but all of them men of tried courage, determined to perish or to ensure the liberties of their country. The English arrived in sight on the 24th of June, and on the same evening dispatched a body of horse to penetrate to the castle. Bruce ordered his nephew, Randolph, earl of Murray, to intercept their march, and a furious engagement ensued, which terminated in the total discomfiture of the invaders, and contributed greatly to the confidence of the Scots. Early on the following day, the English king led his army to a general attack. The earl of Gloucester, who commanded the cavalry, rushed forward to the charge with the utmost impetuosity, and fell into the covered pits which Bruce had formed in front of his line. The Scottish cavalry, commanded by Sir James Douglas, advanced upon them, and after a prodigious slaughter, chased them from the field. Returning, they threw themselves upon the rear of the infantry, who were engaged by the Scottish foot. At this critical moment, the waggoners and sumpter boys of the army, whom Bruce had supplied with military standards, appeared on the summit of a neighbouring hill, and decided the fortune of the day. The English, supposing them to be another army, were panic struck, threw down their arms, and fled in the utmost confusion. They were pursued by the victors as far as Berwick with immense loss; and the king himself only escaped by the fleetness of his horse. The Scots, besides an inestimable booty, took many persons of quality prisoners, and above 400 gentlemen, all of whom Robert treated with great humanity. Barton, a monk of Scarborough, who had accompanied Edward to celebrate his triumph, composed a poem in honour of the victory of the Scots, as the price of his liberty; and the ransom of the other prisoners brought a great accession of wealth to the victorious army. Such, says an eminent historian, "was the great and decisive battle of Bannockburn, which secured the independence of Scotland, fixed Bruce on the throne of that kingdom, and may be deemed the greatest overthrow that the English nation, since the conquest, has ever received. The number of slain on those occasions is always uncertain, and is commonly much magnified by the victors. But this defeat made a deep impression on the minds of the English, and it was remarked that for some years no superiority of numbers could induce them to keep the field against the Scots."

After this victory the castle of Stirling surrendered according to agreement, and that of Berwick was taken by assault. Bruce likewise attempted to make himself master of the town of Carlisle, but his efforts were baffled by the bravery of its garrison. In April, 1315, he assembled a Parliament at Ayr, to settle the succession to the crown, which was declared to devolve to Sir Edward Bruce, his brother, in preference to the king's own daughter Margery, who gave up her rights for the benefit of her country. Sir Edward immediately passed over into Ireland, to aid the Irish against the English, and he was soon after followed by the king himself, but the latter returned to Scotland in the same year. His brother, however, continued to pursue his projects of conquest, till his defeat and death in the battle at Dundalk, which was fought in 1318. This event rendered a new settlement of the regal succession necessary, and accordingly a Parliament met at Scone in December, and acknowledged as heir, Robert, the infant son of Margery, who had married the Stewart, and died in 1316. But this destination of the crown was also rendered nugatory in the first instance, by the birth of a son to the king himself, in 1323. In the mean time the war continued to rage with various success, and Robert dispatched Randolph as ambassador to France, to conclude a treaty offensive and defensive with Charles IV. In March 1327, the English government agreed to acknowledge the kingship of Bruce and the independence of Scotland, and passed a solemn act of Parliament to that effect. The treaty of Northampton was the immediate consequence, and settled the peace between the contending kingdoms as independent sovereignties. One of its stipulations was, that David, the infant son of Robert, should marry Jane, the sister of the English king. Bruce, having thus obtained the consummation of his magnanimous efforts, died in the year following, at the age of fifty-five.

David I. now ascended the throne, which the abilities and vigour of his father had re-established, apparently on a firm foundation. Randolph, earl of Murray, was declared guardian to the young king; but, unfortunately for the prince and for Scotland, he died in 1332, the very year in which a new competitor for the crown arose in the person of Edward Baliol, son of that John who had so meanly surrendered his kingdom to Edward I. This pretender, with the secret support of the English monarch, collected a considerable body of troops, and landed in Fifeshire. The new regent, Donald, earl of Mar, hastened to oppose this invasion, and for that purpose is said to have mustered an army of 40,000 men. His imprudence and want of skill, however, destroyed the advantages which superiority of numbers gave him over his antagonist. Both armies encamped opposite to each other, separated only by the river Erne; and the regent, confiding in that security, and the small force of the enemy, neglected all order and precaution. Baliol, apprized of this, passed the river in the night, penetrated into the camp of the Scots, threw them into confusion, and pursued them from the field with great slaughter. Baliol, on this unexpected success, marched for Perth, and made himself master of that important station. Here he was besieged by the earl of March and Sir Archibald Douglas, but their efforts were defeated, and Baliol was proclaimed king. David and his betrothed queen were sent over to France, and the leaders of his party sued for and obtained a truce from his competitor, whose power they were unable to resist. Baliol's reign, however, was of short duration; for having dismissed the greater part of his English followers, he was attacked and defeated near Annan, by Sir Archibald Douglas, and other chieftains of the Bruce faction. By this disaster he lost his kingdom more rapidly than he gained it. But in the interval he had induced the English king openly to support his cause. Edward resolved to reinstate him in the possession of the crown, an enterprize which he flattered himself would be easy, and accordingly besieged Berwick, which the governor, after a gallant defence, agreed to surrender, unless relieved by a certain day. The regent being informed of this capitulation, was forced, contrary to his wishes, to risk the fate of the kingdom on the issue of one battle. He attacked the English at Halydon Hill, north of Berwick, and as he himself was slain at the first onset, his army was totally routed. The English writers calculate the loss of the Scots in this action at 30,000 men; while Edward is

is said to have lost only one knight, one esquire, and thirteen private soldiers; an inequality, as Hume properly remarks, almost incredible.

By this victory Baliol again obtained the sovereignty, and was formally acknowledged king in a parliament assembled at Edinburgh. The terms on which he acquired that dignity, however, were too degrading for the Scottish nation to submit to long; as he not only swore fealty to Edward, but actually ceded to him, in perpetual possession, all the south-eastern counties of the kingdom. No sooner, therefore, were the English troops withdrawn, than the Scots, a second time, effected the expulsion of Baliol. Edward marched again into Scotland, and the patriots prudently retired to their hills and fastnesses, whence they issued immediately on his retreat, and re-conquered their country. A third time the English monarch became the invader, and with similar success; for every new attempt to impose the discarded monarch upon the nation, only served to inflame the general indignation.

The English king about this time was led to advance pretensions to the throne of France, which soon embroiled him in a war with that kingdom. This event elated the hopes of the Scots, who gradually reduced all the fortified places held by the English within their territories; and in order that they might have the countenance of sovereign authority, they invited David and his queen to return to Scotland. The royal pair accordingly landed at Innerberry, in the Mearns, in June, 1342. Indignant at the desolation that every where met his eyes, David immediately entered England, and ravaged the country as far as Newcastle, to which he laid siege; but after several disastrous assaults, he was obliged to abandon the enterprize. David again invaded England in 1347, and advanced to the vicinity of Durham, where he was encountered by an English force, raised by the energetic conduct of queen Philippa. The contest was warmly maintained for some time on both sides, but the Scots were in the end defeated, and the king himself, and many of the nobility, made prisoners. Baliol, who commanded the English army in this action, prosecuted his victory with great vigour. Before the conclusion of the year he had reduced the castles of Hermitage and Roxburgh, and extended his conquests over Annandale, Teviotdale and Tweedale. In the next year success continued to attend his mareh; but in 1348 he was forced to retreat into England, and a truce was agreed to. On its expiration, in 1355, the Bruces once more took the field, which they were better enabled to do by means of a considerable assistance, both in men and money, furnished to them by the French king. One party, commanded by lord Douglas, completely defeated the English marchers at Nisbet Moor, and afterwards assaulted and took the town of Berwick, but the approach of Edward prevented the reduction of the castle. At this period, Baliol, tired of attempting to regain a crown, determined to retire into private life, and to resign to the English king all his rights to the throne, in exchange for a subsistence adequate to his rank. The bargain was agreed to, and Edward marched into Scotland with a powerful army, to secure his newly acquired possessions. The Scots adopted the wise policy of harassing their enemy by frequent skirmishes, in which they were so successful, that Edward was soon compelled to a precipitate retreat. During these events David remained a prisoner in England, but in May, 1357, a truce was concluded, wherein he was virtually acknowledged king, and was ransomed for the sum of 100,000 marks, to be paid by instalments within ten years.

David having, by this treaty, gained his liberty, paid the two first instalments of his ransom; but he found it impracticable to raise money for the third payment. After various unsuccessful expedients, therefore, he was obliged to appeal to Edward himself, and to conclude a treaty with him in 1363, in which it was stipulated that the latter should succeed to the throne of Scotland, and that a federal union of that kingdom with England should take place, provided David died without issue. But the Scottish nobles having rendered this treaty nugatory and unavailing, another was agreed to in May, 1365, by which Scotland became bound to pay to England the sum of £100,000 within the space of 25 years. From this period no event occurred worthy of notice in the history of Scotland, till the death of David, which happened in Feb. 22, 1370-71; when Robert II. succeeded to the throne, and was crowned at Scone on the 26th of March, 1371, at the advanced age of 55. Among the first acts of his government, was the dispatch of ambassadors to France, by whom was negociated a treaty, which stipulated that neither the king of Scotland nor the king of France should be obliged to make war upon England; that not even the dispensation of the pope should relieve either party from their engagement to each other; that in the event of a competition for the crown of Scotland, the king of France should take care that no English influence was used; that he should acknowledge the king elected conformably to the laws; and that no Frenchman should serve against Scotland, nor any Scotchman against France.

Robert and Edward continued to keep up a friendly correspondence, notwithstanding their respective borderers were engaged in perpetual hostility, and the former was punctual in discharging the instalments of his uncle's ransom.

Robert, who had a numerous progeny, and seems to have feared some disputes might arise relative to the succession after his death, convoked a parliament at Scone, in April, 1373, in order that their declaration might guard the kingdom from a repetition of its past misfortunes. This parliament recognized, in the first instance, the title of John, earl of Carrick, and the Stewart of Scotland, his eldest son by Elizabeth More, his first wife, thereafter his other sons by the same lady, according to their seniority; his sons by Euphemia Ross, his second wife; and lastly, "the true and lawful heirs of the blood and stock royal." Buchanan erroneously calls Euphemia Ross the first wife, and Elizabeth the second wife, alleging that the children of the latter were born during an illegitimate connexion in early life; but sufficient evidence has been adduced from papal archives to shew that the king married Elizabeth More at a date prior to his marriage with queen Euphemia, and that she died long before he ascended the throne.

In 1377 the border wars began to rage with signal fury. The lord Percy, now Earl of Northumberland, ravaged the estates of the earl of March, and a party of Scots, commanded by one Ramsay, surprised the castle of Berwick, and declared that they held it for the king of France. It was re-taken, however, by assault, after a siege of nine days, when all the garrison, except Ramsay, were put to the sword. The English army then marched into Scotland, but their advanced guard having been entirely cut off, they desisted from their expedition. In 1379, the Scottish borderers again invaded England, and laid waste the country. The earl of Northumberland, in retaliation, fitted out privateers, and captured some Scotch ships; but the English government resented these proceedings, and ordered the border earls not to provoke the Scots, but to observe the truce. These commands, however, not being attended to, the earl of Douglas burst into Cumberland with 20,000 men, plundered the town of Penrith during its fair, and returned with an immense booty in merchandize, besides 40,000 head of cattle.

The Duke of Lancaster, about this time, was sent to repress the borderers, and also to obtain some satisfaction from the Scottish king for the many infractions of the existing truce, which had been committed by his subjects. Before he entered upon hostilities, however, he invited the Scots to a treaty, and a truce was agreed to for ten months, which was afterwards prolonged for seven months more. But this convention seems to have related only to the borders, as the Scottish monarch does not appear as a party to it. This pacific conduct of the duke created him many enemies in England. Hence, when the people rebelled against his nephew's

nephew's government, he found it necessary to seek safety for a short time in Scotland, where he was hospitably received. On his return, the Scots having assaulted the castle of Werk, he was again dispatched to demand reparation, and to treat for a general peace. Conferences were accordingly held with the earl of Carrick, but nothing definite was agreed to. Indeed the continuance of peace appears not to have been the wish of the Scottish monarch, for he soon after renewed the ancient league with France, and commenced hostilities by taking the castle of Lochmaben. On this the duke advanced as far as Edinburgh, whence he was obliged to return to Berwick, without having gained any advantage. The Scots again became the aggressors, and had laid waste the country as far as Newcastle, when the conclusion of a new truce put an end, for a time, to regular hostilities. The border wars, however, still raged, and the town of Berwick was taken by the Scots, but was given up again on payment of 2000 marks.

On the expiration of the truce, Robert, who had received considerable supplies from France, prepared to invade England, and create a diversion in the north, while a French army should land in the south. But in the interim the French king was obliged to abandon the intended descent upon England, and hence Robert was left to contend, single-handed, against the undivided force of that powerful monarchy. Richard marched into Scotland at the head of 60,000 men. The Scottish king wisely refused to risk a general action, (though strongly urged to do so by the officer commanding the French auxiliaries), contenting himself by harassing the enemy by frequent attacks, till they were forced to retreat within their own territories. After this, the earl of Douglas invaded Ireland and the Isle of Man, whence he returned with immense booty. Robert, elated by these succeses, resolved to attempt an invasion of England on a grand scale. Accordingly a powerful army entered Northumberland, and laid siege to Newcastle, which was defended by Henry Percy, surnamed Hotspur. This nobleman challenged Douglas, the Scottish general, to meet him in single combat, and the challenge having been accepted, a contest took place in sight of both armies, and terminated in the overthrow of Hotspur. Next day Douglas ordered a general assault, but was unsuccessful; and as the English had received reinforcements during the night, he deemed it prudent to retire towards Scotland. Percy, eager to wipe off the disgrace of his personal defeat, pursued, and came up with the Scots at Otterburn, where a battle was fought by the light of the moon, and is represented by historians as the most obstinately contested of any that occurred in that age. Earl Percy, and above a hundred persons of distinction, were made prisoners, and contributed, by their ransoms, to enrich their conquerors. Scarcely was this battle finished, when another English army appeared in view, under the orders of the bishop of Durham. The Scots, notwithstanding their fatigued state, resolved to venture a second contest, and nobly disdaining the customary barbarity of putting their prisoners to death, (though nearly as numerous as their whole army,) drew up in martial array, having simply required them to give their word of honour that they would not interfere in the action. The bishop, who imagined the Scots would fly at his approach, perceiving their bold attitude, thought it more advisable to retreat than to hazard the destruction of his army. The Scots henceforth continued their march unmolested; and in testimony of the honourable conduct of their prisoners, they dismissed all those of inferior rank without ransom, and accepted obligations from their superiors, all of which were punctually fulfilled; examples of honour and generosity worthy of the most enlightened period of society.

In the year 1389 a treaty was concluded between the kings of England and France, to which the Scots were invited to accede; but as the earl of March and the lord of the Isles were admitted as parties, great opposition was manifested to it by the nobles, who considered both these noblemen as subjects of the Scottish monarchy, and therefore not entitled to treat as independent persons. The king, however, inclined to peace, and after some explanations on the part of the French and English ambassadors, the nobles were induced to give a reluctant consent to the termination of hostilities for three years. Robert died soon afterwards, oppressed with grief and age, April 11th, 1390, and was succeeded by his eldest son, John, earl of Carrick, who assumed the title of Robert III. In earlier life he had commanded armies, and negociated treaties, with ability and success, but he had lived for some time in retirement. Now that he was called to the throne, he committed the direction of public affairs to his brother, the earl of Fife, by whose advice he confirmed the late truce, and renewed the ancient league with France. In this reign a violent feud broke out between the clans Chattan and Kay, which raged for nearly three years with the most ruthless fury. The earl of Crawford was sent to restore peace; but fearing that the employment of force might cause an union against the government, he had recourse to the following expedient, which serves to illustrate the character of the Highlanders, and the general state of society in that age. He proposed that their quarrel should be decided by thirty champions from each clan, who should fight with the sword only, in presence of the king and his court. The proposal, being perfectly agreeable to the spirit of the feudal laws, was sanctioned by both parties. A level spot near Perth was fixed upon for the scene of action, but when the combatants were mustered, it was found that one of them, belonging to clan Chattan, had failed to appear. In this difficulty it was suggested that one of clan Kay should be withdrawn, but all of them refused to relinquish the honour and danger of the combat. Various other expedients were started with no better success. At length Henry Wynd, a smith, no ways connected with either clan, offered to supply the place of the absentee, and his offer was accepted. The champions on both sides now joined battle, and after a contest probably unparalleled for its fury, victory declared for clan Chattan, principally owing to the superior heroism of Wynd, who with ten of his comrades, all desperately wounded, alone survived the contest. Of clan Kay, one only was left alive, who, being unhurt, threw himself into the Tay and escaped. This singular combat happened in the year 1396: and in 1398, as the truce with England had nearly expired, it was prolonged, and several regulations were made tending to preserve the peace of the borders. In the same year the title of duke was first introduced into Scotland, by the elevation of the king's eldest son David to the dukedom of Rothsay; and of his own brother, the earl of Fife, to the dukedom of Albany. A custom also began to prevail in the border treaties, of naming cautioners, who acted as conservators of the peace, and were a kind of attorneys for their fellow subjects, in all matters cognizable in the border courts, which had been lately established on both sides. These regulations are justly considered as important steps in the progressive civilization of the two kingdoms.

The events of the year 1401 were the most disastrous in themselves, and in their consequences, which ever occurred to Scotland. The death of earl Douglas was followed by those of William Trail, archbishop of St. Andrews, a prelate of great weight; and queen Annabella, a woman of exemplary virtue and prudence. This princess, by her influence, had conciliated the jealousies of several branches of the royal family, and in particular had restrained the impetuous temper of the duke of Rothsay, the heir apparent to the throne, who was barbarously murdered soon after by the duke of Albany. The truce with England being now expired, war was renewed on the borders, and a severe action was fought at Western-Nisbet, in which the Scots were defeated. So strongly contested was this battle, that it is affirmed that few of either army escaped unhurt. It was succeeded in the year following by another combat, fought between the troops of Henry Hotspur and Douglas, at Homeldon, where the English were again victorious, and numbered among their prisoners the earls of Douglas, Fife, Angus, Murray, lords Montgomery, Erskine, Graham and Orkney, eighty knights, and about 10,000 gentlemen and private soldiers. This battle, so immediately disastrous to Scotland, proved in its

its results no less so to England. King Henry having ordered earl Percy and the other barons not to ransom their prisoners, they regarded that mandate as such a tyrannical infringement of their feudal rights, that they raised the standard of revolt against the government, and for a time defied all its efforts. The victory of Shrewsbury, and the fall of Percy, terminated this formidable insurrection. Douglas, the rival of Percy, was present in this battle, and was taken prisoner, but his conduct had so greatly excited the admiration of the English king, that he gave him his liberty without ransom.

Henry, notwithstanding this victory, was extremely desirous of concluding a peace with Scotland, in order that he might employ the whole force of his government in overawing his discontented subjects. He first attempted to open a negociation through the medium of the French ambassadors at the Scottish court, but finding that measure unavailing, he dispatched special commissioners with the same view. The result was unfavourable, and hostilities continued, though without any remarkable transaction on either side. All this time Robert remained ignorant of the fate of the duke of Rothsay, but it soon became necessary to make him acquainted with it. The king, unable to punish his murderers, adopted the prudent resolution of sending his second son James to France; he did not reach his destination, having been captured by an English privateer, and sent as a prisoner to London. The news of this second disaster so affected Robert, that he died three days afterwards, in March 1405.

On this event the states of the kingdom nominated the duke of Albany regent. This prince was a man of consummate abilities, but ambitious, and hence appears to have been lukewarm in his endeavours to obtain the liberty of his sovereign. The spirit of the people, however, forced him to declare war against England, but it was soon terminated by a truce, during which it was proposed to enter into negociations for a permanent peace. Conferences were, in consequence, held for that purpose, but they ended only in a prolongation of the truce, at the close of which the war was renewed, and Henry prepared to strike a decisive blow against Scotland; but his preparations were never carried into effect, as a treaty was agreed to which lasted till 1415. This period of Scottish history is distinguished by the foundation of the university of St. Andrew's, the first institution of the kind of which Scotland can boast. It may therefore be regarded as an era of peculiar interest, as from it may be dated the rise of learning in that kingdom; which, though confessedly among the last to devote itself to science, has contributed as much to its progress as any other nation of modern Europe.

The truce last-mentioned being ended, the Scots besieged Berwick, but that enterprize was unsuccessful, and all that was done during the campaign was the burning of Penrith by the Scots, and of Dumfries by the English. Next year negociations were entered into for the liberation of James, but these were as fruitless as the former, and the war continued. No action worthy of record, however, occurred during five years, and hence it has been, with some probability, surmised that there existed an understanding between the regent and the English general; though this would not seem to have been the opinion of his contemporaries, for we are told that, on his death, which happened in 1420, the Scots held his memory in such veneration that they conferred the regency on his son Murdoch, solely from respect for the father.

In 1421, king Henry being informed that the earl of Douglas was meditating an invasion of the northern counties, invited him to a conference at York, when the earl, with the consent of James, agreed to serve the English king during life. At the same time some stipulations were made relative to the release of the Scottish monarch, but that event did not take place till the year 1424. Henry V. was then dead, and the tide of fortune in France had so completely changed, that the English regent found it necessary to conciliate the Scots, and if possible to detach them from the French interest. He therefore treated James with the greatest attention, and proposed a negociation for his liberty. Commissioners were, in consequence, named on both sides, who agreed that the Scottish king should be ransomed for £40,000 and should marry some lady of the first quality in England. James, it is probable, had already fixed his choice upon the lady Joan, daughter to the late earl of Somerset, son to John of Gaunt, duke of Lancaster, by his second marriage; but he made his people the compliment, not only of consulting their opinion, but of concluding the match. The royal nuptials were celebrated in the beginning of February, 1424, when the young king of England presented James with a suit of cloth of gold for the ceremony, and the next day gave him a legal discharge for £10,000, to be deducted from the amount of his ransom, as the marriage portion of the lady.

Hitherto the history of Scotland consists of little else but a detail of battles and predatory excursions; of feuds between lawless clans, and rebellions against the sovereign authority. Neither the government nor the people were sufficiently enlightened to recognise fixed principles of foreign or domestic policy. The great barons, though bound to render homage to the king, and to perform several feudal services, assumed all the importance, and exercised most of the functions, of independent princes. On the accession of James I., however, to actual power, the annals of the kingdom begin to assume a new aspect. The reiterated theme of defeats and victories, of negociations and truces, may henceforth be diversified with more interesting intelligence, and the arts of peace may afford a pleasing contrast to the devastations of war.

James, shortly after his arrival in Scotland, was solemnly crowned, with his queen, and Murdach, duke of Albany, as earl of Fife, performed the ceremony of placing his sovereign on the throne. His first public act was to convene a parliament, and to direct their deliberations to the enactment of salutary laws. Among other enactments it was declared, that the ancient privileges of the church be confirmed; that the king's peace be firmly held, and no private wars allowed; that no man should travel with more followers than he could maintain; that efficient administrators of the law be appointed through the realm; that no extortions, from churchmen or farmers in particular, be admitted; that the customs and borough rates be assigned to the king, also mines of gold and silver, under certain restrictions; that the clergy should not pass the sea without the king's permission, nor have pensions out of benefices in Scotland; that gold and silver should not be exported, but upon paying a high custom; that all persons under twelve years of age should be taught archery; that agriculture be protected; that certain customs be raised on horses, cattle, sheep, herrings and firs; that inns be kept in every borough; and that no beggars be allowed, except permitted by the sheriff in the county, and in towns by the alderman or baillie. Two other enactments were made by the same parliament, which merit separate consideration: the first granted to the king a large subsidy, by taxation, for defraying his ransom, which occasioned so much dissatisfaction, that he was obliged to avert the danger of a general insurrection, by giving up the idea of levying the imposed taxes. Unaccustomed to pay direct contributions toward the support of the government, the people considered this ordinance as an act of oppression, and were blind to the advantages which might have resulted from its completion. The second enactment ordered all sheriffs to inquire what lands had belonged to the crown under the three preceding monarchs, and authorized the king to summon the holders to shew their charters. The object of this decree was to recover the royal demesnes, which had been parcelled out by the duke of Albany among his friends. Determined to punish that prince for his mal-administration, he arrested him, his two sons, and the earl of Lennox, his father-in-law, and took possession of their estates and castles. They were afterwards brought to trial, and a verdict having been found against them, they suffered death at Stirling. This part of James's conduct is defended by some authors as just and politic, while others represent it as cruel and tyrannical.

nical. The whole reign of James passed in peace with England till within a month of his death, and it is certainly much to his honour, that he employed himself in promoting civilization, and establishing regular government among his subjects, rather than in wasting their lives and property in the pursuit of war. He nevertheless cultivated a close alliance with France, and entered into a treaty with that kingdom, by which it was agreed, that the dauphin should espouse the young princess of Scotland. Numerous statutes were passed during this period for the encouragement of trade and agriculture, and for regulating the proceedings in the administration of the law. All these measures were taken with the approbation of the States, and seem to have been approved by the nation at large. The seizure of the royal estates, however, had created James many virulent enemies, and at length proved the cause of his murder. He had further awakened the jealousy of his nobles by some attempts to curb their exorbitant powers; and they appear to have dreaded lest he should make still bolder and more decisive encroachments on their feudal rights. Such were the sentiments and feelings of parties when Sir Robert Graham called a meeting of the chief men to represent their grievances to the king. A remonstrance was accordingly resolved upon, and Graham was appointed to deliver it to James in the next parliament; but the violence of his conduct destroyed all the benefit which might otherwise have resulted to their cause from this step. Instead of urging his suit with the respect due to the sovereign, Graham rose with an enraged countenance, and seized the king, saying, "I arrest you in the name of all the three states of your realm here assembled in parliament, for as your people have sworn to obey you, so you are constrained by an equal oath to govern by law, and not to wrong your subjects, but in justice to maintain and protect them." This project having failed, Graham resolved to accomplish the death of the king by a conspiracy, which he put in execution during the festival of Christmas, which James held at Perth. Here, in conjunction with Sir John Hall and his brother, they barbarously murdered the king, in the 44th year of his age, and the 13th of his active authority. He was a prince of superior abilities, and may justly be considered among the greatest of the Scottish monarchs. If his measures were sometimes severe, they are perfectly defensible upon the principles of sound policy. He had to deal with a set of men who regarded the virtue of moderation as imbecility, and whose lawless habits could only be restrained by the most summary examples of justice. The frequent meetings of the states of the kingdom during his reign, and his constant deference to their decision, shew that James was not a tyrant. His patronage of learning and of the useful arts, evinces that the grand object of his ambition was the improvement and benefit of his country.

James II., who was only seven years of age at his father's death, was crowned king at Edinburgh on the 25th of March, 1438. At the same time a parliament was assembled, and denounced the severest penalties of the law against all those concerned in the regicide. The first taken were Sir Robert Stuart and Sir Christopher Chambers, who were executed at Edinburgh. Athol was next seized, and beheaded at the same place; and Graham, with many others, soon after shared a similar fate at Stirling. Even at the moment when he was writhing under the agonies of the most cruel tortures, that daring chief of the assassins had the boldness to declare that his conduct was fully justified by the tyranny of the king, and that his judges and the people ought rather to applaud him as a patriot, than condemn him as a traitor. The minority of the new king having rendered a regency necessary, Archibald, earl of Douglas, assumed the direction of affairs with the consent of the parliament; but that nobleman unfortunately died within the year. The states of the kingdom afterwards divided the government between Sir William Crichton, as chancellor, and Sir Alexander Livingston, as keeper of the king's person, with the title of governor. This proved a most unfortunate partition of power; for the chancellor and governor soon quarrelled; and the former seized the person of the sovereign, and counteracted all the edicts of his colleague by contrary proclamations. The queen-mother, however, who was inimical to Crichton, contrived to steal her son from his custody, and fled with him to the castle of Stirling. In this juncture the chancellor applied to the young earl of Douglas for his support; but he haughtily answered, that he was an enemy to all parties, and was determined to assume the government himself. Crichton was thus convinced of the necessity for a union to guard against these arrogant pretensions; and accordingly a compromise with Livingston took place in Edinburgh; by which it was agreed, that the king should remain in the custody of the latter.

In the interim, the earl of Douglas continued to brave the power of the government in a manner amounting to open rebellion, which highly exasperated the chancellor in particular; and as he knew the earl was above the reach of the law, he resolved to get rid of him by summary means. With this view he invited him to attend a parliament then about to be held at Edinburgh, and having inveigled him and his brother into the castle, on the pretence of dining with the king, ordered both to be executed on the Castle-hill. The young monarch endeavoured to save them; but the chancellor was fixed in his purpose, and had already ventured too far to recede with safety.

James, as soon as he attained his 14th year, declared himself of age, and took the reins of government into his own hands. The numerous friends of the young earl of Douglas now strove to reconcile him to the prince; and an accident soon happened which led to the fulfilment of their wishes. That was the murder of Sir Robert Semple, of Fullwood, by one of the earl's partizans, who was in consequence arrested. Douglas, anxious to save his life, repaired to Stirling, threw himself at the king's feet, and implored his pardon, solemnly promising that he would ever afterwards conduct himself as a dutiful and loyal subject. His submission was joyfully received by James, and he was immediately admitted into the royal councils.

Alarmed at this event, the chancellor resigned the great seal, and took possession of the castle of Edinburgh, the custody of which he pretended had been committed to him by the late king, till his son should arrive at the age of 21 years. Livingston also resigned all his posts, except the command of Stirling castle, which he retained upon the same pretence.

James demanded the immediate surrender of both fortresses, and the demand being refused, the estates of the offenders were confiscated. The result was a civil war, during which almost every corner of the country presented a scene of desolation and bloodshed. It terminated by the reconciliation of Crichton to the king, and the sacrifice of Livingston to the vengeance of Douglas.

The king, now in his 18th year, was married to Mary, the daughter of Arnold, duke of Gueldres; but this event provoked the hostility of England, and a war immediately ensued. An English army advanced into Scotland, as far as the river Sark, in Annandale, where it was totally defeated by Douglas, earl of Ormond. Next year a truce was concluded for an indefinite period, which bore this singular clause, that either party might violate it upon giving 180 days' notice. The royal bride having arrived in Scotland about this time, her marriage was solemnized with great pomp at Holyrood-House, an event which put an end to the influence of Douglas, who retired to his estates. James being thereby emancipated from thraldom, summoned a parliament, in which many salutary enactments were made, tending to curb the power of the aristocracy, and to ensure the tranquillity of the kingdom. One act of this parliament deserves particular attention. It ordained, that if any man should "commit or do treason against the king's person or his majesty, or rise in war against him, or lay hands upon his person violently, of whatever age the king be, young or old; or receive any that have committed treason, or that supply them with help or advice, or garrison the house of them

them that are convicted of treason, and hold their houses against the king; or garrison houses of their own in assistance of the king's rebels, or that assault castles or places where the king's person shall happen to be, without the consent of the three estates, shall be punished as traitors." This statute has occasioned altercations between the favourers of monarchy, and those who attach ideas of freedom to a parliament of the middle ages; though, in fact, the only dispute lay between monarchy and aristocracy. Many other statutes were passed to increase the power of the sovereign.

Douglas, chagrined at the loss of his power, and wishing to display his pomp to the continental princes, went to the jubilee at Rome with a train of six knights, fourteen gentlemen, and eighty inferior attendants. In his absence many complaints were made against his dependants, which so enraged James, that he seized upon the castle of Lochmaben, and demolished that of Douglas. The earl, on his return home, sent a submissive message to the king: and as he could not in equity be reputed guilty of events which happened without his knowledge, he was graciously received; but he soon proved himself unworthy of confidence, by engaging in treasonable practices, and soliciting the protection of England. Douglas having been prevailed upon to visit the court of Stirling, was conducted into a secret chamber, where James mildly told him that he knew of the league he had made, and advised him to break off all such illegal engagements. The earl treated the proposal with his usual arrogance, whereupon the king, roused to momentary fury, exclaimed, "If you will not break this league, by God I shall," and drawing a dagger, instantly stabbed Douglas.

The brother and successor of the late Douglas was reconciled to the king, and entered into a solemn engagement; 1st. Not to pretend any title to the earldom of Wigton; except with the queen's consent; 2dly. Nor to the lands of Stewarton, as part of the patrimony of the duchess of Towraine, his mother; 3dly. To abandon in future all hatred or enmity against all persons; 4thly. To preserve the public peace, and make compensations to persons already injured; 5thly. To observe the strictest duty and respect to the king. This instrument, which was signed by Douglas and lord Hamilton for themselves and their adherents, affords a curious picture of the state of government and manners in the age.

The interval of domestic quiet which succeeded this reconciliation was only of short duration; but it was marked by an event of some interest in the history of Scottish learning, viz., the foundation of the university of Glasgow, through the munificence of bishop Turnbull. The standard of rebellion was again raised by Douglas, aided by the Yorkish party in England. The king, aware of this conspiracy, summoned Douglas to appear before the privy-council; and upon his refusal ravaged his estates, and besieged his castle of Abercorn. The earl of Crawford advanced with an army to its relief, determined to force his sovereign to fight or fly the kingdom. James, distrusting the loyalty of the southern counties, hastened to St. Andrews, whence, by the advice of Kennedy, bishop of that see, he issued a proclamation, summoning the array of the north, and offering an annuity to all who should join his service. In a few days he found himself at the head of a numerous body of troops, with whom he marched against Douglas, whose army was encamped on the banks of the Carron. The effect produced was almost miraculous, for in less than 24 hours Douglas was deserted by his whole army, excepting the persons who formed his household. Upon this unexpected change, he fled to Annandale, and afterwards to England.

James next proceeded to crush the remaining partisans of the insurrection, and to reduce the castles of Abercorn and Strathavan, which still resisted his authority. He afterwards assembled a parliament at Edinburgh, in which the forfeiture of the earl of Douglas, with his mother and brothers, was solemnly decreed. In another parliament held in the same year, several important and interesting enactments were made, tending to confirm the paramount power of the king, and to sap the foundation of the feudal system.

He next turned his attention to the subjects of foreign policy; enraged at the conduct of England for supporting the Douglasses, he invaded that kingdom, and spread desolation throughout the northern counties. Meanwhile Douglas was admitted to the titles of an English subject, and continued in that allegiance till his death.

Not long after this invasion, a truce was negociated with England, and James returned to his favourite occupation, the enactment of laws for the improvement and tranquillity of the country. In the several parliaments held at Edinburgh, measures were taken to reform the coinage, and to regulate the internal commerce of the kingdom; a regular militia was established for the national defence; and several laws were made to promote agriculture, and to fix the constitution of parliament. But the most important act passed in this reign relates to the establishment of a supreme court of justice, independent of the king's council. This court consisted of three eminent clergy, three barons, and three commissioners of burghs, to be changed each month. It was, in fact, a committee of parliament, the members having been taken in rotation from that assembly; and no appeal lay from its decisions.

While these matters were under consideration in Scotland, England was distracted by the rivalship of the houses of York and Lancaster. James seems to have inclined to favour the former, but took no active part on either side till the captivity of Henry VI., when he commenced hostilities, by laying siege to the castles of Berwick and Roxburgh. The latter enterprise he conducted in person; and here he unfortunately met his death, by the accidental bursting of a cannon, on the 3d of August, 1460. The nobility who were present concealed his death, from the fear of discouraging the soldiers; but the spirited conduct of the queen soon rendered this precaution unnecessary. Her young son, James, having arrived in the camp a few hours after, she presented him to the army as their king, and declared she would act the part of their general herself.

Accordingly she assumed the reins of government, and pushed the siege of Roxburgh castle with so much vigour, that the garrison was obliged to capitulate in a few days; after which the army took and dismantled the castle of Werk. In 1466, negociations were begun for a marriage between the young king and Margaret, princess of Denmark; and in 1468, the following conditions were stipulated:—1st. That the annual rent hitherto paid for the northern isles of Orkney and Zetland should be for ever remitted and extinguished: 2dly. That Christiern, then king of Denmark, should give 60,000 florins of gold for his daughter's portion, whereof 10,000 should be paid before her departure from Denmark; and that the islands of Orkney should be made over to the crown of Scotland, by way of pledge for the remainder; with this proviso, that they should return to that of Norway after complete payment of the whole sum: 3dly. That king James should, in case of his dying before the said Margaret his spouse, leave her in possession of the palace of Linlithgow and castle of Down in Mentieth, with all their appurtenances, and the third part of the ordinary revenues of the crown, to be enjoyed by her during life, in case she should choose to reside in Scotland: 4thly. But if she rather chose to return to Denmark, that in lieu of the said life-rent, palace and castle, she should accept of 120,000 florins of the Rhine; from which sum the 50,000 due for the remainder of her portion being deducted and allowed, the islands of Orkney should be re-annexed to the crown of Norway as before. When the completion of these articles became necessary, Christiern found himself unable to fulfil his part of them. Engaged in an unsuccessful war with Sweden, he could not advance the 10,000 florins, as agreed to. He therefore applied to the plenipotentiaries to accept of 2000, and to take a mortgage of the isles of Zetland for the other 8000. This treaty led to the final annexation of Orkney and Zetland to the Scottish crown.

In 1476 those misfortunes began to assail James, which afterwards

afterwards terminated in his ruin. He had made his brother, the duke of Albany, governor of Berwick; and had entrusted him with very extensive powers upon the borders, where a violent propensity for the feudal habits still continued. The Humes and the Hepburns could not brook the duke of Albany's greatness, especially after he forced them, by virtue of a late act, to part with some of the estates, which had been granted them in the preceding reign. The pretended science of judicial astrology, by which James happened to be infatuated, was the easiest, as well as the most effectual engine that could work their purposes. One Andrew, an infamous impostor in that art, had been brought over from Flanders by James; and he and Schevez, then archbishop of St. Andrews, concurred in persuading James that the Scotch lion was to be devoured by his own whelps.

In 1482, the king began to feel the bad consequences of taking into his councils men of worthless character. His great favourite at this time was Cochran, whom he had raised to the dignity of the earl of Mar. All historians agree that this man made a most infamous use of his power. The other minions of the king were James Hommill, a taylor; Leonard, a blacksmith; and Torfifaw, a dancing-master, whose professions rendered them wholly unworthy of the royal countenance. The favour shewn to these men gave such offence to the nobility, that they resolved to remove the king, with some of his least exceptionable domestics, to the castle of Edinburgh, and to hang all his favourites over Lawder bridge, both which measures were accomplished with the most spirited resolution. During his confinement, James conducted himself with great firmness, refusing all terms of compromise with those who had seized his person, or were engaged in the execution of his favourites. Having been liberated by his brother, the duke of Albany, he immediately repaired to Holyrood-House, whither most of his nobles came to pay their respects to him; but so much was he exasperated by their conduct, that he imprisoned no fewer than sixteen. Albany was appointed chief minister, and became a great favourite; but this cordiality did not last long; for in less than three years we find Albany solemnly denounced a traitor by act of parliament. During all this period, hostilities were carried on with the English government; but a truce was agreed to in 1484; and James, finding himself in tranquillity both at home and abroad, insensibly relapsed into his former impolitic system. The result was, an association of several of the most powerful barons, who seized the person of the heir apparent, and induced him to put himself at their head. James, at this period, was making progress and holding courts in the North; but immediately on hearing of the insurrection he hurried to Perth, which he appointed as the place of rendezvous for his army. When the whole were assembled, he marched to Stirling, where he first learned that his son commanded the rebel forces who were advancing from the east. Both armies drew up in battle array, nearly on the same ground which had been already consecrated by the victory of Bannockburn. At first the rebels gave way; but being supported by their second and third lines, the loyalists were in turn forced to retreat. This event, and the cowardly flight of the king, terminated the action with little effusion of blood. James, on passing through the village of Bannockburn, was thrown from his horse, and carried into a mill, where he was stabbed by one of the rebels, who, pretending to be a priest, was conducted to him by the miller's wife. Thus perished a prince, whose natural goodness deserved a better fate, than to fall the victim of a lawless aristocracy, more inimical to public order than the feeble despotism of their sovereign.

The duke of Rothsay, apprised of his father's fate, assembled a parliament at Edinburgh, in which several of the friends of the late king were arraigned for high treason. He afterwards made a progress throughout the kingdom, and endeavoured to acquire popularity. In that object, however, he was not immediately successful, as we find the early part of his reign was disturbed by a formidable rebellion. The leader of this insurrection was the earl of Lenox, who was defeated and taken prisoner at Tilly-Moor. James, however, afterwards became a great favourite with the nation, on account of his zeal for the improvement of the kingdom. The arts of ship-building and of architecture were particularly the objects of his patronage; and indeed to so high a pitch did he carry his anxiety to establish a navy, that he brought himself into serious financial difficulties. This distinguished monarch closed his reign and his life in the celebrated field of Floddon, where most of his nobility perished with him.

James V. now ascended the throne, though only a year and a half old. The long minority which ensued was remarkable for internal intrigue, and particularly for the fixed establishment of the French and English factions in Scotland, which continued to distract the kingdom, more or less, till the close of its existence as a separate and independent state. From this circumstance, the history of Scottish affairs increases in interest, as becoming more intimately connected with the general history of Europe; but as the limits of this article will not permit of their being detailed at length, their bearings cannot be pointed out in a satisfactory manner.

The parliament, which met immediately after the fatal battle of Floddon to deliberate on the critical situation of the kingdom, elected the queen-mother to the regency. This princess conducted the government with great wisdom and energy; but having unhappily married the earl of Arran, that step gave occasion to violent intestine commotions. By the constitution of Scotland, a marriage under the circumstances of the queen regent, was a virtual resignation of her authority; and as Arran was not a favourite with the nobility or the nation at large, parliament refused to continue him in power. The duke of Albany was therefore appointed regent; and a deputation was immediately sent to France to request his acceptance of that station. On his arrival in Scotland, he was received with every mark of respect; but as he attached himself closely to the French interest, the English party, headed by the queen and lord Hume, opposed him in all his measures, and excited commotions in different parts of the country. Henry VIII. of England declared war against him; and though it does not appear that the regent feared the issue of a contest, he nevertheless soon found it necessary to make peace, on account of the dissentions that prevailed in the army, which he had led to the borders with the view of invading England. Shortly afterwards, the increasing opposition manifested against his authority induced him to resign the regency; when the sovereign power was again assumed by the queen. Arran, by seizing on the person of the king, and pretending to rule in his name, soon overthrew the party of the queen; but his own elevation was not of much longer continuance; for the king, having escaped from his custody, seized the reins of government himself, and not only deprived Arran of all his dignities, but had him denounced in parliament as a traitor.

Thus, freed from the controul of all parties, James displayed an excellent capacity for government. He called frequent parliaments, and directed their attention principally to the improvement of his kingdom. In 1532, he instituted the Court of Session, on the model of the parliament of Paris. This court originally consisted of fifteen members, half clergy and half laity, and was empowered to give decisions in all civil suits.

The years immediately succeeding that last-mentioned, were marked by the most horrid atrocities, committed in the name of religion. Many persons of distinguished rank suffered at the stake for their opinions. A court of inquisition was established, of which Sir James Hamilton was appointed president, and certainly no man ever shewed himself more worthy of his merciless station. During the same period the Scots had to deplore the miseries of a war with England, which raged for two years with various success. But notwithstanding these misfortunes, Scotland continued to rise in power and importance. The friendship of James was anxiously

anxiously sought by all the great European sovereigns. Even the pope sent an ambassador to the Scottish court, and conferred upon James the title of "Defender of the Faith."

In the year 1536, the king negociated a treaty of marriage with Marie de Bourbon, which was solemnly ratified by the French king; but it was afterwards annulled by the visit of James himself to the continent, where he espoused Magdalen, the daughter of Francis, who died in less than two months after her arrival in Scotland. The Scottish king, however, did not long remain a widower; for in 1538, he espoused Mary of Guise, dowager duchess of Longueville.

In 1540, a parliament was held in Edinburgh, in which an act of indemnity was passed for all offences committed during the king's minority. Shortly after war broke out with England, and the duke of Norfolk invaded Scotland; but was compelled to retreat by the skilful movements of the earl of Huntley. James resolved to pursue this advantage, by penetrating into England; and the expedition would most probably have been successful but for the appointment of an unworthy favourite to the chief command in the moment of attack, which so much disgusted the nobles, that they chose rather to surrender to the English, than submit to his orders. This disgraceful occurrence happened at Solway Moss; and produced such an effect upon the mind of the king, that it brought him to his grave, in the 31st year of his age.

III.—History of the Fourth Period.

Mary, the infant daughter of James by Mary of Guise, succeeded to the throne, and cardinal Beaton, who had been for many years prime minister, assumed the regency; in virtue of a pretended testament which he himself had forged in the name of the late king. The earl of Arran, the next heir to the crown, was, however, elected to the regency by the nobles; and thus new jealousies were excited. The English monarch proposed his son Edward as a match for the young queen, but this was opposed by the regent. A war was the consequence; but it was soon terminated by a peace negotiated with the French king, in which Scotland was included. Shortly after this, cardinal Beaton fell a sacrifice to the hatred of the reformers, who were particularly incensed against him for the barbarous execution of one of their champions, named Wishart. This event proved fatal to the Catholic religion, and to the French interest in Scotland; for though a large party in the nation still continued zealously attached to both, the loss of so bold and skilful a leader rendered their influence and exertions much less effective.

In September 1547, Henry VIII. being deceased, the protector, Somerset, in pursuance of the intentions of his late master, entered Scotland with a large army, and having engaged the Scots, commanded by the regent in person, at Pinkey, near Musselburgh, gained a complete victory. Above ten thousand men fell on this day, which was scarcely less disastrous to Scotland than the fatal one of Floddon. The victory, however, was of little advantage to the protector, whose cruel ravages only increased the aversion of the Scots to unite with England; and induced them to form a close alliance with France. The queen dowager, who, after the death of Beaton, took a considerable share in the direction of affairs, seized every opportunity to promote this object. By her advice, ambassadors were sent to the court of Henry II. to offer the young queen in marriage to the dauphin; and accordingly a treaty was concluded, by which the parties were betrothed, and the Scots became bound to send Mary to receive her education in France. In vain did a few patriots remonstrate against such extravagant concessions, by which Scotland was made a French province; and Henry, from an ally, raised to be master of the kingdom.

While Mary was enjoying the pleasures of the court of France, the only scene in which she ever experienced the smiles of fortune, Scotland, first under the regency of the earl of Arran, who had been dignified with the title of duke de Chatellerault, and afterwards of the queen dowager, Mary de Guise, was rent by factions, and experienced all the direful effects of religious and feudal dissentions. The whole time which had elapsed from the death of James V. had been a season of anarchy, during which parties had risen and fallen in rapid succession. To the commotions so common in every country, while the feudal system was in its vigour, and in none more than in Scotland, may be added those caused by the collision of the principles of the reformation, with the interests of a powerful hierarchy. Throughout Europe the wealth of the church was exorbitant; but in Scotland it so far exceeded the just proportion, that not less than half of the national property was possessed by ecclesiastics. The mode of its disposal likewise considerably increased their influence. Church lands being let on lease, at an easy rate, and possessed by the younger branches of the great families, many estates in all parts of the kingdom were held of the church. This extraordinary share in the national property was accompanied by a proportionable weight in the national councils. The number of temporal peers being small, and the lesser barons and representatives of boroughs seldom attending, the ecclesiastical members formed a very considerable body in the Scottish parliaments, in which they possessed all the influence that exorbitant wealth and superior talents could give.

A hierarchy established on so firm a basis, with so many pillars for its support, it was difficult to overturn. The progress of the reformation, however, gave a serious alarm to the clergy, and the sword of persecution was effectually drawn in defence of the privileges and emoluments of the Catholic church.

In spite of all these difficulties, however, the reformed religion was established in Scotland, by act of parliament, in 1560, and the exercise of religious worship according to the rites of the Popish church, was prohibited, under the penalty of forfeiture of goods for the first, banishment for the second, and death for the third offence. "Such strangers," says Dr. Robertson, "were men at that time to the spirit of toleration, and to the laws of humanity; and with such indecent haste did the very persons who had just escaped the rigour of ecclesiastical tyranny, proceed to imitate those examples of severity, of which they themselves had so justly complained." The new system of church government, however, was yet to be modelled; and in this business Knox, a popular preacher, of a rude but energetic eloquence, of rigid morals, and republican ferocity, had a principal share. This reformer had long resided at Geneva, and considered the system of church government established by Calvin in that city, as the most perfect model for imitation. He, therefore, recommended it to his countrymen, and succeeded in accomplishing its establishment.

When Mary returned to Scotland, she was received by her subjects with every demonstration of joy. Never did a prince ascend a throne under circumstances of greater difficulty, or conduct herself at first with more prudence. Finding the Protestant religion completely established over the whole kingdom, she very properly took into power the most eminent men of that party; and, to remove all dread of molestation from the minds of their followers, she formally declared, "that until she should take final orders concerning religion, with advice of parliament, any attempt to alter or subvert the religion which she found universally practised in the realm, should be deemed a capital crime." The division of the property of the church, and the settlement of the Protestant revenues, however, soon gave rise to animosities; and the queen, in her anxiety to please both parties, lost the confidence of the Papists by her concessions to the Protestants, while the latter were offended at the small share of spoil which was declared to accrue to them. Dissentions broke out among the nobility; and particularly between the earls of Marr and Huntley. The latter, who was a zealous Catholic, pressed the queen to restore popery; and finding his counsels neglected by the influence of Marr, first attempted to assassinate him, and thereafter raised the standard of rebellion against his sovereign. The earl of Murray marched to oppose him, and after a bloody contest put his forces to the rout.

The

The year following these transactions, Mary, who was desirous of entering into a more intimate correspondence with Elizabeth, employed Maitland to desire a personal interview with her, but the English queen declined the meeting. In 1563, the Scottish sovereign avowed her determination to contract a second marriage, an event for which the nation in general was extremely anxious, in order that the crown might be continued in the right line of its ancient possessors. Many suitors of great eminence, among the princes of Europe, presented themselves; but these were all rejected in favour of Henry Stuart, lord Darnley, eldest son of the earl of Lenox, who had been forced to seek refuge in England in the reign of James V. The royal nuptials were celebrated in July 1565, in conformity to the rites of the church of Rome; and not content with elevating this undeserving man to her bed, the queen issued proclamations at the same time, conferring upon him the title of king of the Scots. All those who had opposed the marriage were treated with great severity; particularly the earl of Murray, who, having taken up arms, was defeated, and compelled to fly the kingdom.

With this rash step began the misfortunes of Mary. Instigated by hatred to all those who manifested an aversion to Darnley, she renounced that prudent conduct which had hitherto enabled her to maintain the dignity of her crown in the midst of conflicting factions. Her Protestant counsellors were now dismissed; she joined the league of Catholic princes against the reformers; and evinced her full determination to restore the Romish religion in Scotland. The effects of this new system of policy soon became visible. The time of the prorogation of parliament was shortened; and by a new proclamation, the 12th of March was fixed for its meeting. Mary resolved without further delay, to proceed to the attainder of the malcontent nobles, and at the same time to take some measures towards the re-establishment of her favourite worship. The ruin of Murray and his party seemed now inevitable, and the danger of the reformed church imminent, when an event unexpectedly happened which saved both. This was the murder of Rizzio, the queen's favourite, by her husband, and several of the nobility, in her own presence, which roused her indignation to the highest pitch, and completely alienated her affections from Darnley, who had already disgusted her by his insolence and his licentiousness. Having been confined, however, by the conspirators, she was obliged to dissemble, in order to detach the king from their party, a project in which she completely succeeded, and thus was enabled to regain her liberty. Murray and the exiled nobles were immediately received into favour; and Morton, and the rest of the murderers, were compelled to seek safety in England.

The charm, which had at first attached the queen to Darnley, and held them in a happy union, was now entirely dissolved; and love no longer covering his follies and his vices with its friendly veil, they appeared to Mary in their full dimensions and deformity. Though the king published a proclamation disclaiming all knowledge of the conspiracy against Rizzio, the queen was fully convinced that he was not only accessary to the contrivance, but to the commission of that odious crime. The very power, which, with liberal and unsuspicious fondness, she had conferred upon him, he had employed to insult her authority, to limit her prerogative, and to endanger her person. Such an outrage it was impossible any woman could bear or forgive. Cold civilities, secret distrust, frequent quarrels, succeeded to their former transports of affection and confidence.

About this time a new favourite grew into credit with the queen, and soon gained an ascendancy over her heart, which encouraged him to form designs that proved fatal to himself and to Mary. This was James Hepburn, earl of Bothwell, the head of one of the most ancient and powerful families in the kingdom. When the conspirators against Rizzio detained her in custody, he became the chief instrument in recovering her liberty, and served her with so much fidelity and success, as made the deepest impression upon her mind. Her gratitude loaded him with marks of her bounty; she raised him to offices of dignity and trust; and transacted no matter of importance without his advice.

The hour of the queen's delivery now approached; and she was advised, for the sake of perfect security, to take up her residence in the castle of Edinburgh, where she was accordingly delivered of her only son, James, whose birth was happy for the whole island, and unfortunate only for her. His accession to the throne of England, united the two divided kingdoms in one mighty monarchy, and established the power of Great Britain on a firm foundation; while she, torn early from her son by the cruelty of her fate, was never allowed to indulge those tender passions, nor to taste those joys, which fill the heart of a mother.

The queen, when recovered, did not evince any change of sentiment towards her husband. On the contrary, the breach between them became every day wider, notwithstanding the attempts of the French ambassador to effect a reconciliation. Her attachment moreover to Bothwell increased, in proportion as her love for Darnley declined. At length the latter was murdered by the explosions of some barrels of gunpowder, placed under the house he had been enticed to reside in at Edinburgh, and Bothwell was accused of and prosecuted for the murder, but was acquitted on a trial by his peers. Of his guilt, however, not the slightest doubt can be entertained; and it is much to be feared that Mary herself was accessary to the crime.

Bothwell now redoubled his assiduities to fix the affections of the queen, and having succeeded in that object to his utmost wish, he carried her to the castle of Dunbar, where she remained a willing prisoner, till matters were finally arranged for their nuptials, when she removed to Holyrood House, and was soon afterwards united to Bothwell, whom she created duke of Orkney. This step, the most unjustifiable of all her follies, was the prelude to her ruin. The nobles almost immediately confederated against her and Bothwell, who was obliged to seek refuge in England, while she herself fell into the hands of her incensed subjects. By them she was conducted first to Edinburgh, and subsequently to Lochleven castle. The confederate leaders assumed the title of Lords of the secret council, and arrogated to themselves the whole regal authority. Deliberations were held to fix the destiny of the nation, and to determine respecting the person of the queen. The result was, that she was compelled to resign the crown in favour of her son, who was instantly proclaimed, and the earl of Murray was invested with the dignity of regent

Matters being thus arranged, the first act of the regent was to call a parliament, in which all the measures of the confederates were confirmed. But notwithstanding this, Mary still had many friends who were ready to support her cause, if she could regain her liberty. Apprized of these favourable sentiments, she used every effort to effect her escape, and at length succeeded in her object, in a manner no less surprising to her friends, than unexpected by her enemies. By the influence of her charms, she captivated young Douglas, the brother of the owner of the castle, and prevailed upon him to join in a plot for her liberation. Accordingly, on the appointed night, having stolen the keys from his brother's room, he allowed Mary to pass out, and then locking the doors again, threw the keys into the lake. The queen entered a boat prepared for her, and landed safely on the shore, where she was received by lord Seaton, Sir James Hamilton, and some other of her friends, who had been apprized of the plot. Instantly mounting on horseback she fled to Hamilton, where she was joined by a number of the nobility, and in a few days found herself surrounded by a formidable army. In this critical situation, the genius and prudence of the regent were eminently displayed. While he amused the queen for some days by negociations, he employed himself with the utmost industry in drawing together his adherents from different parts of the kingdom. As soon as he was in a condition to take the field, he broke off the negociation,

ciation, and determined to hazard a battle. Mary, whose interest it was to delay the decision of her fate, imprudently favoured his wishes. She attacked his army in an advantageous position at Langside, and being completely defeated, fled to England, and threw herself upon the generosity of queen Elizabeth, by whom she was detained a prisoner for the period of nearly twenty years, and was at last tried and executed upon an accusation of high treason. See ENGLAND.

In the mean time the regent Murray, by his vigorous administration, soon restored Scotland to tranquillity; and continued to govern without any serious molestation till his death in 1570, by the hand of Hamilton of Bothwellhaugh. He was succeeded in his high office by the earl of Lenox, during whose rule, and that of his successors Marr and Morton, the kingdom was distracted by civil war. "Fellow citizens, friends, brothers, took different sides, and ranged themselves under the standards of the contending factions. In every county, and almost in every town and village, king's men and queen's men were names of distinction. Political hatred destroyed all natural ties, and extinguished the reciprocal good will and confidence which hold mankind together in society. Religious zeal mingled itself with these civil distinctions, and contributed not a little to heighten and inflame them."

Morton, the last regent, during the minority of James, having excited the enmity of several of the nobility, was accused of being accessary to the murder of Darnley, and suffered for that crime in 1581, though the proofs of his guilt were far from being satisfactory. After this event, James himself began to exercise the sovereign authority; but his love for favouritism proved prejudicial to his own peace and that of his kingdom by fomenting jealousy among his nobles. One of these favourites, the earl of Arran, conducted himself in so arrogant and tyrannical a manner, that a confederacy was formed against him; and the king was forced to deprive him of all his offices and honours, and to declare him an enemy to the country.

James having been bred in the principles of the Protestant faith, exerted himself on every occasion to secure the reformed church from the danger of being overthrown by the Catholic party, which was synonymous with the queen's party, and continued to be very formidable so long as she lived. When his mother was put to death by queen Elizabeth, however, he remonstrated strongly against her conduct, and even declared war; but that princess soon found means to sooth his anger, and regain his friendship. During the whole of his reign, James was constantly in danger of his life from the plots of the Popish lords, towards whom he shewed more lenity than was probably politic or prudent. On one occasion his person was seized by Bothwell, but he happily contrived to escape from his power, before any of the ulterior objects of that bold measure could be effected. Several attempts to murder him were likewise made, by various persons; but the most dangerous, though unsuccessful, conspiracy formed against his life, was that usually denominated the Gowrie conspiracy, from the title of the principal actor, John Ruthven, earl of Gowrie. From the mystery in which all its circumstances are involved, it has greatly excited the attention of historians; some even questioning the existence of any plot, and maintaining that the king murdered the Ruthvens without any reasonable cause. This opinion, however, is justly considered by Dr. Robertson as extremly improbable; though it must be confessed that the conduct of James, and the impression on the public mind against him at the time, cast an air of great suspicion over the whole transaction.

From this period no event of material interest in the history of Scotland occurred till the year 1603, when the death of queen Elizabeth opened the way for the accession of James to the throne of England, and laid the basis of that more intimate union, which has since consolidated the power and resources of both countries.—The remainder of the history of Scotland is continued in ENGLAND, which see.

IV.—Face of the Country.

Scotland though altogether a hilly and irregular country, is divided into highlands and lowlands. The low country forms, 1st. A tract stretching from Inverness along the sea shore, as far south as Aberdeen or Stonehaven: 2d. A tract which commences by an eastern margin, extends hence to the Lammermuir range southwards, and then crosses westward to Glasgow, though even this affords little continuous plain country, being every where interspersed with hills, or interrupted by ridges.

The mountain land is divisible into two distinct tracts. Of these the north-western forms the country of the Highlands, and the southern comprises the great pastoral district, commonly known by the term dales, the ancient seat of the Highlanders.

The Highland mountains are separated from the middle and low district by a tolerably distinct line, which may be traced along their declivities, to which the very indefinite appellation, Grampians, has been applied. Commencing at the Mull of Cantyre, the boundary is the sea, and successively the Clyde, until we reach Dunbarton. Hence, and omitting the minuter details, it may be conceived to pass through Callander, Crieff, Dunkeld, and Blairgowrie; after which it ranges along the north side of the great plain of Strathmore, till it is lost near Stonehaven. Hence northward, the boundary of the mountains is much less easy to mark, whether in description, or on the ground itself, from the irregular manner in which the ridges terminate in the lower lands.

The northern boundary of the southern mountain district is less marked; but, in a general way, it may be conceived to commence eastward with the Lammermuir ridge, passing along the Pentlands to Tinto, Hawkshaw and Loudon Hill, and then turning southward by Wardlaw, Dalmellinton and Larg Fell, so as to terminate near Creetown, in Galloway. Thus it leaves a considerable tract of irregular low country to the westward.

But the middle district is, as we remarked, rendered occasionally hilly by ridges and distinct elevations. One of the chief of these is the great Sidlaw range, which commencing about Arbroath, stretches away to Perth, where it may be conceived to be continued in the Ochils, and subsequently in the Campsie hills, till it unites at Dunbarton to the mountains of the Highlands. The northern shore of Fife may be considered a portion of this ridge, and the remainder of that county is irregularly undulated by eminences, of which the Lomonds are the most remarkable. Similar scattered elevations and irregularities are found in the opener tract which, commencing at Dunbar, terminates at Greenock, or may be supposed continued round by the west coast to the Mull of Galloway. A thousand feet may be taken as an average of the greatest altitudes of these hills. The Highland mountains though described in maps as dispersed in ridges, are in point of fact quite irregular and present no clear appearance of such a disposition. The average height of the loftiest mountains of the Highlands is about 4000 feet above the level of the sea.

The numerous rivers which descend from this mountainous country to the sea, are for the most part rapid and precipitous. Their banks, in the upper part of their course, generally display the finest and most picturesque scenery; the falls and cascades, which are every where frequent, greatly adding to the effect. In the Northern division there are many considerable rivers, particularly the Beauly, Naver, Conon, &c., but these are by no means equal to those of the Middle division, where we have the Spey rising in the mountainous district of Lochaber, and rushing furiously into the eastern sea. In this district, too, are the Dee and the Don, which flow into the German ocean; the first forming the harbour of Aberdeen, and the mouth of the second being two miles farther north; also the North and South Esk, the latter forming the harbour of Montrose, and the former falling into the ocean three miles farther to the north. About 30 miles farther south, the Tay, one of the largest rivers in Britain, discharges itself into the German ocean,

ocean, about six miles below Dundee. In the Southern district we have the Forth, the Clyde and the Tweed, and the numerous rivers which empty themselves into the Irish sea and Solway frith; the Ayr, the Girvan, the Southern Dee, the Nith, the Annan and the Liddal. Besides these, there are numerous other rivers and streams of inferior note. The lakes or lochs of Scotland are numerous and extensive, and have been long celebrated for the grand and picturesque scenery by which their shores are embellished. Of these, the chief are Loch Lomond, Loch Aw, Loch Tay, Loch Ness, Loch Shin, Loch Lochay, Loch Naver, Loch Leven. It is calculated that the rivers and lakes of this country might be converted into a very considerable source of profit if their owners would attend to a proper system of stocking and fishing. At present, these sources of profit are but partially turned to account.

Few countries in Europe display a greater extent of sea coast. From Berwick, at the south-east extremity of the kingdom, the coast bends north-west to the Frith of Forth, which is an extensive bay, bounded by the counties of Lothian and Fife. The eastern part of Fife divides this frith from that of Tay, whose breadth does not exceed two or three miles. From the mouth of the Tay, the shore proceeds north-north-east to Kinnaird-head, the north-east extremity of Aberdeenshire. Between that promontory and the coast of Caithness, there is a vast bay of a triangular form, the base or eastern line of which is 70 miles. The interior part of this bay is subdivided into the friths of Moray, Cromarty, and Dornoch, separated by narrow peninsulas. The north coast, between Duncanshy-head and Cape Wrath, along the Petland frith, is bold, rocky and dangerous. Along the western shores are many openings or inlets, where the sea runs far inland, forming safe and commodious harbours. The entrance into the Frith of Clyde is a capacious bay, bounded on the one side by Ayrshire, and on the other by Cantyre, Arran and Bute. Thence the coast extends southward to the Mull of Galloway, the south-west extremity of Scotland. Between that point and the bottom of the Solway frith, lie the deep bays of Wigton and Glenluce.

The bowels of the Scottish earth present a great variety of products useful to the arts and interesting to the mineralogist. This country cannot boast of mines of the more precious metals; but considerable quantities of gold and silver have been found at different times. When James V. married the French king's daughter, a number of covered dishes, containing coins of Scottish gold, were presented to the guests by way of dessert; and it appears, by the public records, that in one year there was coined in the mint of Scotland £48,000 sterling of Scottish gold. No mines are now wrought solely for silver; but the lead mines are exceedingly rich in that metal. In the last century a rich silver mine was wrought in the Ochil hills, in the parish of Alva. Ironstone, iron ore, and septaria ironstone, are abundant. Copper has been discovered in many places. The other metallic substances hitherto discovered are cobalt, bismuth, manganese, wolfram, plumbago and mercury; the latter in very small quantities. Coal is abundant in the southern and middle districts; it runs in a direction from north-east to south-west, and is to be found in great abundance in that track, stretching across the island, and comprehended between the Ochil hills on the north, and the Lammermuir and Carrick hills on the south; but little or none has yet been discovered north of these hills. Limestone, freestone or sandstone, and slate, are found in every district, in the greatest abundance. Of late, too, some attention has been paid to the marbles, which prove but little inferior to those of Italy. Most of the gems and precious stones have been found in Scotland, the diamond excepted. Pearls are found in oysters and muscles, though of small size. The sapphire is found in several places, of different shades, from a deep red to a transparent white, and of equal hardness with the oriental. The topaz is found in abundance in the highest ground in Scotland, in the Mountains of Marr, and in the extensive range which stretches towards Perth, Inverness, and Banff shires. It is the most brilliant of the gems hitherto found in Scotland, and of a size not as yet observed in any other country, not even in Siberia, Saxony and Brazil. It occurs in rolled pieces, sometimes imbedded in the granite. They are most commonly of a light green, or greenish-white, and generally in hexahedral crystals. The ruby and hyacinth have been found near Ely, in Fifeshire, mixed with the sand on the sea shore, and adhering to the rocks. They are in general of inferior lustre, and of small size. Emeralds are found in several places; and amethysts are pretty frequently met with, particularly in the mountain of Lochnagaraidh, in Aberdeenshire. Some of these are an inch in diameter, of good colour, and valued at 30 or 40 guineas each. Small specimens of the precious beryl, exactly similar to those of Siberia, have been found in the mountains of Marr, in Aberdeenshire. Garnets are found in many places of the Highlands, of good sizes, and in considerable quantities. Agates, under the various names of onyx, sardonyx and pebble, are to be met with in every part of the country where basaltic rocks are found. Besides being found thickly strewed in the rock itself, they are to be met with in almost every brook in the vicinity of basaltic rock, from which, in the course of time, they have been washed by the rains. The Scotch pebbles are of many beautiful hues; blue and white, red and white, and frequently to be met with of all these colours blended together in veins, and in every gradation of shade. Although jasper is so abundant as to be included among the building stones, yet there are many delicate specimens to be met with, particularly in Ayrshire, which, from the fineness of the texture, and elegant variety in the colour, are exalted into the class of gems, and cut into seals, ear-rings, snuff-boxes and other ornaments. The rock crystal is commonly denominated cairngorum, from the mountain of that name in Banffshire. But rock crystal is found in every mountain in the primary districts of Scotland, and in peculiar abundance on the mountains of Aberdeen and Banffshires. The colours of these crystals are yellow of different shades, and clove-brown approaching to black. The deeper yellow specimens sell high; and are commonly, but improperly, termed by the jewellers, topazes. The clove-brown colours, more peculiarly termed cairngorums, are also valued in jewellery. Chalcedony is found in Fife, equal in hardness and water to the oriental. But, perhaps, the greatest mineral treasure of Scotland is her granite. This is found in distinct and distant parts of Scotland; but the most extensive tract is in Aberdeenshire, where it forms the great mountain mass of Cairngorm, Ben Avon, and the associated mountains on both sides of the Dee; ramifying also into Inverness-shire and Perthshire. Over some considerable tracts it is continuous; but in others it is interrupted in that respect by patches more or less extensive, of the schistose rocks, which are superincumbent on the mass. From this great centre, the granite is found extending through all the lower parts of Aberdeenshire, even to Peterhead, and further north, till it is cut off by the superincumbent slate, and other rocks which follow it in this direction. To the south of Banff it reappears in another considerable tract, and is there cut off again and terminated by the western mountains of this county.

Proceeding northward, the next tract of granite lies on the east coast of Sutherland, occupying a space of about eighteen miles on the shore, or near it, and reaching into the interior country.

The next granite to the north must be sought in the Orkney and Shetland islands, where it is very scattered, and seldom of any great extent. In Orkney in particular, the appearances are extremely minute, being confined to a small spot near Stromness, and another at no great distance from it in one of the neighbouring islands. In the Shetland islands, Foula presents an equally insignificant patch on its eastern shore; but on the main islands the appearances are more extensive. Here it chiefly occupies the western side of the Mainland, reaching in an interrupted manner, or in two distinct regions, from the north to the south of its widest portion. Ronas Hill, the principal eminence, is formed of granite.

In the western Highlands, on the mainland, the appearance

ances of granite are scanty and scattered. The granite of Fort William forms the base of Ben Nevis; and, after some interruption, it reappears in the moor of Rannoch, and again in Cruachan and the surrounding mountains, which forms another of its most considerable appearances in Scotland. Excepting a small portion near Comrie, Arran presents the only remaining granite to the northward, forming its well known group of mountains.

At Portsoy is found that singular kind of granite called Moses' Tables, which, when polished, resembles the Hebrew characters on a white ground. Besides these, there are various other rare and curious fossils. It may be proper to mention the frequent marks of volcanic fire which many of the mountains exhibit, as well as the basaltic columns at Staffa, and at other parts.

Owing to its situation in the midst of a great ocean, and in a high northern latitude, the climate of Scotland is extremely variable. From its insulation, however, the cold in winter is not so intense as in similar latitudes on the continent; and in summer the heat, especially on the coast, is moderated by the sea breezes. In winter it is seldom so cold as in the south of England, or on the continent; but that dreary season is, on the other hand, more protracted than in those countries. The greatest height of the thermometer that has ever yet been observed is 92° Fahrenheit, and the lowest at Edinburgh, 31st of December, 1783, is 3° below zero. Its ordinary range is from 84° to 8°, though it seldom maintains these extremes for any length of time. The annual average temperature may be estimated at from 45° to 47°. Like most other mountainous countries, it is subject to rain. The general average quantity of rain that falls appears to be from 30 to 31 inches. The western coasts, owing to the general prevalence of the west winds, which bring humidity from the Atlantic Ocean, is more liable to rain than the eastern shores, which are washed by the German Ocean. In general the proportion of rain is one-fifth more. It has been estimated that it rained or snowed on the west coast for 205 days, and that the weather was fair for 160. On the east coast the following are the proportions calculated on an average of 12 years:—

Rain	111
Snow	24
Fair weather	230
	365

In the high latitude of Scotland, the winds are, as might be expected, extremely variable, both in their force and in their direction; and, in the more elevated districts, this character of variableness is greatly heightened, by the interference of lofty mountains, with their interjacent glens or valleys. The glens serve, in these situations, as funnels, to receive the blast which was proceeding, perhaps by many points, in a different course, but which, being arrested by the mountains, is now diverted into the valleys, and, gathering strength from the interruption which it had met with, sweeps along with redoubled fury. On the west coast of Scotland it has been repeatedly asserted by intelligent observers, that the wind blows, for two-thirds of the year, from a southerly point. These southerly winds bring genial warmth and moisture from the constantly equable temperature of the Atlantic. They prevail chiefly through the summer and autumn, and too frequently prove injurious to the operations of the latter. North or north-east winds appear to prevail, especially on the eastern coast, through somewhat less than one-third of the year. They are cold, and ungenial to animal and vegetable life; they generally prevail in the months of March and April, frequently extending into those of May and June, and occurring indeed generally throughout the summer. South-west winds prevail nearly two-thirds of the year, hence trees not sheltered incline to the north-east. Owing chiefly to the vicinity of the sea, the air in general is more pure, temperate and salubrious, than might be expected in so northern a climate. The frost is not so intense, nor the snow of so great depth, as on the adjacent continent of the same latitude, except in some inland districts of the Highlands.

V.—Extent and Population.

Scotland consists of 29,498 square miles, exclusive of water. The fresh water lakes amount to 290 square miles. The population amounts to 2,093,856, of which upwards of a million and a half are Presbyterians, and about 70,000 Catholics. There are also 285,000 persons who are seceders from the established church, but who hold Presbyterian tenets.

VI.—Agriculture, Manufactures and Commerce.

The nature of the soil is various; in general, however, it is inferior in point of fertility, to England; or perhaps the difference may arise not so much from the soil, as from the northern situation and mountainous character of the country. The waste lands occupy about 13,900,000 acres. The cultivated ground only 5,000,000. More is however getting into cultivation.

The ancient *runrig* system, which we have already described under the article Runrig, has given way to the establishment of large pastoral farms on all the more level lands, and has left only such irregular patches as require spade cultivation, and which cannot be grazed by cattle in the hands of small proprietors. But this country exhibits great variations. To give our readers therefore clearer notions we shall divide (with Sir John Sinclair, in his "General Report,") the country into nine districts.

The *first* includes the counties of Roxburgh, Berwick and the three Lothians, and may be justly termed, by way of eminence, the agricultural district, as the art of husbandry is carried on there in as great perfection as in any country in Europe. The proportion of land in cultivation is very considerable, and its farmers are, in general, remarkable for their intelligence, industry and capital. In this district is situated the metropolis of Scotland, which unites to signal advantages of situation, a degree of art and elegance in its buildings, unknown in any other town in Great Britain. As it is the seat of the courts of law, the public offices, and a celebrated university, the population within its bounds is much greater than its agriculture or commerce would otherwise require. The several counties which compose this district may be thus discriminated:—Roxburghshire, the most southerly, has a great extent of hills of considerable elevation, and only adapted for the pasturing of sheep; but it also includes the rich vale of Teviot, which is one of the most improved tracts in the kingdom. Berwickshire, though a large share of its surface is likewise best suited for pasture, contains in the Merse, soil at once fertile and well cultivated. East Lothian, throughout the greater part of its extent, is a rich and highly improved plain, diversified by a few gentle eminences; and yields to no county in Great Britain the palm of superiority in agriculture. Mid-Lothian, though inferior in soil to East Lothian, nevertheless raises excellent corn and green crops, and likewise derives wealth from horticulture in the vicinity of Edinburgh. West Lothian, besides being noted for the carefulness of its agriculture, in the more cultivated parts, is ornamented with many extensive plantations, while its peculiar situation on the southern bank of the Forth adds much to the beauty of the scenery, and to the advantages which the country possesses within itself.

The *second* district includes the counties of Peebles, or Tweedale, Selkirk, Dumfries, Kirkcudbright and Wigton. Here are the highest mountains south of the Forth; and from the great proportion of hills, and the small extent of arable land, more of the surface is appropriated to the feeding of live stock than to the growth of corn. Yet the vales, particularly in Dumfriesshire, are of considerable extent and fertility, and exhibit much diversity of appearance. The green hills of Tweedale, and the intervening valleys, are prolific of corn. Only a small proportion of the territory is, however, arable, and late harvests occasionally blast the prospects of the farmer. In the county of Selkirk, formerly called

called the Forest, a still less proportion of the land is cultivated; but new plantations supply the place of the natural woods. The hills, both in this county and in that of Peebles, are covered by numerous flocks of sheep, partly of the Tweedale, but chiefly by the Cheviot race. Great numbers of cattle also are found in these districts. In Galloway, its excellent breed of cattle, and hardy race of sheep, are supported much better than formerly; and not only oats and barley, but wheat of good quality are raised in every part of the arable tracts.

The *third* district is washed by the Atlantic Ocean, and, by means of a navigable canal, communicates with the German Sea. It includes the counties of Ayr, Renfrew, Lanark and Dumbarton. Notwithstanding the humidity of the elevation of its hills, agriculture is much attended to, and in many parts is carried on with great success, as the exertions of the farmers are stimulated by commerce and manufactures. Still, however, this district is more adapted to the rearing or fattening of live-stock, than to the raising of corn; and the best breeds of horses and of dairy cows are to be found in it. From the concurring causes of commerce, manufactures and minerals, agriculture has flourished in an ungenial climate; and nearly one-half, or, more accurately, seven-fifteenths of the whole surface are under cultivation. With only one-thirteenth part of the extent, nearly one-fourth part of the population of Scotland is included in this division.

In the *fourth* district are included the counties of Fife, Kinross, Clackmannan, Stirling, Perth and Forfar, or Angus. This district exhibits every variety of soil and surface, from the level and rich carses of Stirling, Falkirk and Gowrie, and the great valleys of Strathmore, Athol and Kethness, to the lofty Grampians, which shelter a considerable proportion of the division from the northern blasts. In the rich carses, and along the friths and sea-coast, it produces the best wheat, beans, barley and broad clover. And in some of the inland districts are raised excellent crops of turnips, beans, and oats. Its live-stock in general is of an excellent description. The towns of Dundee, Perth, Alloa, Dumfermline, Stirling, St. Andrews, Clackmannan, Kinross, Forfar, Montrose, Brechin and a number of inferior villages, contain two-fifths of its whole population. In this extensive district, Fifeshire is distinguished by its great variety of productions, and by its fisheries, its flax and linen manufactures, its coal-mines, lime-works and iron-stone, by its improved agriculture, and its breeds of cattle and horses. The small county of Kinross, ornamented by its lake, and abounding in coal and lime-stone, is considerably elevated above the level of the sea. Formerly it was not attractive to a stranger, but its aspect is now much improved. Clackmannan, of still more limited extent, but of greater fertility, is distinguished by a correct cultivation of the soil, and by the abundance of lime and coal. The half of its population resides in towns of very moderate extent. The county of Stirling includes every variety of soil, from the rich carses on the south bank of the Forth, to the barren rocks of Ben Lomond. In the parishes of Enrick and Strathblane, there are rich fields, cultivated by intelligent and enterprising farmers; and the scenery is much diversified in all parts of the country. The very extensive county of Perth is equally remarkable for the most fertile, and the most barren soils, and exhibits the two extremes of correct and defective agriculture. In the carse of Gowrie, and the valley of Strathearn, there are many opulent and enterprising farmers, who cultivate successfully the most fertile soil in the kingdom In several of the smaller vales an improved cultivation is also general. But in the more remote highland glens, even where the land is naturally good, improvements in agriculture are little known and less practised. In Forfarshire, along the sea-coast, and in the rich valley of Strathmore, the farmers have been long distinguished for their exertions; and in the inland parts of the county, shell-marle, obtained in abundance from the fresh-water lakes, has contributed very much to the improvement of the soil.

The *fifth* district includes the counties of Kincardine, Aberdeen, Banff, Moray and Nairn, and contains a greater extent of sea-coast than any of the preceding divisions. Yet on the south-west, where it extends to the middle of the island, it is extremely mountainous; the Grampians stretching from its boundary with Perthshire nearly to the sea at Aberdeen. By far the greatest part of the arable land is either in the maritime or midland parts, there being very little near the mountains. It is remarkable that the maritime parts of Moray enjoy perhaps the best climate in Scotland, and that for many centuries wheat has been cultivated there to great advantage. Wheat is also raised successfully in the maritime parts of Kincardine and Banffshire, and its cultivation is spreading rapidly in Aberdeenshire. The turnip husbandry and artificial grasses are to be met with over the principal part of this division in very great perfection. But the most striking feature in its cultivation is the great expence at which barren land is improved, by trenching with the spade and mattock, which has been known to exceed a hundred pounds for a single acre. This district in general raises food for the support of its inhabitants, and in good seasons exports a considerable quantity of grain; but it is chiefly distinguished for the rearing of excellent cattle, of which it sends yearly great numbers to England. Owing to the large proportion covered by mountains, only four-eleventh parts of this district are as yet under cultivation. It is, however, much adorned by plantations. particularly near the houses of its proprietors, and its natural woods in Braemar are extensive and valuable. Kincardineshire, except that part of it which lies in Mar, is sheltered on the north by the Grampian mountains. This small county was early induced to attend to the cultivation of its soil, by the examples of the late Robert Barclay, Esq., of Ury, and a few others of its landed proprietors. Aberdeenshire, which seventy years ago brought most of its work oxen from Fife and the Lothians, has now taken the lead in the rearing of black cattle, and cultivates for that purpose sown grass and turnips in great perfection. Wheat and beans also are raised successfully in the heavy loams of Formater, and on the still heavier clays of Buchan. Banffshire owed much to a distinguished character, the earl of Findlater and Seafield, who introduced an improved system of cultivation in that county, and encouraged his farmers to imitate his example. Not only near the sea-coast of the Bogue and the Eurie, where that improved system began, but in the more inland parts, a spirit of improvement has now become general, and has greatly altered the face of the country.

In the *sixth* district are included the two extensive counties of Argyle and Inverness, comprehending nearly one-fifth part of the whole surface of Scotland. About two-nineteenth parts of this district are cultivated, and productive. Near Inverness, at Campbeltown, in Argyleshire, and in some other spots, wheat and turnips are successfully cultivated, but in general the country is unfit for tillage, except on a small scale; its grazings, however, are extensive, and well adapted for the rearing of live-stock. It likewise contains a great extent of plantations, and the remnant of the Cocillmore, or great forest of Scotland. The black cattle of this district are in high estimation as excellent feeders. The hardy breed of Tweedale sheep, and in some instances those of Cheviot, occupy the hills. This division extends across the island; and the Caledonian canal is now carried directly through it, from the German Sea to the Atlantic Ocean, which it is to be hoped will carry industry and wealth into this remote district, and furnish the means of facilitating and enlarging the commerce of the other parts of the kingdom.

The *seventh* district includes the counties of Cromarty, Ross, Sutherland and Caithness. It is in some respects superior to the former, though more northerly. East Ross, with a part of Cromarty, contains a considerable proportion of excellent soil: and both the wheat and turnip husbandry are carried on successfully. The eastern coast of Sutherland, and the plains of Caithness, are also good corn counties.

counties. West Ross, and by far the greatest part of Sutherland, of Cromarty, and of that portion of Caithness which bounds with Sutherland, are rugged and unproductive. Not a tenth part of this district is capable of being cultivated, and only a twelfth part of the people resides in towns or villages; yet, by the introduction of sheep-farming, by encouraging manufactures, and, above all, by the extensive fisheries of herring and cod, now successfully established along the coast of Caithness, this district must soon greatly increase in value, and the inhabitants become richer and happier. The breeds of cattle have been much improved of late years; the Tweedale breed of sheep is now spreading over the western parts of this district; and there are already about 4000 of the Cheviot breed in various parts of it, more especially in Sutherland and Caithness. The Merino breed, and crosses of them, have been successfully introduced into Ross-shire, and other parts of this district. East Ross and Cromarty are ornamented with the seats of the proprietors, and extensive plantations. Wood also thrives in Sutherland, and in the more hilly parts of Caithness; but in the plains of Caithness, and near the sea-coast, it cannot be raised to advantage, from the nature of the subsoil, in general a gritty close gravel of little depth, incumbent on a horizontal flaggy rock, which keeps the water near the surface.

The islands which are included in the *eighth* district, were formerly denominated Ebudæ, but are now better known by the name of the Hebrides, or the Western Islands. They contain about one-tenth part of the total extent of Scotland, with about one-eighteenth part of its population. Of the whole surface, nearly one-seventh part is under culture. Wheat has been raised in some of the islands, more especially Bute, Islay and Coll; and turnips have also been cultivated successfully in Skye, and some of the smaller islands. In all these isles the breed of black cattle is excellent, though in general small. The fisheries and kelp manufacture are very valuable; and by proper attention to them, these islands may furnish a great addition both to the wealth and strength of the empire.

In the *ninth* or last district are the northern islands of Orkney and Zetland, or Shetland. The former contain about 440, and the latter nearly 880 square miles, and form one county. Only about one-seventeenth part of the whole surface of these islands is in cultivation. Wheat and turnips have both been tried, and not without success. The pure Merino breed of sheep has been introduced into Orkney recently, and a zeal for improvement has lately appeared in these islands, which may be attended with the best effects; for they enjoy a very temperate climate, though in a high northern latitude. The isles being situated low, snow seldom lies many days, and ice is never more than two or three inches thick.

Horticulture is making rapid increase in every part. Apples and other fruits are produced in abundance. At Edinburgh the annual consumption of vegetables amounts to from 16 to 18,000*l.*, which is about 45*l.* rent for every acre employed in raising this production; but neither in the extent and cultivation of market or private gardens can this country in any degree compare with England.

The ancient Caledonian forests, though much diminished, still occupy a considerable surface of the country, and a great number of plantations have recently been made in those parts which were unfavourable to agriculture. The extent of the natural woods is calculated at 501,469 acres. The plantations extend over 412,226.

The Scotch fir is the most common pine in the Scottish plantations; the larch has been lately introduced, and is a valuable acquisition, not only for the value of the wood, but also for its more rapid growth. Ash, elm, plane, beech, oak, laburnum and a great variety of other kinds, are however intermixed in the plantations.

The Manufactures of Scotland are the chief source of her revenue. The woollen is the most ancient species of manufacture known in Scotland. Some attempts were made, before the two crowns were united, to establish it on a regular footing; and experienced workmen were accordingly brought for that purpose from different parts of Europe. But these attempts failed, and the trade gradually reverted to its former narrow limits, when the woollen cloths made in Scotland were chiefly manufactured by the extra labour of those who were employed in husbandry. The females, especially in winter, were occupied in carding and spinning the wool. The yarn thus produced was either given to a country weaver, to be woven into cloth for family use, or sold to such dealers as frequented fairs, where the surplus of both cloth and yarn was exposed to sale. This mode of manufacturing woollen yarn and cloth is not yet entirely abandoned, although now principally confined to the Highlands and poorer districts of the country.

Mr. Baird, of Aberdeen, was the first who introduced machinery in the manufacture of wool in Scotland. In 1789, he brought from Rochdale two carding engines, and four spinning-jennies, with the other necessary apparatus. That part of the machinery which required the power of water was erected at Stoneywood, on the river Don; but the jennies with looms, &c., were fixed at Aberdeen. About 600 lbs. of wool were manufactured weekly until the year 1796, when the machinery was increased to twice the extent. The preparation of wool by hand was generally laid aside, and several other mills were erected in Aberdeenshire; so that in 1799, about 4000 lbs. were weekly manufactured by eighteen engines. So rapid indeed has been the increase of this manufacture, that mills have been erected, not only in the different parts of Aberdeenshire, but at Elgin, Forres, Inverness, Cromarty, in Caithness, and in some of the southern and western counties of Scotland. But the most considerable work of this kind in Scotland, is that of Messrs. Hadden and Company at Aberdeen, which extends to twenty machines, wrought by two powerful steam engines. Wool is manufactured into cloth, carpets, stockings, lamb's-wool hosiery and felts upon a considerable scale.

The manufactures of flax and hemp are deemed objects of great national importance, and have long received the fostering protection of government. "An act for better regulation of the linen and hempen manufactures of that part of Great Britain called Scotland," was passed in 1727. In consequence of that statute, a board of trustees was established in Edinburgh, "for overseeing, directing, and better improving the said linen and hempen manufactures," on which extensive powers were conferred. This Board has since continued in constant activity, and regulated the trade in all its branches, from the sowing of the flax-seed to the measuring and finishing of the bleached cloth.

The linen manufacture of Scotland is, however, at present, nearly confined to coarse articles, such as plain sheetings, Osnaburghs, bagging, and canvass. The three first are principally exported to the West Indies, and to America, and the last is a war article, of which the royal navy requires a great quantity.

The following table shows the state of the linen trade in Scotland from 1812 to 1823.

Years.	Yards.	Value.	Average price per yard.
1813	19,799,146½	£977,382 1 7½	at 11 $\frac{10}{12}$ds.
1814	26,126,620¼	1,253,574 16 10½	— 11 $\frac{6}{12}$
1815	32,056,015¼	1,403,766 15 2	— 10 $\frac{6}{12}$
1816	26,112,045½	1,026,674 1 11¾	— 9 $\frac{5}{12}$
1817	28,784,967¼	1,092,689 2 8¼	— 9 $\frac{1}{12}$
1818	31,283,100½	1,253,528 8 0½	— 9 $\frac{7}{12}$
1819	29,334,428¼	1,157,923 4 11	— 9 $\frac{5}{12}$
1820	26,259,011¼	1,038,708 18 5¼	— 9 $\frac{5}{12}$
1821	30,473,461½	1,232,038 15 4¾	— 9 $\frac{8}{12}$
1822	36,268,530½	1,396,295 19 11½	— 9 $\frac{2}{12}$

It has been calculated that 76,000 persons are engaged in the manufacture of linen and hemp in Scotland, and that the total value of the manufactured article is £775,000

About the year 1769, cotton was introduced into Scotland as

as a material for the fabrication of cloth. It was used at first as woof only, the warp being linen yarn. The fabrics thus produced were stout chequered and striped goods, and also plain cloth, which was either printed or dyed.

At present 120 cotton mills have been erected in Scotland, of which 112 are employed, besides several small works in different parts of the country, comparatively speaking of little importance.

The introduction and general use of the fly-shuttle, have greatly tended to promote the cotton manufacture, by facilitating the operation of weaving; and power looms are now used, having been introduced at Stockport in England at nearly the same time. These machines were at first very imperfect; and although only coarse goods can as yet be woven on them, there is still every reason to expect, that in time, they may be made to answer for weaving fine fabrics. There are of power looms about 1500 working in Scotland, chiefly in Dumbartonshire, Stirlingshire, Ayrshire, Renfrewshire and Lanarkshire.

With machinery so highly improved, the cotton manufacture has been carried to the highest pitch of improvement, and every variety of goods is made in Scotland, from the coarsest to the finest fabrics: and while the annual value of the cotton manufacture exceeds six millions sterling, it gives employment to 15,000 persons.

The value of the woollen, linen and cotton trades, then, may be estimated at upwards of eight millions sterling per annum. The hat and paper manufactures, together with that of iron and the other metals, may amount to two millions. Ship-building, and those branches in which timber is chiefly employed, exclusive of the fitting up of houses, is not less than one million. The leather, brewery, distillery, glass, pottery, soap, salt and tobacco trade, may amount to two millions and a half; and, including the minor branches, it is highly probable that the whole manufactures in Scotland will annually exceed in value fourteen millions sterling, including the price of the raw materials.

The following Table shows the number of persons employed in Manufactures in Scotland of various descriptions:—

	Persons employed for the use of			
	Scotland.	England.	Foreign parts.	Total persons.
I.—*Manufactures from domestic materials chiefly.*				
1. Linen and hemp	19,000	11,600	46,000	76,600
2. Woollen manufacture..	15,900	2,300	6,600	24,800
3. Iron	12,400	320	460	13,180
4. Liquors	3,695	930	165	4,390
5. Paper.....	2,290	350	760	3,400
6. Cooper's work..	1,900	30	680	2,610
7. Leather	2,000	100	300	2,400
8. Ship & small crafts.....	1,150	100	150	1,400
9. Glass	725	190	325	1,140
10. Soap	740		70	810
11. Combs and spoons	580		130	710
12. Pottery, bricks, &c.	500		80	580
13. Salt	195		10	205
14. Cutlery	170		10	180
II.—*Manufactures from foreign materials.*				
1. Cotton	7,220	13,600	133,180	154,000
2. Silk	760	520	1,220	2,500
Total	69,225	29,690	190,090	288,905

The following Table contains a general view of the Manufactures of Scotland:—

	Value of raw material.	Profit of Labour.	Total value.
1. Cotton goods	£1,832,225	£5,132,362	£6,964,586
2. Miscellaneous goods	1,300,000	3,700,000	5,000,000
3. Linen goods	834,149	940,851	1,775,000
4. Woollen goods....	300,000	150,000	450,000
Total.....	£4,266,373	£9,923,213	£14,189,586

The Commerce of Scotland, both in regard to home and foreign trade, is pretty extensive. The Scotch do not enjoy a great proportion of the carrying trade: it is not, however, accurately known what their proportion amounts to. In the coasting trade, the average number of vessels entered inwards during ten years, is about 13,000 annually; and supposing one entry to have taken place every six weeks, or eight entries in the year, the number of vessels employed in the coasting trade of Scotland will be about 1635, carrying upwards of 81,000 tons, and navigated by nearly 6000 men. In the year ending 5th Jan. 1823, the number of vessels was 1823, carrying 92,156 tons, and navigated by 6403 seamen. If 2000 men be engaged in the different canals, ferries and rivers, the whole number of men employed in this particular branch of maritime occupation will be about 8500.

Scotland formerly enjoyed but a small share of foreign trade. The exports were chiefly wool, skins, hides and other raw materials, which were exchanged for corn, wine and spiceries. Both the extent of exports and imports must have been very limited in those times, at least in Scotch vessels; for the whole shipping, in the thirteenth century, did not exceed twenty sloops, exclusive of the galleys and barks belonging to the Hebrides. In the time of Cromwell, the shipping of Scotland consisted of only 93 vessels, carrying 2724 tons, and 18 barks. Soon after, however, her foreign trade with the northern and eastern states of Europe began to increase, and the Dutch cultivated a friendly connexion with the Scotch, chiefly for the conveniency of prosecuting the herring fishery on the coast of Scotland, in which they were deeply and profitably engaged.

About the middle of the last century, an extensive commercial intercourse was carried on from the ports on the eastern coast of Scotland to Holland, Norway, Sweden and the different states on the shores of the Baltic. This trade has greatly increased of late years. The imports consist of flax, hemp, yarn, linen, iron, corn, wood, tallow and other commodities produced in these countries; and in return, colonial produce, cotton goods and other manufactured articles are exported. The trade between Scotland and Russia, including that of Archangel, forms the most considerable branch of the commerce of the eastern coast; and the chief shipping ports are Leith, Dundee, Arbroath, Montrose, Aberdeen, Peterhead, Banff and Inverness. The trade with Spain, Portugal and the Mediterranean, as well as that of the West Indies, is confined principally to Leith; and the connexion with Canada extends to all the most considerable towns on the east coast of Scotland.

The commerce of the west coast centres almost entirely in the Clyde, which is the grand emporium of the American and West Indian trade. From the middle of the last century to the year 1772, the merchants of Glasgow imported immense quantities of tobacco from Virginia and the contiguous provinces, which was afterwards exported, both in its natural and in its manufactured state, to every part of Europe, particularly to Holland, where it was carried to the inland markets of the continent. The Americans, in return, were furnished with all those useful and substantial articles which suit an infant state. Since the commencement of the cotton manufacture, the commerce of the Clyde has rapidly increased; and a correct idea of its extent may be formed, when it is stated, that in the year 1810, there arrived at Greenock, Port-Glasgow, and the city of Glasgow, 3308 vessels, carrying 226,837 tons, of which 871 vessels, 107,845 tons, were from Ireland and foreign ports.

The following Table shews the state of the foreign trade of Scotland:—

Year ending 5th Jan.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
1816	2775	245,286	17,554
1821	2940	258,748	18,885
1823	2789	228,098	16,926

This Table includes the whole trade:—

Year ending 5th Jan.	Inwards.			Outwards.		
	Men.	Tons.	Ships.	Ships.	Tons.	Men.
1824	22,650	1,225,685	88,227	21,841	1,117,757	81,291
1825	26,595	1,436,066	100,861	25,153	1,376,221	100,097

The following Table shews the number of vessels built and registered in Scotland during the last ten years:—

	Vessels.	Tonnage.
1816	165	16,227
1817	172	15,608
1818	156	14,824
1819	131	13,923
1820	154	16,228
1821	121	14,004
1822	122	9,457
1823	87	6,162
1824	117	12,967
1825	189	12,840

In the following Table will be seen the number of registered vessels belonging to Scotland:—

	Vessels.	Tons.	Men.
1820	3133	288,770	20,470
1821	3160	289,535	20,855
1822	3071	276,931	29,830
1823	2863	259,444	19,111

In the year 1812, there belonged to Scotland 2708 ships, carrying 231,273 tons, navigated by 16,300 seamen. In the same year, the number of vessels that cleared outwards, and entered inwards, including their repeated voyages, was 3151, carrying 278,968 tons outwards, and 3113, carrying 269,559 tons inwards.

The total value of imports to, and exports from, Scotland, for the year 1810, amounted for the former to 3,671,158*l.* sterling, and for the latter, to 4,740,239*l.* sterling; of which 4,126,682*l.* sterling was British produce and manufactures. The gross revenue of Scotland for the year 1813, amounted to 4,843,299*l.* 12*s.* 11*d.*, of which 639,132*l.* 5*s.* 2*d.* was charged for management, drawbacks, allowances, &c., so that the net revenue was 4,204,167*l.* 7*s.* 9*d.* sterling.

For the year ending 5th Jan. 1825, the official value of the exports from Scotland was 5,899,431*l.*, and that of the imports 4,349,990*l.*, the excess of exports being 1,549,441*l.* The gross receipt of customs for the same year was 953,969*l.*, the drawbacks, &c., 328,063*l.*, and the real receipt 625,896*l.*

The chief fisheries in which the Scotch are engaged, are, 1st. What is called the *white* fishery, that is, haddock, ling, cod and flat-fish. 2. The herring fishery. 3. The whale fishery; and, 4. The salmon fishery. The first of these brings in about 400,000*l.* annually. Those who pursue this branch are denominated white fishers, and they inhabit the sea-ports, or reside in numerous villages along the whole coast of the kingdom. Their mode of fishing is by lines and nets, but principally by the former; and they carry on their business throughout the year. The fish they catch are daily sold to the inhabitants of the towns and of the country, either as caught or cured; and of late years, great quantities of cod have been salted for the London market.

The eastern and western coasts of Scotland are frequented periodically by prodigious shoals of herrings, which penetrate into the bays, lochs and arms of the sea. They are taken by nets, salted, and packed in barrels. When prepared in this manner, they are termed white herrings; but when smoaked and cured by a particular process, they are distinguished by the name of red herrings.

To promote this important branch of industry, especially in the deep sea, a Board of Commissioners was established by act 48 Geo. III., to superintend and encourage the fishery. A tonnage bounty of 3*l.* per ton is allowed to all vessels of sixty tons and upwards, fitted out for the deep sea-fishery, besides 2*s.* on every barrel of herrings properly cured and repacked; and by the act 52 Geo. III. c. 153, the bounty of 3*l.* per ton is extended to vessels of 45 tons burden.

Notwithstanding the encouragement thus afforded to the deep-sea fishery, it is not likely to succeed on the system adopted. In 1809, only three vessels were fitted out; in 1810 and 1811, seven vessels; and in 1812 ten; which caught in these several years 700½, 979½, 1588, and 2839½ barrels of herrings. The bounties paid amounted to 5866*l.* for tonnage, which is 19*s.* 4*d.* per barrel.

The coast fishery, however, presents different results. In the above four years, 505, 532, 594, and 923 vessels were fitted out, which caught and cured 89,476, 90,849, 109, 931½, and 150,646½ barrels; of which the bounty of 2*s.* was paid on 218,821 barrels of herrings. It must be observed, that the returns made to the Board do not include the whole quantity of herrings caught and cured. It comprehends only the proceeds of those fisheries, which have complied with the regulations of the statute, and are under the cognizance of the officers of the Board. The account received from the excise, of the quantity of herrings caught and cured for the year ending in May 1812, amounted to 190,006 barrels, for which salt, duty free, was used. From various local and other circumstances, it often happens that duty-free salt cannot always be obtained; and it is not estimating the quantity too high, to calculate 10,000 barrels annually caught, and not returned to the officers of excise. The total quantity of herrings taken and cured for the year 1812, may be reckoned at not less than 200,000 barrels, besides 50,000 barrels consumed in a fresh state; being in all 250,000 barrels.

It was formerly imagined, that the only herring fishery on the coast of Scotland worthy of attention, was in the western lochs; but on the eastern coast of Caithness the herring fishery has proved highly successful; above 120,000 barrels have been caught in one year, (an. 1813,) and since that time it has undergone a progressive increase, as will appear by the following abstract:—

Years ended 5th April,	Cured.	Exported.
1810	90,185½	35,348
1811	91,827⅙	38,133
1812	111,519½	62,820
1813	153,488½	109,725½
1814	110,542½	118,403½
1815	160,139½	141,305½
1816	162,651½	107,688
1817	192,343½	138,628½
1818	227,991	162,339½
1819	340,894	227,162
1820	382,491½	253,516
1821	442,195½	294,805½
1822	316,524½	214,956
1823	248,869	170,445
1824	392,190¾	239,630½
1825	347,665¼	202,016½

Along the eastern coast alone, the shore herring fishery produces about 300,000 barrels of salted herrings annually, besides those used when fresh. The following was the state of it in 1823:—

Number

Number of boats employed - - -	2,272
Fishermen - - - - - - -	10,435
Coopers - - - - - - -	1,585
Packers and labourers - - - -	10,041
Seamen in coasting and export ships estimated at - - - - - - -	13,500
Total persons employed in 1823 -	35,561

The value of the herring fishery of Scotland may amount to half a million annually; but as it is the best nursery for hardy seamen, the fishery may be deemed a source of national wealth in another point of view.

The whale fishery is carried on in the seas of Greenland and Davis's Straits. As the ships employed in this fishery are large, and their equipment expensive, it can only be carried on by those who have a great command of capital. Government, however, has afforded considerable encouragement to the adventurers, by allowing large bounties. It produces about 200,000*l.* annually.

The salmon fishery produces about 150,000*l.* per annum, but does not give employment to many persons. The rocky coasts of the Hebrides and Orkneys abound in shell-fish. Lobsters, crabs, &c., are annually caught to the value of 50,000*l.*

We have a few remarks to make on the Western Highlands and Islands, which we throw together here as connected slightly with the general estimates of Scottish wealth. The great manufacture of this district is kelp, though it has lately suffered considerably in consequence of the changes in the duty and price of foreign barilla. It is on the low and extensive Shetland shores that the sea-weeds which produce it chiefly grow, and thus a kelp estate is regulated by these circumstances. Hence Sky, surrounded with lofty cliffs, produces little; while the Long Island, running into deep and sinuous indentations, furnishes as much as all the western coast united. It is from the deep sinuosities of North Uist in particular that arises the immense quantities of its produce. In this island, the rent of the kelp is equal to that of the entire land, when the price was 10*l.* a ton, amounting to 7000*l.* per annum in the islands alone, excluding the coast, the total annual produce varies between 5000 and 6000 tons, and consequently, at the price above named, the annual returns divided among the proprietors, vacillated between 50,000*l.* and 60,000*l.* a-year, of which one-half is expended in the various charges appertaining to the manufacture and the trade. We may conceive, that about 20,000*l.* per annum of this was divided among the manufacturers; and hence it is easy to conjecture the value of the kelp manufacture to the mere labourer, independently of all other considerations. It is to be remarked, however, that this was not paid in money but in land; or putting it into the commonly apprehended form of servitude, the rent of a tenement was so much in money, and so much labour in kelp, or rather the production of a given quantity. That this is the most beneficial plan for all parties, can admit of no doubt. We shall only further remark on this commodity, that during the war, it rose as high as to 20*l.* and was for a considerable period as high as 15*l.* On an average of 23 years, ending in 1822, the price was found to be 10*l.* 9*s.* 7*d.* per ton; and as the total annual quantity made in Scotland is estimated at 20,000 tons in favourable seasons, the total value of the manufacture may be stated at 200,000*l.*, giving employment to about 80,000 individuals, and about 200 vessels.

The next production of the Highlands and islands is fish, in the two distinct forms of white fish and herrings, which we have considered in the general subject of the fisheries.

On the herring fishery of this entire coast we must remark, that it is now uncertain, and rarely of any value. In former times, in those of Charles I., Loch Maddy was the great rendezvous of the herrings, and the seat of a great establishment, but they have long deserted it. More lately, and from the beginning of the last century, Sky, and the north-western Lochs were the great fisheries; and hence arose those establishments of Tanera, Ullapool, and Loch Torridon, formerly of note, together with those of Steen in Sky, and Tobermorry in Mull. These were the result of the successes of the Dutch, and of the want of calculation and foresight in the projectors, who were formed into a company; and from the long continued desertion of the fish, chiefly to the eastern coast, nearly the whole capital embarked was lost. Occasionally, however, shoals still visit this coast; yet precariously, and seldom furnishing a capture for commerce, though valuable as matter of domestic consumption. Within ten years or more, considerable captures have been made about Sky, and in the neighbouring lochs; but lately few have been taken to the north of Loch Fyne.

The remaining products of this part of Scotland, are slates. The great seats of this are the islands on the coast of Nether Lorn, the property of Lord Breadalbane. Seil, Luing and Esdale, are the principal islands thus wrought; and the latter has been long established as the most active port. There is no limit here but the demand, as the quarries are inexhaustible, and the material of an excellent quality. Though pyritical, it does not decompose when in use. It is a manufacture which maintains a large population, and which has also much improved the agriculture of these islands. The chief market is the western coast; and though rather belonging to a distinct geography, we may here mention a similar manufacture carried on in Bute and Inch Marnoch. At the foot of Glenco there is also an extensive slate quarry, to which Loch Leven offers a convenient harbour and port.

Though many parts of the western islands offer inexhaustible quarries of every imaginable stone, little or none has been wrought any where, except in Arran. Yet the convenience of the harbours, a ready navigation, and quarries so situated, that their produce might be craned from the rock into the vessel, may probably hereafter make this market valuable, at least to the western coast of England and Scotland. Rassay, for instance, presents a range of the most beautiful white free-stone, extending for ten miles, and rising immediately from the sea. It is an entire quarry, and with scarcely the labour of working, might be loaded of any size from the rock into the ship. Here, were it necessary, columns might also be wrought of any length, and shipped.

In granite Mull is particularly rich, while nothing can exceed the commodiousness of the situation for quarrying and shipping. This tract of rock lies at the mouth of Loch Seriden, on the Ross, which is formed of it; and this loch offers secure harbours in abundance. The quality resembles that of the Egyptian, being of a high red colour, and a large grain, and as it is disposed naturally in large blocks, and in thin and flat masses, it is easily split into the shapes required by architecture, and is of such dimensions and continuity, that it would afford shafts of columns fifty feet in length.

It would be endless to point out all the various and commodious quarries of granite. Jura, however, deserves notice, for the beauty of its *white quartz* rock. This stone is not only preferable to granite in point of durability, being absolutely indestructible, whether above water or below it, but excels the finest sandstone in beauty of colour and texture. At the same time, it is offered by nature in blocks which are often ready squared to the mason's hand, or which might be rendered square by a few blows of the hammer. That such a material has been utterly neglected by architects is much to be regretted.

Broadford, in Sky, possesses endless quarries of marble of various qualities, and of ornamental appearance, well adapted for interior architecture. Among these there are considerable rocks of pure white marble, the best and the most considerable yet discovered in the British dominions. The grain is extremely compact and fine, and well adapted to the smaller works of statuaries. The quarries have been opened, but no attempts were ever made towards a sale. In the Garveloch isles also there are inexhaustible quarries, and not less convenient. These are of still more various colours, being

being whitish, yellow and pink, veined with red; while there are also large beds of breccia, nearly resembling many of the most highly prized Italian antique breccias.

Of the domestic manufactures of the Highlands and islands, we may enumerate hemp, flax and wool, as the sole materials. Yet little or nothing is made for exportation, the whole, nearly, being for objects of domestic consumption, or for the very limited market at their own doors.

VII.—Government and Political Constitution.

Previous to the Union, the parliament of Scotland was, like England, composed of peers and representatives of counties and burghs, with this distinction, that they sat in one house. James I. of Scotland attempted to establish a house of commons, in imitation of that of England, but his subjects maintained the most firm resistance to that enlightened measure. At present Scotland is represented in the British parliament by sixteen peers and forty-five commoners. The sixteen peers are elected for every new parliament by the whole body of the peerage duly qualified to vote at the period when the election takes place, but are not, when once elected, continued for life, as is the case in regard to Irish peers.

The following Table will give an idea of the diminution that has taken place in the members of the Scottish peerage since the Union, and their amount at present:—

Tables of the Scottish Peerage.

1. Number of the Scotch peers at the Union - -	154
2. The Duke of Rothsay, when entitled to vote -	1
3. Added by subsequent orders of the House of Lords	4
	159
1. Extant, or dormant - - - - - - -	41
2. Merged in, or united to other titles - - -	10
3. Forfeited - - - - - - - -	26
	77
Remain	82
But 4 having been restored, the total is - - -	86

Of these, 23 (including the Duke of Rothsay) are British peers, but who still retain the privilege of voting at elections, and even continue eligible; though it can hardly be supposed that these hereditary peers would persuade their brethren not enjoying the same privilege to elect them. At the election in 1812, there were three minors, three peeresses, and two Roman Catholics, consquently eight disqualified from voting. The peers who actually voted were fifty-two, and twenty-two were out of the kingdom, or did not vote.

Of the forty-five commoners, thirty represent countics, and fifteen boroughs.

The county members are elected by freeholders possessed of £400 Scotch of valued rent, in land held of the crown. The only exception to this rule is found in the county of Sutherland, where, as the greater part of the land is held of the Earl of Sutherland, it became necessary to give the vassals of that earldom a right to vote as well as the vassals of the crown; and in consequence of the inconsiderable number of small proprietors in the county, the qualification of the freeholder was reduced to £200 Scotch of valued rent.

The following Table shews the amount of the valued rent in each county, as it stood in 1674; also the number of pualified freeholders returned in the list drawn up for the year 1825, since which there has been very little variation:—

Counties represented.	Valued Rent in Scotch Money.	No. of Freeholders in 1825.
1. Aberdeen - - -	£235,665 8 11	180
2. Argyll - - - -	149,595 10 0	74
3. Ayr - - - -	191,605 0 7	187
4. Banff - - - -	79,200 0 0	36
5. Berwick - - -	178,366 8 $6\frac{7}{24}$	126
6. Bute and } per vices -	15,042 13 10	13
7. Caithness }	37,256 2 10	24
8 Clackmannan & } per vices	26,482 10 10	18
9. Kinross }	20,250 4 $3\frac{2}{9}$	23
10. Cromarty and } per vices	12,897 2 $7\frac{8}{12}$	18
11. Nairn }	15,162 10 $11\frac{1}{2}$	19
12. Dumfries - - -	158,502 10 0	82
13. Dunbarton - - -	33,327 19 0	67
14. Edinburgh - - -	191,054 3 9	170
15. Elgin and Moray - -	65,603 0 5	34
16. Fife - - - -	363,129 3 $7\frac{2}{12}$	246
17. Forfar - - - -	171,239 16 8	127
18. Haddington - - -	168,873 10 8	105
19. Inverness - - -	73,188 9 0	72
20. Kincardine - - -	74,921 1 4	75
21. Kirkcudbright - -	114,597 2 3	143
22. Lanark - - -	162,131 14 $6\frac{392}{581}$	175
23. Linlithgow - - -	75,018 10 6	65
24. Orkney and Shetland -	57,786 0 $4\frac{47}{108}$	50
25. Peebles - - -	51,937 13 10	42
26. Perth - - - -	339,892 6 9	221
27. Renfrew - - -	69,172 1 0	158
28. Ross - - - -	75,043 10 3	83
29. Roxburgh - - -	314,663 6 4	139
30. Selkirk - - - -	80,307 15 6	35
31. Stirling - - -	108,509 3 $3\frac{1}{12}$	130
32. Sutherland - - -	26,093 9 9	23
33. Wigton - - -	67,641 17 0	66
Total - - -	3804,157 19 $2\frac{9}{24}$	3066

It is to be remarked, that six of these counties are represented in parliament by only three members; two of them united for that purpose, electing a representative alternately; and that the Shetland isles, owing to some defect regarding their valuation, though entitled to share in the representation of Orkney, have as yet no freeholders on the roll. Lands holding of the crown to the extent of £400 Scotch of valued rent, or, in particular cases, what is called a forty shilling land of old extent, entitle the proprietor to a vote, and those freeholders only are included in the above table. There are in every county more persons who possess freehold property below, than such as have land either equal to, or above that valuation; and besides, the nobility are never put on the rolls of freeholders, whatever extent of property they may possess. This in some measure accounts for the number of freeholders being so low as 2429. Were there to be a voter for every £400 of valuation, the total number would be 9511.

The number of proprietors, are however small: the following was the state of property in 1811:—

	Number of Proprietors.
1. Large properties, or estates above 2000*l.* of valued rent, or 2500*l.* sterling of real rent	396
2. Middling properties, or estates from 2000*l.* to 500*l.* of valued rent, or from 2500*l.* to 625*l.* of real rent	1077
3. Small properties, or estates under 500*l.* of valued rent, or 625*l.* of real rent	6181
4. Estates belonging to corporate bodies	144
Total number of proprietors in Scotland	7798

The Civil Jurisdictions of Scotland consist 1. Of the

the *Supreme Courts;* that is the *Court of Session*, the *Jury Court*, and the *Court of Exchequer*. 2. The Inferior Courts, or the *Admiralty, Commissary, Sheriff, Burgh Royal, Burgh of Regality and Barony, Baron, Lyon, Justice of Peace, and Commissioners of Supply Courts.*

The *Court of Session* is the highest civil judicatory. It was established in the place of two other courts, the *Daily Council* and the *Session*, by the statute 1537, c. 36. under the name of the *Council* and *Session*. James V. dignified it with the name of the *College of Justice*, and the Judges with that of *Senators of the College of Justice*. The Judges are now, as they were at first, *fifteen* in number, including their president; and are all named by the king. Seven were churchmen till 1640, c. 26; and although that act, as a usurpation act, fell under the general repeal at the Restoration, its spirit has been followed, and no churchman has since sat upon the bench. The court continued to sit in one chamber till 1808, when it was divided into two, called the *First* and *Second Divisions*, the Lord President and seven Judges constituting the first, and the Lord Justice Clerk, (the head of the Court of Justiciary) with six Judges, constituting the second. These divisions have independent, but co-ordinate jurisdiction, and are often called to consult together as the entire Court of Session.

The powers of the Court of Session are very extensive. Its *original* jurisdiction extends to all matters of civil right not under the value of 25*l.* with the exception of *maritime* and *consistorial* cases, *brieves*, and some others, to be noticed in the sequel; and its *powers of review*, by advocation, suspension, or reduction, have no limits, but embrace the decrees of all inferior judges whatsoever, including the Judge Admiral and Commissaries. While its jurisdiction is *cumulative* generally with that of all other civil courts, it is *privative* or exclusive in all competitions of heritable rights, reductions and proving the tenor of deeds, mercantile bankruptcy, *cessio bonorum*, judicial sale, restitution of minors, complaints of irregularities in the election of burgh magistrates and members of parliament, &c. The Court of Session is likewise a court of equity, proceeding not on fixed equity law as in England, but on the rules of conscience, giving aid in the actions brought before them, when there is no remedy in law. It has a yet greater arbitrary power, though now much more sparingly used than anciently, when precedent was less extended and legal principle less settled; this is termed its *nobile officium*, and was used to remedy all contingent public wrongs, so far as even to interfere in market prices. The power to pass *Acts of Sederunt*, as they are called, was likewise in use to trench materially on the law of the land; but has long been limited in practice to regulations or rules for judicial forms. This is recognised by the very latest statutes; for by the stat. 6 Geo. IV. c. 120, the Chief Commissioner of the Jury Court is joined to the Lords of Session, and power given to them jointly to make orders and regulations for the Court of Session, Court of Teinds, Jury Court, and all the inferior courts. Such bye-laws, being sanctioned by statute, have the force of statute so far as they go.

There are three stages of judicial business in the Court of Session, viz., the *Bill Chamber, Outer-House*, and *Inner-House*, which last, both divisions are alike denominated. Causes originating in the Court of Session as ordinary actions, do not pass through the Bill-Chamber. This last is the first stage of the process of review of the judgments of inferior courts; and in this stage it is determined whether these should be admitted into the supreme court, or remitten, as properly decided, as to the inferior judicatory. The Bill-chamber, besides, is the jurisdiction for all summary and urgent process, as interdicts against illegal proceedings, relief from illegal execution, imprisonment, &c., and, having no vacation, is always accessible. The judges, with the exception of the Lord President and Lord Justice Clerk, officiate in rotation during vacation; and one judge, the junior of all, does the duty in time of session. Nearly all decisions in the Bill-Chamber are subject to the review of the Inner-House.

Formerly the Inner-House judges sat by rotation in the Outer-House as Lords Ordinary. After several experiments, permanent Lords Ordinary were established; and by the stat. of last session, 6 Geo. IV. chap. 120, these are put upon their present footing, viz., the *seven* junior Lords of Session sit in the Outer-House as permanent Lords Ordinary; subject to be occasionally called into the Inner-House whenever the whole fifteen judges consult on any cases in which one division requires the opinion of the other. The seven permanent Lords Ordinary prepare and judge in causes in the Outer House, both such as originate in the Court of Session, and such as have passed the Bill-chamber; and the Lord Ordinary on the bills has the special duty of judging in recissory actions or reductions, and some other cases which are remitted from the Inner-house for discussion in the Outer.

The Inner-House of each division (by the same Act) consists of a president and three ordinary judges. The Lord President presides in the first division and the Lord Justice Clerk in the second. The judgments pronounced in the Outer-House are subject to the review of the Inner. In consequence of a more mature and perfect preparation of the cause under the prescriptions of the new act, there is no longer any form for submitting his own judgment to the review of the Lord Ordinary; but the losing party presents a note to the Inner-House (instead of the old form of reclaiming petition), reciting the judgment of which alteration is craved, and prints along with it, the proceedings held before the Lord Ordinary, called the record, including cases if they have been ordered, so that nothing in fact or law is laid before the court of review that was not in the view of the Lord Ordinary. The Inner-House, in both its divisions, is entirely occupied with this its province of review, with the exception of cases of a certain kind which are not competent in the Outer-House, and come at once into the Inner, such as petitions and summary complaints in bankruptcies, complaints in elections, appointment of judicial factors, *curatores bonis*, &c.

The judgments of the Inner-House are subject to the review of the House of Lords, as coming by the Union in the place of the Scottish Parliament. In this final review the same salutary principle is rigidly observed, namely, that the court of the last resort shall judge on the same pleadings in law as were before the court below.

The principal advantages intended by the new regulations, not only in the Court of Session, but in the inferior judicatories, to all of which they apply, are complete production in the outset of all documents that the action is founded on; greater accuracy, precision and brevity of pleading; and a complete separation of the facts of the case from the law; and, as the latter only is to be made the subject of discussion in the House of Lords, much diminution of that excess and complication of appeals which had become so great a grievance to the judges in that high tribunal. The parties are forced to bring out their whole cause, in fact and law, in their original pleadings, when the record is closed, and no further facts or pleas allowed, except of matters newly come to knowledge, when the payment of a suitable part of the previous expences must be made before these are admitted. This will render legal proceedings not only more precise and brief, but more respectable than when parties in a law-suit watched each other, and let their strength out by degrees; when cunning was mistaken for legal skill, and slovenliness and inaccuracy rendered disputes inextricable, and delay intolerable.

In all causes not expressly allotted to the Jury Court, (of which in the sequel,) where the facts are either admitted or not ordered to be ascertained by evidence taken on a commission, and chiefly in distant places, the Lord Ordinary may, if he sees proper, send the whole facts, or such part of them as he may think necessary in the form of particular issues to be tried by a jury in the Jury Court. The verdict of the jury finally settles the facts, so that no question of fact tried by jury can now be the subject of discussion by way of review either in the Inner-House or House of Lords. No facts can in any case be now discussed in the court of the last

last resort, inasmuch as the judgment on the facts by the Court of Session, when the matter has not been tried by jury, has the force of a verdict. When the verdict of the jury is returned, or the facts otherwise disposed of, the Lord Ordinary decides the cause, or takes it to report, as it is called, that is, to be decided at once by the Inner-House. If he decides it himself, the party dissatisfied carries it to the Inner-House by a reclaiming note, and prints the pleadings, called the record, which has been made up before the Lord Ordinary. On this record the court decide, after hearing counsel, either without or with farther written pleadings, in the form of concise cases, as they think fit. By these forms it is expected that written pleadings, which rendered the course of law cumbrous and tardy, will be very essentially abridged, and the Scottish bar be called to a greatly increased exercise of the more strictly forensic talent of *viva voce* statement.

The Court of Session has another function or character. It is the Commission, as it is called, for the plantation of kirks and valuation of teinds. This commission was, after several temporary commissions, rendered perpetual by statute 1709, c. 9. The whole fifteen judges sit in this court, and the old quorum of nine is requisite. Its meeting takes place every alternate Wednesday in Session time: and, as a distinct court, it has its own clerks, but is attended by the same practitioners. The act 1707 details its powers and duties. It regulates valuations and sales of teinds, augments the stipends of the clergy, disjoins or annexes parishes according to exigency, erects new churches, &c. The cases in this court go through their stages in the Outer-House before the Lord ordinary on the bills.

There is a class of actions in which no discretion is left to the Lords Ordinary of the Court of Session, to send or not to send, wholly or partially, the facts to be tried by jury. Cases of this class, although they must all originate in the Court of Session, (for the Jury Court has not been raised higher than a sort of accessory although supreme court,) must be sent at once for entire trial and determination to the Jury Court, without remaining longer in the Court of Session than passing through the form of being remitted, without any previous discussion of law or relevancy. This class of cases embraces actions of damages for injury to the person, both real and verbal, as assault and defamation, for injury to patrimonial rights, for breach of contract, for injury by delinquency and *quasi* delinquency; all actions on the responsibility of carriers, ship-owners, inn-keepers, actions to abate nuisances; all actions of reduction on furiosity, idiocy, facility, lesion, force or fear; all actions on insurance of all kinds, on charter parties, &c. Such of this class of cases as must originate in the Court of Admiralty, must likewise be sent at once to the Jury Court, provided the amount shall be £40 and upwards. The Judge Admiral, like the Lord Ordinary, has an option to remit or not cases not of this class. The Jury Court have the power to remit back points of law in the class of cases allotted to it, to the Lord Ordinary or Judge Admiral. When points of law are sent back to the court, the facts come again to be tried in the Jury Court. If in the Jury Court the facts are admitted on both sides, and trial of them unnecessary, the case is sent back for decision by the courts from which it came.

From the year 1815, when the trial by jury in civil cases commenced till the passing of an act in 1825, the judges of the Jury Court were only three in number; a chief commissioner and two ordinary commissioners, called Lord Commissioners of the Jury Court in civil causes, and eligible from the Lords of Session or Barons of Exchequer, with the exception of the Chief, who must be qualified to be appointed a Lord of Session. By the late act two additional ordinary commissioners have been added to the number. The Jury Court has its terms and sittings, after the manner of the courts in England; and the judges travel circuits twice a-year, nearly at the same time with the Lords of Justiciary. The trial itself is conducted pretty nearly upon the English model. The jurymen are twelve in number, chosen by ballot from a list returned by the Sheriff, and they are required to agree in their verdict.

The *Court of Exchequer* is the court of the revenue. It was remodelled at the Union on the English form, and consists of the Lord High Treasurer of Great Britain, a chief baron, and three ordinary or puisne barons, who must be either serjeants at law, or English barristers, or Scots advocates of four years standing. This court has a peculiar jurisdiction as to all duties of custom or excise, and other revenues pertaining either to the king or prince of Scotland, and as to all honours and estates real and personal, forfeitures or penalties of what nature soever arising to the Crown within Scotland; and as to all questions relating to the said matters which they are authorised to determine either in law or equity by the same forms that have been used in the English Exchequer. By the 3d Geo. IV. c. 91., the jurisdiction of this court has been increased by the power to judge in all complaints by burgesses against borough magistrates in relation to their administration of the revenue or common good of the borough. Although this court judges by the forms of the English Court of Exchequer, the real estate of the debtor must be attached, and all questions regarding it determined by the rules of the law of Scotland; and when the Crown's title to honours or lands is disputed, the Court of Session is the proper jurisdiction.

The High Court of Admiralty, though styled an inferior court, is only relatively to the Court of Session, which has the power of reviewing its decrees: but it is a supreme court in respect of its exclusive jurisdiction, in the first instance, in what are strictly maritime causes, such as freight, salvage, charter party, damage done at sea; wrecks, &c. It has also, cumulatively with the Court of Session, jurisdiction in mercantile cases, such as bills of exchange, contracts, insurance, &c., provided the issue be not of less value than £25, (1 & 2. Geo. IV. c. 39.) As already stated when treating of the Jury Court, the Judge Admiral may remit certain cases, and must remit others to that court for trial (6 Geo. IV. c. 120.) The same act takes expressly from the High Court of Admiralty of Scotland, and vests in that of England, all jurisdiction "in questions and matters relating to prizes and capture in war, and condemnation of vessels as such, any law or practice to the contrary notwithstanding." The Vice-Admiral, or now rather the High Court of Admiralty, has the power of naming inferior deputies, with local jurisdictions, whose sentences are subject to review by the high court. The magistrates of Edinburgh claim an independent right of admiralty in the port of Leith, emanating from the crown, and not from the Court of Admiralty or the Vice-Admiral. This matter is disputed by the Judge Admiral, and is not yet determined. The High Court of Admiralty can review its own judgments, even after extracted decree, and that both by suspension and reduction. This power alone is sufficient to constitute this judicatory supreme, although its decrees are subject to review in the Court of Session.

The *Commissary Court* was an ecclesiastical court before the Reformation. Its present powers are defined by 4 Geo. IV. c. 97. The jurisdiction of the Commissary Court is privative, in the first instance, in all consistorial causes, as questions of marriage, divorce, separation, legitimacy, confirmation of testaments, and cumulative with that of the sheriffs and other civil courts, in actions of slander, aliment of wives, sealing the repositories of deceased persons, &c. The jurisdiction formerly exercised by the Commissary Court in questions of debt, is taken away by the said statute.

The Judge Ordinary of the county, under the name of *Sheriff Depute*, who is appointed by the Crown, and is altogether independent of the High Sheriff, presides in the *Sheriff Court*. His power is both judicial and ministerial. His judicial power, as a civil judge, is exercised in "all personal actions upon contract, bond, or obligation, to the greatest extent, whether the suit be brought against the debtor himself or his representatives; in actions of rent and of forthcoming; in poindings of the ground; and even in adjudication of lands when it proceeds upon the renunciation of the apparent heir; in all possessory actions, as removings,

movings, ejections, and spulzies, &c.; in all brieves issuing from Chancery, as of inquest, terce, division, tutory, &c.; and in general in all civil matters which are not by special law or custom appropriated to other courts." (Erskine, 1, 4, 3.) The Sheriff judges in questions of straighting boundaries, dividing runrig lands, mutual inclosures, &c. By the statute 4 Geo. IV. c. 97, the Sheriff is constituted the *Commissary* of the county, upon the abolition of the inferior or diocesan commissariots. Ministerially the Sheriff is the police magistrate of his territory; the officer through whom all proclamations and acts of government reach the county; he presides at county courts of freeholders, in the absence of the member for the county; receives and returns the writs for election of the representatives in Parliament, returns juries, appoints his own *substitute* or under Sheriff; and can hold courts any where within his territory, on previous notice at the church doors.

The courts of the boroughs-royal are two,—the *Bailie court, and Dean of Guild court.* Some boroughs have no dean of guild; in which case the duties of that peculiar jurisdiction belong to the bailie court. The bailie court is just a sheriff court within the borough, exercising civil jurisdiction cumulatively with the sheriff in the same classes of questions in so far as applicable to a borough, and having a summary power in alimenting prisoners and liberating them on sick bill, &c. All possessory questions, not involving title in heritable property, are likewise competent before this court.

The Dean of Guild, as the name imports, was anciently the judge in mercantile matters within the borough, and likewise of questions between merchant and mariner. The statute 1681, c. 16. took away the maritime part of his jurisdiction, and vested it in the Court of Admiralty. For a long period the dean of guild has abandoned the mercantile department likewise; his chief and now only province being to take care that buildings within burgh are agreeable to law, neither encroaching on private property, nor on the public streets or passages, and that houses in danger of falling be thrown down. (Erskine, 1, 4, 24.) In this department the jurisdiction of the dean of guild is exclusive, but subject, as is that of the bailie court, to review by the Court of Session, and circuit court of Justiciary.

The magistrates are assisted in their judgments by assessors; in the more important boroughs these are advocates; in others they are town-clerks, who are always professional lawyers. In some boroughs all the magistrates are justices of the peace, *ex officio*, and since the Union the senior magistrate of every royal borough is named, of course, in the commission of the peace.

Boroughs of Barony and Regality are towns under the feudal superiority of a baron or overlord, but erected by the king, sometimes, but not always, with power to choose their own magistrates, which power is in others vested in the superiors.

Some proprietors of landed estates erected into what is called *liberam baroniam*, keep up the formality—for it is little more and rarely used—of holding a court, by a deputy called the baron-bailie, for determining disputes among the tenants and neighbours not exceeding forty shillings in value.

The *Lyon king-at-arms* is an inferior judge. His name is derived from the lion on the armorial bearing of the Scottish kings. His powers are "to visit the arms and ensigns armorial of all persons; to give proper arms to deserving persons, and to fine all who use arms not matriculated, and confiscate to the king the articles on which these are painted or engraved." Also he publishes, in state, with his attendants, the King's proclamations.

Justices of Peace judge in riots and breaches of the peace, oversee the repair of highways, and execute the laws against beggars, vagrants, swearers, drunkards and other disorderly persons. They are now, besides these powers, competent to questions of servants' wages, aliment of natural children, *meditatio fugæ* warrants, and imprisonment of debtors so apprehended till they find security *de judicio sisti.* All questions of highways, toll-bars, bridges and ferries, are appropriated to them. One large department of their jurisdiction is an executing the excise customs laws against smugglers, &c.

Small Debt Courts extend to the adjudication of debts of 5*l.* sterling. These courts are held weekly, once a fortnight, or once a month, as required. The statute is precise as to fees, which are very moderate; and all procurators and written pleadings are excluded, so that the parties, or a member of their family, must appear and conduct their own causes. The judgments are final, if not challenged within a year.

The *Commissioners of supply* are appointed by Parliament, in their acts of supply, to levy the land tax in Scotland. They determine differences as to proportions of land tax between the seller and purchaser of lands, and are competent to all disputes about assessment, subject however to the review of the Court of Session.

Of the Criminal Jurisdictions.—The *High Court of Justiciary* is the supreme jurisdiction in Scotland for the trial of crimes. It consists of six judges, who are also Lords of Session; the Lord Justice Clerk presiding. It has a nominal head, called the Lord Justice General, who however never presides. Of the court sitting in Edinburgh, *three* are a quorum. On the circuits two judges travel together, but one can sit alone. Scotland is divided into three circuits,—the north, west and south; each circuit having three districts of several counties each, the circuit town of the district being the county town of one of the shires of the district. The north circuit towns are Perth, Inverness and Aberdeen; the west are Glasgow, Stirling, and Inverary; and the south are Jedburgh, Dumfries, and Ayr. This court is competent to the trial of all crimes, including high treason; though this last is generally tried by a *commission of oyer and terminer* appointed by the Crown. As a court of review in criminal matters, the proceedings of all inferior criminal judicatories, including the Court of Admiralty, are subject to it. The circuit courts can review the sentences of all inferior courts, which infer "neither death nor demembration." There is, however, no appeal from the Court of Justiciary to the House of Lords, or to any other tribunal.

The trials in this court are and have long been by jury. The jury's number is *fifteen*, and a majority decide the verdict. By 6 Geo. IV. c. 22, power has been given to juries to pronounce *viva voce* verdicts, even when not unanimous, instead of the old method of written verdicts sealed up; which last, however, the court may still direct. After much discussion in Parliament and in the country on the mode of returning and choosing juries, the same statute has enacted that the sheriffs shall make lists of qualified persons in their counties, and keep a book for general, and another for special juries as qualified by 55 Geo. III. c. 42. From these books lists are to be made out by regular rotation; one-third being special, from which lists the juries to try the causes are to be chosen by ballot in court. In criminal trials a right is given to each party to challenge five jurors, but only two of them special, without assigning any reason; and any others on cause shown.

It is to be noted that this Court exercises by statute a certain *civil* jurisdiction. This is only on the circuits, and arose from the convenience of the presence in the circuit towns of judges who were Lords of Session. By 20 Geo. II. c. 43, and 54 Geo. III. c. 67, this jurisdiction is bestowed by way of appeal from the sentences of inferior courts, in all cases not exceeding 25*l.* in value, exclusive of the costs. This decision is final, unless the circuit judges certify the case, as they may do, to the Court of Session.

The following crimes have been bestowed on the *Court of Session*, by statutes, viz., deforcement of its officers and breach of arrestment, contravention of lawburrows, perjury and subornation of perjury arising out of process in its own court, fraudulent bankruptcy, from the long duration of its evidence

evidence being unsuitable to the peremptory diets of the Court of Justiciary, improbation and forgery, falsehood committed in the course of their own proceedings, &c. It proceeds without a jury.

By the act 1681, c. 16, the High Admiral is declared "as the King's Lieutenant and Justice-General on the seas, and in all harbours and creeks. and upon fresh water within the flood-mark," to have the sole jurisdiction in all maritime and seafaring causes within this realm. He is competent exclusively to try piracy, mutiny on ship board, and all crimes strictly maritime; but only cumulatively murder on shipboard and other crimes not connected with navigation. The trial in this court is by jury.

The sheriff is competent to the trial of all crimes except treason, and the four pleas of the crown, as robbery, rape, murder and wilful fire-raising. The sheriff may try housebreaking, theft and all lesser crimes down to gross immoralities, and breaches of the peace; and although he cannot transport, he can try capitally. This power, however, is never exercised at present.

The lawyers of the Crown are the Lord Advocate and Solicitor-General. The first, besides most important ministerial powers and functions which constitute him virtually the minister of the Crown for Scotland, is the public prosecutor of all crimes coming before the Court of Justiciary and Admiralty Court, and in all revenue offences tried before the Court of Exchequer. He and the Solicitor-General are advocates practising at the Scottish bar. The latter officer is virtually the Lord Advocate's coadjutor and substitute for the whole of Scotland. His lordship has, besides, three deputies, called Advocates Depute, each of whom goes one of the circuits as public prosecutor, with the full powers of his principal.

The Scottish bar is called the Faculty of Advocates. They have exclusive right to practise in the supreme courts; and are under no disqualification to plead in any court, down to the most inferior.

The Writers to the Signet are the first order of attorneys in Scotland. They keep and have the sole right to use the king's signet, as applied to writs in the king's name. They were anciently clerks to the secretaries of state, but are now general conveyancers and practitioners before the courts of law.

A certain class of agents practise in the supreme courts, who are not writers to the signet, called Solicitors before the Supreme Courts, and lately incorporated, by royal charter, as such.

The inferior courts have their own Procurators, or Solicitors, who are admitted by the different inferior courts.

Notaries Public are now admitted by the Court of Session. Almost all the writers to the signet and solicitors both of supreme and inferior courts are notaries.

All the supreme courts have Seals proper to themselves, with which their writs and warrants are sealed. All the Court of Session writs are stamped with the king's signet, and signed by a writer to the signet.

There is no part or accessory of the judicial establishments of Scotland more perfect than its system of Registration. There is hence much more security and confidence in legal transactions than exists in any other country of Europe. Besides the particular record of each court, there are the records of chancery, for patents, services of heirs, &c.; the record for all rights affecting lands for the information of creditors, called the register of sasines (Stat. 1617, c. 16.); the record for interdictions, inhibition, hornings; the record of bonds, bills and other obligations to found personal diligence. This last registration has the form of a judicial proceeding, by fiction of law, for no judge is present; and the books of record for that purpose are those of council and session. The stat. 1696, c. 26, established the register for probative writings in which a clause of registration has been omitted. The record of entails is also a very important record. It is the essential character of the Scottish registration, where the safety of creditors is the end, that the writings are null and void if registration be omitted.

VIII.—Ecclesiastical Jurisdictions.

According to the present establishment of the church, Scotland is divided into 15 synods, comprehending 78 presbyteries, and 893 parishes, which are represented in the general assembly of the church, which meets annually at Edinburgh. In its deliberative and judicial capacity this ecclesiastical court is justly accounted among the most enlightened and respectable in the Christian world.

In the division of the country into synods and presbyteries, convenience has been principally attended to, the limits of counties being no further observed than they are consistent with contiguity to the respective synodical and presbyterial seats; but in the arrangement of the whole into parishes, contiguity to the churches has not been so much observed. Hence, in many instances, remote parts are conjointed into one parish, to the great inconvenience of the parishioners, as well as of the officiating clergyman. With respect to extent and population also there is a great disparity; the first was settled in remote times; the second has been determined, in a great degree, by the effects of manufactures and commerce.

Scotland possesses four universities, viz.:—

	Founded in.	Principals.	Professors.
St. Andrews	1412	2	11
Glasgow	1450	1	19
Aberdeen { King's College	1404	1	9
Aberdeen { Marischal College	1593	1	10
Edinburgh	1581	1	28
		6	77

A detailed account of these different universities has already been given, under our articles, Aberdeen, Andrews, St., Edinburgh, and Glasgow.

The following table shows the number of students that matriculated at the university of Edinburgh, at different times from 1791-2 to 1824-5:—

	Students.		Students.
1791-2	1279	1820-21	2116
1795-4	1218	1821-2	2181
1799-1800	1330	1822-3	2344
1805-6	1570	1823-4	2273
1809-10	1980	1824-5	2198
1815-16	2097	1825-6	See below.

In the year 1824-5, the following students matriculated:—

Literature	777
Medicine	939
Law	233
Divinity	249
Total	2198

In 1825-6, there were enrolled at the college,

Students in Medicine	854
Literature	809
Law	298

The following students obtained the degree of Doctor of Medicine during ten years, from 1811 to 1820:—

1811	44	1816	75
1812	58	1817	92
1813	62	1818	103
1814	88	1819	119
1815	82	1820	121

Annual average, from 1821 to 1824	416
On August 1st, 1825	140
Total number of graduates, from 1726 to 1825, inclusive	3070

IX.—Literature.

The literature of Scotland, though it cannot boast of great antiquity, has acquired a distinguished place in the annals of fame, by the rapidity of progress and brilliancy of its lustre in later times. The Culdees, indeed, the venerable hermits of Jona, are represented by ancient historians,

torians, as having been men of extensive learning and great erudition; but their claims to this eulogy are probably overrated. The earliest genuine work relative to Scotland, is the *Chronicon Pictorum*, written by an Irish clergyman, supposed, with considerable probability, to have been a dignitary of the church of Abernethy, in the commencement of the eleventh century. In the twelfth century, the chronicles published by Innes, and those of Melrose and Holyrood, deserve to be noticed. About the year 1270 flourished Thomas of Erceldon, commonly called Thomas the Rhymer, who wrote a metrical romance, called Sir Tristram, lately republished by Sir W. Scott. The next writer of consequence is John Barbour, archdeacon of Aberdeen, who wrote a poem in commemoration of the heroic actions of Robert Bruce, in the year 1375, not less celebrated for its historical fidelity than for its poetical merit. About this time flourished John Fordun, designated the father of Scottish history. In the fifteenth century, James I. of Scotland, wrote some poems of great merit, and he was succeeded by Holland, and Henry the Rhymer. Next arose Dunbar, whose merit has entitled him to be placed at the head of the ancient Scottish poets. In the beginning of the sixteenth century flourished Gawin Douglas, and Sir David Lindsay. These were followed by many others of various merit, till the middle of the seventeenth century, when the unhappy events of that turbulent period checked the career of the arts and sciences. Before this, however, the illustrious Drummond had consigned to the world his exquisite poems. In modern times, the field of poetical merit has been more luxuriant. The names of Thomson, Ramsay, Blair, Armstrong, Beattie, Burns, Campbell and Scott, with many others, are held in universal estimatio

In the other departments of science, though of later cultivation, the Scots have made rapid progress. In history, the names of Boethius and Buchanan, are every where revered. The classic elegance and purity of the style of the latter, has entitled him to rank with the first authors of antiquity. In our own age, among other historians of great merit, have arisen Hume and Robertson, whose works will ever be read with enthusiastic delight by the admirers of taste and genius. In the mathematical department, lord Napier, the celebrated inventor of the logarithms; Maclaurin, no less celebrated for his astronomical works; and Dr. Simpson, noted for his knowledge of ancient geometry, have acquired a lasting reputation. In medicine, the names of Monro, Cullen, and the Hunters and Barclays, may be mentioned as holding the highest rank; and in the department of metaphysical and moral sciences, the labours of Hume, Hutchinson, Reid, Campbell, Beattie, Monboddo, Kaimes, Smith, and Ferguson, do honour to their country. Scotland has also attained the praise of superior excellence in other departments of science, particularly in political economy and in chemistry.

Education.—The mode of education adopted in this country is highly laudable, and is probably the best practicable system established in any kingdom. The plan followed in the cities and large towns, is nearly similar to that of England; that is, by private seminaries and great public schools, of which the High School of Edinburgh is the most eminent. But the chief advantage of the Scottish education arises from the circumstance of every country parish having a schoolmaster, regularly appointed by the heritors, in the same way as the clergyman, who receives a small salary, which enables him to educate the children of the parishioners at a rate easy and convenient even to the most indigent parents. In the Highlands, the children of the poor are occupied as herds during summer, and in winter attend schools. To be unable to read and write is considered so disgraceful in Scotland, that persons are scarcely ever to be met with in such a condition.

X.—Antiquities.

Monuments of antiquity of every age, from the Celtic colonization of the kingdom, are yet visible in various districts. Those of the first epoch are all of the tumular kind, and are only to be discovered by nice investigation in the more wild and uncultivated tracts. Of the Roman period, the remains are numerous, consisting of vestiges of roads, stations, encampments, foundations of walls, and other minor antiquities. The celebrated wall of Antoninus may yet be traced, with perfect accuracy, nearly the whole of its extent from the Forth to the Clyde; and many interesting inscriptions are frequently dug up from its ruins. Near it was formerly a small edifice called Arthur's Oven, which the most intelligent antiquaries suppose to have been a temple dedicated to the god Terminus. The most northerly Roman camp yet discovered is situated on the river Ythan, in Aberdeenshire; and there are some roads extending into the county of Angus; but the chief remains of them are south of the walls. The monuments of the Pictish era consist of those circles of stones, cromlechs, &c., usually, but erroneously, denominated Druidicial temples; and of those artificial mounds or hills, whence the Pictish and Dalriad kings were wont to promulgate their laws. The most remarkable stone circles in the kingdom, are those in the isle of Lewis, and on the Mainland of Orkney. The structures commonly called "Picts' houses," and the heaps of stones called "cairns," or "karns," have also been supposed to belong to this age; but Pinkerton refers the latter entirely to the Dalriads, or Scots, and thinks the former may be Danish, as it is certain similar edifices have been traced in Scandinavia. They seem to have consisted of a vast hall, open to the sky in the centre, and having recesses for beds, &c., in the wall. "These buildings," says the author last mentioned, "are remarkable, as displaying the first elements of the Gothic castle; and the castle of Coningsburgh, in Yorkshire, forms an easy transition." The remains of later ages are the sculptured obelisks at Forres, and other places; which are probably monuments of signal events, such as battles and treaties of peace; the noted vitrified forts, and churches, abbeys and castles almost innumerable. Among the more remarkable buildings which owe their origin to religion, are the abbeys of Melrose, Jedburgh and Aberbrothick; the cathedrals of Dunkeld, Glasgow and Brechin; and the chapel of Rosslyn, near Edinburgh. The last is one of the most singular and interesting remains of ancient architecture in Great Britain; and Melrose abbey may vie with many in England, both as to the extent and magnificence of its buildings.

SCOTLAND, a small hamlet of England, in the isle of Purbeck, Devonshire; 1 mile north of Corfe Castle.

SCOTLAND, a river on the west side of the island of Barbadoes, which runs into the sea; 4 miles south-south-east of Cuckold's point.

SCOTLAND, Old and New, two suburbs of Dantzic. See Dantzic.

SCOTLAND NECK, a post village of the United States, in Halifax county, North Carolina.

SCOTLAND WELL, a village of Scotland, in Kinross-shire; 3 miles west of Lesslie.

SCOTODINOS, a term used by medical writers to express a vertigo, or dizziness of the head, attended with a dimness of sight.

SCO'TOMY, Sco'tomia, or Sco'toma, *s.* [σκοτωμα, Gr.] A dizziness or swimming in the head, causing dimness of sight, wherein external objects seem to turn round. *Unused.*

How does he with the swimming of his head?
—O, sir, 'tis past the *scotomy*; he now
Has lost his feeling. *B. Jonson.*

I have got the *scotomy* in my head already,
The whimsey; you all turn round. *Massinger.*

SCOTT (Michael), a celebrated Scotsman of the 13th century, was born at Balwearie, in Fife, about the beginning of the reign of Alexander II. At a very early period he made great progress in language, as well as the mathematics; and having finished his studies at home, he went over into France, where he remained some years; but hearing that the emperor Frederick II. was a great patron of learning and learned men, he repaired to the court of that prince, and applied himself closely to all the branches of philosophy then studied. After residing some time in Germany,

many, he proceeded to England, and was high in the favour of Edward II.; but it is not at all known how long he continued here. Upon his return to Scotland he received the honour of knighthood from Alexander III., and was afterwards sent, with Michael de Wemys, to bring to Scotland the Maid of Norway, who, being taken ill at sea, was landed on one of the Orkney islands, where she died in the year 1299. At this time Sir Michael was probably far advanced in life: he died in 1291. He was esteemed a man of great learning, though so much addicted to the occult sciences, that he passed among his contemporaries as a skilful magician. Boccaccio and Folengo both exhibit him as such; the former in one of his novels, and the latter in his macaronic poem; and he is introduced under the same character by Dante. A Latin translation of Aristotle's work is ascribed to Sir Michael Scott, but probably upon insufficient evidence. There is a translation of that philosopher's works, partly from the Greek and partly from the Arabic, by various hands, undertaken at the command of the emperor Frederic II., at whose court Sir Michael resided some time; and as he is reported to have translated Aristotle's Natural History of Animals from the Arabic version of Avicenna, it has been assumed that this is the only part of the work which should be ascribed to him. The title of the work is "Aristotelis Opera, Latine versa, partim e Græco partim Arabico, per viros lectos et in utriusque Linguæ prolatione peritos, jussu Imperatoris Frederici II. Venet. 1496." The works of Sir Michael Scott are numerous, among which the following may be mentioned: "Physiognomia et de Hominis Procreatione," &c.

SCOTT, a county of the United States, in the north part of Kentucky. Population 12,419, including 3732 slaves. George-town is the capital.

SCOTT, a county of the United States, in the south-west part of Virginia, formed in 1814, out of the counties of Lee, Russell and Washington.

SCOTT, Cape, the west point of the island of Quadra and Vancouver. It is joined to the mainland by a narrow isthmus, and forms, with the islands that lie from it north 80. W. a clear navigable channel about 3½ miles wide. There are a few breakers at a small distance from the cape, in a direction from it south 27. E. about 7 miles. Lat. 50. 48. N. long. 231. 40. E.

SCOTT'S Cove, a bay on the south-west coast of Jamaica.

SCOTT'S FERRY, a post village of the United States, in Albemarle county, Virginia.

SCOTT'S HEAD, a cape at the southern extremity of Dominica. Lat. 15. 20. N. long. 61. 24. W.

SCOTT'S ISLANDS, three small and almost barren islands on the north-west coast of North America. They are situated at the entrance of Queen Charlotte's sound, and have many small rocks and breakers about them. The westernmost of these islands is in Lat. 50. 52. N. long. 231. 2. E.

SCOTTER, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 8 miles north-north-east of Gainsborough. Population 764.

SCO'TTERING, *s.* A provincial word which denotes, a custom among the boys of burning a wad of pease-straw at the end of harvest. *Bailey.*

SCO'TTICISM, *s.* A Scottish idiom.

SCOTTON, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 7½ miles north-east of Gainsborough.

SCOTTON, a hamlet of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 2 miles north-west of Knaresborough.

SCOTTOW, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 3 miles north of Coltishall.

SCOTTSBURG, a post village of the United States, in Halifax county, Virginia.

SCOTTSVILLE, a post township of the United States, in Powhatan county, Virginia.

SCO'VEL, *s.* [*scopa*, Lat.] A sort of mop of clouts for sweeping an oven; a maulkin. *Ainsworth.*

SCOULTON, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 4 miles east of Watton.

SCO'UNDREL, *s.* [*scondaruolo*, Italian, a hider. Skinner, and Johnson.—From the Sax. pconbe, disgrace. Serenius.] A mean rascal; a low petty villain.

Go, if your ancient but ignoble blood
Has crept through *scoundrels* ever since the flood,
Go, and pretend your family is young;
Nor own your fathers have been fools so long. *Pope.*

SCO'UNDREL, *adj.* Base; disgraceful; denoting a scoundrel.—He was of so *scoundrel* a temper, that he avoided ever coming into my sight. *Warburton.*

SCO'UNDRELISM, *s.* Baseness; rascality. *A bad word. Cotgrave.*

To SCOUR, *v. a.* [*skauron*, M. Goth. *skuro*, Su. Goth. *skure*, Danish; *schuren*, Dutch; *escurer*, Fr. Serenius considers *skyr*, *skaer*, *skur*, clear, bright, as the root. To *scur*, in our old books, is sometimes found for *scour*.] To rub hard with any thing rough, in order to clean the surface.—I were better to be eaten to death with a rust than to be *scour'd* to nothing with perpetual motion. *Shakspeare.*

Part *scour* the rusty shields with seam, and part
New grind the blunted ax, and point the dart. *Dryden.*

To purge violently. *Vulgar.*—To cleanse; to blanch. —In some lakes the water is so nitrous, as if foul clothes be put into it, it *scoureth* them of itself; and, if they stay, they moulder away. *Bacon.*—A garden-worm should be well *scoured* eight days in moss, before you fish with him. *Walton.*

Beneath the lamp her tawdry ribbons glare,
The new *scour'd* manteau, and the slattern air. *Gay.*

To remove by scouring.

Never came reformation in a flood
With such a heady current, *scouring* faults;
Nor ever hydra-headed wilfulness
So soon did lose his seat, and all at once,
As in this king. *Shakspeare.*

To range about in order to catch or drive away something; to clear away.—The kings of Lacedemon having sent out some gallies, under the charge of one of their nephews, to *scour* the sea of the pyrates, they met us. *Sidney.*—To pass swiftly over.

Sometimes
He *scours* the right hand coast, sometimes the left. *Milton.*

Not half the number in their seats are found,
But men and steeds lie groveling on the ground;
The points of spears are stuck within the shield,
The steeds without their riders *scour* the field,
The knights unhors'd. *Dryden.*

To SCOUR, *v. n.* To perform the office of cleaning domestic utensils.—I keep his house, and wash, wring, brew, bake, *scour*, dress meat, and make the beds. *Shakspeare.*—To be purged or lax. *Inclegant.*—If you turn sheep into wheat or rye to feed, let it not be too rank, lest it make them *scour*. *Mortimer.*—To rove; to range; to stamper.—Barbarossa, *scouring* along the coast of Italy, struck an exceeding terror into the minds of the citizens of Rome. *Knolles.*—To run here and there.

The enemy's drum is heard, and fearful *scouring*
Doth choak the air with dust. *Shakspeare.*

She from him fled with all her pow'r,
Who after her as hastily gan *scour*, *Spenser.*

So four fierce coursers, starting to the race,
Scour through the plain, and lengthen every pace;
Nor reins, nor curbs, nor threat'ning cries they fear,
But force along the trembling charioteer. *Dryden.*

SCO'URER, *s.* One that cleans by rubbing.—A purge, rough and quick. *Unused.*—One who runs swiftly. *Unused.*

SCOURGE,

SCOURGE, *s.* [*escourgée*, Fr. *scoreggia*, Italian; *corrigia*, Lat.]—A whip; a lash.—When he had made a *scourge*, of small cords, he drove them all out of the temple. *St. John.*—A punishment; a vindictive affliction.

What *scourge* for perjury
Can this dark monarchy afford false Clarence?
Shakspeare.

Famine and plague are sent as *scourges* for amendment. 2 *Esdras.*—One that afflicts, harasses, or destroys.

Is this the *scourge* of France?
Is this the Talbot so much fear'd abroad,
That with his name the mothers still their babes?
Shakspeare.

Immortal Jove,
Let kings no more with gentle mercy sway,
Or bless a people willing to obey,
But crush the nations with an iron rod,
And every monarch be the *scourge* of God. *Pope.*

To SCOURGE, *v. a.* To lash with a whip; to whip.

The gods are just, and of our pleasant vices
Make instruments to *scourge* us. *Shakspeare.*

To punish; to chastise; to chasten; to castigate with any punishment or affliction.—Seeing that thou hast been *scourged* from Heaven, declare the mighty power of God. *Mac.*

SCO'URGER, *s.* One that scourges; a punisher or chastiser.—One of the sect called flagellants, who scourged themselves.—The sect of the *scourgers* broached several capital errours. *Tindal.*

SCO'URGING, *s.* Punishment by the scourge.—Others had trial of cruel mockings and *scourgings.* *Heb.*

SCO'URING, *s.* [old Fr. *escourenca*, flux de ventre. Lacombe.] A looseness; a flux.—Some apothecaries, upon stamping coloquintida, have been put into a great *scouring* by the vapour only. *Bacon.*

To SCOURSE, or SCORSE, *v. a.* To exchange one thing for another.

SCOUT, *s.* [according to Serenius from an old Teutonic word, which means a viewer, a spy, a watch; from *schouw*, a prospect from the top of any place where things are espied far off; from *schouwen*, to view, to observe. "Hence perhaps our northern word *scout*, a high rock; as overlooking the plain below." *Todd.*] One who is sent privily to observe the motions of the enemy.

Are not the speedy *scouts* return'd again,
That nogg'd the mighty army of the dauphin?
Shakspeare.

A high rock. *Northern. Grose.*

To SCOUT, *v. n.* To go out in order to observe the motions of an enemy privately.

Oft on the bordering deep
Encamp their legions; or with obscure wing
Scout far and wide into the realm of night,
Scorning surprize. *Milton.*

To avoid contemptuously.

To SCOWL, *v. n.* [ȝcȳlian, to squint, Saxon; *skaela sig*, to look sour, Icelandic.] To frown; to look sullen.

With bent louring brows, as she would threat,
She *scowl'd* and frowned with froward countenance. *Spenser.*

In rueful gaze
The cattle stand, and on the *scowling* heavens
Cast a deploring eye. *Thomson.*

SCOWL, *s.* Look of sullenness or discontent; gloom.

I've seen the morning's lovely ray
Hover o'er the new-born day,
With rosy wings so richly bright,
As if he scorn'd to think of night;
When a ruddy storm, whose *scoul*
Made heaven's radiant face look foul,
Call'd for an untimely night,
To blot the newly-blossom'd light. *Crashaw.*

SCO'WLINGLY, *adv.* With a frowning and sullen look.

SCOUZIE HEAD, a cape of Scotland, on the east coast of the county of Caithness; 3 miles south of Duncansby Head. Lat. 58. 31. N. long. 2. 25. W.

To SCRA'BBLE, *v. n.* [*krabbelen*, *schrabben*, Teut. To scrape, scratch, or otherwise to write or make marks idly; "*pingere, scribere, vel exarare.*"] To make unmeaning or idle marks.—He feigned himself mad in their hands, and *scrabbled* on the doors of the gate.

SCRAFEON, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 5 miles south-west of Middleham.

SCRAG, *s.* [a corruption of *crag*, the neck.] Any thing thin or lean; as a *scrag* of mutton, i. e. the small end of the neck: the man is a *scrag*, i. e. he is rawboned.

SCRA'GGED, *adj.* Rough; uneven; full of protuberances or asperities.—Is there then any physical deformity in the fabrick of a human body, because our imagination can strip it of its muscles and skin, and shew us the *scragged* and knotty back-bone? *Bentley.*

SCRA'GGEDNESS, or SCRA'GGINESS, *s.* Leanness; unevenness; roughness; ruggedness.

SCRA'GGILY, *adv.* Meagerly; leanly. *Cotgrave.*

SCRA'GGY, *adj.* Lean; thin.—Such a constitution is easily known by the body being lean, warm, hairy, *scraggy*, and dry, without a disease. *Arbuthnot.*—Rough; rugged; uneven.—The walls are high, and their foundations on *scraggy* rocks. *Randolph.*

To SCRA'MBLE, *v. n.* [From the same source as *scrabble.*] To catch at any thing eagerly and tumultuously with the hands; to catch with haste preventive of another; to contend tumultuously which shall catch any thing.

Of other care they little reckoning make,
Than how to *scramble* at the shearer's feast,
And shove away the worthy bidden guest. *Milton.*

To climb by the help of the hands: as, he *scrambled* up that rock.

SCRA'MBLE, *s.* Eager contest for something, in which one endeavours to get it before another.—Because the desire of money is constantly almost every where the same, its vent varies very little, but, as its greater scarcity enhances its price, and increases the *scramble.* *Locke.*—Act of climbing by the help of the hands.

SCRA'MBLER, *s.* One that scrambles.—All the little *scramblers* after fame fall upon him. *Addison.*—One that climbs by help of the hands.

To SCRANCH, *v. a.* [*schrantsen*, Dutch.] To grind somewhat crackling between the teeth.

SCRANENBURG, a village of the United States, in Bergen county, New Jersey. It contains two Dutch churches.

SCRA'NNEL, *adj.* [*Etymology unknown.* Mr. Warton long since observed, that *scrannel* means thin, meagre, lean; and Todd says, that, in the Lancashire dialect, *scrannel* signifies a lean person.] Slight; poor; worthless.

They when they list, their lean and flashy songs
Grate on their *scrannel* pipes of wretched straw. *Milton.*

SCRAP, *s.* A small particle; a little piece; a fragment.—It is an unaccountable vanity to spend all our time raking into the *scraps* and imperfect remains of former ages, and neglecting the clearer notices of our own. *Glanville.*—Languages are to be learned only by reading and talking, and not by *scraps* of authors got by heart. *Locke.*—Crumb; small particles of meat left at the table.

On bones, on *scraps* of dogs let me be fed,
My limbs uncover'd and expos'd my head
To bleakest cold. *Granville.*

What has he else to bait his traps,
Or bring his vermin in, but *scraps?*
The offals of a church distrest,
A hungry vicarage at best. *Swift.*

A small piece of paper.

Pregnant

Pregnant with thousands flits the *scrap* unseen,
And silent sells a king, or buys a queen. *Pope.*

To SCRAPE, *v. a.* [ȝcȝeopan, Saxon; *schrapen*, Dutch; *'sascrôpitigh*, Erse.] To deprive of the surface by the light action of a sharp instrument, used with the edge almost perpendicular.—These hard woods are more properly *scraped* than planed. *Moxon.*—To take away by scraping; to erase.—Bread for a toast lay on the coals; and, if toasted quite through, *scrape* off the burnt side, and serve it up. *Swift.*—To act upon any surface with a harsh noise.

The chiming clocks to dinner call;
A hundred footsteps *scrape* the marble hall. *Pope.*

To gain by great efforts, or penurious or trifling diligence. —Unhappy those who hunt for a party, and *scrape* together out of every author all those things only which favour their own tenets. *Watts.*

To SCRAPE, *v. n.* To make a harsh noise. To play ill on a fiddle. To make an awkward bow. *Ainsworth.*

To SCRAPE *Acquaintance.* A low phrase.—To curry favour, or insinuate into one's familiarity.

SCRAPE, *s.* [*skrap*, Swedish. "Draga en in i *skracper*, to draw any one into difficulties." Lye.] The sound of the foot drawn over the floor. A bow.

SCRAPE, a mountain of Scotland, in the county of Peebles, 2800 feet above the level of the sea.

SCRA'PER, *s.* An instrument with which any thing is scraped.—An instrument usually standing without the door of a house for the purpose of *scraping* the dirt off the shoes of those entering.—Never clean your shoes on the *scraper*, but in the entry, and the *scraper* will last the longer.—An instrument used in mezzotinto engraving. *Swift.*—A miser; a man intent on getting money.

Be thrifty, but not covetous; therefore give
Thy need, thine honour, and thy friend his due:
Never was *scraper* brave man. Get to live;
Then live, and use it; else it is not true
That thou hast gotten: surely use alone
Makes money not a contemptible stone. *Herbert.*

A fiddler.—Out! ye sempiternal *scrapers.* *Cowley.*—Have wild boars or dolphins the least emotion at the most elaborated strains of your modern *scrapers*, all which have been tamed and humanized by ancient musicians? *Arbuthnot.*

SCRAPTOFT, a parish of England, county of Leicester; 4 miles east-by-north of Leicester.

SCRAT, *s.* [ȝcȝitta, Sax.] An hermaphrodite. *Unused.* It is said to have been applied to the devil. Hence the corruption "*old scratch.*"

To SCRAT, *v. a.* [*escrat*, Anglo-Norman. This form is still preserved in our northern word *scraut* for *scratch*; *kratsa*, Swedish.] To scratch.—It is an ordinary thing for women to *scrat* the faces of such as they suspect. *Burton.*

To SCRAT, *v. n.* To rake; to search.

Ambitious mind a world of wealth would have,
So *scrats*, and scrapes, for scorfe and scornie drosse.
Mir. for Mag.

To SCRATCH, *v. a.* [*kratzen*, Germ., *kratza*, Su. Welch, *crach*, scabies. We had formerly the verb *cratch*, in this sense.] To tear or mark with slight incisions ragged and uneven.

The lab'ring swain
Scratch'd with a rake a furrow for his grain
And cover'd with his hand the shallow seed again. *Dryden.*

To tear with the nails.

How can I tell but that his talons may
Yet *scratch* my son, or rend his tender hand? *Spenser.*

To wound slightly.—To hurt slightly with any thing pointed or keen.

Daphne, roaming through a thorny wood,
Scratching her legs, that one shall swear she bleeds.
Shakspeare.

To rub with the nails.

Be mindful when invention fails,
To *scratch* your head, and bite your nails. *Swift.*

To write or draw aukwardly.—If any of their labourers can *scratch* out a pamphlet, they desire no wit, style, or argument *Swift.*

SCRATCH, *s.* An incision ragged and shallow.—The smaller the particles of those substances are, the smaller will be the *scratches*, by which they continually fret and wear away the glass until it be polished. *Bacon.*—Laceration with the nails.

These nails with *scratches* shall deform my breast,
Lest by my look or colour be express'd
The mark of aught high-born, or ever better dress'd. *Prior.*

A slight wound.

Heaven forbid a shallow *scratch* should drive
The prince of Wales from such a field as this. *Shakspeare.*

SCRATCH-WORK, or SCRAFFIATA, a way of painting in fresco, by preparing a black ground, on which is laid a white plaster; which white being taken off with an iron bodkin, the black appears through the holes, and serves for shadows.

This kind of work is lasting; but being very rough, it is unpleasant to the sight. It is chiefly used to embellish the fronts of palaces, and other magnificent buildings.

SCRA'TCHER, *s.* He that scratches.

SCRA'TCHES, *s.* Cracked ulcers or scabs in a horse's foot.—Thou'lt ha' vapours i' thy legs again presently; pray thee go in, it may turn to the *scratches* else. *B. Jonson.*

SCRA'TCHINGLY, *adv.* With the action of scratching. —Making him turn close to the ground like a cat, when *scratchingly* she wheels about after a mouse. *Sidney.*

SCRAW, *s.* [Irish and Erse.] Surface or scurf.—Neither should that odious custom be allowed of cutting *scraws*, which is flying off the green surface of the ground to cover their cabins, or make up their ditches. *Swift.*

To SCRAWL, *v. a.* [Supposed to be corrupted from *scrabble.*] To draw or mark irregularly or clumsily.

Peruse my leaves through ev'ry part,
And think thou see'st its owner's heart,
Scrawl'd o'er with trifles thus, and quite
As hard, as senseless, and as light. *Swift.*

To SCRAWL, *v. n.* To write unskilfully and inelegantly.

Think not your verses sterling,
Though with a golden pen you *scrawl*,
And scribble in a Berlin. *Swift.*

[From *crawl.*] To creep like a reptile. *Ainsworth. Unused.*

SCRAWL, *s.* Unskilful and inelegant writing.—Mr. Wycherly hearing from me how welcome his letters would be, writ to you, in which I inserted my *scrawl.* *Pope.*

SCRA'WLER, *s.* A clumsy and inelegant writer.

SCRAWLY, a term provincially signifying thin and ravelled as grain.

SCRAY, *s.* A bird, otherwise called a sea-swallow, or *hirundo marina.* *Ainsworth and Bailey.*—*Scrays*, two sorts, which are a kind of gull. *Ray.*

SCRAYINGHAM, a village of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 9½ miles north-west of Pocklington.

SCRE'ABLE, *adj.* [*screabilis*, Lat.] That may be spit out. *Bailey.*

To SCREAK, *v. n.* [From the Icel. *skracka*, and the Su. Goth. *skrika.*] To make a shrill or loud noise.—The little babe did loudly *scrike* and squall. *Spenser.*

Women groaning with their load,
The time of their delivery near,
Anticipating pain with fear,
Screeke in their pangs. *Sandys.*

SCREAK, *s.* A screech.—She used many *scrikes* and grievous lamentations. *Palmerin and Engl.*—Others peep forth into the light, as it were only to see it; and having, by a *skreek* or two, given testimony to the misery of this life, presently die and vanish. *Bp. Bull.*

To

To SCREAM, *v. n.* [From the Swed. *skracma*, to frighten or be frightened.] To cry out shrilly, as in terror or agony.

Soon a whirlwind rose around,
And from afar he heard a *screaming* sound,
As of a dame distress'd, who cry'd for aid,
And fill'd with loud laments the secret shade. *Dryden.*

To cry shrilly.—I heard the owl *scream*, and crickets cry. *Shakspeare.*

SCREAM, *s.* A shrill, quick, loud cry of terror or pain.

Our chimnies were blown down; and, as they say,
Lamentings heard i' th' air, strange *screams* of death.
Shakspeare.

Then flash'd the livid lightning from her eyes,
And *screams* of horror rend the affrighted skies. *Pope.*

SCRE'AMER, *s.* A bird. *Pennant.*—See PALAMADEA.

SCREDINGTON, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 3 miles south-by-east of Sleaford.

To SCREECH, *v. n.* [*skraeka*, Icelandic, to cry.] To cry out as in terror or anguish.—*Screeching* is an appetite of expelling that which suddenly strikes the spirits. *Bacon.*—To cry as a night owl: thence called a screech-owl.

Whilst the screech-owl *screeching* loud
Puts the wretch that lies in woe
In remembrance of a shroud. *Shakspeare.*

SCREECH, *s.* Cry of horror and anguish.—The senate, hearing their groans and *scritches*, stood amazed. *Hakewill.*

Their strength [he] slew; which fill'd their ears.
With female *screeches*, and their hearts with fears. *Sandys.*

Harsh horrid cry.

The birds obscene, that nightly flock'd to taste,
With hollow *screechs* fled from the dire repast. *Pope.*

SCREE'CH-OWL, *s.* An owl that hoots in the night. His voice is supposed to betoken danger, misery, or death.

Deep night,
The time of night when Troy was set on fire,
The time when *schreech-owls* cry, and bandogs howl.
Shakspeare.

SCREEN, *s.* [*eseran*, Fr.] Any thing that affords shelter or concealment.—Some ambitious men seem as *screens* to princes in matters of danger and envy. *Bacon.*—Any thing used to exclude cold or light.

One speaks the glory of the British queen,
And one describes a charming Indian *screen*. *Pope.*

An instrument for keeping off the heat of the fire.—A riddle to sift sand. *Unused.*

To SCREEN, *v. a.* To shelter; to conceal; to hide.

Back'd with a ridge of hills,
That *screen'd* the fruits of th' earth, and seats of men,
From cold Septentrion blasts. *Milton.*

[*Cerno crevi*, Lat.] To sift; to riddle.

SCREMBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 2 miles east-north-east of Spilsby.

SCREVETON, a parish of England, in Nottinghamshire; 8½ miles south-west of Newark.

SCREW, *s.* [*scroeve*, Dutch; *escrouë*, Fr.] One of the mechanical powers, which is defined a right cylinder cut into a furrowed spiral: of this there are two kinds, the male and female, the former being cut convex, so that its threads rise outwards; but the latter channelled on its concave side, so as to receive the former.—The *screw* is a kind of wedge, that is multiplied or continued by a helical revolution about a cylinder, receiving its motion not from any stroke, but from a vectis at one end of it. *Wilkins.*

To SCREW, *v. a.* To turn or move by a screw.

Some, when the press by utmost vigour *screw'd*,
Has drain'd the pulpous mass, regale their swine
With the dry refuse. *Philips.*

To raise up forcibly as with a screw.

We fail!
But *screw* your courage to the sticking place,
And we'll not fail. *Shakspeare.*

To deform by contortions.

Sometimes a violent laughter *screw'd* his face,
And sometimes ready tears dropp'd down apace. *Cowley.*

To force; to bring by violence.—He resolved to govern by subaltern ministers, who *screwed* up the pins of power too high. *Howell.*—To squeeze; to press; to oppress by extortion.—Our country landlords, by unmeasureable *screwing* and racking their tenants, have already reduced the miserable people to a worse condition than the peasants in France. *Swift.*

SCREW-PINE. See PINUS.

SCREW-SHELL. See TURBO.

SCREW-TREE, *s.* A plant of the East and West Indies. See HELICTERES.

SCRIBA, a post township of the United States, in Oswego county, New York, at the mouth of the Oswego; 173 miles west-north-west of Albany. Population 328.

SCRIBAN, a large and handsome port of the east coast of the isthmus of Panama. Its entrance is so full of rocks, as to be impassable for vessels, without a well practised pilot; 17 miles east of Porto Bello.

To SCRI'BBLE, *v. a.* [*scribillo*, low Latin.] To fill with artless or worthless writing.—Drugs and doses, prescribed in strange affected terms of art, and ill *scribbled* bills; which seem to be as so many charms or spells. *Bp. Taylor.*—To write without use or elegance: as he *scribbled* a pamphlet.—To comb wool.

To SCRI'BBLE, *v. n.* To write without care or beauty.

If Mævius *scribble* in Apollo's spite,
There are, who judge still worse than he can write. *Pope.*

SCRI'BBLE, *s.* Worthless writing.—By solemnly endeavouring to countenance my conjectures, I might be thought dogmatical in a hasty *scribble*. *Boyle.*

SCRI'BBLER, *s.* A petty author; a writer without worth.

The *scribbler*, pinch'd with hunger, writes to dine,
And to your genius must conform his line. *Granville.*

SCRIBE, *s.* [*scribe*, Fr. *scriba*, Lat.] A writer.

Hearts, tongues, figures, *scribes*, bards, poets, cannot
Think, speak, cast, write, sing, number, ho!
His love to Antony. *Shakspeare.*

A public notary. *Ainsworth.*—It appears from the frequent mention that is made in the Gospel of the *Scribes* and Pharisees in conjunction, that the greatest number of Jewish teachers or doctors of the law, for these are expressions equivalent to *scribe*, were at that time of the pharisaical sect. *Bp. Percy.*

SCRIBE, or SCRIBA, was also the title of an officer amoug the Romans, who wrote decrees or acts, and made out authentic copies of them; thus every magistrate had his *scriba*, or secretary. In the time of the emperors, they were also called *notarii*.

SCRIBING, a term used in Joinery, when one side of a piece of stuff being to be fitted to the side of some other piece, which last is not regular; to make the two join close together all the way, they *scribe* it.

SCRIBONIUS (Largus), a Roman physician, who lived in the reign of Claudius, and is said to have accompanied this emperor in his campaign in Britain. He wrote a treatise "De Compositione Medicamentorum," which is very often quoted by Galen, and was "most impudently pillaged and transcribed" by Marcellus the empiric, according to Dr. Freind. This work Scribonius dedicated to Julius Callistius, the most favoured of all the freed-men of the emperor; and he speaks of Messalina and Claudius in a way which evinces that they were living at that time. After giving the formula of a dentifrice, he adds, "Messalina Dei nostri Cæsaris hoc utitur." His practice seems to have been

been purely empirical, and his language too is so much inferior in point of elegance to that of Celsus, who had written but a short time before him, that some learned men have supposed that Scribonius wrote his work in Greek, and that it was translated into the Latin dress, in which it has descended to us, by some later hand. But Scribonius was probably a man of inferior education. His treatise has been several times reprinted, and stands among the "Medicæ Artis Principes" of Henry Stephens, 1567. See Freind's History of Medicine, vol. i. Sprengel, Geschichte der Arzneikunde, ii. Theil. Le Clerc, Hist. de la Médecine, p. 3.

SCRI'MER, *s.* [*escrimeur*, French.] A gladiator; a fencing-master. *Not in use.*

The *scrimers* of their nation,
He swore, had neither motion, guard, nor eye,
If you oppos'd them. *Shakspeare.*

SCRIMP, *adj.* [*krimpen*, Teut. to contract.] Short; scanty; still used in some parts of the north.

SCRINE, *s.* [*scrinium*, Latin.] A place in which writings or curiosities are reposited. *Scryn*, a shrine; anciently a chest or coffer. *Verstegan.*

Help then, O holy virgin, chief of nine,
Thy weaker novice to perform thy will;
Lay forth, out of thine everlasting *scrine*,
The antique rolls which there lie hidden still. *Spenser.*

SCRIP, *s.* [*skraeppa*, Icelandic.] A small bag; a satchel.—Come, shepherd, let us make an honourable retreat; though not with bag and baggage, yet with *scrip* and scrippage. *Shakspeare.*—[From *scriptio*, Latin.] A schedule: a small writing.—Call them man by man, according to the *scrip*. *Shakspeare.*—Bills of exchange cannot pay our debts abroad, till *scrips* of paper can be made current coin. *Locke.*

SCRI'PPAGE. *s.* That which is contained in a scrip.—Though not with bag and baggage, yet with scrip and *scrippage*. *Shakspeare.*

SCRIPT, *s.* [*escript*, old Fr. *scriptum*, Lat.] A small writing.—I you told of every *script* and bond. *Chaucer.*

SCRIPTORIUM, a writing room in monasteries.

SCRI'PTORY, *adj.* [*scriptorius*, Latin.] Written; not orally delivered.—Wills are nuncupatory and *scriptory*. *Swift.*—Serving to writing.—With such differences of reeds, valatory, sagittary, *scriptory*, and others, they might be furnished in Judea. *Sir T. Brown.*

SCRIPTULUM, among the Romans, the twenty-fourth part of an ounce, and equal to two oboli.

SCRIPTULUS, a word used by some instead of *scrupulus*.

SCRIPTURA, the name of the revenue which the Roman people raised upon the pasture-lands, of which the property was in the commonwealth, and which was farmed to particular persons. It was so called, because the number of cattle, which individuals were to put into these pasturages, was registered; and it was by that number the yearly sums which they engaged to pay were regulated.

SCRI'PTURAL, *adj.* Contained in the Bible; biblical.—Creatures, the *scriptural* use of that word determine sometime to men. *Atterbury.*

SCRI'PTURE, *s.* [*Scripture*, old French; *scriptura*, Latin.] Writing.—It is not only remembered in many *scriptures*, but famous for the death and overthrow of Crassus. *Ralegh.*—Sacred writing; the Bible.

The devil can scite *scripture* for his purpose:
An evil soul producing holy witness,
Is like a villain with a smiling cheek. *Shakspeare.*

SCRI'PTURIST, *s.* One who understands the sacred writings. *Unused.*—Wicliffe was not only a good divine and *scripturist*, but well skilled in the civil, canon and English law. *Abp. Newcome.*

SCRIVELSBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 2 miles south of Horncastle. The manor of this place is held by grand serjeantry; the owner of it performing the office of champion of England, at the coronation of the king, on which occasions he must appear on a good war-horse, in presence of the sovereign, to challenge any one who disputes his right to the crown.

SCRIVEN, a township of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 1 mile north-by-west of Knaresborough. Population 833.

SCRIVEN, a county of the United States, in the north-east part of Georgia. Population 4477, including 1816 slaves.

SCRI'VENER, *s.* [*scrivano*, Ital. *escrivain*, French.] One who draws contracts.

We'll pass the business privately and well:
Send for your daughter by your servants here,
My boy shall fetch the *scrivener*. *Shakspeare.*

One whose business is to place money at interest.—I am reduced to beg and borrow from *scriveners* and usurers, that suck the heart and blood. *Arbuthnot.*

SCRIVERIUS (Peter), an estimable man of letters, was born at Haerlem in 1576. He was educated first at Amsterdam, where he had an uncle in the magistracy, and then at Leyden, with a view to the profession of the law, but having a decided turn for literature, he married and fixed his residence at Leyden, devoting his time to reading and writing. He became the editor of many ancient authors, which he illustrated by comments of his own: among these works were those of Vegetius, Frontinus, Hyginus, Apuleius, Martial, and Seneca the tragedian. Scriverius wrote a work in the Dutch language on the "History of Printing," in which he maintained the claim of Laurence Coster to the invention of that art. He published a collection of Batavian antiquities, and other pieces relative to the early history of the united provinces. Scriverius, at the age of 74, lost the use of his eyes, but he continued to solace himself with literature till his death in 1660. His funeral was attended by the university of Leyden in a body, and an eulogy was pronounced over him by Frederic Gronovius. A collection of philological and poetical pieces from his MSS. was published at Utrecht in 1737. *Moreri.*

SCRIVIA, a small river in the east of the continental Sardinian states, which falls into the Po, north of Tortona.

SCROBICULUS CORDIS, in Anatomy, the small depression in the middle of the upper part of the abdomen, just below the ensiform cartilage. In common language it is called the pit of the stomach.

SCROFA, in Zoology: see SUS.—SCROFA, in Ichthyology: see SCORPÆNA.—SCROFA, in Entomology: see SCARABÆUS

SCROFANELLO, in Ichthyology, a name by which some have called a small fish of the Mediterranean, more usually known by the name of the *scorpæna*.

SCRO'FULA, *s.* [from *scrofa*, Latin, a sow.] Glandular disease.—If matter in the milk dispose to coagulation, it produces a *scrofula*. *Wiseman.*—See PATHOLOGY, p. 289.

SCRO'FULOUS, *adj.* Diseased with the scrofula.—English consumptions generally proceed from a *scrofulous* disposition. *Arbuthnot.*

SCROG, *s.* [ȝcȝob, Saxon.] A stunted shrub, bush, or branch, yet used in some parts of the north. A *shrub* was formerly called *scrub*, or *scrob*.

SCROLL, *s.* [Supposed by Minsheu to be corrupted from *roll*; by Skinner derived from an *escrouelle*, given by the heralds.] A writing wrapped up.

We'll add a royal number to the dead,
Gracing the *scroll* that tells of this war's loss,
With slaughter coupled to the name of kings. *Shakspeare.*

Here is the *scroll* of every man's name, which is thought fit through all Athens to play in our interlude. *Shakspeare.*

SCROOBY, a parish of England, county of Nottingham, situated near Bawtry, on the road between London and York.

SCROON,

SCROON, a township of the United States, in Essex county, New York, west of Scroon lake. Population 689.

SCROON, a lake of the United States, in the state of New York; 12 miles west of George lake, 8 miles long and 1 broad.

SCROON, a river of the United States, in New York, the north-east branch of the Hudson. It runs from Scroon lake into the Hudson, and has many falls.

SCROPHULARIA [from its supposed use in the cure of the scrofula], in Botany, a genus of the class didynamia, order angiospermia, natural order of personatæ scrophulariæ (*Juss.*)—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leaved, five-cleft, permanent: segments shorter than the corolla, rounded. Corolla one-petalled, unequal: tube globular, larger, inflated: border five-parted, very small: segments, the two upper larger, erect; two lateral, spreading a little; one lowest, bent back. Stamina: filaments four, linear, declining, length of the corolla; of which two are later. Anthers twin. Pistil: germ ovate. Style simple, situation and length of the stamens. Stigma simple. Pericarp: capsule roundish, acuminate, two-celled, two-valved; partition folded, constructed of the margins of the valves bent in; opening at the top. Seeds very many, small. Receptacle roundish, insinuating itself into each cell. In the throat of the corolla under the upper segment of the border is found a small segment, resembling a little lip, which is not common to all the species. The corolla in this genus should be considered as resupine or turned upside down; the upper lip smaller, recurved, to which the stamens are bent down, rounded; the lateral segments crenate, rounded, equal to the upper one; lower lip larger, patulous, two-parted; the middle one very small in front. The partition, when the capsule is ripe, has an oval hole through it.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-cleft. Corolla subglobular, resupine. Capsule two-celled.

1. Scrophularia Marilandica, or Maryland figwort.—Leaves cordate, serrate, acute, rounded at the base; stem obtuse, angular. Root perennial, fibrous. Flowers in bunches on the upper part of the stalk, like those of the next species, but of an herbaceous colour.—Native of North America.

2. Scrophularia nodosa, or knobby-rooted figwort.—Leaves cordate, acute, three-nerved at the base. Root tuberous, granulate. Stem three feet high, erect, acutely quadrangular, leafy. Raceme terminating, erect, with the peduncles opposite, dichotomous, having a pair of lanceolate acuminate little bractes. Flowers dark blood red. Capsules ovate, acute.—Native of Europe, in woods and hedges: flowering in July.

3. Scrophularia aquatica, or water figwort.—Leaves cordate, petioled, decurrent, blunt. Root perennial, fibrous. Stem from three to five feet in height, upright, branched, winged at the corners; branches leafy, like the stem.—Native of Europe, by the sides of rivers, ponds, and wet ditches: flowering from June to September. There is a variety of this with variegated leaves.

4. Scrophularia auriculata, or ear-leaved figwort.—This has the stature and appearance of Scrophularia nodosa.—Native of Spain, Italy and Algiers.

5. Scrophularia lævigata, or smooth figwort.—Leaves cordate, obtusely tooth-gashed; raceme terminating, compound, leafless. Stem upright, quite simple, a cubit high, four-cornered from four decurrent lines.—Native of Barbary, in the mountains near Zowan in Tunis.

6. Scrophularia scorodonia, or balm-leaved figwort.—Leaves cordate, doubly serrate, tomentose beneath; raceme leafy. Stem four-cornered, hairy.—Native of Portugal, Italy, Tunis in Africa, Siberia and Britain.

7. Scrophularia Altaica.—Leaves cordate, ovate, doubly tooth-serrate, teeth tending towards the base; raceme compound, leafless. Root consisting of thick fibres of about a finger's length.—Native of the Altaic mountains.

8. Scrophularia glabrata, or spear-leaved figwort.—Leaves oblong-lanceolate, cordate, doubly serrate, smooth; panicles racemed, terminating, trichotomous; stem suffruticose. This is a biennial plant.—Native of the Canary Islands.

9. Scrophularia betonicifolia, or betony-leaved figwort.—Leaves cordate, oblong, toothed, teeth quite entire, those of the base deeper. Stem two feet high, erect, four-cornered, sub-pubescent, purplish at the base. Panicle terminating, somewhat leafy. Corollas of a dull purple colour, with a greenish lip. Anthers very yellow.—Native of Portugal.

10. Scrophularia meridionalis.—Leaves oblong-ovate, serrate smooth; peduncles one-flowered. Stem quadrangular, herbaceous, with opposite branches.—Found in New Granada.

11. Scrophularia orientalis, or hemp-leaved figwort.—Leaves lanceolate, serrate petioled; stem-leaves in threes; branch-leaves opposite. Root perennial, creeping. The stalks rise two feet and a half high. At the upper part are compound bunches of small brown flowers, which appear in May; and are succeeded by small roundish capsules.—Native of the Levant.

12. Scrophularia frutescens, or shrubby figwort.—Leaves somewhat fleshy, sessile, recurved at the end. Stem perennial, (or becoming woody,) four-cornered, acute-angled, brachiate below. Corollas small, very dark purple, with the lateral segments white, and the lowest segment very small.—Native of Portugal.

13. Scrophularia vernalis, or yellow figwort.—Leaves cordate, doubly serrate, pubescent; peduncles axillary, solitary, dichotomous, having small leaves on them. Root fibrous, biennial.—Native of Italy, the South of France, Switzerland, Austria, Denmark, England and Wales.

14. Scrophularia arguta, or slender upright figwort.—This differs from the preceding in having the stem and leaves smooth, with the flowers smaller and red.—It was found in the islands of Madeira and Teneriffe.

15. Scrophularia trifoliata, or three-leaved figwort.—Leaves smooth, lower ternate-pinnate, obtuse, upper simple; peduncles subtriflorous, axillary. Stem simple or sparingly branched, erect, smooth, four-cornered, striated. Flowers pedicelled, in racemelets.—Native of Corsica and Africa, on the borders of fields, and on the sea-coast.

16. Scrophularia sambucifolia, or elder-leaved figwort.—Leaves interruptedly pinnate, cordate, unequal; raceme terminating; peduncles axillary in pairs dichotomous. Flowers large, purple with the lower lip greenish.—Native of Portugal and Spain.

17. Scrophularia canina, or cut-leaved figwort.—Leaves pinnatifid; raceme terminating, naked; peduncles bifid. Root annual. Flowers in panicles. Corolla small, deep purple.—Native of the South of Europe, and of Barbary.

18. Scrophularia mellifera, or Barbary figwort.—Smooth; lower leaves pinnate; leaflets ovate, tooth-serrate; flowers axillary; bottom of the corolla nectariferous. Stem herbaceous, erect, from two to three feet in height.—Native of Barbary.

19. Scrophularia lucida, or shining-leaved figwort.—Lower leaves bipinnate, somewhat fleshy, very smooth; racemes two-parted. Stem round, straight, green. Corollas pale, the upper lip red.—Native of the Levant, the county of Nice and Barbary.

20. Scrophularia coccinea, or scarlet-flowered figwort.—Leaves in fours, ovate; flowers whorled, spiked. Root biennial. Stalk two feet high.—Found at La Vera Cruz in New Spain.

21. Scrophularia peregrina, or nettle-leaved figwort.—Leaves cordate, marked with lines, shining; peduncles axillary, two-flowered; stem hexangular.—Native of Italy.

22. Scrophularia hispida.—Stem four-cornered, erect, hispid; leaves pinnate, doubly-crenate, terminating; lobe cordate, very large; raceme compound, leafless.—Native of Mount Atlas near Tlemsen, in the clefts of the rocks.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants are propagated by seeds sown in autumn soon after they are ripe; the plants come up the spring following. These seeds may be most of them sown in the place where the plants are to remain, for the

the plants are in general all of them hardy enough to bear the cold of our ordinary winters in the open air (except the last sort, which is tender); therefore when the plants come up, they will require no other care but to thin them where they are too close, and keep them clear from weeds. The second year the plants will flower and produce ripe seeds; after which those sorts which are biennial will die, but the others will continue some years.

The 15th and 16 sorts being ornamental plants, may be allowed a place in the pleasure-garden, where, when the plants are strong, they will make a good appearance during their continuance in flower, which is generally two months, unless the season prove very hot and dry.

SCROPHULARIÆ, in Botany, a natural order of plants, named from one of the most remarkable and best-known genera (see SCROPHULARIA); making the fortieth order in Jussieu's system, or the seventh of his eighth class. The character of the Scrophularia is thus given by Jussieu:—

Calyx divided; often permanent. Corolla often irregular; divided in the limb. Stamens often four, two longer than the others; rarely often two in all. Style one; stigma simple or two-lobed. Fruit capsular, of two cells, split at the summit, if not completely separated, into two valves, which are in some few instances divided again into two parts; their inside is naked and concave, with a central receptacle, bordered vertically all round, and bearing seeds at each side, supplying the place of a partition, being parallel to the valves, and often connected, in its whole circumference, with their margins. Seeds often numerous and minute. Stem herbaceous, rarely shrubby. Leaves opposite or alternate. Flowers bracteated.

SCROPTON, a parish of England, in Derbyshire, near the Dove; 11 miles west-south-west of Derby. Population 494.

SCROTBY, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 3 miles north-by-west of Caistor.

SCROTOCELE, in Surgery, a hernia, or rupture, which has descended into the scrotum.

SCROTUM, in Anatomy, the bag of skin which contains the testes.

SCROYLE, *s.* [It seems derived from *escrouelles*, French, a scrofulous swelling; as Shakspeare calls a mean fellow a *scab* from his itch, or a *patch* from his raggedness.] A mean fellow; a rascal; a wretch.

The *scroyles* of Angiers flout you kings,
And stand securely on their battlements,
As in a theatre. *Shakspeare.*

To SCRUB, *v. a.* [*skrubba*, Swedish; *schrobben*, Dutch.] To rub hard with something coarse and rough.

Now Moll had whirled her mop with dext'rous airs,
Prepar'd to *scrub* the entry and the stairs. *Swift.*

SCRUB, *s.* [*schrobber*, Dutch, a vile or mean fellow.]—They are esteemed *scrubs* and fools by reason of their carriage. *Burton.*—Any thing mean or despicable.

With a dozen large vessels my vault shall be stor'd;
No little *scrub* joint shall come on my board. *Swift.*

A shrub. See SHRUB.—A worn out broom. *Ainsworth.*

SCRUB, one of the smaller Virgin Islands, in the West Indies, to the east of the north extremity of Tortola, on which it depends. Lat. 18. 25. N. long. 62. 57. E.

SCRU'BBED, or SCRU'BBY, *adj.* [*scrubet*, Danish. *Dr. Johnson.*—*Scrub* formerly signified *shrub*, as Mr. Malone also has observed.] Mean; vile; worthless; dirty; sorry.

I gave it to a youth,
A kind of boy, a little *scrubbed* boy,
No higher than thyself. *Shakspeare.*

The *scrubbiest* cur in all the pack,
Can set the mastiff on your back. *Swift.*

The scene a wood, produc'd no more
Than a few *scrubby* trees before. *Swift.*

SCRUF, *s.* The same with *scurf*. *Todd.*

SCRUPI, the name of a class of fossils. Under this class are comprehended, 1. The telaugia. 2. The petridia. 3. The lithoxugia. 4. The jaspides, or jaspers.

SCRU'PLE, *s.* [*scrupule*, French; *scrupulus*, Latin.] Doubt; difficulty of determination; perplexity: generally about minute things.

Macduff, this noble passion,
Child of integrity, hath from my soul
Wip'd the black *scruples*, reconcil'd my thoughts
To your good truth. *Shakspeare.*

Twenty grains; the third part of a drachm: with goldsmiths twenty-four grains.—Milk one ounce, oil of vitriol a *scruple*, doth coagulate; the milk at the bottom, where the vitriol goeth. *Bacon.*—Proverbially, any small quantity.

Nature never lends
The smallest *scruple* of her excellence,
But, like a thrifty goddess, she determines
Herself the glory of a creditor. *Shakspeare*

SCRUPLE, in Chronology. The Chaldee scruple is $\frac{1}{1080}$ part of an hour, called by the Hebrews *helakin*. These scruples are much used by the Jews, Arabs, and other eastern people, in computations of time.

SCRUPLES, in Astronomy. *Scruples eclipsed*, that part of the moon's diameter which enters the shadow, expressed in the same measure in which the diameter of the moon is expressed.—SCRUPLES *of Half Duration*, an arc of the moon's orbit, which the moon's centre describes from the beginning of an eclipse to its middle.—SCRUPLES *of Immersion*, or *Incidence*, an arc of the moon's orbit, which her centre describes from the beginning of the eclipse, to the time when its centre falls into the shadow.—SCRUPLES *of Emersion*, an arc of the moon's orbit, which her centre describes in the time from the first emersion of the moon's limb, to the end of the eclipse.

To SCRU'PLE, *v. n.* To doubt; to hesitate.

He *scrupled* not to eat
Against his better knowledge; not deceiv'd,
But fondly overcome with female charms. *Milton.*

SCRU'PLER, *s.* A doubter; one who has scruples.—Away with those nice *scruplers*, who, for some further ends, have endeavoured to keep us in an undue sense. *Bp. Hall.*

To SCRU'PULIZE, *v. a.* To perplex with scruples.—Other articles may be so *scrupulized*. *Mountagu.*

SCRUPULO'SITY, *s.* Doubt; minute and nice doubtfulness. *Unused.*—Fear of acting in any manner; tenderness of conscience.—The first sacrilege is looked upon with horror; but when they have made the breach, their *scrupulosity* soon retires. *Dec. of Chr. Piety.*

SCRU'PULOUS, *adj.* [*scrupuleux*, Fr.; *scrupulosus*, Lat.] Nicely doubtful; hard to satisfy in determinations of conscience.—They warned them that they did not become scandalous, by abusing their liberty, to the offence of their weak brethren which were *scrupulous*. *Hooker.*—Given to objections; captious.

Equality of two domestic powers
Breeds *scrupulous* faction. *Shakspeare.*

Nice; doubtful.—As the cause of a war ought to be just, the justice of that cause ought to be evident; not obscure, not *scrupulous*. *Bacon.*—Careful; vigilant; cautious.—I have been the more *scrupulous* and wary, in regard the inferences from these observations are of importance. *Woodward.*

SCRU'PULOUSLY, *adv.* Carefully; nicely; anxiously.—Henry V. manifestly derived his courage from his piety, and was *scrupulously* careful not to ascribe the success of it to himself. *Addison.*

SCRU'PULOUSNESS, *s.* The state of being scrupulous.

lous.—If the like *scrupulousness* was observed in registering the smallest changes in profane authors. *Bentley.*

SCRU'TABLE, *adj.* [from *scrutor*, Lat.] Discoverable by inquiry.

SCRUTA'TION, *s.* [*scrutor*, Lat.] Search; examination; inquiry. *Johnson.*

SCRUTA'TOR, *s.* [*scrutateur*, Fr.; from *scrutor*, Lat.] Enquirer; searcher; examiner.—In process of time, from being a simple *scrutator*, an archdeacon became to have jurisdiction more amply. *Ayliffe.*

SCRUTATORES, among the Romans, certain officers or servants, whose business it was to search every body that came to salute the emperor, in order to discover if they had any kind of arms concealed about them. They were first instituted under the emperor Claudius.

SCRUTINE'ER, *s.* [*scrutator*, Lat.] A searcher; an examiner.

SCRU'TINOUS, *adj.* Captious; full of inquiries. *A word little used.*

Age is froward, uneasy, *scrutinous*,
Hard to be pleas'd, and parsimonious. *Denham.*

To SCRU'TINIZE, or *To* SCRU'TINY, *v. a.* To search; to examine.—The compromissarii should chuse according to the votes of such, whose votes they were obliged to *scrutinize*. *Ayliffe.*

SCRU'TINY, *s.* [*scrutine*, old Fr.; *scrutinium*, Lat. The Saxon verb ꝛcꝛuꝼnian, *to scrutiny.*] Enquiry; search; examination with nicety.

Their difference to measure, and to reach,
Reason well rectify'd must nature teach;
And these high *scrutinies* are subjects fit
For man's all-searching and enquiring wit. *Denham.*

Also, an examination or probation, practised in the last week of Lent, on the catechumens, who were to receive baptism on the Easter-day.

The scrutiny was performed with a great many ceremonies: exorcisms and prayers were made over the heads of the catechumens. On Palm Sunday, the Lord's Prayer and creed were given them, which they were afterwards made to rehearse.

The process was called *scrutinium*, scrutiny; because hereby the hearts of the catechumens were scrutinized, or searched, that the priest might understand who were fit to be admitted to baptism.

SCRUTOI'RE, *s.* [for *scritoire*, or *escritoire.*] A case of drawers for writing.—I locked up these papers in my *scrutoire*, and my *scrutoire* came to be unlocked. *Prior.*

SCRUTON, a parish of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles north-east of Bedale.

To SCRUZE, *v. a.* [Perhaps from *screw*. This word, though now disused by writers, is still preserved, at least in its corruption, to *scrouge*, in the vulgar tongue.] To squeeze; to compress.

Tho' up he caught him twixt his puissant hands,
And having *scruz* out of his carrion corse
The loathful life, now loos'd from sinful bands,
Upon his shoulders carried him. *Spenser.*

SCUCYN, or SZCZUCZYN, a small town of Poland; 105 miles north-north-east of Warsaw, and 19 west of Goniondz, containing 1300 inhabitants.

To SCUD, *v. n.* [*squittire*, Italian; *skutta*, Swedish; *skiotur*, swift, Icelandic.]—To flee; to run away with precipitation.—The vote was no sooner passed, but away they *scudded* to the next lake. *L'Estrange.*—To be carried precipitately before a tempest: applied to a ship.

To SCUD, *v. a.* To pass over quickly.

A shepherd, from the lofty brow
Of some proud cliff, surveys his lessening flock
In snowy groups diffusive *scud* the vale. *Shenstone.*

SCUD, *s.* A cloud swiftly driven by the wind.

The combat thickens, like the storm that flies
From westward, when the showery *scuds* arise. *Dryden.*

To SCU'DDLE, *v. n.* To run with a kind of affected haste or precipitation. *A low and unused word:* commonly pronounced *scuttle.*

SCUDERI (George de), was born at Havre de Grace in 1601, of an ancient family, originally from Provence. According to his own account, he passed his youth in military service, and in travels through the greater part of Europe, but he was not known till he settled at Paris as a writer, and in this capacity he had a most prolific pen, giving to the world plays, poems, essays, &c., in great abundance. Most of his works are sunk in oblivion. His "Alaric, ou Rome Vaincue," has been ranked in the same class with the "Pucelle" of Chapelain. His "Observations sur le Cid" obtained for the author the favour of cardinal Richelieu. Scuderi obtained admission into the French Academy, and he had also the gift of a petty government in Provence, but he was scarcely able to keep himself above a state of indigence. He died at Paris in 1667.

SCUDERI (Magdalen de), sister of the preceding, born at Havre de Grace in 1607, was educated at Paris, and at an early age was admitted at the Hotel de Rambouillet, where she was encouraged to enter the career of an authoress. She was particularly celebrated as a writer of romance. Some of her works consist of ten volumes. They were much read when they first appeared, though they have long since declined in reputation. They are said, however, to contain some elegant writing, and much real elevation and dignity of sentiment, which did great honour to the writer. Her "Conversations et Entretiens," are by some accounted her most valuable publication, though the politeness inculcated in them would now appear formal and tiresome.

SCUDO, in Commerce, a money of account, and also a silver coin, in different parts of Italy, in Sicily, and also at Malta. The scudo weighs 22 denari $10\frac{75}{100}$ grains, Roman weight, or $408\frac{15}{100}$ English grains; and the silver is $10\frac{23}{24}$ ounces fine in the lb.; it therefore contains 403 grains of English standard silver, and is worth about 4*s.* 4*d.* sterling.

SCU'FFLE, *s.* [either from *shuffle*, or from the Swedish *skuffa*, to push angrily; to jostle.] A confused quarrel; a tumultuous broil.

His captain's heart,
In the *scuffles* of great fights hath burst
The buckles on his breast. *Shakspeare.*

SCUFFLE, or SCUFFLER, an implement of somewhat the same kind as the scarifier, but which is mostly lighter, and employed in working after it.

To SCU'FFLE, *v. n.* To fight confusedly and tumultuously.

I must confess I've seen in former days,
The best knights in the world, and *scuffled* in some frays.
Drayton.

SCUFFLETOWN, a post village of the United States, in Lauren's district, South Carolina.

To SCUG, *v. a.* [*skugga*, Swedish, shade.] To hide. Used in the north of England, according to Grose.

SCULCOATES, a parish of England, East Riding of Yorkshire, forming a suburb to the town of Hull. Population 8645.

SCULION, in Ichthyology, a name given by Aristotle, and many others of the ancient writers, to the fish called, by later authors, *catulus*, and *catulus major.*

To SCULK, *v. n.* [*sculcke*, Danish.] To lurk in hiding-places; to lie close.—It has struck on a sudden into such a reputation, that it scorns any longer to *sculk*, but owns itself publily. *Gov. of the Tongue.*

SCU'LKER, *s.* A lurker; one that hides himself for shame or mischief.

SCULL, *s.* [derived by Skinner from *shell*, as *testa* and *teste*, or *tete*, signify the head. Lye observes that *skola* is in Icelandic the *skull* of an animal].—The bone which incases and defends the brain; the arched bone of the head. Fractures of the *scull* are at all times very dangerous, as the brain becomes affected from the pressure. *Sharp.*—A small boat;

boat; a cockboat.—[*Skiola*, a vessel, Icelandic.] *Sherwood.* —One who rows a cockboat.

Like caitiff vile, that for misdeed
Rides with his face to rump of steed
Or rowing *scull*, he's fain to love,
Look one way and another move. *Hudibras.*

[Sceole, Sax. An assembly; a great collection of persons.] —A shoal of fish. The word is still applied, on the coast of Norfolk and Suffolk, to herrings.

They fly, or die, like scaled *sculls*
Before the belching whale. *Shakspeare.*

Each bay
With fry innumerable swarm, and shoals
Of fish, that with their fins and shining scales
Glide under the green wave, in *sculls* that oft
Bank the mid sea. *Milton.*

SCULL CAMP, a post village of the United States, in Surry district, North Carolina.

SCU'LLCAP, *s.* A headpiece. A nightcap.—A plant. See SCUTELLARIA.

SCU'LLER, *s.* [*skiola*, Icelandic.] A cockboat; a boat in which there is but one rower.

Her soul already was consign'd to fate,
And shiv'ring in the leaky *sculler* sate. *Dryden.*

One that rows a cockboat.—If they called a boat, says a waterman, I am first *sculler;* if they stept to the Rose to take a bottle, the drawer would cry, Friend, we sell no ale. *Swift.*

SCU'LLERY, *s.* [from *escuelle*, Fr., a dish. From the Icel. *skola*, Su. Goth. *skoelja*, to wash. The place where common utensils, as kettles or dishes, are cleaned and kept.] Pyrcicus was famous for counterfeiting base things, as pitchers, a *scullery*, and setting rogues together by the ears. *Peacham.*

SCU'LLION, *s.* [*sculier*, old French. This refers to the other old word *escuelle*, a dish.] The lowest domestic servant, that washes the kettles and the dishes in the kitchen.

I
Must, like a whore, unpack my heart with words,
And fall a-cursing like a very drab,
A *scullion*, fye upon't foh! about my brain. *Shakspeare.*

If the gentleman hath lain there, get the cook, the stablemen, and the *scullion*, to stand in his way. *Swift.*

SCU'LLIONLY, *adj.* Low; base; worthless. *A bad word.*—This fellow brought forth his *scullionly* paraphrase on St. Paul. *Milton.*

SCULLTOWN, or OLDMAN'S CREEK, a village of the United States, in Salem county, New Jersey; 10 miles north-east of Salem.

To SCULP, *v. a.* [*sculpo*, Latin; *sculper*, Fr.] To carve; to engrave. *A word not in use, but elegant.*

O, that the tenor of my just complaint
Were *sculpt* with steel on rocks of adamant! *Sandys.*

SCULPONEÆ, among the Romans, a kind of shoes worn by slaves of both sexes. These shoes were only blocks of wood made hollow, like the French *sabots.*

SCU'LPTILE, *adj.* [*sculptilis*, Latin.] Made by carving.—In a silver medal is upon one side Moses horned, and on the reverse the commandment against *sculptile* images. *Brown.*—All carved images they abhor, and anathematize the adorers of *sculptile* representations. *Ricaut.*

SCU'LPTOR, *s.* [*sculptor*, Latin; *sculpteur*, Fr.] A carver; one who cuts wood or stone into images.

Thy shape's in every part
So clean, as might instruct the *sculptor's* art. *Dryden.*

The Latin poets give the epithets of *trifidum* and *trisulcum* to the thunderbolt, from the *sculptors* and painters that lived before them, that had given it three forks. *Addison.*

SCULPTURE, [from *sculptura*, Lat., which is derived from the Greek γλυφω.] The art of cutting natural or ideal forms in solid substance.

Then *sculpture* and her sister arts revive,
Stones leap'd to form, and rocks began to live. *Pope.*

Ornamental carving.

Nor did there want
Cornice or freeze with bossy *sculptures* graven. *Milton.*

Sculpture has been used to denote also the art of engraving, but is at present confined to the first meaning.

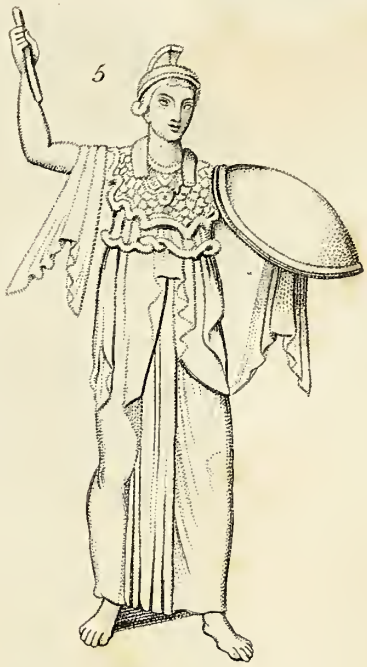
Sculpture is so far identified with the higher branch of painting that each requires the same exalted imagination, the same general historical knowledge, the same intuitive perception of character, and the same fervent admiration of beauty and sublimity. But reduced to simpler elements, deprived of all those magical delusions of colour and pleasing variety of collateral subjects that painting renders available, sculpture rests upon simpler and severer excellences. Incapable of imitating the glow of the complexion, the gorgeous robe or sparkling jewels, and debarred alike from the relief afforded to its principal figures by the tints of the earth or the hues of the sky, this art is confined rigorously to the mere imitation of form. Hence its greater difficulty. Without great anatomical correctness in the figures, the most perfect fidelity in the expression, and the highest beauty and dignity in the whole, a marble group is absolutely worthless; while a painting, on the other hand, may engage our admiration by various other qualifications. The faithful imitation of flesh and the skilful disposition of light and shade have raised to the highest estimation many pictures of which the figures were not only common but absolutely disgusting. But from this imitation of nature, the accuracy of which atones for other defects, sculpture is utterly cut off; and having a material so opposed in texture to the subjects it represents as marble, can only succeed by rivetting the mind of the spectator on the form alone, to the exclusion of every other beauty.

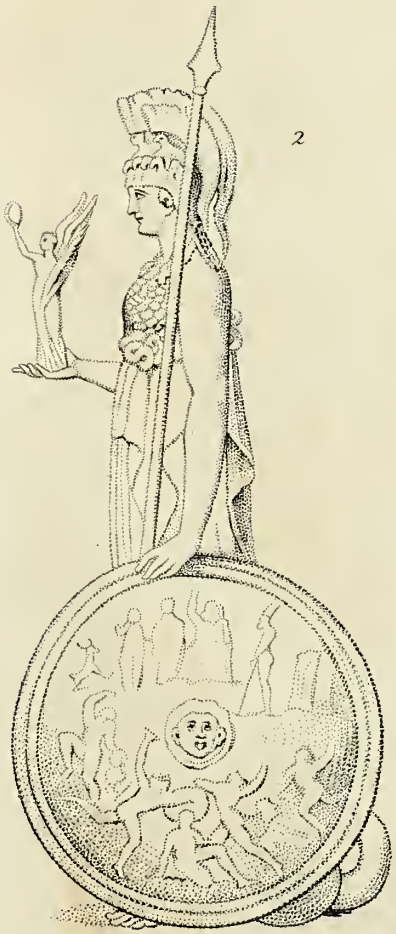
The attributes of sculpture are therefore simplicity and grandeur; those who have attempted to render it a close imitation of mere natural objects have failed. But for ideal representations it seems pre-eminently adapted. In these, the very defects of its material are transformed to beauties; for the spectator's imagination being unconfined by any system of colour or peculiarity of complexion to grosser ideas, as it were, takes wing, and of itself forms those ethereal conceptions which it is the province of the highest art rather to excite than to give. There seems to us somewhat of celestial and spiritual beauty in the proportions of the carved marble that we look for in vain in the finest pictures. Nevertheless the power of sculpture is confined; its subjects few, and its labour great. It possesses some slight superiority over painting in the longer duration of its offspring, but this scarcely can compensate for its greater toil. It is also a more full and perfect representation of the human figure than can be produced by other means, and each separate object presents superior variety, since it may be contemplated from many points of view. It appeals however little to the uncultivated feelings of human nature; and hence a statue is never so general an object of attraction as a painting.

The carving of domestic implements, which necessity imposes on the most savage tribes, leads so naturally and insensibly to rude sculptures of the human form, that we should scarcely expect to find any race of men without some productions of the kind. Looking into antiquity, we conclude from various passages in scripture, concerning images in the temples, that sculpture was not unknown to the Hebrews. Of the merits of this nation, however, as well as of the Persians, Babylonians, &c., nothing is known; but they would seem not to have been very high, since the quantity of gold or other precious material consumed, forms the chief subject of panegyric in those remarks which antiquity has presented to us. (See Herodotus' account of the Temple of Jupiter Belus.) If any exception to this opinion is to be found, it is in the representations of wild beasts and hunters attacking them. (See Diodorus Siculus' Description of the Works of Semiramis in Babylon, and also the ruins of Persepolis.)

Egypt, the source to which the Greeks attributed all the sciences, is also famed as the cradle of the art of sculpture.

Yet





J. Pass sc.

1. The Tomb Stone of Xanthippus Father of Pericles. 2. Minerva of the Acropolis in Athens. 3. Cupid of Praxiteles. 4. Hercules of Dædalus. 5. Minerva of Dipænus & Scyllis.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis. 1827.

Yet the Egyptian statues are remarkable only for number and bulk; they are abundantly scattered among the ruins of temples over some hundreds of miles, and their gigantic proportions are subjects of universal astonishment. Besides these qualities there is little worthy of note. Ripaud says, the execution of the figures engraved on the exterior and interior walls at Dendera, is an example of the highest point of perfection to which the Egyptians attained. All the minutiæ of their dress are finished with a purity and delicacy most admirable, considering the impracticability of the stone. But there is no natural action nor correct forms in these statues. Nearly all the Egyptian statues stand equally poised upon the two legs, having one foot advanced, and the arms either hanging straight down each side; or if one arm is raised, it is at a right angle across the body. Some statues sit on seats, some on the ground, and some are kneeling; but the positions of their hands seldom vary from the above description. Their attitudes are of course simply rectilinear, and without lateral movement; their faces are flattish; the eye-brows, eye-lids and mouths formed of simple curves, slightly but sharply marked, and with little expression. The general proportions are something more than seven heads high; the form of the body and limbs rather round and effeminate, with only the most evident projections and hollows; their tunics or other draperies are without folds in many instances. Winckelman has remarked, that the Egyptians executed quadrupeds better than human figures, for which various reasons have been given. In all Egyptian statues, the form of their hands and feet are gross; they have no anatomical detail of parts, and are totally wanting in the grace of motion. This last defect, in all probability, was a consequence of a superstitious determination to persist in the practice of their ancestors; perhaps because since all the figures were sacred, it would be impious to improve or alter the original prototypes transmitted from the primitive sculptors. Nevertheless, it has been said that in the Egyptian sculpture we shall find some of the first principles of the art. Their best statues are divided into seven heads and one-third, or seven heads and one-half: the whole height of the figure is divided into two equal parts at the os pubis; the rest of the proportions are natural, and not disagreeable. The principal forms of the body and limbs, as the breasts, belly, shoulders, biceps of the arm, knees, shin-bones and feet, are expressed with a fleshy roundness, although without anatomical knowledge of detail; and in the female figures these parts often possess considerable elegance and beauty. The forms of the female face have much the same outline and progression towards beauty in the features as we see in some of the early Greek statues, and, like them, without variety of character; for little difference can be traced in the faces of Isis, in her different representations of Diana, Venus, or Terra, or indeed in the face of Osiris, although sometimes understood to be Jupiter himself, excepting that in some instances he has a very small beard, in shape resembling a peg. The hands and feet, like the rest of the figure, have general forms only, without particular detail; the fingers and toes are flat, of equal thickness, little separated, and without distinction of the knuckles: yet altogether their simplicity of idea, breadth of parts, and occasional beauty of form, strike the skilful beholder, and have been highly praised by the best judges, ancient and modern.

In their basso-relievos and paintings, which require variety of action and situation, are demonstrated their want of anatomical, mechanical and geometrical science, relating to the arts of painting and sculpture. The king, or hero, is three times larger than the other figures. Whatever is the action,—a siege, a battle, or taking a town by storm, there is not the smallest idea of perspective in the place, or magnitude of figures or buildings. Figures in violent action are equally destitute of joints, and other anatomical form, as they are of the balance and spring of motion, the force of a blow, or the just variety of line in the turning figure. In a word, their historical art was informing the beholder, in the best manner they could, according to the rude characters they were able to make. From such a description, it is easy to understand how much their attempts at historical representation were inferior to their single statues.

What has been hitherto said of Egyptian sculpture describes the ancient native sculpture of that people. After the Ptolemies, successors of Alexander the Great, were kings of Egypt, their sculpture was enlivened by Grecian animation, and refined by the standard of Grecian beauty in proportions, attitude, character and dress. Osiris, Isis and Orus, their three great divinities, put on the Macedonian costume; and new divinities appeared among them, in Grecian forms, whose characteristics were compounded from materials of Egyptian, Eastern and Grecian theology and philosophy.

In the reign of the Roman emperor Adrian, a number of statues, in imitation of the ancient Egyptian, were made to decorate the Canopus in his magnificent villa of Tivoli; several of which have been dug up, and placed in the Capitoline Museum. But Winckelman has remarked of these, that they may be known from the ancient Egyptian sculpture, having no hieroglyphics on them. But, besides this distinction, they are entirely unlike the genuine Egyptian; as the drawing and character are Roman, in Egyptian attitudes and dresses.

Greece, wherein no established errors held dominion, where to think, to speak and to execute were alike free in poetry, metaphysics, or morals, sculpture threw off the shackles imposed by Egyptian priests. In the land where imagination took flight unrestrained by any curb but intuitive taste, where religion became exalted by reason, where the forms of men acquired, by well regulated exercises, the acme of strength, agility and grace, sculpture acquired an excellence that never, in its peculiar line, can be surpassed, perhaps cannot be equalled. The steps through which the art advanced to this point from eastern crudities are but dimly seen. It was about 1300 years before the Christian era that a sculptor appeared, whose works exacted the praise of poets and the record of historians, and continued to be preserved with respect, centuries after sculpture had risen to its zenith. This was Dædalus, to whom are attributed so many mechanical inventions. Diodorus Siculus speaks of his works in Sicily. Pausanias mentions those remaining in Greece in his time, nine in number. The works of Dædalus are indeed rude, says Pausanias, and uncomely in aspect; but yet they have something of divinity in their appearance. He mentions particularly a wooden statue of Hercules that was held in considerable esteem and veneration. It is supposed that many copies of it were made in gems, coins, or small bronzes, by which all the most famous works of antiquity were multiplied. In the British Museum are several small bronzes of a naked Hercules advancing, whose right arm, holding a club, is raised to strike; whilst his left arm is extended, bearing the lion's skin as a shield. From the style of extreme antiquity which characterises these statues, the rude attempt at bold action, the peculiarity of Dædalus, the general adoption of this action in the early ages, the traits of savage nature in the face and figure expressed with little knowledge but strong feeling, by the narrow loins, turgid muscles of the breast, thighs and calves of the legs, we shall find reason to believe they are copied from the above-mentioned statue.

Endæus, the disciple of Dædalus, made a statue of Minerva, which Pausanias saw in the Acropolis of Athens. It is supposed that the heads of Minerva, on the early coins of Athens, were copied from this statue. Both Dædalus and Endæus formed their statues of wood, but metal was also used. Dipænus and Scyllis, the Cretans, were celebrated for their statues in marble, about 776 years before Christ; still retaining much of the ancient manner in the advancing position of the legs, the drawing of the figure, and the perpendicular folds of drapery, disposed in zig-zag edges. Soon after elaborate finishing was carried to excess, undulating locks and spiral knobs of hair, like cockle-shells, as well as the drapery, were wrought with the most elaborate care and rigid exactness, whilst the tasteless and barbarous character of the face and limbs remained much the same as in former times

times. Yet so well was sculpture, even while thus imperfect, encouraged, that, according to Pliny, the picture of the battle of Magnete, painted by Bularchus, was paid for, with its weight in gold, by Candaules, king of Lydia.

From the few historical observations now offered, it is conjectured by historians that sculpture was eight hundred years from the age of Dædalus, to the time immediately preceding Phidias, in attaining a tolerable representation of the human form.

About 490 years before the Christian era, Phidias flourished at the same time with the philosophers Socrates, Plato and Anaxagoras; the statesmen and commanders Pericles, Miltiades, Themistocles, Cimon and Xenophon, with the tragic poets Æschylus, Euripides and Sophocles. This period was as favourable in its moral and political circumstances, as in the emulation of rare talents, to produce the display and encourage the growth of genius.

The city and citadel of Athens had been burnt by the army of Xerxes; but the Greeks, being conquerors, raised more stately buildings in the room of those destroyed. Phidias was engaged by Pericles in the superintendance and decorations of the temple of Minerva, and other public works.

Superior genius, in addition to his knowledge of painting, which he practised before sculpture, gave a grandeur to his compositions, a grace to his groups, a softness to flesh, and a flow to draperies, unknown to his predecessors, the characters of whose figures were stiff rather than dignified; their forms either meagre or turgid; the folds of drapery parallel, poor, and representing geometrical lines, rather than the flowing curves of nature.

How this sculptor was esteemed by the ancients will be understood by the following short quotations:—Pliny says, "Phidias was most famous through all nations." And when enumerating the most celebrated sculptors of antiquity, he says, "but before all, Phidias the Athenian;" and Quintilian says, that "his Athenian Minerva and Olympian Jupiter, at Elis, possessed beauty which seemed to have added something to religion; the majesty of the work was so worthy of the divinity."

Pliny says, the emulators of Phidias were Alcamenes, Critias, Nestocles, Hegias; and twenty years afterwards, Agelades, Callon, Polycletus, Phradmon, Gorgias, Lacon, Myron, Pythagoras, Scopas, Parelius. In this list we certainly have the names of the sculptors employed on the temples of Minerva and Theseus; and as the styles of different hands are sufficiently evident in the alto and basso-relievos, so there might perhaps be no great difficulty in tracing some of the artists by resemblance to others of their known works.

The two pediments of the temple of Minerva were each eighty-eight feet long, filled with compositions of entire groups, and statues from eight to nine feet high. The story of the western pediment related to the birth of Minerva, or rather perhaps represented her introduction among the gods. The eastern pediment was occupied by the contention of Neptune and Minerva for the patronage of Athens. Forty-three metops were charged with combats of the Lapithæ and Centaurs, and a frieze of three hundred and eighty feet round the wall of the temple, under the portico, was decorated with the procession of the Grecian states, in honour of Minerva, in chariots, on horseback, leading animals for sacrifice, bearing offerings, and presenting the sacred veil, in presence of the gods, sitting on thrones to witness the solemn ceremony.

The Marquis Nanteuil had a drawing made of the western pediment of this temple, when the statues were all, excepting one, in their places; and notwithstanding some mutilations of parts, the whole was sufficiently entire for the composition to be perfectly understood from the Marquis Nanteuil's sketch, carefully compared with the original fragments in the Earl of Elgin's museum. In the centre, Jupiter sits holding his sceptre in his right hand, the thunder in his left; on the right of Jupiter, in an advancing position, Minerva takes possession of her car, while the reins are governed by Themis and Mars; from behind Themis, a genius leads Victory forward to attend the patroness of Athens; on the left of Jupiter, Vulcan stands by his mother Juno; Amphitrite sits next, whose foot rests on a dolphin; Latona succeeds, with her infants Apollo and Diana, beautifully implying that the maturity of divine wisdom was older than the sun and moon. The last group is Venus sitting on the lap of Ocean; the figures at each end of the pediment are not shewn, because they are mere contingents, spectators only; not partaking in the action.

The idea of this composition seems to have been suggested by Homer's hymn to Minerva, a short poem, but one of the author's highest flights; in which he describes Pallas in full stature, and completely armed, issuing from the head of Jove; Olympus, the whole earth, and surrounding sea, trembling at the vibration of her spear; the sun staying his coursers in their race, and partaking in the same amazement with the other immortals.

The statue of Minerva, in the Parthenon at Athens, one of the master-pieces of Phidias, is thus described by Pliny, Pausanias, and other ancient authors:—It is in height twenty-six cubits, formed of ivory and gold, standing upright; her tunic reaching to her feet, holding a victory, six feet high in her right hand, and a spear in her left; the drapery is of gold; the uncovered parts of the statue are of ivory; the head of Medusa on the breast-plate of the goddess is of ivory; at her feet is her shield; in the convex part of her shield the Amazonian war; in the concave part is the war of the gods and giants; in the base Pandora's history: the gods are here present thirty in number; the Lapithæ and Centaurs are sculptured on her sandals; a serpent at her feet admirably executed; a sphynx on the top, and a griffon on each side of her helmet. The quantity of gold in this statue was forty talents. Plato says the eyes were of precious stones.

There was also, in the citadel of Athens, another statue of Minerva by Phidias, thus described by Pausanias:—Of the spoils taken at Marathon from the Persians, Phidias made Minerva's statue of brass, in whose shield the battle of the Lapithæ and Centaurs was engraved by Mys, and painted by Parrhasius, the son of Evenor. The top of the spear, and crest of the helmet, might be seen by those who sail by Sunium.

But the great work of this great master, the astonishment and praise of after ages, was the Jupiter at Elis; thus described by Pausanias:—The god is seated upon his throne, made of gold and ivory, a crown of olive branch on his head; in his right hand bearing a Victory, also of ivory and gold; she bears a fillet, and is crowned; the left hand of the god holds a sceptre of various coloured metals, an eagle of gold sitting upon the sceptre; his garment is of gold, and on his garment are wrought animals and flowers, particularly the lily; his sandals also are of gold; the throne is variously ornamented with gold and gems, and also with ivory and ebony: on it animals are painted in their proper colours, and sculptured with great labour. Four victories, as in the dance, are on the hinder feet of the throne, two on each side; and on the front the children of the Thebans taken away by the sphynx; and beneath the sphynxes, Niobe and her children slain by Apollo and Diana; on the frames that join the feet of the throne ornaments are carved; on that in front Hercules warring with the Amazons. Pausanias numbered upon them all together twenty-nine figures. Among Hercules' companions was also Theseus. There were also pillars which adjoined to the feet supporting the throne, equal in size to the feet. There is not an entrance underneath the throne, as under that of Apollo at Amyclis. It is hollow, but the spectator cannot enter, because a wall includes the throne. Of this wall, that part which fronts the door is painted blue; the sides have the pictures of Panænus. Among these is Atlas sustaining Heaven and Earth. Hercules stands near him lifting off his burden. Here are also seen Theseus and Perithous. Græcia and Salamis, two figures; the last of which carries a rostrum in her hand. Hercules' strife with the Nemean lion. Ajax under the reproach

1. Venus de Medicis. 2. Hercules Farnese. 3. Apollo Belvidere. 4. Laocoon.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis 1827.

proach of Cassandra. Hyppodamia, daughter of Oenomaus, with her mother. Prometheus bound in chains, Hercules coming to his help; Hercules also, having slain the eagle, which was the punishment of Prometheus on Caucasus, delivering him from his chains. On the hinder part is painted Penthesilea dying, Achilles supporting her. The two Hesperides bearing the apples of which they had the keeping. Panænus, the brother of Phidias, who did these, painted also, in the Pœcile of Athens, the battle of Marathon. Upon the throne, above the head of the god, Phidias carved the Graces and the Hours. Three of them large; these are called daughters of Jove. Upon the seat, lions of gold, and Theseus warring with the Amazons. Upon the base of the throne, which great mass was wrought in gold, are other ornaments relating to the god. The rising Sun in his chariot, and Jupiter and Juno, and by them the Graces; these lead Hermes, and Hermes, Vesta. Cupid also from the sea receiving Venus, who was crowned by Persuasion. Apollo was with Diana, and Minerva with Hercules; and on the lowest part of all was Neptune, and the Moon in her chariot urging on her horses.

The temple at Elis also, which contained this astonishing statue, was itself a noble work of Doric architecture; the architect was Liban, an Elean. The sculptures on the outside of the temple have a relation to the great work within. A gilded Victory crowns the whole. In the front pediment is the contest of the chariot race between Pelops and Oenomaus, and in the back pediment the Lapithæ and Centaurs, with the nuptials of Perithous; and in the temple, and over the doors, the labours of Hercules in very many compositions, which are the work of Alcamenes. The temple has brazen doors and an interior portico, which opens an entrance to the statue of Jupiter: under the statue is inscribed, "Phidias, the son of Charmides the Athenian, made me."

It may be proper to take notice in this place, of another temple dedicated to Jupiter Olympius, at Athens, by the emperor Adrian, and in it a colossal statue of ivory and gold, described as not inferior to the colossusses of Rhodes and of Rome.

Pausanias describes also a temple and statue of Æsculapius at Corinth, in the following manner:—The statue of Æsculapius is almost half the size of the Olympian Jupiter at Athens. It is of gold and ivory, and is the work of Thrasymedes, the son of Arignotus, a man of Paros. He is seated on a throne, holding a great staff, and with his other hand pressing the head of a serpent; a dog lies at his feet; in his throne the acts of the Argive heroes are sculptured; Bellerophon killing Chimæra. Perseus holds Medusa's head cut off. Above the temple are places where those who come to pray to the god repose.

Several other statues of great excellence, both in marble and bronze, are mentioned among the works of Phidias, particularly a Venus, placed by the Romans in the forum of Octavia. Two Minervas, one surnamed Callimorphos, from the beauty of its form; and it is likely that the fine statue of this goddess in Mr. Hope's museum is a repetition in marble of Phidias's bronze, from its resemblance to the reverse of an Athenian silver coin, in attitude, drapery and helmet. Another statue by Phidias was an Amazon, called Eucnemon, from her beautiful leg; of which there is a print in the Museum Pium Clementinum.

Alcamenes was celebrated for his Venus Aphrodite, to which Phidias is said to have given the last touches.

Praxiteles excelled in the highest graces of youth and beauty; Pliny says he not only excelled other sculptors by his marble statues in the Ceramicus at Athens; but his Venus was preferable to theirs, and all other statues in the world, to see which many sailed to Gnidos. This sculptor having made two Venuses, one with drapery, the other without; the Coans preferred the clothed figure, on account of its severe modesty. The same price being set upon each, the citizens of Gnidos took the rejected statue, and afterwards refused it to king Nicomedes, who would have forgiven them an immense debt in return; being resolved, says our author, and with reason, to suffer any thing, so long as the statue of Praxiteles ennobled Gnidos. The temple was entirely open in which it was placed; because every view was equally admirable. The figure is known by the descriptions of Lucian and Cedrenus; and it is represented on a medal of Caracalla and Plautilla, in the Cabinet of France. This Venus existed in Gnidos during the reign of the emperor Arcadius, or about 400 years after Christ.

This statue seems to offer the first idea for the Venus de Medicis; which is likely to be the repetition of another Venus, also the work of this artist, mentioned by Pliny.

On the reverse of the empress Lucilla's medals, is a clothed Venus, with an apple in her right hand; which, from the grace of its attitude, and its resemblance to several antique marble statues, is likely to be the clothed Venus chosen by the Coans.

Among the known works of Praxiteles, are his satyr, cupid, Apollo, the lizard-killer, and Bacchus leaning on a fawn.

The celebrated Venus of Gnidos was found, about thirty years since, in the neighbourhood of Rome, and was afterwards the property of duke Braschi, nephew of pope Pius VI.

Polycletus of Sicyon, the scholar of Agelades, was particularly celebrated on account of his Doryphorus, or lance-bearer; and Diadumenus, or youth binding a fillet round his head. This statue was valued at an hundred talents. The Doryphorus was called the Rule by artists, from which they studied.

The Discobolus of Myron is ascertained by an antique gem, and the description of Quintilian, who apologizes for its forced attitude. An ancient example of this figure is in the British Museum.

The Discobolus of Naucydas is uniformly admired for its forms and momentary balance.

The wounded man, in which might be seen how much of life remained in him, was the famous work of Ctesilaus, and perhaps is the same as the statue commonly called the Dying Gladiator, but more properly a dying herald, or hero, according to Winckelman.

Ctesilaus, or Desilaus, is known by his wounded Amazon.

Pliny mentions the nine muses by Philiscus of Rhodes; and the muses also, brought by Fulvius Nobilior to Rome. From one of these series must be the greater number of those formerly in the pope's museum, now in the gallery of France, of which the Comedy is remarkable for grace, and the Tragedy for grandeur.

The Hermaphrodite of Polycles is one of the most delicate and graceful productions of antiquity.

The Apollo Philesius, or in love, by Canachus, is witnessed by many fine repetitions in the different galleries of Europe.

The Ganymede, borne in the eagle's talons, is exactly described by Pliny. An example of this work exists in the pope's museum.

The Apollo Belvidere is believed, by the learned Visconti, to be Apollo Alexicacos, the deliverer from evil, the work of Calamis; mentioned both by Pliny and Pausanias; and the history of its removal is given in the Museum Pium Clementinum. Only one small antique repetition of this statue is to be found; and indeed admirable and sublime in its beauty as it is, there is a reason which might render it less popular among the ancients than the moderns. Maximus Tyrius describes a statue by Phidias very similar to this, but in greater motion, either discharging an arrow, or preparing to do so. (Τοξοην.) There are traces of this statue in some ancient basso-relievos; and it is possible the stronger expression of Phidias's work, together with the authority of his name, might have diminished the public attention to Calamis in a comparative production.

The Venus de Medicis was so popular a favourite among the Greeks and Romans, that a hundred ancient repetitions of this statue have been noticed by travellers. The individual figure is said to have been found in the forum of Octavia. The style of sculpture seems to be later than Alexander the Great; and the idea of this statue seems to have its origin from the Venus of Gnidos.

The colossal statues on Monte Cavallo in Rome we may fairly

fairly presume to be the works of Phidias and Praxiteles, as inscribed on their pedestals; because the animated character and style of sculpture seem peculiar to the age in which those artists lived; and because, in the frieze of the Parthenon there is a young hero governing a horse, which bears so strong a resemblance to those groups, that it would be difficult to believe it was not a first idea for them by one of those artists.

The heroic statue by Agasius the Ephesian, commonly called the Fighting Gladiator, is shewn by the ingenious and learned Abbate Fea, to be Ajax, the son of Oileus, as his figure is so represented on the coins of Locris, his country.

The Hercules Farnese was evidently one of the first favourites of antiquity, from its frequent repetitions in bronze and marble, gems and coins. Its history, according to these, seems to be this. The city of Perinthus was twice besieged by Philip of Macedon; the citizens, however, by the strength of their situation, their own valour, and the intervention of friends, preserved their liberty. As their city was dedicated to Hercules, they represented him on their coins resting from his labours.

The group of Laocoon, animated with the hopeless agony of the father and sons, is the work of Apollodorus, Athenodorus and Agesander of Rhodes. The style of this work, as well as the manner in which Pliny introduces it into his history, give us reason to believe it was not ancient.

Zethus and Amphion, tying Dirce to the bull's horns, an example of filial vengeance for a persecuted mother, is as heroic in conception as vast in execution. The restorations of this group are so bad, that they only become tolerable by something like an assimilation of spirit in their union with the ancient and venerable fragment. It is the work of Apollonius and Tauriscus of Rhodes.

The group of Hercules and Antæus, in the Palace Pitti at Florence, may be a marble, from the bronze of which the copyist inscribed the name of the original artist.

The groups of Atreus, bearing a dead son of Thyestes; Orestes and Electra; Ajax supporting Patroclus; are all examples of fine form, heroic character, and sentiment. There seems only to be one reason for their being omitted by Pliny, that they were too recent at that time to have obtained an equal rank in public estimation with the fine works of Phidias and Praxiteles, and these immediate descendants.

The group of Niobe and her youngest daughter, by Scopas, is an example of heroic beauty in mature age. The sentiment is maternal affection; she exposes her own life to shield her child from the threatened destruction.

The separate statues of the children all partake of the same heroic beauty, mixed with the passions of apprehension, dismay, or death.

From what has been said, it will appear, sculpture did not arrive at its maturity until the age of Phidias, 490 years before the Christian era; and Pliny's catalogue of the most celebrated Greek artists continues 160 years later, or to 330 years before Christ. After which time, however, the Laocoon, and several of the finest groups and statues, seem to have been executed: nor can we believe, from the admirable busts and statues of the imperial families still remaining, that sculpture began to lose its graces until the reign of the Antonines; and, indeed, so strong were the stamina of Grecian genius in the art of design, that after the time of the Iconoclastes in the fifth and sixth centuries, when the noblest works were destroyed, when great works of sculpture were not required, even then, and until Constantinople was taken by the Turks in the 15th century, the Greeks executed small works of great elegance, as may be seen in the diptychs, or ivory covers to consular records, or sacred volumes used in church service.

The principal schools of sculpture were Athens and Rhodes. The sculptors of the Laocoon, and the Toro Farnese, and the Colossus, were Rhodians; and it is almost incredible, that from this little island, only forty miles long, and thirteen broad, the Roman conquerors brought away 3000 statues. But we shall more readily believe this when we recollect that the force and enterprise of these islanders were sufficient to conquer the navy of Antiochus commanded by Hannibal.

Sicyon had long been the work-shop of metals of all countries. Egina was also famous for bronze sculpture, and continued the Egyptian style.

Etruscan sculpture must be considered entirely the work of Greek colonists and their disciples.

The Sicilian sculpture is also Grecian. Some of their finest medals in particular are of the Corinthian school.

As the enterprise and taste of the present age have rescued two noble examples of Grecian sculpture, the pediments of the temple of Jupiter Panhellenius, in the island of Egina, and the frieze which surrounded the interior of the temple of Apollo Epicuros at Phygaleia, it may be proper to give some description of them in this place.

The figures, which were decorations of the east and west pediments of the temple of Jupiter Panellenius, were found among the ruins, nearly under the scite in which they had been originally placed: their number was nine in the west pediment; that in the centre was the figure of Minerva: the rest seemed to be combatants, as well in this pediment as the six figures in the east pediment. On each side of an ornament, in the centre of the west pediment, were two female figures; and at each corner of the pediment the remains of a griffon. The statues were in size small nature; and, according to Pliny's description, partaking of the Egyptian style of workmanship.

Among the ruins of the temple of Apollo Epicuros at Phygaleia, in the Argolis, were discovered, in many pieces the friezes which adorned the interior of the temple. They represented the battle of the Athenians with the Amazons, and the Lapithæ with the Centaurs. The compositions are grand and energetic; the actions are natural, original and elastic; the lines of the bodies and limbs are beautifully variegated by the draperies, as flowing from the motion of the figures, or flourished in the air by the impulse of the wind; the beauty of the figures and countenances is heroic; and the general style and character of the work resemble the alto-relievos in the temple of Theseus. The figures are about two feet high; and the whole extent of the different basso-relievos, taken together, about ninety feet.

Of Roman Sculpture we shall say nothing, as it is well known, that all the nobler productions of sculpture executed at Rome after the times we are speaking of, were the productions of Greek artists.

The busts of the twelve Cæsars, from Julius to Domitian inclusive, are the finest productions of portrait sculpture. The whole imperial series, both in busts and statues, down to the emperors Balbinus and Pupienus, possess the highest merit, and scarcely in that period shew the decline of art; but from the time of these emperors to that when Constantine fixed his capital at Byzantium, the decline was so evident, that the life and beauty of former times were nearly extinguished in these productions.

When Constantine removed the seat of empire from Rome to Byzantium, he and his successors are said to have taken from the ancient capital of the world, as many of the fine works of art as they could possibly remove. The Greek artists were employed in their own country to decorate the new capital, with the same magnificence indeed as in former times, and like their predecessors were employed in the cause of religion, not in emulation of Phidias's Jupiter or Praxiteles' Venus, but in the cause of that sacred person who disclosed, and of his followers who propagated the new dispensation of mercy. The architects were employed in building Sancta Sophia and other great sacred buildings in the city; and the painters and sculptors in the illustration of the Old and New Testament.

The controversies of religion and philosophy had been agitated with so much violence by the philosophers of Alexandria against the Christian divines, as induced the successors of Constantine to abolish the schools both of Athens and Alexandria; they also issued orders for the removal and destruction of the Pagan Idols; and in the fourth and fifth centuries it is believed that the Olympian Jupiter at Elis by Phidias,

Phidias, and the Venus at Gnidos by Praxiteles, with others of the most distinguished works of Pagan sculpture, were destroyed, either by imperial orders or the ravages of barbarians. The Iconoclastes very nearly destroyed all the remains of the finest Greek sculpture in the East as well as in western Europe. This destructive fury against the arts and artists, continued with some interruptions for two hundred years; still, however, the Christian Greek compositions from the Old and New Testament, from the time of Constantine down to the thirteenth century, were followed as examples of character and composition by the revivers of art in western Europe, down to the times of Michael Angelo and Raphael.

At the sacking of Constantinople by the Venetians, Coniatus tells us "the fine statue of Juno in brass, which stood in the forum of Constantine, was chopped to pieces and thrown into the forge. The head of this statue was so large, that four yoke of oxen could scarcely drag it. On the base of it was cut, in basso-relievo, the figure of Paris presenting Venus with the apple of discord. The noble quadrilateral pillar, supported by several ranges of pillars, and which by its height overlooked the whole city, and was both the wonder and delight of the curious spectator, shared the same fate. This lofty column was adorned with rural representations of all kinds of birds, folds of cattle, and of sheep bleating, and lambs frisking and playing, &c. There was also engraved upon it a view of the sea and sea-gods, some of whom were catching fish with their hands, others ordering their nets, then diving to the bottom, while some in a wanton manner were throwing balls at one another. This pillar supported a pyramid on the top of it, on which was placed the statue of a woman, which turned about with the wind, and was therefore called Anemode. This excellent piece was also melted down for coinage, as was also an equestrian statue, fixed upon a quadrilateral pedestal in the Tauris. This was a bold figure, of an heroic countenance, and surprising stature. He was said by some to be one of the spies who were sent by Joshua, the son of Nun. With one hand he pointed eastward, with the other to the west." But this statue was generally reported to be Bellerophon sitting upon Pegasus; for the horse was without a bridle, as Pegasus is mostly figured, scouring the plain, despising a rider, flying and driving about in a headstrong manner. This horse and his rider were also melted down; the barbarous soldiers expressing their utmost fury against the finest statues and most curious pieces of workmanship in the Hippocum. Coniatus further says, "the great statue of the Hesperian Hercules, which was fixed upon a magnificent pedestal, and clothed in a lion's skin, which seemed to live and affright the spectators with his tremendous voice, felt the effects of military power. He was not armed with his quiver, his bow or his club; but stretching out his right leg and arm, he kneeled upon his left knee, and leaning upon his left elbow with his hand open, supported his head in a thoughtful manner, seeming to lament his misfortunes. This figure was broad-chested, the shoulders were large, the hair long, curled, and reaching to the waist; the arms were brawny, and as long as those made by Lysimachus, which was the original of this, and was the first and last masterpiece of his skill. In short, of such a stupendous size was this statue, that his wrist was as thick as a man's body, and his leg equal in height to any ordinary person. This noble statue did not escape the rage of these mighty pretenders to virtue and honour. Besides this they also carried away the image of the ass and his driver, which figures were set up originally by Augustus Cæsar at Actium, of whom the story reports, that when he went out privately in the night time, to take a view of Antony's camp, he met a man driving an ass, and asking him who he was and where he was going? The man answered, "my name is Nicon and my ass's name Nicander, and I am going to Cæsar's army." The statues of the hyæna, and of the wolf which suckled Romulus and Remus, underwent the same fate, and were coined into little brazen staters." The several statues also—of a man fighting with a lion; of the horse Neilous covered with scales behind; of an elephant with a moving proboscis; the statue of a wild horse, pricking up his ears, curvetting and prancing; and old Scylla, were served in the same manner. The last was figured like a woman to the waist, with a grim frightful look, just as she appeared when she sent her dogs to destroy Ulysses; "There was also placed in the Hippocum a brazen eagle, which was the invention of Apollonius Tyaneus. It was a pleasant sight enough, and deserved to be more narrowly inspected, for it made an agreeable harmony, and less dangerous than the Syrens. Its wings were stretched out as ready for flight, and it was trampling upon a serpent, which wreathed itself about the eagle. The serpent seemed to make the utmost effort to bite the eagle; the eagle looked brisk and lively, and seemed to have obtained the victory, and to be ready to bear him through the air in triumph. There was also a fine statue of Helen, whose charms laid Troy in ruins; her fine proportions, in breathing brass, captivated all beholders; her habit sat loose upon her person, which discovered too great an inclination to gallantry; her long and delicate hair seemed to wave in the wind; it was braided with gold and jewels; her robe was girt about her and falling down to the knee; her lips seemed like opening roses, you would fancy they moved; and such an agreeable smile brightened her countenance, as entertained the spectator's eye with pleasure. There was also placed upon a pillar a more modern statue of a woman. Her hair hung down behind, combed close down from the forehead backwards, not braided up but bending, as if to the hand of the spectator. Upon the right hand of this statue stood the equestrian statue of a man; the horse stood upon one leg, the other bore a cup with liquor. The rider was of a large size; his body completely armed; his legs and feet covered with greaves; his air was manly, rough and warlike. His horse was mettlesome and high couraged, pricking up his ears as if he heard the trumpet; his neck was high, his look fierce, as eager for the battle, rearing up his fore-feet and prancing as a war horse. Near this statue, hard by the eastern goal called Rusius, were a range of statues of charioteers, dexterous in driving the chariot and turning the goal. They were very busy in managing their bridles and smacking their whips, and directing their horses, with their eyes fixed steadily upon the goal. There seemed to be described in these figures all the tumult and fury of a chariot race, with the most vigorous struggle for victory.

Italian Sculpture.—In 1016, the Pisans founded their great church, called the Dome of Pisa. The commerce they had by sea, and particularly into Greece, was a favourable means for the re-establishment of architecture and sculpture. They brought from thence several columns and fragments of ancient architecture, of marble, which they made use of in this church.

They brought together also several Grecian sculptors into Italy, and Grecian painters, who worked after their own old methods, i. e. using in their painting only simple lines, which they coloured all over equally, without any shadowing, so that their works were not very artificial: notwithstanding these remainders of art taught the Italians the practice of painting in water colours, or fresco and mosaic.

But above all the artists of that time was Buschetto, a Grecian of Dulichium. The cathedral of Pisa was built under his direction; for besides the magnificence and fine plan exhibited in this church, he used with great dexterity those ancient pieces of Grecian architecture, to compound together with his; these were fragments brought from Greece.

This great building excited in all Italy, and particularly in Tuscany, those who had any genius for designing. At Ravenna, in the year 1152, Il Buono, a sculptor and architect, built a great many palaces and churches.

In the year 1063, the spoils which the Pisans brought from Sicily enabled them to add to the magnificence of their cathedral. The capitals and fragments of pillars they had brought from Greece and Sicily, were employed in the cathedral church and in the Bell Tower; in which latter building every

every capital almost is of fine ancient Greek workmanship. The sarcophagi, still preserved in the Campo Santa, formed the school in which Nicolo Pisano and his successor improved their sculpture. The consequences of these improvements are seen in the works of Nicolo Pisano, which are the pulpit of Sienna, the pulpit of the baptistery of Pisa, the bas-relief of St. Martin's at Lucca, the bas-relief in the cathedral at Orvietto, and in other parts of Italy, in which his constant attention to the ancient bas-reliefs is every where observable. At this time the crusades had diffused such a spirit of piety, that magnificent churches were built all over Italy, in the designing of which, as well as the decoration with sculpture, Nicolo Pisano and his scholars were universally employed.

On the basement in the west front of the cathedral of Orvietto, there is a series of basso-relievos, the work of Nicolo Pisano and his school, containing the most important subjects of the Old and New Testament, from the Creation to the Last Judgment, with separate figures of the prophets. The different subjects are contained in a running foliage, making the most rich and beautiful decoration to the four basements formed by the three doors in that part of the church. The figures are each about twenty-two inches high, very highly finished in statuary marble. There is in many of them a beautiful simplicity of sentiment, and in those of the Last Judgment, and the other bas-reliefs that immediately relate to it, there are various striking instances of passion and terror.

Many others followed, but they were rather employed in that sort of decorative sculpture that expends itself on bas-reliefs and the adorning of architecture, than in the portraiture of expressive statues. John Pisano deserves mention, however, as one who deviated from his predecessor's rigid imitation of antiquity, in giving a more waving line to his figures, and broader and less determined folds to his draperies, like the paintings and designs of Ghiotto. There is a general grace and delicacy in the character of his figures; of which the bronze statues of a madonna and angels in the cathedrals of Orvietto and Florence are examples: and there is so strong a resemblance between the styles of these statues and those of queen Eleanor at Northampton, Geddington and Waltham, on her crosses, as affords reason to believe they were produced by one of the ablest of John Pisano's scholars, if not from some statue or model by himself: nor is it here that the resemblance ceases; for this style is to be traced in most of the sculptures of Europe from this time to the reign of Henry VII.

Stephen Florentin, Taddeo Gaddi, and Peter Cavallini, in 1350 formed at Florence an academy of designing, which was the first that had been formed since the revival of the arts. This was afterwards encouraged and assisted by the princes of Medicis, which perfected at Florence the establishment of the arts of design; for there came out of that school a great number of painters, sculptors and architects, and also those great geniuses Lorenzo Ghiberti, Donatello, and Brunileschi.

Lorenzo Ghiberti was a sculptor in bronze, gold and silver. He made the two fine brazen gates in the baptistery of St. John, one of which represents the history of the Old Testament, which Michael Angelo said was worthy to be a gate of Paradise; the other gate is adorned with the principal acts of our Saviour's life. Besides the beauty of the historical subjects in the pannels, the architraves and friezes of those gates are of exquisite design, containing flowers, fruits, plants and animals, so perfect that they seem to have been cast from nature. He executed a figure of St. Matthew, in bronze, of a colossal size, in the church of San Michele, but this figure is inferior to his smaller works, from an attempt at excessive grace; the folds of drapery also are too minute and curvilinear.

Donatello very much excelled the sculptors who had gone before him, in his copious compositions, and the passion and life in his designs, and in the character of nature in his statues, which are to be seen in Florence; he was born in 1403, and lived to be above 80 years old. His statue of St. George is a youthful pedestrian figure, standing with his legs considerably apart, his two hands before him leaning on his shield. Michael Angelo admired the head of this figure so much, that he copied it in the monumental statue of Julian, duke of Namurs. Donatello composed and executed the greater part of those noble bas-reliefs from the life of our Saviour, in bronze, round the two pulpits of St. Lorenzo, in Florence; the sentiment, passion and composition of which, in parts, it seems impossible to excel. He executed different statues of St. John, and crucifixes in wood, the characters of which are rather vulgar, and consequently very inferior to his bas-reliefs. It was said of this artist, upon the Pythagorean idea of transmigration, that either Michael Angelo's soul energized in his body, or his in Michael Angelo's. There is a statue of a youth naked, about twelve or fourteen years old, in the ducal gallery of Florence, which is worthy to be ranked with the fine statues of antiquity.

The remains of Bruneleschi's sculpture are very few; there is an admirable crucifix carved in wood by him, in the church of St. Mary Novella at Florence.

About the year 1450 appeared Andrea Verrochio and Dominic Ghirlandaio. He was esteemed of the first rank of sculptors, and preferred to Donatello and to Ghiberti, in making St. Thomas feeling our Saviour's side, which he constructed of brass for the oratory of St. Michael. His last work was the famous figure on horseback of Bartholomeo Gogleone de Bergamo, which is at Venice, in the square of St. John and St. Paul.

Dominic Ghirlandaio was the master of Michael Angelo; but he worked more in painting than in sculpture.

But the progress of art was greatly accelerated by the progressive discovery of those miraculous productions of ancient Greek art, which had been buried so many ages, and were by degrees restored from the bowels of the earth. Poggius, the secretary to Eugenius IV., in the year 1430, particularly enumerated all the remains of ancient magnificence in Rome existing at that time, among which he reckons only five statues; two of them were the colossal statues by Phidias and Praxiteles, on Mount Cavallo; the third the equestrian statue of Marcus Aurelius, at that time before the church of St. John de Lateran; the two others, perhaps, were the figure called Marforio, which is a recumbent statue of the Ocean, now in the Capitol; the other a fragment of the group of Ajax supporting the body of Patroclus, called Pasquin. The Laocoon was found in the year 1506.

In the beginning of the 14th century, Michael Angelo appeared, and though devoted by his great talents in those branches to painting and architecture, formed a new æra in the history of sculpture. Of him, however, we shall in this place say nothing, as the proper remarks have already been anticipated in the article ANGELO.

John of Bologna was a sculptor of great merit, both in bronze and marble, who lived rather later than Michael Angelo: his groups are remarkable for the good composition and fine undulation of his lines, of which the Rape of the Sabines, in the market-place of Florence, is an instance. His statue of Mercury rising from the point of his toe into the air is also justly admired.

Benvenuto Cellini executed a fine colossal group, of Perseus holding the head of Medusa in his left hand, with the sword in his right, and standing on the body from which the head has been separated: the pedestal is most whimsically adorned with bas-relief and chimerical figures relating to the subject.

Bernini's best work of sculpture is the group of Apollo and Daphne: he designed and modelled innumerable figures for the colonnade of St. Peter's and the bridge of St. Angelo; he executed the monuments of Alexander VII. and Urban VIII. in St. Peter's; the colossal statue of St. Longinus; and four doctors, which support the chair of St. Peter.

This sculptor, whose works were so numerous, as he was first a painter, and formed in the Lombard school, endeavoured

voured to embody Coreggio's style of painting in sculpture, forgetting the impossibility of representing flying draperies and the extremities of hair in marble, which is so easily done on canvas; and which, when universally attempted, remains an equal testimony of the sculptor's want of judgment, and the impossibility of the attempt. Although there are fine ideas in the general conception of both the papal monuments above-mentioned, by this artist; yet his allegorical figures are affected in their attitudes, smirking and conceited in their countenances; their forms are flabby and incorrect, and their draperies confused: yet this style, depraved and flimsy as it was, in spite of the beauties of Nature, which continually appear before our eyes, and the Grecian examples of rigid perfection which adorn the city of Rome; notwithstanding these, it produced a train of followers, Rusconi, Algardi, Moco, &c. &c., who continued to be employed, till within these fifty years, in Italy.

At length Canova appeared. He was the only child of a stone-cutter, and was born in a mud-walled cottage in the little village of Possagno, among the Venetian hills, in the year 1757. His father died when he was three years old; his mother married again in a few months, and left her son to the charity of his paternal grandfather, Passino Canova. Antonio was weak in person, and feeble in constitution: this but endeared him the more to his grandmother Catterina Cecatto, who nursed him with the tenderest care, and sung him ballads of his native hills, infusing a love of poetry into his heart, of which he ever afterwards acknowledged the value. In his tenth year he began to cut stone, and it was his grandfather's wish that he should succeed him as hereditary mason of the village. The weakness of his body and his extreme youth were ill suited for a laborious trade. Old Passino, who was a man above the common mark, indulged him in modelling of flowers, and in drawing of animals, and such was his success that, in his twelfth year, he obtained the notice of the noble family of the Falieri, who had a palace in the neighbourhood; for, at a great feast given by the Falieri, Antonio modelled a lion in butter with such skill and effect, that it excited the astonishment of the guests—the artist was called in, and he came blushing to receive the caresses of the company and the first applauses of that kind and opulent family. Its head had the sense to see Canova's genius, and the generosity to encourage him. He carried Antonio to Venice in his fifteenth year, introduced him to the Academy of Arts, and opened his own palace doors to him, both as a residence and a study. The youth's diligence was unwearied—he studied early and late—he drew, he painted, he modelled and he carved. His ambition expanded with his years, his skill kept pace with his ambition, and he was distinguished among the artists of Venice, by a laborious diligence of hand, a restless activity of fancy, and an enthusiastic longing for fame. When he imagined that he could conceive with truth, and execute with facility, he modelled the group of Orpheus and Eurydice as large as life, and carved it in soft Venetian stone. It obtained such applause, that the artist exclaimed, "This praise has made me a sculptor." A statue of Esculapius was his next work; he carved it in marble, and it is still to be seen in a villa near Venice. It is chiefly remarkable for the circumstance of having received a visit from the artist, a few months before his death—when the just conception of the figure, and the skill with which it was executed, seemed to fill him with surprize and sorrow. He looked at it for some time, and said, "For these forty years my progress has not corresponded with the indications of excellence in this work of my youth."

The people of Venice felt the beauty of Canova's works, and stimulated his genius and rewarded his merit with a small pension. "Soon after his twenty-third birth-day," he left Venice and went to Rome. Here he found a kind and active friend in Gavin Hamilton the painter, and as the sculptors of the capital had conceived no dread of his talents, they welcomed him warmly. He was soon admitted to the society of the learned and the noble, for Zuliana, the Venetian ambassador, introduced his young countryman to the judges and patrons of art—and gave him an order for a group of Theseus and the Minotaur in marble. This enabled him to display his talents, and work without fear of wanting bread. The commission was however kept a secret; the sculptor laboured incessantly, and in the summer of 1782 at a banquet given on purpose by Zuliana, the marble group was shown by torch-light to the first men in Rome. They stood for some time looking at the hero as he rested himself on the body of the monster which he had slain, and then with one voice pronounced it to be "one of the most perfect works which Rome had beheld for ages." From this fortunate hour to the end of his life, he produced a rapid succession of statues and groups, which carried his fame far and wide over the world—noblemen from all countries and more particularly from Britain, purchased his works at any price; and the Pope, whilst he conferred a coronet and a pension on his friend, refused to allow some of his favourite works to go beyond the walls of Rome. His most zealous and also his most judicious patrons were Napoleon and the present King of England. Nor should the late amiable and excellent Lord Cawdor be forgotten, who discovered the merit of the sculptor long before his wide spread fame inspired the "great vulgar," with the desire to be numbered among his patrons. Canova died in the fullness of fame at Venice, in the sixty-fifth year of his age.

"Canova imagined that he had realized the boast of Lysippus, by commencing art where art itself began—in the study of nature. But nature was not used so wisely by the Venetian as by the Greek. He looked on it with an eye less simple and poetic, and brooded over it with a mind less vigorous and manly. An opera-stage taint infects all his earlier works; his most careful studies are full of extravagance; his figures are forced into painful action, and his dancing ladies labour hard to press all their beauties upon the curiosity of mankind. He gradually learned to feel the superiority of simplicity over affectation; and advanced from violent motion towards tranquil grace, from the sentiment of action towards that of repose. But he never wholly freed his conceptions from the opera malady; the rudiments of his youthful productions are still visible in the soberest efforts of his ripest years; that unhappy spirit would not be conjured away when solemn thought was most wanted. Even in the statue of the Kneeling Magdalen there is enough of affectation to poison the charms of the most exquisite workmanship and the loveliest shape."

"In the progress of Canova's taste, however, the student in sculpture may read a salutary lesson. He will see that nature must be looked upon with modest eyes; that her charms, as she sometimes chuses to display them, are not always suitable for his art; and that genius alone may hope to seize the grace of that composure which gives vigour to sentiment in proportion as it chastens action. He will see too how an artist may gradually emancipate himself from affectation and return to sobriety of conception, simplicity and strength. But whilst he observes all this and lays up the lesson in his heart, he will likewise feel that there is hardly any entire escape to be made from early and long cherished impurity of style; that it still follows thought where thought should be most severe, and glides uninvited into the brightest dreams of the imagination. So was it with Canova. No man ever missed the true feeling of sculpture so far, and returned towards it with such signal success. It is indeed no easy thing to sober down the darling style of our youth, to dismiss notions of excellence endeared by time, to give up some neat conceit, some sparkling absurdity long cherished and hallowed. The revolution which Canova accomplished was the labour of many years. In his youth, violence was vigour, affectation was grace, and the spirit of the startling and the staring was the novelty which he desired to infuse into sculpture. To work in this way was only to record in marble the fruitless throes of Nature, her artificial gestures and actions without soul. Look at his early Dancers, his Market of Love, his designs

designs for Homer: no damsels of the ballet ever leaped so high, or exposed their charms so lavishly, or cut such painful capers as the first; no melo-dramatic heroines ever ran so madly after the little god, showed such ridiculous affection, and such absurd sorrow as the second; and for the third, take up Homer himself, or Flaxman, and then say how poor were Canova's notions compared to the poet's verse and the Englishman's sketches." From such productions we turn at once to his latter works; his Pauline, his Mother of Buonaparte, his Endymion, his Recumbent Magdalen—and there can be no need to say another word concerning the affectation of his early, and the comparative simplicity of his concluding works.

Another source of Canova's partial failure has been attributed to too great a desire to rival the antique. He aspired to restore the perished wonders of antiquity to their pedestals. The names of most of his productions will show the bent and aim of his mind;—Apollo crowning himself; Theseus and the Minotaur; Statue of Cupid; Venus crowning Adonis, with Cupid bringing Flowers; a Statue of Psyche; Briseis delivered to the Heralds; Socrates drinking the Poison; Return of Telemachus; Death of Priam; Procession of Trojan Matrons; Dance of the Daughters of Alcinous; Socrates pleading before the Judges; Crito closing the eyes of Socrates; Cupid and Psyche recumbent; Adonis and Venus; Hebe pouring out Nectar; a winged Cupid; Venus dancing with the Graces; Death of Adonis; Birth of Bacchus; Socrates saving Alcibiades in battle; Cupid and Psyche standing; Perseus with Medusa's Head; Creugas and Damoxenus, boxers; Hercules destroying his children; Hercules and Lychas; Venus victorious; Venus coming out of the bath; Theseus combating the Centaur; a Dancing Nymph; Statue of Paris; Statue of Hector; Statue of the Muse Terpsichore; the Cymbal Nymph; the Garland Nymph; Statue of Ajax; the Muse Polyhymnia; group of the Graces; Recumbent Nymph listening to the Lyre of Cupid; Venus and Mars; Statue of Venus; Statue of Endymion; and many more of the same ancient families of heroes and gods.

"Upon such materials historical accuracy compelled him to work, as much as his natural genius permitted him, in the antique spirit and character; and that he imagined he was working in that manner we have his own boast and the reproaches of his brother artists to assure us. When he was thinking of what Lysippus or Phidias had done, he was not consulting the emotions of his own bosom; when he was seeking to revive anew the demigods of Greece, he was casting away sense for the sake of shape: could he feel as a Greek felt? What was Hecuba to him? The intense nationality of feeling, the genuine ardour with which of old poets wrote, orators spoke, and artists modelled, was all past and gone; it could neither be inherited nor revived, and the Grecian renovations of Canova are the weakest of all his productions."

It will however be observed by those who examine carefully the works of Canova that he has attempted something of an union between Italian nature, his own feelings and the Grecian antique. He did strive to engraft a tree of a sweeter fruit on the old heathen stock; and for such an undertaking he had certainly many qualifications. In some few instances, as in his Perseus with the Medusa's Head, his Mars and Venus, his Hebe, his Endymion, he more than approaches the majesty of ancient sculpture.

His historical works of a civil and religious kind are not his happiest, though the rule has its exceptions. Some of the devotional labours of the artist are of very peculiar beauty; as the Recumbent Magdalen, in the possession of Lord Liverpool, already reverted to. The John the Baptist is simple and innocent—though the young prophet wants that divine wildness with which the early painters of Italy invested him.

But beautiful as these exceptions are, the true and lasting fame of Canova must flow from another source. One class of his works faintly reflects the antique, another personifies religious feeling; but the third and best class embodies Italian life and Italian beauty, and rises into originality of thought and form worthy of the fame of the sculptor. His Napoleon, his Pauline and his Madame Buonaparte, all show with what skill he could idealize on the human form—avoid a gross and literal copy—extract from it the proportion and beauty which the poetry of sculpture requires, yet still keep nature for his guide, and never for a moment, from his love of the visionary, lose sight of the family character of form and face—that distinguishing stamp of intellect which nature gave so liberally. The majesty of Napoleon, the matron-like gravity of his mother, and the voluptuous beauty of his favourite sister are only three natural personations: and while we admire the skill and grace of the sculptor's work, we feel assured that we stand in the presence of forms which have lived and breathed.

The French nation, from its vicinity and intercourse with Italy, as well as from the friendship which the early kings of France cultivated with the emperors of Constantinople, always preserved a taste for fine art in that country, and supplied the means of its improvement, both in painting and sculpture. The large collections of fine Greek manuscripts, with their numerous beautiful illuminations, were imitated by the French painters, and the nearness of the countries to each other, enabled the French artists to study sculpture and architecture in Italy, as well as the kings of that country to supply their great public works with architects and sculptors from Italy also. The natives who only distinguished themselves were Pilon, Cousin, and John Goujon, whose bas-reliefs on the fountain of the Innocents deserve admiration and praise. In them is an union of the elegance of Raphael's school, with the Grecian purity and delicacy. The genius and abilities of the people, added to national munificence, have kept up a respectable but tame school of sculpture in France till the present time.

The native powers of the *Germans*, which have contributed so largely to modern improvement in arts and letters, have made rude attempts in the art of sculpture. Our present limits and object will not allow us to produce many examples; therefore we shall instance one which would be honourable to any nation, in any period. The monument of the emperor Maximilian, father of Charles V., stands in the church of St. Anthony at Inspruck: it is in bronze, and was made by Alexander Collins of Mechlin, the sculptor. The idea of this monument is as extraordinary as the effect is pathetic. Maximilian lies in his imperial robes upon his tomb, elevated about five feet from the ground. There are, at the distance of two feet from the tomb, marble steps about two feet high. On one step stand eight colossal statues of his illustrious relations; and on the opposite step as many more facing them. They represent distinguished royal persons from the time of Godfrey of Boulogne, of whom he was one. The spectator is awed by this silent and imposing assembly, who stand in striking attitudes and solemn grief by their relation. The actions are bold and forcible; and the armour is rich and elegant in the highest degree.

There are several other fine statues in bronze, of inrferior dimensions, representing German princes, in the same church. There is also a most noble monument by this artist in bronze, representing St. George, with one foot on the dragon, which he has just slain.

Though it is true that *English Sculpture* is of very recent growth, in former times our progress was not entirely despicable. The Normans introduced to us the religious style of sculpture which they had observed, during the Crusades, in the churches of the East. In the days of the third Henry, the desire to excel seemed universal, and many works of true genius adorned our cathedrals. The Creation, the Deluge, the Nativity, the Crucifixion and the Resurrection, were designed with a feeling at once scriptural and imaginative; and statues of apostles and saints, sufferings of martyrs, miracles, abbesses, processions of priests and pilgrims, and rites and ceremonies of the church covered

covered the walls, filled the niches and recesses, and even mingled with the foliages of the cornices and bands. On one place, the glory of heaven was represented, with saints, souls of just men made perfect, and ministering angels: on another, the horrors of hell—the pangs of damnation, and the writhing of evil spirits. The Day of Judgment was likewise sculptured, and the genius of latter times has added little to the severe and impressive power of the delineation. The Saviour descends with looks of meekness and mercy among his adoring apostles, and beneath him are seen the nations of the earth arising to judgment. Some start up unwillingly and with gestures of horror, while others emerge from the grave with the looks of awe and hope. Over the works of those days were scattered much good sense, right feeling and simple grace, which redeemed the imperfect workmanship. And, what is still more remarkable, arts and literature had not then revived in Italy. Down to the time of the final contest of the people with the church of Rome, a love of sculpture prevailed; domestic monuments crowded our cathedrals; and, in the chapel of Henry the Seventh alone, several thousands of figures were carved by native artists, with good taste and more than common skill.

But from the time of the Reformation, when painting and sculpture were exiled from the churches, the native genius of the country was left entirely without employment; and wherever painting was required for the decoration of palaces, or sepulchral sculpture for the churches, foreign artists were employed, and, with little exception, supplied the country with a degeneracy of French, Italian, or Flemish art. The best of the foreign sculptors who have been employed since that time, were Cibber, Roubiliac and Scheemaker. Cibber executed the statues of Raving and Melancholy Madness on Bedlam gates; the bas-relief on the pedestal of the Monument; the greater part of the kings in the Royal Exchange, and a multitude of other statues for different buildings in various parts of the kingdom. "The first of these stands foremost in conception and second in execution among all the productions of English sculpture. Those who see them for the first time, are fixed to the spot with sorrow and awe; an impression is made on the heart never to be removed—nor is the impression of a vulgar kind. The poetry of those terrible infirmities is presented;—from the degradation of the actual madhouse we turn overpowered and disgusted; but from these statues of Cibber, we retire with mingled awe and admiration."

Rysbrach succeeded Cibber, and Scheemaker came and divided with him the public patronage. Though feeble, literal and languid, they maintained something of the elevation of style which Cibber introduced; they produced several recumbent figures which seem nature transcribed rather than nature exalted by art,—yet they are nature still, and welcome from *that* novelty.

Roubiliac's name still stands deservedly high. His ideas are frequently just and natural, and his execution is always careful and delicate. He spared no labour; he was not afraid of strong relief, of deep and difficult folds and sinkings, and of attitudes which ate up marble and consumed time. But he sacrificed nature and simplicity for the sake of effect; his works are all too lively and too active. He has little sedate beauty, little tranquil thought. His monument of Mrs. Nightingale, is his most famous work; and a work of beauty and pathos—a dying wife and an agonized husband. But he spoiled it by introducing Death projecting his allegorical dart against the woman, while the man seeks to stay it with a hand of flesh and blood. His favourite notion was to express lofty thought and heroic feeling, by a crowd of figures and much stir and action: but those high qualities reside neither in multitudes nor in startling attitudes. The statue of Sir Isaac Newton is a splendid exception to this censure: serene thought inspires the whole figure. The library of Trinity College, Cambridge, contains, moreover, six busts from his chissel, which Chantrey has admired and studied.

Bacon infused more English sense into sculpture, than any of his predecessors. He added a little dignity and a little manliness to the allegorical school of design. Amidst his personifications of cities and countries, and virtues and qualities, and his crowds of chubby boys, there frequently appeared something of a better nature; his happier judgment seemed often on the point of vanquishing allegory, but the dark abstraction always prevailed. Forms which came without the pain of study or the labour of meditation, were made too welcome; he was ambitious of finding a new labour for Hercules, and a Christian employment for Minerva. His draperies are too fluttering and voluminous. His monuments are crowded with figures, and overloaded with auxiliary symbols. But his statue of Samuel Johnson is an excellent work—stern, severe, full of surly thought, and conscious power: and his Howard has the look of the philanthropist. These statues stand at the entrance to the choir of St. Paul's.

Bankes dismissed all the idle pageantry with which Bacon had overlaid his monuments, and sought to make a few figures express an intelligible story. His allegories are obvious, or at least not easy to be mistaken. Victory crowns Captain Westcott with laurel—and Victory gives Captain Burgess her sword. But historical truth and national delicacy are alike wounded. He thought that dress concealed sentiment, and that this hero had only to be naked to be heroic. He was ever aspiring after simplicity and loftiness——had a profound contempt for all that was modern, and thought that the charm of the antique arose from its nudity.

The bust sculpture of Nollekens is deservedly esteemed. This popular branch of the art, when confined to legislators, warriors, orators and poets, becomes the handmaid of history; but the calls of vanity bring a thousand heads to the sculptor's chisel, which have no other claim to distinction than what money purchases, while a man of genius contents himself with the fame of his productions, and is either too poor or too careless to confer a marble image of his person on posterity. Nollekens, like Bankes, had the ambition to introduce a purer and more tasteful style of art, but the works on which he expended his invention and employed his skill, promise to make but an ungrateful return. His busts will alone preserve his name. In his well known Venus, he strove hard with the antique—in his statue of Pitt he aspired to give an historical image of English mind, and in his monuments to the three Captains, Manners, Bayne and Blair, he sought to outdo the works of Roubiliac and Bacon. He has not succeeded in any of these attempts. His Venus wants the great charm of original thought and natural propriety of action. A handsome limb and a fine body will not carry a sculptor through without higher qualities. The goddess is dropping incense on her hair from a bottle, and looking aside. We see that such an action requires attention, and the absence of it has spoiled the statue. Pitt is too theatrical—he is standing and looking with all his might—the action passes the bounds of self-possession and clear-headed thought. But by the judicious use of the university gown (the statue belongs to Cambridge), the more incurable parts of modern dress are concealed, and Nollekens has fairly earned the rare praise of having used modern costume like a man of taste. When Nollekens ceased to make busts he ceased to interest us—he is feeble and unimaginative—but place the head of a man of sense before him, and all that nature had given, and no more, he could transfer to his marble.

In Flaxman's mind, the wish to work in the classic style of Greece, and the love to work in the original spirit of England, have held a long and an equal war; sometimes forming natural and beautiful unions, and often keeping purely and elegantly asunder. To the aid of his art, he brought a loftier and more poetical mind than any of our preceding sculptors, and learning unites with natural genius in all the works which come from his hand. He has penetrated, with a far deeper sense of the majesty of Homer, into the Iliad and Odyssey, than Canova, who dedicated his whole life to the renovation of the antique, nor has he failed

to

to catch the peculiar inspiration of whatever poet his fancy selected for illustration. We do not mean to say that he has entered into all the minute graces, but that he has never failed to reflect a true general image of his original. His conceptions are all inspired by strong sense and by the severer part of poetic feeling, but his workmanship is often slovenly and his draperies heavy, and he seems to despise the subordinate graces of careful execution.

Westmacott has shared largely in public and in private favour, and some of the most expensive of our monuments have been confided to his talents. He has in so far profited by the wise example of West and the good sense of Flaxman, obeyed the admonition of our cold climate, and respected the blushes of our ladies—and clothed some of his works in the costume of the country. He has tried the allegorical, the natural and the poetical, and to which of them he is most devoted it is impossible to guess. His nature is rather heavy, his allegories somewhat startling, and his poetry deficient in elegance and simplicity. But in his Hindoo Girl, there is a fine wildness; the stamp of a remote land is upon her: and in his Widowed Mother and Child, he has attained the pathos of truth.

The statues of this artist merit some attention; they are numerous, and they are all historically correct with regard to portraiture; but their costume is of a mixed nature, sometimes of a Roman, sometimes of an English character, yet neither the one nor the other in perfection. The antique part wants graceful simplicity, the modern is inclined to be coarse; he is unable to vanquish the obstinate flaps, lappels and kneebands of English dress. The great disgrace of Westmacott is the renovation of the statue of Achilles, in honour of Wellington and Waterloo. It has been very properly asked, why he did not place the Duke there instead of this naked unknown?

Most truly has it been said, England may justly be proud of Chantrey; his works reflect back her image as a mirror; he has formed his taste on no style but that of nature, and no works of any age or country, but his own, can claim back any inspiration which they have lent him. He calls up no shapes from antiquity: he gives us no established visions of the past; the moment he breathes in, is his; the beauty and the manliness which live and move around him, are his materials. An air of freedom and ease—of vigour which comes not from the muscle but from the mind—of sentiment making action her auxiliary, and a look of life and reality are stamped on all his statues, busts and groups. He courts repose—he seems not averse to gentle action, but has never yet sought in violent motion for elements either of sadness or solemnity.

His works are all of a domestic or historical kind. His statues are numerous: James Watt is still living as far as sculpture can prolong life; his perfect image meditating on the extraordinary power which man wields so easily and profitably, is preserved to the world. Of his erect figures, Washington is accounted the best; the hero of American independence seems the very personification of one wrapt up in thought—a man of few words, of prompt deeds, with a mind and fortitude for all emergencies. Grattan is a being of another class—earnest, voluble, in motion more than any other of the artist's works, and yet with something both of dignity and of serenity. Horner is anxious, apprehensive, and mildly grave; you look, expecting him to speak.

In all these works we admire a subordinate beauty, a decorous and prudent use of modern dress, whilst it is retained for the sake of truth. All its characteristic vulgarities are softened down or concealed.

Chantrey is a very prolific genius. Of his statues and groups there are scores; but of his busts, hundreds. We may name, as the best of the latter, Horne Tooke, Rennie, Watt, Wordsworth, Scott and Playfair. Of all these, perhaps that of Sir Walter Scott is the best.

Bailey studied under Flaxman. His conceptions are, in general, just; and his workmanship far surpasses that of his master, and, indeed, is as finished as is requisite. His lovely Eve has caused a more universal burst of admiration, than the people of England ever before conferred on a statue: and Poetry inspiring Painting, is a group of considerable effect. *Quarterly Review*, No. LXVII.

The natural and laudable desire for excellence which so eminently distinguishes this country, has from time to time caused many regrets as to the low state of our sculptural art, compared with that of antiquity. We have been compelled to acknowledge the mortifying truth, that the finest statues in this country are in all the higher attributes of the art immeasureably inferior to those of Greece; and though this disgrace reflects on the rest of the world even more than ourselves, it is not the less felt by a nation which, in the other products of the imagination, stands so perfectly unrivalled. Without entering very deeply into a discussion which our limits will by no means allow us to do justice to, we shall take leave to introduce some reflexions on the causes of the high accomplishments of the ancient sculptors; from thence we shall endeavour to deduce the general principles that regulate the advance of the art; and lastly, with much doubt and hesitation, propose a few suggestions as to the direction of the artist's efforts in future.

For all that is ideal, for all that belongs to the sublime and the spiritual in Grecian sculpture, we must look to religion. It was this feeling that endued the Venus and the Apollo with a beauty confessedly more than natural, and which in the Olympian Jove, stamped with an appropriate dignity the ruler of the heavens. But that this feeling, potent as its influence might be, was not alone sufficient to the end in view, is proved by the feebleness of its operation with the Egyptians. Of this nation, the only sculptures were gods or deified kings, and yet how destitute of a divine nature are the huge deformities they have engendered. The Greeks owed their superiority to a truer imitation of nature, and this was derived from the studies their peculiar customs so abundantly afforded, but of which we have no modern examples. Their dresses were loose and majestic on the one hand, or were partial defences that left the fairest parts of the person exposed to view. Games and other public exhibitions of strength and agility were so frequent, that the proportions of the human form, and its minutest changes, its every action, were familiar to the eyes of all. With these models constantly before him, the sculptor imbibed the elements of his art, imperceptibly from his youth upwards. Nor were these materials for imitation merely presented to him as the common objects of nature, which a few admire, but many pass over unobserving: the noblest and the bravest disdained not these exhibitions; they were celebrated by the first poets, and regulated by the profoundest lawgivers. The youthful spectator had, therefore, not only the best proportions placed before him, but the movements they performed were exalted in his imagination, as the first of mortal achievements, as exercises that even the gods had not disdained to practice. Hence then it happened, that the knowledge of the body's expression was as familiar to the Greeks as the knowledge of the expression of the face is to us: with the advantage on their side, that the imitation of the former was with them the highest glory; whilst with us portrait-sculpture is absurdly considered as second rate.

If we enter somewhat deeper into this question, we shall still easily account for Grecian superiority on the universally prevalent grounds of profit and fame. Sculpture was better paid, and more highly esteemed in Greece than it can be in England, as was architecture and poetry. All these were popular amusements, and there were no others. The Greeks were not a reading people, nor an experimental people. They received their religion, politics and amusements from the language of imagination, transmitted to them solely by oral communications. Is it possible to conceive such a state of things in a civilized and partially idle and luxurious people, without the developement of a universal passion, a popular furor, in favour of fine speaking and acting; or that in such a state, a fine voice, animated countenance, and graceful

graceful action, should not be objects of the most general and critical attention? And is it not a necessary consequence, that those who learnt nothing but as connected with the human form, or emanating from the living mouth, should excel in the knowledge, admiration and imitation of that form?

Somewhat of the greatness of the ancient sculpture has been attributed to the cultivation of geometry. It must be confessed, that a plan which reduces so much of the general mass of sculpture to rule, must shorten labour, and is therefore indirectly conducive to the production of superb works. But geometry never could have taught what was beautiful or graceful. The figure must have existed in the mind, and the statue must have been carved in the marble or bronze, before the admeasurements of geometry could have been applied. Geometry facilitates our power of copying, but it cannot help our invention; yet it is this invention that the Greeks possessed, and that the moderns are deficient in.

Some again have spoken of the knowledge of anatomy that the old sculptors possessed. But the fact is, the Greeks of the time of Phidias knew nothing of anatomy worth the name, and never knew sufficient to influence their painting or sculpture, or even their medicine at any period. To know by what mechanism the different risings and depressions of the body are caused, must facilitate both the observation and recollection of them; but the Greeks learnt the facts from the perpetual contemplation of them, and did very well without anatomy.

If enthusiasm, fanned by profits and applause, the opportunity of considering the finest models, and the general cultivation of the imaginative faculties, be the true sources of excellence in sculpture, we shall see then a reason for Grecian celebrity and for modern inferiority.

A modern sculptor derives his education from three sources. The study of the antique, living forms, and anatomy. For the first he travels to Rome, whence he returns prejudiced in the belief that the old statues are not only the perfection of a particular beauty, which is indubitable, but that they are the standard of all beauty, which is absurd. If he takes to gross imitation of his idols, his highest glory will be to perform that which a caster will do as well. If, on the contrary, he dares to contend with the old masters, to invent new groups, or to throw the Grecian form into new arrangements, he contends with what cannot be surpassed; and what, from a want of the same knowledge of nature, he cannot hope to equal. The student, however, who studies antiquity after he has fully imbibed the love of nature, and the power to copy her, may, in Italy, learn much to exalt his conceptions, and refine his taste. But her works should be studied as an orator studies Demosthenes or Cicero. He copies not their thoughts, nor their words, nor even servilely their arrangements; but views them as helps to that knowledge of the principles of persuasion, which is the general end of rhetoric. He would learn by what artifices men have been governed; not as a mere imitator, to apply those artifices to all times and societies, but to enlarge his views and extend his knowledge of the human heart. And thus the contemplation of ancient statuary introduces the imagination to a new field of beauty, and prevents that exclusive admiration of a few sources of taste, which, when confined to a narrow range of objects, we are apt to fall into. But this is Alpha and Omega of its utility.

The studying and copying of living figures is the best employment of the sculptor. But our artists enjoy little opportunity for studying the naked figure. It is true that persons who will exhibit their persons to the artist are numerous, but by no means so numerous as are requisite. And though from such sources the composition of the general form may be learnt, they afford little assistance in the study of attitudes; for these, when vigorous and natural, last but a moment, and must therefore be repeated frequently before the artist ere he can fix them on his mind. Both in our sculpture and painting the feebleness of the action of the figures is extreme. Even the pictures of West, and the sculptures of Flaxman, afford examples of this fault. But we know not how it can be otherwise. Can an unimaginate fellow, stark naked, and therefore in an unwonted state, on a pedestal before a number of students, compare, however well made, with the flushed victor of the Hippodrome. How can he display any thing but the simplest and most quiescent postures—how can he represent action? Can a man place himself in the attitude of a racer unless he runs; or of one striking furiously with the sword unless he does so strike? And as to the postures of pulling, pushing, throwing, &c., though they may be assumed, if they are prolonged until the artist can make even the rudest sketch, their whole spirit and truth are lost. Before, therefore, the modern sculptor can attempt to rival the ancient Greek, in carving the naked figure in action, he must see it in action, and this so frequently that its parts may be vividly and permanently impressed on his mind. But since for this study, little opportunity can be procured, let us consider how that little may be made the most of; and since we cannot behold the objects we would imitate so perpetually as the Greeks, let us consider if we have not readier means than they possessed both of impressing on the mind, and recollecting the appearances to be represented. We have assuredly in anatomy a science which connects the many separate details that must be observed by the sculptor or painter into fewer and more general principles, and which is therefore an assistance of the most powerful kind. But anatomy, as it is at present taught to artists, fulfils its indications in a very limited degree. This science to be useful, should be taught with reference to the end proposed in its study. The end proposed by the sculptor is a knowledge of the *external* divisions of the body, which he is to acquire by learning the corresponding internal divisions. But anatomy is taught to him by surgeons!—men whose attention is exclusively directed to internal divisions, and who care nothing for the external relations. For the end of surgery being to find arteries and other small parts which are carefully secluded from external view, his anatomy is full of details and directed to the deepest parts. But the sculptor requires to know the actions of the larger masses in a general view, and their subdivision secondarily and in detail; but neither except as they influence the external conformation and the superficies. Now to say nothing of the fact that the very profession of surgery cramps the imagination and incapacitates a man from entering warmly into the objects of sculpture, or painting—can any thing be more absurd that to impose on those who learn anatomy for the sake of analysis the task of teaching those who study it for the sake of synthesis? At all events the qualifications that make an eminent practical surgeon are the reverse of those which would make an agreeable expositor of the principles and causes of external form; since for the latter are requred a general knowledge of sculpture itself and a course of arrangement quite at variance with that of the dissecting room.

Constant and laborious study, whether of living figures or of anatomy, is only essential to the production of naked statues. A very small portion of anatomical knowledge is necessary to draw the clothed figures, and with examples of these we are of course so abundantly furnished in society, that we have only to look around to learn. The ungracefulness of modern dress, has, however, rendered most sculptors averse to its introduction; and, accordingly, the nudity of barbarism prevails. Yet this departure from truth cannot be justified by any excuse. Such slight liberties may be taken with modern costume, as will hide much of its deformity. The more marked projections of collar and lappet may be softened down, buttons made flat, and the like. At all events the face is remaining; and it is hard that sculptors will not see that here is the place for their exertions and for their triumph. In this point the superiority of the moderns is complete. What Greek has carved a bust comparable to one of Chantrey's. There is not a moment's comparison to be made with the faces of the old statues and those of our own times. Yet, surely, the sculpture of the human face divine is the summit of the art. No person of taste can deny that the expression of a feature is at once more definite and more delicate than the general action of the limbs;

limbs; nor will refuse to acknowledge that there is more of beauty, sublimity and variety in the face than in all the rest of the body. Yet the same poor taste that prefers as the higher order of art a group of naked graces, or some savage butchery, as of Priam or Duncan, to the portrait of a Canning, painted by a Lawrence, or that of a Hunter, by a Reynolds, presumes to talk of busts or figures sculptured from the life as the second branch of sculpture. It is this vain admiration for the hyperbolical that has filled our cathedrals with Britannias, Victories, Valours and the like, to the ruin of the artist's lime and marble, and the people's taste. It would be well, indeed, if these gauges of English invention were removed, and their places were supplied with faithful resemblances of the heroes they commemorate. And what could be more agreeable, or more useful than to behold the face, the head, perhaps the figure of the man which bled for us in war, or thought for us in peace? Nor would such an assemblage be without beauty; not indeed the beauty of Grecian regularity, the long nose and its continuous forehead, but a beauty that passeth this; that which speaks to the intellect and satisfies the imagination. For our parts, we should prefer one bust of Shakspeare or Newton from such hands as now urge the chisel to the Farnese Hercules, the Apollo, or the Medicean Venus.

The time may come when the costume of mankind, already less absurd than a century back, shall revert to its natural and pristine simplicity: then sculpture may trace the influence of the mind on the general form. At present this must be left in part to the imagination, and the sculptor must confine himself to that infinite volume, the language of the countenance. It may happen that circumstances may compel him to prostitute his art to the perpetuation of the countenances of the foolish or vain; but even this will not quite be useless, and he may be consoled in the many he will find who deserve his toils, and whose names will add another source of immortality to his works. An ephemeral taste may prize the supernatural style; but he may be assured, that the time will never come, when our posterity shall look with indifference on the countenances of the men of this age—shall prefer the uninspired copies of Grecian sculpture, to the truth and beauty of nature itself.

To SCU'LPTURE, *v. a.* To cut; to engrave.

Gold, silver, ivory vases *sculptur'd* high,
There are who have not. *Pope.*

SCULTETUS, or SCHULTZ (John), a distinguished surgeon, was born in the year 1595 at Ulm, where his father was a waterman; yet he was enabled to afford his son a good education, and sent him to Padua, where he studied medicine under Spigelius, and took the degree of doctor in philosophy, surgery and physic, in the year 1621. He appears to have practised surgery extensively, and to have been very bold in his operations, especially in those of bronchotomy, of the trephine, and for empyema. His principal work is entitled "Armamentarium Chirurgicum, 43 Tabulis ære incisis Ornatum;" and was published after his death at Ulm, in 1653.

SCULTHORPE, a parish of England, in Norfolk; 2 miles north-west of Fakenham.

SCUM, *s.* [*escume*, French; *schiuma*, Italian; *skum*, Danish; *schuym*, Dutch. Dr. Johnson.] That which rises to the top of any liquor.

The rest had several offices assigned;
Some to remove the *scum* as it did rise;
Others to bear the same away did mind;
And others it to use according to his kind. *Spenser.*

The dross; the refuse; the recrement; that part which is to be thrown away.—There flocked unto him all the *scum* of the Irish out of all places, that ere long he had a mighty army. *Spenser.*

To SCUM, *v. a.* To clear off the the scum: commonly written and spoken *skim.*

A second multitude
Severed each kind, and *scumm'd* the bullion dross. *Milton.*

SCUMA, a word used by some of the chymists for *squama*, the scales of any metal.

SCU'MBER, *s.* The dung of a fox. *Ainsworth. Obsolete.*

SCU'MMER, *s.* [*escumoir*, Fr.] A vessel with which liquor is scummed, commonly called a *skimmer.*—The salt, after its crystallizing, falls down to the bottom, and they take it out by wooden *scummers*, and put it in frails. *Ray.*

SCUNTHORPE, a village of England, in Lincolnshire, near Glandford Bridge.

SCU'PPER HOLES, *s.* [*schoepen*, Dutch, to draw off.] In a ship, small holes on the deck, through which water is carried into the sea. The leathers over those holes are called *scupper* leathers, and the nails with which they are fastened *scupper* nails. *Bailey.*—The blood at *scupper holes* run out. *Ward.*—Simply, *scuppers.*—Her *scuppers* may be left unset, whereby the water runs down her timbers years together. *Maydman.*

SCUR, *s.* a precipice faced with rock. *Provincial.*

SCURF, *s.* [ȝcuɼɼ, Saxon; *skurf*, Dan. *schorft*, Teut. *skorf*, Su. Goth. from *skorpa*, crusta, according to Serenius.] A kind of dry military scab.

Her crafty head was altogether bald,
And, as in hate of honourable eld,
Was overgrown with *scurf* and filthy scald. *Spenser.*

A soil or stain adherent.

Then are they happy, when by length of time
The *scurf* is worn away of each committed crime,
No speck is left. *Dryden.*

Any thing sticking on the surface.

There stood a hill, whose grisly top
Shone with a glossy *scurf.* *Milton.*

SCURFF, in Ichthyology, an English name for a species of salmon, called also in some places the *bull-trout.* See SALMO.

SCU'RFINESS, *s.* The state of being scurfy.

In wretched beggary,
And maungy misery,
In lousy lothsumnesse,
And scabbed *scorffynesse.* *Skelton.*

SCU'RFY, *adj.* Having scurf or scabs. *Johnson.*

SCURRA, a name by which the ancients have called the common jackdaw. See CORVUS.

SCU'RRILE, *adj.* [*scurrilis*, Latin.] Low; mean; grossly opprobrious; lewdly jocose.

With him, Patroclus,
Upon a lazy bed, the live-long day
Breaks *scurril* jests. *Shakspeare.*

Scurril talk, obscene actions. *Burton.*

SCURRI'LITY, *s.* [*scurrilité*, Fr.; *scurrilitas*, Lat.] Grossness of reproach; lewdness of jocularity; mean buffoonery.—Good master Holofernes, purge; so it shall please you to abrogate *scurrility.* *Shakspeare.*

SCU'RRILOUS, *adj.* [*scurrilis*, Lat.] Grossly opprobrious; using such language as only the license of a buffoon can warrant; lewdly jocular; vile; low.—*Scurrilous* and more than satyrical immodesty. *Hooker.*

SCU'RRILOUSLY, *adv.* With gross reproach; with low buffoonery; with lewd merriment.

SCU'RRILOUSNESS, *s.* Scurrility; baseness of manners.

SCU'RVILY, *adv.* Vilely; basely; coarsely. It is seldom used but in a ludicrous sense.

Look i' your glass now,
And see how *scurvily* that countenance shews;
You would be loth to own it. *B. Jonson.*

SCU'RVINESS, *s.* State of being scurvy. *Sherwood.*

SCURVOGEL. the name of an American bird, called by some the *nhender-apoa*, and by the Brasilians *jabiruguaca.* See MYCTERIA.

SCU'RVY,

SCU'RVY, *adj.* Scabbed; covered with scabs; diseased with the scurvy.—Whatsoever man be *scurvy* or scabbed. *Lev.*—Vile; bad; sorry; worthless; contemptible; offensive.—This is a very *scurvy* tune to a man's funeral. *Shakspeare.*

SCU'RVY, *s.* A distemper. See PATHOLOGY.

SCURVY-GRASS: see COCHLEARIA.—SCURVY-GRASS, Scotch: see SOLDANEL.

'SCUSES. For *excuses.*

I shifted him away.
And laid good *'scuses* on your exstasy. *Shakspeare.*

SCUT, *s.* [*skott*, Icelandic.] The tail of those animals whose tails are very short, as a hare.—In the hare it is aversely seated, and in its distension inclines unto the coccix or *scut*. *Brown. Unused.*

He fled to earth: but first it cost him dear,
He left his *scut* behind, and half an ear. *Swift.*

SCUTAGE, or SCUTAGIUM, in Ancient Customs. See ESCUAGE.

SCUTARI, a lake in the west of European Turkey, in Albania, situated about 15 miles from the coast. It is about 16 miles in length, and 7 in breadth, and contains several small islands. The river Moracca enters its northern extremity, and issues from its south-eastern, under the name of Bojane.

SCUTARI, or ISKENDERJE, a large fortified town in the west of European Turkey, in Albania, situated on the river Bojane, at the south-east extremity of the lake of Scutari. Its position is very favourable for defence, and its highest point is crowned by a castle. The town consists of four quarters, and its population, composed of Turks, Greeks and Albanians, amounts to about 12,000. It has several mosques and Greek churches, and is the see of a bishop. The neighbouring plain is one of the richest in Albania, being covered with vines and olive plantations, interspersed with hamlets and country seats. Scutari is the capital of a pachalic, which, after that of Joannina, is the most considerable in Albania; 50 miles east-by-south of Cattaro, and 448 west of Constantinople.

SCUTARI, a large village, or rather city, situated on the Bosphorus, immediately opposite to Constantinople. Its site is one of the most beautiful imaginable, on the slope of several hills, and thickly intermingled with trees. The strait appears here like a lake, planted round with large cities. The minarets of Scutari, and the hills above it, contain the most brilliant views of Constantinople and the surrounding scenery. It carries on a considerable trade, being a rendezvous for the caravans which come from the interior of Asia. The population is stated at 30,000.

SCUTARIUS, among the Romans, besides its ordinary signification of a shield-maker, was used to denote one of the emperor's life-guards, because their whole body was covered with armour.

SCU'TCHEON, *s.* [*scucciene*, Italian; from *scutum*, Lat.] The shield represented in heraldry; the ensigns armorial of a family.

Your *scutcheons*, and your signs of conquest, shall
Hang in what place you please. *Shakspeare.*

SCUTE, a French gold coin of 3*s.* 4*d.* in the reign of king Henry V.

SCUTE'LLATED, *adj.* [*scutella*, Lat.] Divided into small surfaces.—It seems part of the *scutellated* bone of a sturgeon, being flat, of a porous or cellular constitution. *Woodward.*

SCUTELLA, in Botany, a little dish, or saucer, is used by Dillenius, Linnæus, and their followers, for the peculiar receptacle of the seeds in most species of LICHEN.

SCUTELLARIA [from the form of the calyx, like a *scutellum*, a little dish or saucer], in Botany, a genus of the class didynamia, order gymnospermia, natural order of verticillatæ labiatæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth one-leafed, very short, tubular: mouth almost entire: after flowering closed with a lid. Corolla: one-petalled, ringent: tube very short, bent backward: throat long, compressed: upper lip concave, trifid; middle little segment concave, emarginate; side ones flat, sharpish, lying under the middle one: lower lip wider emarginate. Stamina: filaments four, concealed beneath the upper lip, of which two are longer. Anthers small. Pistil: germ four parted. Style filiform, situation and length of the stamens. Stigma simple, curved in, acuminate. Pericarp none. Calyx closed by a lid, helmet-shaped, doing the office of a capsule, three-sided, opening by the lower margin. Seeds four, roundish. It is clearly distinguished from all others by the fruit alone; for the calyx resembles a helmet both in the lid and crest.—*Essential Character.* Calyx with an entire mouth, after flowering closed by a lid.

These are all perennial plants, mostly herbaceous, with square stalks and opposite leaves: the flowers either solitary, axillary and naked, or else in terminating bracted spikes, with one bracte or floral leaf to each flower. Chiefly natives of the South of Europe and the Levant; two only indigenous of Britain. They flower in July and August; some from June to October.

1. Scutellaria orientalis, or yellow-flowered skull-cap.—Leaves gashed, tomentose beneath; spikes roundish-four-cornered. Stems shrubby, spreading on the ground, and dividing into small branches. Corollas of a bright yellow colour. Seeds gray. It begins to flower at the end of May, and there is commonly a succession of flowers for two months, and upwards. There is a variety, which is hoary, with the leaves more cut.—Native of the Levant and Barbary.

2. Scutellaria albida, or hairy skull-cap.—Leaves subcordate, serrate, wrinkled, opaque; spikes directed one way; bractes ovate. Very nearly allied to the preceding, but the corollas are white and larger.—Native of the Levant and Cochin-china.

3. Scutellaria Alpina, or Alpine skull-cap.—Leaves cordate, gash-serrate crenate; spikes imbricate rounded-four-cornered. This is very like the next species, but the corolla is violet-coloured with a whitish lip.—Native of Switzerland, Silesia, Dauphiné, Piedmont and Cochin-china,

4. Scutellaria lupulina, or great-flowered skull-cap.—Leaves cordate, gash-serrate, acute, smooth; spikes imbricate rounded-four-cornered. Stems shrubby, and trailing. Leaves cut on their edges, and smooth on both sides. Corollas white or blue, larger than in any of the other species.—Native of Siberia.

5. Scutellaria lateriflora, or Virginian skull-cap.—Flowers smooth, with a rugged keel; racemes lateral, leafy. It has very much the air of the common sort, but is higher and larger, with wider leaves more deeply toothed, and smaller flowers.—Native of Canada and Virginia.

6. Scutellaria galericulata, or common skull-cap.—Leaves cordate-lanceolate, crenate, wrinkled. Root slender, jointed, white and creeping. Stems from one to two feet high, upright, acutely quadrangular, with the sides a little hollowed, and marked with two lines, jointed, leafy, somewhat rugged, branched in the middle; the branches opposite and nearly upright. Flowers one on each side, subsessile, in pairs directed one way, nodding a little, blue and whitish underneath, hairy on the outside. Calyx hairy, emarginate, fenced above with an arched scale, closing when the corolla falls off, and covered by the scale, which then increases in size, as with a lid. Seeds from one to four, of a pale brown colour, with a rugged surface.—Native of Europe, by the sides of ditches, ponds and rivers. By our old authors called Hooded Willow-herb or Loose-strife.

7. Scutellaria hastifolia, or hastate-leaved skull-cap.—Leaves quite entire, the lower hastate, the upper sagitate. Root creeping. Stems quite simple, scarcely the length of the finger, with about seven joints. Spike almost as long as the stem, directed one way, loose, spreading, blue. Flowers solitary from each axil of the leaves, which being opposite, the flowers are in pairs.—Native of Sweden, on the coast, Austria, Goritia and Silesia.

8. Scutellaria minor, or small skull-cap.—Leaves cordate, ovate-

ovate, almost quite entire. This is only one-fourth of the size of the common sort. Flowers axillary, red or purple-flesh-coloured, with a white lip, and blood-red dots.—Native of England, France, Alsace and Piedmont; on wet heaths and commons, in boggy ground, and at the edges of ponds, in a gravelly soil.

9. Scutellaria integrifolia, or entire-leaved skull-cap.—Leaves sessile, ovate, lower indistinctly, serrate, upper quite entire. Stems two feet high, sending out many side branches. Flowers in very long loose spikes at the end of the branches; they are of a purple colour, and appear at the end of June: the seeds ripen in September.—Native of North America.

10. Scutellaria Havanensis.—Leaves cordate-ovate, crenate; flowers solitary, both lips of the corolla trifid. This is a little tender herbaceous branching plant, procumbent with the branches rising.—Native of the Havannah, on maritime rocks: flowering in December.

11. Scutellaria hyssopifolia, or hyssop-leaved skull-cap.—Leaves lanceolate. Stem erect. Upper lip of the corolla with a hairy keel.—Native of Virginia.

12. Scutellaria purpurascens, or purple skull-cap —Leaves petioled, cordate-ovate, toothed; racemes, naked, terminating; both lips of the corolla trifid. Stems herbaceous, prostrate, a span high, simple, obscurely four-cornered, smooth.—Native of the West Indies, Guadaloupe, &c.

13. Scutellaria peregrina, or florentine skull-cap.—Leaves subcordate, serrate, spikes elongated, directed one way. Stem hairy, two feet high.—Native of Italy and Siberia.

14. Scutellaria Indica.—Leaves subovate, crenate, petioled; racemes almost naked. The plant lies on the ground and has the appearance of Ground Ivy (*Glecoma hederacea.*)—Native of China, where it is called *Tim-gam-sa*, and Japan.

15. Scutellaria altissima, or tall skull-cap.—Leaves cordate-oblong, acuminate, serrate, spikes almost naked. Stems three or four feet high, sending out a few slender branches. Flowers purple, with longer tubes than any of the other sorts.—Native of the Levant.

16. Scutellaria Cretica.—Villose: leaves cordate, obtuse, and obtusely serrate; spikes imbricate; bractes setaceous.—Native of Crete or Candia.

Propagation and Culture.—These plants are all propagated by seeds which should be sown in Autumn on a dry warm border of poor earth, where the plants will live much longer, and make a better appearance than on a rich soil, though they seldom continue more than three years. When the plants come up, they will require no other care but to thin them, and keep them clean from weeds.

SCUTELLUM *(a little shield)*, sometimes used for SCUTELLA.

SCUTELLUM, or ESCUTCHEON, in Entomology, is the posterior part of the thorax; it is frequently triangular, and appears to be separated from the thorax by its intervening suture, as in most of the coleoptera.

SCUTHINON, a name given by the ancient Greeks to a yellow wood, called also *thapsum, chrysoxylon*, of a beautiful colour, which was used in dyeing and in colouring the hair yellow.

SCU'TIFORM, *adj.* [*scutiformis*, Lat.] Shaped like a shield.

SCUTIFORME OS, the chief bone of the knee, called also *patella, molo*, &c. See ANATOMY.

SCUTIFORMIS, CARTILAGO, one of the pieces composing the Larynx. See ANATOMY.

SCU'TTLE, *s.* [*scutella*, Lat. *scutell*, Celt. Ainsworth ȝcuttel, Saxon.] A wide shallow basket so named from a dish or platter which it resembles in form—A *scuttle* or skrein to rid soil fro' the corn. *Tusser.*—The earth and stones they are fain to carry from under their feet in *scuttles* and baskets. *Hakewill.*—A small grate.—To the hole in the door have a small *scuttle*, to keep in what mice are there. *Mortimer.*—An iron or copper utensil to hold coals.—[*Escotillon*, Spanish.] A hole in the deck to let down into the ship. *Minsheu.*—A quick pace; a short run; a pace of affected precipitation. This is properly *scuddle.*—She went with an easy *scuttle* out of the shop. *Spectator.*

To SCU'TTLE, *v. a.* To cut holes in the deck or sides of a ship, when stranded or overset, and continuing to float on the surface. *Chambers.*

To SCU'TTLE, *v. n.* To run with affected precipitation. The old fellow *scuttled* out of the room. *Arbuthnot.*

SCYBALA, *s.* pl. [σκυβαλα, Gr.] Hard excrements, of the form of little balls. *A medical term.*

SCYLACION, a word by which the ancients expressed the flesh of puppies, which they recommended as of great service in many chronic cases.

SCYLAX, an ancient mathematician and geographer, was a native of Caryanda, in Caria. He is noticed by Herodotus as one sent by Darius to ascertain the place where the river Indus falls into the sea. Suidas gives a very brief account of Scylax, in which he has evidently confounded different persons of the same name. "Scylax of Caryandas, a mathematician and musician, wrote a Periplus of the coast, beyond the pillars of Hercules, a book respecting the Heraclides, a description of the circuit of the earth, and an answer to Polybius's history." The Periplus which still remains, bearing the name of Scylax, is a brief survey of the countries along the shores of the Mediterranean and Euxine seas, together with part of the western coast of Africa surveyed by Hanno. It commences with the straits of Gibraltar, and proceeding along the coasts of Spain and Gaul, round the Mediterranean, returns to the same point, and then briefly describes the coasts of Africa, along the Atlantic, as far as the island of Cerne. This, after all, is in general little more than an enumeration of nations, towns and distances, though intermixed with some occasional notices of natural productions, and in a few instances detailing the common fables of the age. It concludes with an account of the passages across the sea from Greece into Asia, and an enumeration of twenty important islands, in the order of their magnitudes. A question has been raised whether the Periplus remaining be the work of the ancient Scylax; or of some later writer, and critics of high rank in literature have taken opposite sides. The subject is discussed in the fourth volume of the Athenæum, 1808, to which we refer our readers for the arguments on both sides of the question. The work has come down to us in a corrupted state; it was first published from a Palatine MS. by Hoeschelius and others in the year 1600. It was afterwards edited by Isaac Vossius in 1639; by Gronovius in 1697; by Hudson in 1698.

SCYLDWIT, a mulct or fine for any fault.

It comes from the Saxon *scilde*, i. e. *delictum*, and *wite*, i. e. *pœna*.

SCYLITZA (John), a Greek historian, known for his abridgment of history from the death of Nicephorus Logothetes, in 811, to the deposition of Nicephorus Botoniates, in 1081. This history, from the year 1067, is the same as that of Cedrenus, which has caused a discussion among the learned, which of the two was the plagiary. Scylitza is thought to have been a native of Lesser Asia, and a prefect of the guards before he attained the dignity of curopalates. A Latin translation of his history entire, was published at Venice in 1570: and the part concerning which there is no dispute was printed in Greek and Latin, at Paris, in 1647. *Moreri.*

SCYLLA, a well known promontory and current of the Mediterranean, in the strait of Messina, which separates Sicily from the Neapolitan territory. It projects into the sea, and meets the whole force of the waters as they issue from the narrowest part of the strait. The action of the current has probably, since the days of Homer, increased the width of the channel: at all events, mariners are at present seldom afraid of being driven on the opposite rocks of Charybdis, where there is danger only when the wind and current are adverse to each other. The smaller rocks near the base of the promontory of Scylla add somewhat to the risk, as the noise of the waters in the caverns to the awfulness of the scene. The promontory of Scylla is about 200 feet in height.

SCYLLÆA,

SCYLLÆA, a genus of the vermes-mollusca class and order, whose Generic Character is—body compressed, and grooved along the back; the mouth consists of a terminal toothless aperture; the tentacula or arms three on each side, and placed beneath. There are only two species.

1. Scyllæa pelagica.—The body of this species is fixed; the four extreme arms are alike; the middle ones papillous.—It inhabits the ocean, and is generally found among floating sea-weed. Independently of its specific character, it is described as having a roundish oblong body; broader behind, and obtuse; the mouth is placed at the end of the smaller extremity; the back is grooved with a crenulate hollow, by which it affixes itself to sea-weed; the extreme arms are smaller and rounded; the middle pair is oblong, foliaceous, bending over and sprinkled within with papillæ.

2. Scyllæa gomphodensis.—The body is detached; the first pair of arms is naked and hollow at the tip; the others have branched fibres within. The body is about an inch long, pellucid, yellowish, with rusty brown dots; the back is flat, dotted with brown at the margins, with a row of blue dots down the middle; the tail is compressed, with an elevated rounded back, and furnished on each side with small branched fibres; the abdomen is dotted with blue, and rough, with a row of five whitish papillæ down the middle of each side; the first pair of arms is the lesser; the rest are contiguous, with a denticulate margin.

SCYLLEUM PROMONTORIUM, in Ancient Geography, the promontory of Scylla, or of Skilleo, that part of the Argolide which advances towards the south-east.

SCYMNITÆ, a people of Asiatic Sarmatia, between the Sapothrenæ and the Amazons, according to Ptolemy.

SCYMNUS, a name used by Ælian and other old Greek writers, for a species of the squalus.

SCYPHUS, among the Romans, a very large kind of drinking cup. The scyphus was called the cup of Hercules, as that of Bacchus, *liberi patris*, was named *cantharus*.

SCYRA, in our Old Writers, a fine imposed on such as neglected to attend the *scyregemot court*, which all tenants were bound to do.

SCYREGEMOT, or SCYREMOT, in Ancient customs, a county-court held twice every year by the bishop of the diocese and the earldorman, or sheriff; in which both the ecclesiastical and temporal laws were given in charge to the county.

In the time of Canutus the scyregemot was held thrice every year. Edward the Confessor appointed it to be held twelve times in every year.

SCYRIUM MARMOR, a name given by the ancients sometimes to a white, and sometimes to a yellowish marble, both used in the public buildings of the Romans, but seldom in statuary, not being capable of a high polish.

SCYTALA LACONICA, a stratagem or device of the Lacedæmonians, for the secret writings of letters to their correspondents; so that if they should chance to be intercepted, nobody might be able to read them.

To this end they had two wooden rollers, or cylinders, perfectly alike, and equal; one of which was kept in the city, the other by the person to whom the letter was directed. For the letter, a skin of very thin parchment was wrapped round the roller, and on this the matter was written; which done, it was taken off, and sent away to the party, who, upon putting it in the same manner upon his roller, found the lines and words, which were before its application to the roller confusedly disjoined, and altogether unintelligible, in the very same disposition as when they were first written. *Plut. in Vit. Lysand.*

SCYTALE, in Zoology, the name given by the ancients to a species of serpent.

SCYTALIA [so named by Gærtner, from σκυλος, a *skin*, or *hide*, and σκυλαλη, a *thong*, in allusion to the leathery substance and colour of the skin of the dried fruit], in Botany, a genus of the class octandria, order monogynia, natural order of trihilatæ, sapindi *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth inferior, of one leaf, very small, with five minute teeth. Corolla: petals five, small, reflexed, hairy on the inner surface, sometimes wanting. Stamina: filaments eight, sometimes but six, awl-shaped, hairy, longer than the petals, dilated at the base; anthers heart-shaped, incumbent. Pistil: germen superior, two-lobed, somewhat stalked; style shorter than the stamens; stigmas two spreading. Pericarp: berries two, ovate or globose, with a coriaceous warty coat, pulpy within, each of one cell. Seed solitary, large, elliptical, polished, obliquely cut away at the base, where it is inserted into the slightly elevated bottom of the pericarp.—*Essential Character.* Calyx inferior, with five shallow teeth. Petals five, hairy, or none. Berries two, coriaceous, warty. Seeds solitary, elliptical, polished.

1. Scytalia litchi, Lee-chee or apetalous scytalia.—Flowers with six stamens, and no petals. Fruit with prominent warts.—Native of China, Cochinchina and Tunquin. The litchi is described by Sonnerat as a large tree, with a soft white wood, abounding in pith. The berry, usually solitary when ripe, is nearly globular, concave at the base, an inch or more in diameter, reddish, covered with very numerous, close, prominent tubercles. It is of an agreeable flavour, and said to be one of the best fruits of the countries where it grows. The Chinese dry it in ovens for exportation.

2. Scytalia longan, longan or many-petalled scytalia.—Flowers with eight stamens and five petals. Fruit nearly smooth.—Native of China. Cultivated in that country, Cochinchina, the East Indies, the Mauritius, &c. This is also a large tree, with a sweet and grateful fruit, not half the size of the last, more precisely globular, and either quite smooth, or slightly scaly, not warty. Loureiro mentions two more species but they are uncertain. The same author relates, that the litchi, being impatient of cold, as well as of great heat, is most cultivated in the southern provinces of China, and the northern ones of Cochinchina. As the fruit will not ripen at Pekin in the ordinary way of cultivation, trees in flower are sent thither by water, so as to yield ripe fruit, for the emperor's use, on their arrival.

SCYTHÆ, [χκυθαι, Gr.] among the Athenians, a designation sometimes given to the officers, more usually called *lexiarchi*.

SCYTHARION, a name given by the ancient Greek writers to a tree, whose wood was of a fine yellow colour, and was used in those early times to dye things yellow; it was called also *Scythicum*.

SCYTHE, or SITHE, *s.* [ȝiðe, Saxon.] An instrument for mowing; a crooked blade joined at nearly right angles to a curved pole.

Let fame, that all hunt after in their lives,
Live registred upon our brazen tombs;
And then grace us in the disgrace of death:
When, spight of cormorant devouring time,
The endeavour of this present breath may buy
That honour, which shall bate his *scythe's* keen edge:
And make us heirs of all eternity. *Shakspeare.*

To SCYTHE, or SITHE, *v. a.* To cut down with a scythe.—Time had not *sithed* all that youth begun. *Shakspeare.*

SCYTHED, or SI'THED, *adj.* Armed with sithes.

Galgacus' *scythed*, iron car.
That, swiftly whirling through the walks of war,
Dash'd Roman blood, and crush'd the foreign throngs.
Dr. Warton.

SCYTHEMAN, or SI'THEMAN, *s.* A mower.—Reapers cutting downe corne in every fielde; *sithemen* labouryng harde. *Peachman.*

The stooping *sytheman*, that doth barb the field,
Thou mak'st wink sure; in night all creatures sleep.
Marston.

SCYTHIA, is a vast territory, which has been confounded by some geographers with Tatary or Tartary, of which it is only

only a part extended from the Ister, or Danube, that is, from about the 25th to almost the 116th degree of E. longitude. It was divided into Scythia in Europe, and Scythia in Asia; including, however, the two Sarmatias, or Sauromatias, now the Circassian Tartary, which lay between and separated the two Scythias from each other. Sarmatia was also distinguished into European and Asiatic, divided from the European Scythia by the river Don or Tanais, which falls into the Palus Mæotis, and from the Asiatic by the Rha, now Volga, which empties itself into the Caspian sea. (See SARMATIA.) Accordingly the two Scythias were only parted by the boundaries of Europe and Asia, that is, by the river Tanais, descending, as it is supposed, from the Riphæan mountains into the Palus Mæotis. For, beyond those mountains northward, the Scythians did not advance into any of those remote regions; so that these were the proper confines of the Asiatic Scythia on the west. The northern boundaries reached to the Hyperborean or Frozen Sea, called also by the ancients the Scythian Sea, the Cronian, Amalchian or Almachian, the Dead Sea, and by some other names equally expressive of extreme cold and ice. On the east, they are supposed to have extended to the promontory of Tabis, and to have been bounded by the Cassian mountains, which parted Scythia from the kingdom of Seres, now Katai, Cathay, or Northern China; and even this last was by some of the ancients taken for part of Eastern Scythia; so that, on that side, it had no other boundaries, according to Ptolemy, than the unknown tracts beyond it: and on the south it was bounded by the Indian sea, by Mount Caucasus, and the Caspian. As to the more northern parts of Scythia, it is, on account of its extreme cold, uninhabitable, except by wolves and other wild beasts; and hence they seem to have been unknown to the ancients beyond the 50th degree north. The territory beyond that degree was denominated Terra incognita. But the southern regions, better known to them, were dividedin to three parts, viz., Scythia within, and Scythia without, or beyond Imaus, and Sarmatia, which, as we have already said, lay between the former and the European Scythia, and which had been so blended with it, that the only difference between them was the name. Accordingly, Ptolemy bounds the Scythia on this side of Imaus on the west by Asiatic Sarmatia, by mount Imaus on the east, by the Terra incognita on the north, and on the south and south-east by the Sacæ, Sogdiani, and Margiana.

SCYTHIAN, a word used very often in the old Greek writers on the materia medica, to distinguish the peculiar sort of gum, or other drug, brought from the Scythians.

SCYTHIANS, the inhabitants of Scythia, considered by some geographical authors as the same people with the Tatars, or, as they are commonly, though erroneously, called Tartars. (See TARTARS.) With regard to the etymology of the name of Scythians we have many different conjectures. Pliny seems to intimate, that this appellation is derived from Sacai, a people known by a similar name to the Greeks and Persians. Bryant deduces it from Cuthia. Colonel Vallancey traces its origin to words denoting *navigation:* others derive it from the Greek σκυζεσθαι, which expresses the fierceness of their countenance and natural temper; and others again deduce it from the Teutonic word *scheten* or *shuten* to *shoot,* in which art this nation is said by Herodotus, Lucian, and others, to be so expert, that the name is given them on that account, the word Scythian properly signifying a great *shooter* or *archer.* As the Tartars and Muscovites called themselves Mogli, supposed to be an abbreviation of Magogli, the sons of Magog; that of Scythian might be either given to them by other nations, or perhaps by the Celtes, whose language did not originally much differ from the Scythian or Teutonic. Sir William Jones observes, that neither Scythian nor Tartar is a name by which the people now under our consideration have ever distinguished themselves.

Passing over the obscure accounts of Herodotus, and the earlier writers, we shall extract from Justin (lib. 2. cap. 2.) the following account of the Scythians. They were a nation, which, though inured to labour, fierce in war, and of prodigious strength, could nevertheless so controul their passions, that they made no other use of victories than to increase their fame. Theft among them was reckoned so great a crime, and was so severely punished, that they could let their numerous flocks wander from place to place without danger of losing them. These they esteemed their greatest wealth, living upon their milk, and clothing themselves with their skins. Instead of houses, they used to convey their wives and children about in covered waggons, drawn either by horses or oxen, and made capacious enough to carry all their other furniture. Gold, silver, diamonds, pearls, and other costly stones, were as much despised by them, as they were esteemed by other nations, so that they could not covet that which was of no use. What is still more wonderful, those virtues which the Greeks in vain endeavoured to attain by learning and philosophy, were natural to them, and they reaped those advantages from their ignorance of vice, which the others could not derive from their knowledge of virtue. A nation of this character and way of life could therefore want but few laws to secure their property; some others they had with relation to religion, customs and polity, which forbade, under pain of death, any alteration in either; which excluded their women from the benefit of marriage, and every man from assisting at their royal feast, till he had killed an enemy.

If we may reason from some successions we find mentioned in history, it seems their crown was hereditary, and yet their kings not so despotic as not to be deposed, or even put to death, for the violation of their laws.

SCYTHICUM LIGNUM, a name given by the ancients to a tree called *scytharion* by the Greeks.

SCYTHROPS, in Ornithology, a genus of birds of the order Picæ. The Generic Character is—bill large, convex, sharp-edged, channelled at the sides, hooked at the point; nostrils naked, rounded at the base of the bill; the tongue is cartilaginous, split at the point; the feet are formed for climbing. This genus, of which only a single species is known, is nearly allied to the *Ramphastos,* from which it principally differs in the greater strength and stoutness of the bill, and in having the tongue entire at the sides, and bifid at the tip.

Scythrops psittaceus.—This bird has obtained different trivial names. From the circumstance that it is found in New Holland; where, by the way, it is sometimes seen in small flocks, but more frequently in pairs, generally in trees, and uttering, during flight, a loud screaming noise, not unlike the crowing of a cock; it is called by some the Australasian Channel-bird; by others, the New Holland Channel-bird; and by some, Psittaceous Hornbill. By Dr. Shaw, it is specifically described as the lead-coloured channel-bill, with the tail-feathers barred with black and white. It is about the size of a crow, and measures in total length about seventeen inches, of which the bill measures four inches. The general proportions of the bird somewhat resemble those of the cuckoo, but with a longer and more cuneated tail. The colour of the upper parts of the body, wings, and tail, is deep blueish ash-brown; the tips of the feathers somewhat more intense than the rest; the head, neck, and under parts of the bird, are of a pale grey, or dove-colour; the two middle tail-feathers have a black bar near the tip, which is white; all the remaining tail-feathers are ash-brown externally, but on the inner webs are white, crossed by numerous black bars, and marked, like the middle ones, by a broader black bar near the end, the tips being white; the eyes and nostrils are seated in a reddish naked skin; the bill and legs are of a pale yellow; the former are marked on the upper mandible by a longitudinal dusky streak or two, and on the lower by three or four dusky bars near the base.

To SDAIN, or *To* SDEIN, *v. a.* [*sdegnare,* Ital.] To disdain. *Obsolete.*—For doubt of being *sdayned. Spenser.*
—Unfitting thee, and *sdeyned* of thy skill. *Drayton.*

Lifted up so high,
I *sdein'd* subjection. *Milton.*

SDAIN,

SDAIN, *s.* Disdain.—So she departed full of grief and *daine*. *Spenser.*

SDE'INFUL, *adj.* Disdainful.

They now, puft up with *sdeinful* insolence,
Despise the brood of blessed sapience. *Spenser.*

SDILLES, or SDILI, two small islands in the Grecian archipelago, situated between Naxia and Andro, and well known in Grecian history by the names of Great and Little Delos. The larger island is about 17 miles in circuit, and though not inhabited, produces vines, olives, and even corn, all cultivated by the Greeks of the adjacent island of Myconi. There are here considerable remains of antiquity, in particular the tombs. But the other island, though only eight miles in circuit, and of a rocky surface, was the more celebrated of the two in ancient history. Being the supposed birth-place of Apollo and Diana, it contained a magnificent temple, dedicated to the former, and erected at the joint expense of the Grecian states. There still remains the pedestal, the inscriptions, and even some of the fragments of a colossal statue of Apollo. The practice of a periodical legation from Athens to this island, was regularly observed for many ages. This and the resort of other strangers contributed to enrich it, but Delos declined with the prosperity of Greece. The existing remains consist of columns, altars, porticoes, inscriptions, of the ruins of a gymnasium, of a small marble theatre, and of a Naumachia, or large basin for naval exhibitions. Both islands are uninhabited, in consequence of the danger from pirates.

SDUR, a village of Hedsjas, in Arabia; 20 miles south-south-east of Suez.

SE, or TSE, a city of China, of the second rank, in the province of Honan. Lat. 36. 25. N. long. 114. 14. E.

SEA, *s.* [sæ, Saxon.] The Briny water that surrounds the *land.*

Will all great Neptune's ocean wash this blood
Clean from my hand? No, this my hand will rather
Thy multitudinous *sea* incarnardine,
Making the green one red. *Shakspeare.*

The pilot ———
Moors by his side under the lee, while night
Invests the *sea.* *Milton.*

A collection of water; a lake.—By the *sea* of Galilee. *St. Matt.*—Proverbially for any large quantity.—That *sea* of blood which hath in Ireland been barbarously shed, is enough to drown in eternal infamy and misery the malicious author and instigator of its effusion. *Ikon Basilike.*—Any thing rough and tempestuous.

To sorrow abandon'd, but worse felt within,
And in a troubled *sea* of passion tost. *Milton.*

The bottom of the sea is covered with a variety of matters, such as could not be imagined by any but those who have examined into it, especially in deep water, where the surface is only disturbed by tides and storms, the lower part and consequently its bed at the bottom, remaining for ages perhaps undisturbed. The soundings, when the plummet first touches ground on approaching the shores, give some ideas of this. The bottom of the plummet is hollowed, and in that hollow there is placed a lump of tallow; this being the bottom of the lead, is what first touches the ground, and the soft nature of this fat receives into it some part of those substances which it meets with at the bottom; this matter, thus brought up, is sometimes pure sand, sometimes a sort of sand made of the fragment of shells, beat to a sort of powder; sometimes it is made of a like powder of the several sorts of corals; and sometimes it is composed of fragments of rocks; but beside these appearances, which are natural enough, and are what might very well be expected, it brings up substances which are of the most beautiful colours.

Things of as fine a scarlet, vermillion, purple, &c., as the finest paint could make them, or as yellow as a solution of gamboge, are common; and sometimes, though not so frequently, the matter brought up is blue, green, or of a pure snowy whiteness. These coloured matters sometimes seem to have made up the whole bottom or mass of the surface, but more usually they have been formed upon other things, as upon the mud, or upon larger pieces of shells, corals, and the like, in the manner of tartareous crusts, and those in some degree resembling the crustaceous coats of some of the sea plants. The colours of these substances are not merely superficial and transient, but many of them are so real and permanent, that they may be received into white wax melted, and poured upon them, or kept in fusion about them; and when thus examined, they seem as if a proper care might make them of great value, as paints of the finer kinds, where little is to be used.

The same coloured matters that thus coat the substances, found at the bottom of the sea in these places, are also sometimes found extended over the surface of marine substances of the harder kind, which are found in deep water. They are always, in this case, in a sort of liquid form, being lodged within, or embodied among a sort of jelly or glue of a transparent substance, which in these cases perfectly coats over the whole. In this state it gives the naturalist, who is present at the fishing up his treasures, a transient prospect of a very elegant kind, but this vanishes while he admires it. A piece of coral, or other hard substance, thus coated over, appears as it rises to the surface of the water, of a delicate green, blue, or purple; but when taken above water it is found that this fine colour is only in the coat of glue or jelly which covers the substance; as soon as this is wiped off, the colour is carried away with it, and the coral shews its own native tinge; and it is to no purpose to attempt the preserving of it, by suffering this glue to dry upon the coral, for the colour flies away by degrees, as the moisture evaporates, and the coral, &c., whatever it be, is only so much the less beautiful, than it naturally would have been, as it is covered with a dry yellowish dirty looking horny matter. These are beauties in the sub-marine productions, therefore, which can only be seen by those who venture out, in order to take them up.

The small quantities of these elegant colours, which we thus find spread over the surfaces of marine bodies, as we approach deep water, may give a rational idea of what we should find, we are able to examine the bottom of the sea in its deep and unfathomable recesses. It is easy to conceive, that in these places we should find great quantities of the most beautiful substances. *Marsigli, Hist. Phys. de la Mer.*

Half SEAS *over.* Half drunk. A *vulgarism.*—The whole magistracy was pretty well disguised before I gave 'em the slip: our friend the alderman was *half seas over* before the bonfire was out. *Spectator.*

SEA, or CEA, a river in the north of Spain, which rises in the mountains that separate Leon from the Asturias, flows south, and afterwards west, through the province of Leon, and joins the Esla.

SEA-ADDER, *s.* A species of SYNGNATHUS.

SEA-BA'NK. The sea-shore.—I was, the other day, talking on the *sea-bank* with certain Venetians. *Shakspeare.*—A fence to keep the sea within bounds.

SE'A-BAR, *s.* The sea-swallow.

SEA-BAT, *s.* A fish. See CHÆTODON VESPERTILIO.

SEA-BA'THED, *adj.* Bathed or dipped in the sea.

Sea-bath'd Hesperus, who brings
Night on. *Sandys.*

SEA-BEAR, *s.* The PHOCA LEONINA: which see.

SEA-BE'AST, *s.* A word used by Milton for a large animal of the sea.

That *sea-beast*
Leviathan, which God of all his works
Created hugest that swim the ocean stream. *Milton.*

SE'A-BEAT, or SEA-BE'ATEN, *adj.* Dashed by the waves of the sea.

The

The sovereign of seas he blames in vain,
That, once *sea-beat*, will to sea again. *Spenser.*

Ships—both extremely *sea-beaten*, and at last wracked. *Bp. Hall.*

SE'A-BOARD, *adv.* Towards the sea: a naval word.

SE'A-BOAT, *s.* Vessel capable to bear the sea.—Shipwrecks were occasioned by their ships being bad *sea-boats*, and themselves but indifferent seamen. *Arbuthnot.*

SE'A-BORD, or SEA-BO'RDERING, *adj.* Bordering on the sea.

There shall a lion from the *sea-bord* wood
Of Neustria come roring. *Spenser.*

Those *sea-bordering* shores of ours that point at France. *Drayton.*

SE'A-BORN, *adj.* Born of the sea; produced by the sea.

Like Neptune and his *sea-born* niece, shall be
The shining glories of the land and sea. *Waller.*

All these in order march, and marching sing
The warlike actions of their *sea-born* king. *Dryden.*

SEABOROUGH, a hamlet of England, in Somersetshire; 2½ miles south-by-west of Crewkerne.

SE'A-BOUND, or SEA-BOUNDED, *adj.* Bounded by the sea.—Our *sea-bounded* Britainy. *Mir. for Mag.*

Subject all nations to thy throne,
And make the *sea-bound* earth thine own. *Sandys.*

SE'A-BOY, *s.* Boy employed on ship-board.

Can'st thou, O partial sleep, give thy repose
To the wet *sea-boy* in an hour so rude,
And in the calmest and the stillest night
Deny it to a king? *Shakspeare.*

SE'A-BREACH, *s.* Irruption of the sea by breaking the banks.—To an impetuous woman, tempests and *sea-breaches* are nothing. *L'Estrange.*

SE'A-BREEZE, *s.* Wind blowing from the sea.—Hedges, in most places, would be of great advantage to shelter the grass from the *sea-breeze*. *Mortimer.*

SEA-BRIEF. See SEA-LETTER.

SEABROOK, a hamlet of England, in Buckinghamshire, near Ivinghoe.

SEABROOK, a township of the United States, in Rockingham county, New Hampshire. Population 744.

SEABROOK. See SAYBROOK.

SE'A-BUILT, *adj.* Built for the sea.

Borne each by other in a distant line,
The *sea-built* forts in dreadful order move. *Dryden.*

SEA-CA'BBAGE, *s.* Seacolewort. A plant.

SE'A-CALF, *s.* The seal. See PHOCA VITULINA.

SE'A-CAP, *s.* Cap made to be worn on shipboard.

I know your favour well,
Though now you have no *sea-cap* on your head. *Shakspeare.*

SE'A-CARD, *s.* The mariner's card.

We are all like *sea-cards;*
All our endeavours, and our motions,
(As they do to the north), still point at beauty. *Beaum. and Fl.*

SE'A-CARP, *s.* The TURDUS MARINUS. A spotted fish that lives among stones and rocks.

SE'A-CHANGE, *s.* Change effected by the sea.

Full fathom five thy father lies;
Of his bones are coral made;
Those are pearls that were his eyes;
Nothing of him that doth fade,
But doth suffer a *sea-change*. *Shakspeare.*

SE'A-CHART, *s.* Map on which only the coasts are delineated.—The situation of the parts of the earth are better learned by a map or *sea-chart*, than reading the description. *Watts.*

SE'A-CIRCLED, *adj.* Surrounded by the sea.—The daughters of *sea-circled* Tyre. *Sandys.*

SEACKLETON, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 6 miles from Malton.

SE'A-COAL, *s.* Coal brought to London by sea.—*Sea-coal* lasts longer than charcoal. *Bacon.*

SE'A-COAST, *s.* Shore; edge of the sea

The venturous mariner that way,
Learning his ship from those white rocks to save,
Which all along the southern *sea-coast* lay;
For safety's sake that same his sea-mark made,
And nam'd it Albion. *Spenser.*

SE'A-COB, *s.* A bird, called also sea-gull.

SEACOMBE, a village of England, in Chester; 10½ miles north-east of Great Neston.

SEA-CO'MPASS, *s.* The card and needle of mariners. See COMPASS.—The needle in the *seacompass* still moving but to the north point only, with moveor immotus, notified the respective constancy of the gentleman to one only. *Camden.*

SE'A-COOT, *s.* Sea-fowl, like the moor-hen. The FULICA MARINA.

SEA-CO'RMORANT, or SEA-DRAKE, *s.* A sea-crow. The CORVUS MARINUS.

SE'A-COW, *s.* The manatee. See TRICHECUS.

SEA-CROFT, a hamlet of England, West Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles north-east of Leeds.

SE'A-CROW, *s.* A name given to the sea-gull.

SEA-CYPRESS. The SERTULARIA.

SEA-DEVIL. The LOPHIUS PISCATORIUS.

SE'A-DOG, *s.* Perhaps the shark.—Fierce *sea-dogs* devour the mangled friends. *Roscommon.*

When, stung with hunger, she embroils the flood,
The *seadog* and the dolphin are her food. *Pope.*

SEADOWLY, a fortress of Northern Hindostan, province of Nepaul, and district of Mockwanpore. This place was taken by the British in 1761, but they were soon obliged to evacuate it, and return to Bengal, owing to the unhealthiness of the climate. It has been ceded to the British at the conclusion of the French war. Lat. 27. 13. N. long. 86. 5. E.

SEA-DRA'GON, *s.* [ræ-ðraca, Sax.] A sea-fish; called also the Viver. *Cotgrave.*—See TRACHINUS.

SEA-EAGLE, *s.* The RAIA AQUILA.

SE'A-EAR, *s.* A sea-plant.

SEA-EEL, *s.* The CONGER EEL.

SE'A-ENCIRCLED, *adj.* Surrounded by the sea.

Rouse, and wing,
The prosperous sail from every growing port,
Uninjur'd, round the *sea-encircled* globe. *Thomson.*

SEA-FAN. See GORGONIA.

SEA-FA'RER, *s.* A traveller by sea; a mariner.

A wandering merchant, he frequents the main,
Some mean *seafarer* in pursuit of gain;
Studious of freight, in naval trade well skill'd;
But dreads the athletic labours of the field. *Pope.*

SEA-FA'RING, *adj.* Travelling by sea.

My wife fasten'd him unto a small spare mast,
Such as *seafaring* men provide for storms. *Shakspeare.*

SEA-FIR. A species of SERTULARIA.

SE'A-FENNEL. The same with SAMPHIRE.

SE'A-FIGHT, *s.* Battle of ships; battle on the sea.—If our sense of hearing were a thousand times quicker than it is, we should, in the quietest retirement, be less able to sleep than in the middle of a *sea-fight*. *Locke.*

SE'A-FISH, *s.* [ræ-fiſcaſ, Sax.] Fish that live in the sea.

SEAFORTH, LOCH, an arm of the sea on the coast of Scotland,

Scotland, and on the south side of the island of Lewis, which separates Lewis properly so called, from Harris.

SEAFORTHIA [so named by Mr. Brown, in honour of Francis Lord Seaforth], in Botany, a genus of the class polygamia, order monoecia, natural order of palmæ pennatifoliæ. —*Essential Character.* Calyx deeply three-cleft. Corolla deeply three-cleft. Stamens numerous. Germen with one seed. Stigmas three. Berry oval. Seed striated. Albumen sinuous. Embryo at the base. Some flowers have an abortive pistil; other intermediate solitary ones are entirely female.

Seaforthia elegans.—Observed by Mr. Brown in the tropical part of New Holland. A large and handsome palm, with pinnate leaves; the leaflets plaited and folded, jagged at the extremity. The genus is allied to CARYOTA, but essentially different in the structure of the germen, and situation of the embryo.

SE'A-FOWL, *s.* Birds that live at sea.—The bills of curlews, and many other *sea-fowl*, are very long, to enable them to hunt for the worms. *Derham.*

SEA-FOX. The SQUALUS VULPIS.

SE'AGARLAND, *s.* An herb.

SE'A-GIRDLES, *s.* pl. A sort of sea-mushrooms.

SE'A-GIRT, *adj.* Girded or encircled by the sea.

Neptune, besides the sway
Of every salt flood and each ebbing stream,
Took in by lot, 'twixt high and nether Jove,
Imperial rule of all the *sea-girt* isles. *Milton.*

SE'A-GOD, *s.* One of the fabulous deities of the sea.

Weever—doth holiness retain
Above his fellow-floods; whose healthful virtues taught,
Hath of the *sea-gods* oft caus'd Weever to be sought.
Drayton.

SE'A-GOWN, *s.* A mariner's short-sleeved gown. *Sherwood.*

Up from my cabin,
My *sea-gown* scarf'd about me, in the dark
Grop'd I to find them out. *Shakspeare.*

SE'A-GRASS, *s.* An herb growing on the sea-shore.

SE'A-GREEN, *adj.* Resembling the colour of the distant sea; cerulean.—White, red, yellow, blue, with their mixtures, as green, scarlet, purple, and *sea-green* come in by the eyes. *Locke.*

Upon his urn reclin'd,
His *sea-green* mantle waving in the wind,
The god appear'd. *Pope.*

SE'A-GREEN, *s.* The plant saxifrage.

SEAGRY, UPPER and LOWER, two hamlets of England, in Wiltshire; 4½ miles south-by-east of Malmesbury.

SE'A-GULL, *s.* A bird common on the sea-coasts, of a light gray colour; sometimes called the *sea-crow.*—*Sea-gulls*, when they flock together from the sea towards the shores, foreshow rain and wind. *Bacon.*

SEAHAM, a parish of England, county of Durham; 5 miles south-by-east of Sunderland.

SEA-HEDGE-HOG, *s.* A kind of sea shell-fish. See ECHINUS.

SEA-HEN, *s.* The COLYMBUS TROILE.

SE'A-HOG, *s.* The porpus.

SE'A-HOLLY, *s.* A plant. See ERYNGIUM.

SE'A-HOLM, *s.* A small uninhabited island.—Sea-holly. A kind of sea-weed.—Cornwall bringeth forth a greater store of *sea-holm* and camphire than any other county. *Carew.*

SE'A-HORSE, *s.* A fish of a very singular form.—The morse.—Part of a large tooth, round and tapering; a tusk of the morse, or walrus, called by some the *sea-horse. Woodward.*—The natural and the poetical *sea-horse* seem very different. By the *sea-horse* Dryden means probably the hippopotamus.

Sea-horses, floundering in the slimy mud,
Toss'd up their heads, and dash'd the oose about 'em.
Dryden.

SEA-HORSE ISLAND, an island in Hudson's Bay. Lat. 62. N. long. 92. 50. W.

SEA-HORSE POINT, a cape on the east of a peninsula in Hudson's Bay. Lat. 64. N. long. 82. 10. W.

SEAKONNET, POINT and ROCKS, in the United States, the south extremity of the eastern shore which forms the entrance of Narraganset Bay, in the state of Rhode Island; about 6 miles east-south-east of Newport.

SEAL, *s.* [ȝeol, ȝele, Saxon; *seel*, Danish.] The sea-calf.

An island salt and bare,
The haunt of *seals*, and orcs, and seamews clang. *Milton.*

SEAL, *s.* [ȝiȝel, Saxon; *sigillum*, Lat.] A stamp engraved with a particular impression, which is fixed upon the wax that closes letters, or affixed as a testimony.

The king commands you
To render up the great *seal.* *Shakspeare.*

The impression made in wax.

'Till thou can'st rail the *seal* from off my bond,
Thou but offend'st thy lungs to speak so loud. *Shakspeare.*

Any act of confirmation.

They their fill of love
Took largely of their mutual guilt the *seal.* *Milton.*

The use of seals is very ancient, an instance of which occurs in Daniel, chap. vi. 17. But seals are still older than this; for Jezebel, in I Kings, chap. xxi. seals the orders she sent for Naboth's death with the king's ring. See also Jerem. xxxii. 10, &c.

In France the custom anciently was, instead of signing their instruments, &c., only to seal them; as appears from an infinity of ancient charters, which are not signed at all; the reason of which was, that in those days very few people were able to write: scarcely any body, indeed, could read and write but clerks; and the custom continued when learning made its way among them, though the reason for doing it had ceased.

In England, the first sealed charter we find extant is that of Edward the Confessor, upon his founding of Westminster Abbey; yet we read of seals in the MS. history of king Offa.

And Sir Edward Coke relies on an instance of king Edwyn's making use of a seal about an hundred years before the conquest; though some have doubted the authenticity of this charter, because it is certain that sealing was not then in common use.

Before the time of William the Conqueror, the English did not seal with wax, but only made a golden cross on the parchment, and sometimes an impression on a piece of lead, which hung to the grant with a silken string, and was deemed an abundant authorizing of the grant itself, without either signing or witnesses.

This practice of affixing the sign of the cross proceeded from their inability to write; which is honestly avowed by Caedwalla, a Saxon king, at the end of one of his charters: "propria manu pro ignorantia literarum signum sanctæ crucis expressi et subscripsi."

The colour of the wax with which William's grants were sealed, was usually green, to signify that the act continued for ever fresh, and of force. The usual impression on all laymen's seals, till the year 1218, was a man on horseback, with a sword in his hand; afterwards, they began to engrave their coats of arms on their seals; only the archbishops and bishops, by a decree of cardinal Otto, who was legate here in 1237, were to bear in their seals their title, office, dignity, and even their proper names.

The emperors long sealed all their acts of importance with a golden seal; and the golden bull of Charles IV. for the election of an emperor, takes its name from the gold seal hanging to it, which is called bull.

Theod. Hopink, a German lawyer, has furnished the world with a learned and curious work on the subject of seals, printed in 1642, at Nuremberg, in quarto, under the title, "de Sigillorum prisco et novo Jure, Tractatus Practicus,"

ticus," &c. We have another work of the like kind by Heineccius, in folio, printed at Frankfort and Leipsic in 1709, under the title, "de Veteribus Germanorum aliarumque Nationum Sigillis, eorumque Usu et Præstantia, Syntagma Historicum."

To SEAL, *v. a.* To fasten with a seal.—I have seen her rise from her bed, take forth paper, fold it, write upon't, and afterwards *seal* it. *Shakspeare.*—To confirm or attest by a seal.

God join'd my heart to Romeo's; thou our hands;
And ere this hand, by thee to Romeo *seal'd*,
Shall be the label to another deed,
Or my true heart with treacherous revolt
Turn to another, this shall slay them both. *Shakspeare.*

To confirm; to ratify; to settle.

My soul is purg'd from grudging hate,
And with my hand I *seal* our true hearts' love. *Shakspeare.*

To shut; to close: with *up*.—The sense is like the sun; for the sun *seals up* the globe of heaven, and opens the globe of earth: so the sense doth obscure heavenly things, and reveals earthly things. *Bacon.*—To make fast.

Back to the infernal pit I drag thee chain'd,
And *seal* thee so, as henceforth not to scorn
The facil gates of hell too slightly barr'd. *Milton.*

To mark with a stamp.

You'd rail upon the hostess,
And say you would present her at the leet,
Because she bought stone jugs, and no *seal'd* quarts.
Shakspeare.

To SEAL, *v. n.* To fix a seal.—We make a sure covenant and write it, and our princes and priests *seal* unto it. *Neh.* ix. 38.

SEAL, a small island near the north coast of Ireland; 4 miles south of Malin head.

SEAL ISLAND, an island near the south-west coast of Nova Scotia. Lat. 43. 25. N. long. 66. W.

SEAL ISLAND, an island in the Atlantic, near the coast of Maine. Lat. 43. 50. N. long. 68. 40. W.

SEAL ISLAND, a small island west of King George the Third's sound; on the south coast of New Holland; 3 miles north-west of Baldhead. It is a mass of granite, and is only accessible at its western end. It was discovered by Vancouver, who left a bottle on it, with a parchment inclosed. This could not, however, be found by Captain Flinders, who visited the island in 1801.

SEAL ISLANDS, a cluster of small islands in the Atlantic, near the coast of Maine. Lat. 44. 45. N. long. 67. 46. W.

SEAL ISLANDS, a cluster of small islands near the east coast of Labrador. Lat. 53. 15. N. long. 82. 40. W.

SEAL KEY, a small island in the Spanish Main, near the Mosquito shore. Lat. 12. 54. N. long. 82. 40. W.

SEAL KEY. See LOBOS.

SEAL RIVER, a river of North America, which runs into Hudson's Bay.

SEALE, a parish of England, in Kent; 2 miles north-east of Seven Oaks. Population 1084.

SEALE, a parish of England, in Surrey; 3½ miles east-by-north of Farnham.

SEALE, NETHER and OVER, two adjoining hamlets of England, in Leicestershire; 5 miles south-west of Ashby-de-la-Zouch. Population 991.

SE'ALER, *s.* One that seals. *Huloet.*

SEALER'S COVE, a harbour on the east coast of New Holland, discovered and explored by Mr. Bass. It is small, and apparently exposed to east winds; but is convenient and tolerably secure. Fresh water is abundant, and a sufficiency of wood is at hand to boil down any quantity of blubber likely to be procured. Lat. 39. 5. S.

SEA-LETTER, or SEA-BRIEF, one of the documents expected to be found on board of every neutral ship. It specifies the nature and quantity of the cargo, the place from which it comes, and its destination.

SE'A-LIKE, *adj.* [ræ-lic, Sax.] Resembling the sea.

Scarce the muse
Dares stretch her wing o'er this enormous mass
Of rushing water; scarce she dares attempt
The *sea-like* Plata. *Thomson.*

SE'ALING, *s.* Act of sealing.—Those that sealed (in the margin, at the *sealings*) were Nehemiah, Seraiah, &c. *Nehem.* x. 1.

SE'ALING-WAX, *s.* Hard wax used to seal letters.—The prominent orifice was closed with *sealing-wax*. *Boyle.*

SEA-LION, *s.* The PHOCA LEONINA.

SEALKOTE, a celebrated city and fortress of Hindostan, province of Lahore, now belonging to the Seiks. By Hindoo tradition it is said to have been called Richnau, to have been built 5000 years ago, and to have been the capital of the Punjab, or country between the five rivers. In the year 1184, A. D., it was taken by the celebrated Mohammed Ghory, who put it into complete repair, and left a garrison there. It was taken by the emperor Akbar, in the 16th century, and, with the adjoining districts, assigned as a jagier to rajah Man Sing, who expended a considerable sum of money in repairing it. In the following reign it was a large and flourishing city, and was celebrated for its manufactures of silk, embroidery, paper, daggers, &c. It also contained a number of mosques, colleges, &c., and was surrounded by magnificent gardens, but it is now much fallen to decay. Lat. 32. 44. N. long. 73. 58. E.

SEALS, ISLE OF, a small and rocky islet of Wales, on the northern point of Anglesey, which is much frequented by seals, and on which there is a good light-house.

SEAM, *s.* [ȝeam, Sax. *Szoom*, Dutch] The suture where the two edges of cloth are sewed together.

In velvet white as snow the troop was gown'd,
The *seams* with sparkling emeralds set around. *Dryden.*

Precepts should be so finely wrought together in the same piece, that no coarse *seam* may discover where they join. *Addison.*—The juncture of planks in a ship.

With boiling pitch—the *seams* instops,
Which, well laid o'er, the salt sea waves withstand. *Dryden.*

A cicatrix; a scar.—[ȝeam, Sax. *a load.*] A measure; a vessel in which things are held; eight bushels of corn. *Ainsworth.*—Seam of glass. A quantity of glass, weighing 120 pounds.—ȝeme, Sax.; *saim*, Welsh; *sain*, Fr.] Tallow; grease; hog's lard.

Part scour the rusty shields with *seam*, and part
New grind the blunted ax. *Dryden.*

To SEAM, *v. a.* To join together by suture, or otherwise; to mark; to scar with a long cicatrix.—*Seam'd* o'er with wounds, which his own sabre gave. *Pope.*

SE'A-MAID, *s.* A mermaid.

Certain stars shot from their spheres,
To hear the *sea-maid's* musick. *Shakspeare.*

A water-nymph.

You fisher-boyes, and *sea-maids'* dainty crew,
Farewell! for Thomalin will seek a new
And more respectful stream; ungrateful Chame, adieu!
P. Fletcher.

SE'A-MALL, *s.* A kind of sea-gull. *Ray.*

SE'AMAN, *s.* [ræ-man, Sax.] A sailor; a navigator; a mariner.

Seamen, through dismal storms, are wont
To pass the oyster-breeding Hellespont. *Evelyn.*

Æneas order'd
A stately tomb, whose top a trumpet bore,
A soldier's fauchion, and a *seaman's* oar;
Thus was his friend interr'd. *Dryden.*

Merman; the male of the mermaid.—Seals live at land and at sea, and porpuses have the warm blood and intrails of a hog, not to mention mermaids or *seamen*. *Locke.*

SE'A-MANSHIP, *s.* Naval skill; good management of a ship.

a ship.—Privateers and Moorish corsairs possess not the best *sea-manship*, and very little discipline. *Burke.*

SE'A-MARK, *s.* Point or conspicuous place distinguished at sea, and serving the mariners as directions of their course.—They were executed at divers places upon the sea-coast, for *sea-marks* or light-houses, to teach Perkins's people to avoid the coast. *Bacon.*

SEAMER, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 4 miles south-west of Scarborough. Population 485.

SEAMER, a hamlet of England, North Riding of Yorkshire; 2 miles north-west of Stokesley.

SEAMER, a small river of England, in Yorkshire, which falls into the Ure, between Norton and Bainbridge.

SE'A-MEW, *s.* A fowl that frequents the sea.

An island salt and bare,
The haunt of seals, and orcs, and *sea-mews* clang. *Milton.*

SE'AMLESS, *adj.* Having no seam.

There froward authors, with disputes, have torn
The garments *seamless* as the firmament. *Davenant.*

SEAMMADALE, Loch, a small lake of Scotland, in Argyleshire, out of which rises the small river Euchar, and falls into the sound of Mull.

SEA-MONSTER, *s.* Strange animal of the sea.—Where luxury late reign'd, *sea-monsters* whelp. *Milton.*

SE'A-MOSS, *s.* Coral.

Some scurvi-grass do bring;—
From Shepey *sea-moss* some, to cool his boyling blood.
Drayton.

SE'AM-RENT, *s.* A separation of any thing where it is joined; a breach of the stitches.

SE'AMSTRESS, *s.* [ȝeamȝtre, Sax.] And according to the Saxon form, our word at first was *seamster.* Cotgrave in V. *Lingiere*, says, "A *seamster*, a woman that makes or sells linen, &c." A woman whose trade is to sew. Often written *sempstress.*

They wanted food and raiment; so they took
Religion for their *seamstress* and their cook. *Cleaveland.*

SE'AMY, *adj.* Having a seam; shewing the seam.

Some such squire he was,
That turn'd your wit the *seamy* side without,
And made you to suspect me. *Shakspeare.*

SEAN, *s.* [ȝegne, Sax.] A net. Sometimes written *seine* or *saine.*

Birds are ta'ne
With tramels, fishes by the entangling *saine.* *Sandys.*

SEA-NA'VELWORT, *s.* An herb growing in Syria. See Androsaces.

SEA NETTLE, *s.* A sort of fish, resembling a lump of stiff jelly.

SEA-NYMPH, *s.* Goddess of the sea.—Virgil, after Homer's example, gives us a transformation of Æneas's ship into *sea-nymphs.* *Broome.*

SEA-O'NION, *s.* An herb. *Ainsworth.*—See Scilla.

SE'A-OOSE, *s.* The mud in the sea or shore.—All *sea-ooses* or oosy mud, and the mud of rivers, are of great advantage to all sorts of land. *Mortimer.*

SE'A-PAD, *s.* The star-fish.

SEA-PA'NTHER, *s.* A fish like a lamprey.

SE'A-PIECE, *s.* A picture representing any thing at sea.—Painters often employ their pencils upon *sea-pieces.* *Addison.*

SEA-PIKE, *s.* The Esox Belone.

SE'A-POOL, *s.* A lake of salt water.—I heard it wished, that all that land were a *sea-pool.* *Spenser.*

SE'A-PORT, *s.* A harbour.—Scene, for the first act, in Venice; during the rest of the play, at a *sea-port* in Cyprus. *Shakspeare.*

SE'APOY. See Sepoy.

SEAR, *adj.* [ȝeapian, Sax., *to dry.* The word has been also referred to the ξηρος, Gr. *dry.*] Dry; not any longer green. See Sere.

I have liv'd long enough: my May of life
Is fall'n into the *sear*, the yellow leaf. *Shakspeare.*

Ye myrtles brown, with ivy never *sear.* *Milton.*

To SEAR, *v. a.* [ȝeapian, Sax.] To burn; to cauterize.

The scorching flame sore singed all his face,
And through his armour all his body *sear'd.* *Spenser.*

To wither; to dry.—Some beauty peep'd through lattice of *sear'd* age. *Shakspeare.*

SEARA, a province and captainship of Brazil, bounded west by the province of Maranham, north by the ocean, east by the province of Rio Grande, and south by the mountains of the interior. It contains about 10,000 inhabitants, and carries on little commerce.

SEARA, a town and fortress of Brazil, in the capitania of Seara, of which it is the capital. It contains three churches, the governor's palace, the town-hall and prison, a custom-house, and the treasury. The number of inhabitants is from 1000 to 1200. It is defended by a fort which stands upon a sand hill close to the town. There is not much to justify the preference given to this spot. It has no river, nor any harbour, and the beach is bad to land upon, the breakers are violent, and the reef of rocks affords very little protection to vessels riding at anchor upon the coast. Lat. 3. 31. S. long. 38. 28. W.

SEARBY, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 4½ miles north-west of Caistor.

To SEARCE, *v. a.* [*sasser*, Fr.] To sift finely.—For the keeping of meal, bolt and *searce* it from the bran. *Mortimer.*

SEARCE, *s.* [*sas*, Fr.] A sieve; a bolter. *Unused. Sherwood.*

SE'ARCER, *s.* One who sifts and bolts corn.

To SEARCH, *v. a.* [*chercher*, Fr.] To examine; to try; to explore; to look through.—Help to *search* my house this one time: If I find not what I seek, let me for ever be your table sport. *Shakspeare.*—To inquire; to seek for.

Now clear I understand
What oft my steadiest thoughts have *search'd* in vain.
Milton.

With this good sword,
That ran through Cæsar's bowels, *search* this bosom.
Shakspeare.

To Search *out.* To find by seeking.—They may sometimes be successful to *search out* truth. *Watts.*

To SEARCH, *v. n.* To make a search; to look for something.—Satisfy me once more, once more *search* with me. *Shakspeare.*—To make inquiry.—To ask or *search* I blame thee not. *Milton.*—Those who seriously *search* after or maintain truth, should study to deliver themselves without obscurity or equivocation. *Locke.*—To seek; to try to find.—Your husband's coming, woman, to *search* for a gentleman that is here now in the house. *Shakspeare.*—We in vain *search* for that constitution within a fly, upon which depend those powers we observe in them. *Locke.*

SEARCH, *s.* Inquiry by looking into every suspected place.

The orb he roam'd
With narrow *search*, and with inspection deep. *Milton.*

Examination.—The mind sets itself on work in *search* of some hidden idea, and turns the eye of the soul upon it. *Locke.*—Inquiry; act of seeking: with *of*, *for*, or *after.*—His reasons are as two grains of wheat hid in two bushels of chaff: you shall seek all day ere you find them, and when you have them they are not worth the *search.* *Shakspeare.*—By the philosophical use of words, I mean such an use as conveys the precise notions of things, which the mind may be satisfied with in its *search after* knowledge. *Locke.*—The parents, after a long *search for* the boy, gave him for drowned in a canal. *Addison.*—Quest; pursuit.

If zealous love should go in *search* of virtue,
Where should he find it purer than in Blanche? *Shakspeare.*

SE'ARCHABLE,

SE'ARCHABLE, *adj.* That may be explored.

SE'ARCHER, *s.* Examiner; trier.—The Agarenes that seek wisdom upon earth, the authors of fables, and *searchers* out of understanding. *Bar.* iii. 23.—Seeker; inquirer.

In vain we lift up our presumptuous eyes
To what our Maker to their ken denies:
The *searcher* follows fast; the object flies. *Prior.*

The women in London appointed to examine the bodies of the dead, and report the cause of death.—The *searchers*, who are ancient matrons sworn to their office, repair to the place where the dead corpse lies, and by view of the same, and by other inquiries, examine by what disease the corpse died. *Graunt.*

SE'ARCHING, *s.* Examination; inquisition.—For the divisions of Reuben there were great *searchings* of heart. *Judges*, v.

SE'ARCHLESS, *adj.* Avoiding or escaping search; inscrutable.

The modest-seeming eye,
Beneath whose beauteous beams, belying heaven,
Lurk *searchless* cunning, cruelty, and death. *Thomson.*

SE'ARCLOTH. *s.* [ȝarclaȝ, Sax., from ȝar, *pain*, and claȝ, *a plaster*, so that *cerecloth*, as it is now written, from *cera*, wax, seems to be wrong.] A plaster; a large plaster. —Bees wax is the ground of all *searcloth* salves. *Mortimer.*

SE'AREDNESS, *s.* State of being seared or cauterized. —He wonders at my extreme prodigality of credit, and *searedness* of conscience, in citing an epistle so convicted by Bellarmine! *Bp. Hall.*—Delivering up the sinner to a stupidity, or *searedness* of conscience. *South.*

SE'A-RESEMBLING, *adj.* Sea-like.

Jordan from two bubbling heads
His oft returning waters leads,
Till they their narrow bounds forsake,
And grow a *sea-resembling* lake. *Sandys.*

SEAR-GREEN, a hamlet of England, in Buckinghamshire; 2 miles north-east of Beaconsfield.

SE'A-RISK, *s.* Hazard at sea.—He was so great an encourager of commerce, that he charged himself with all the *sea-risque* of such vessels as carried corn to Rome in the winter. *Arbuthnot.*

SEA-RO'BBER, *s.* A pirate; a sea-thief.—Trade is much disturbed by pirates and *sea-robbers*. *Milton.*

SE'A-ROCKET, *s.* A plant.

SE'A-ROOM. *s.* Open sea; spacious main.

The bigger whale like some huge carrack lay,
Which wanteth *sea-room* with her foes to play. *Waller.*

SEA-RO'VER, *s.* A pirate.—A certain island long before dispeopled, and left waste by *sea-rovers*. *Milton.*

SE'A-RUFF, *s.* A kind of sea-fish.

SEA-SALTER, a parish of England, in Kent, near the sea; 5 miles north-west of Canterbury. Population 536.

SEA-SE'RPENT, *s.* A water-serpent.

SEA-SE'RVICE, *s.* Naval war.—You were pressed for the *sea-service*, and got off with much ado. *Swift.*

SEA-SHA'RK, *s.* A ravenous sea-fish.

Witches mummy, maw and gulf
Of the ravening salt *sea-shark*. *Shakspeare.*

SE'A-SHELL, *s.* Shells found on the shore.—*Sea-shells* are great improvers of sour or cold land. *Mortimer.*

SEA-SHO'RE, *s.* The coast of the sea.—To say a man has a clear idea of any quantity, without knowing how great it is, is as reasonable as to say he has the positive idea of the number of the sands on the *sea-shore*. *Locke.*

SE'A-SICK, *adj.* Sick, as new voyagers on the sea.—She began to be much *sea-sick*, extremity of weather continuing. *Shakspeare.*

SEA-SI'DE, *s.* The edge of the sea.—Their camels were without number, as the sand by the *sea-side*. *Jud.* vii.

SE'ASON, *s.* [*saison*, Fr.] One of the four parts of the year, Spring, Summer, Autumn, Winter.—We saw, in six days' travelling, the several *seasons* of the year in their beauty. *Addison.*—The seasons anciently began differently from what they now do; witness the old verses:

"Dat Clemens *hyemen*; dat Petrus *ver* cathedratus;
Æstuat Urbanus; *autumnat* Bartholomæus."

A time as distinguished from others.—The *season* prime for sweetest scents and airs. *Milton.*—A fit time; an opportune concurrence.

The *season* when to come, and when to go,
To sing, or cease to sing, we never know. *Pope.*

A time not very long.

We'll slip you for a *season*, but our jealousy
Does yet depend. *Shakspeare.*

That which gives a high relish.—You lack the *season* of all natures, sleep. *Shakspeare.*

To SE'ASON, *v. a.* [German, *salzen*.] To mix with food any thing that gives a high relish.—For breakfast and supper, milk and milk-pottage are very fit for children; only let them not be *seasoned* with sugar. *Locke.*—To give a relish to; to recommend by something mingled.—The proper use of wit is to *season* conversation, to represent what is praiseworthy to the greatest advantage, and to expose the vices and follies of men. *Tillotson.*—To qualify by admixture of another ingredient.

Mercy is above this sceptred sway;
It is an attribute to God himself;
And earthly power does then shew likest God's,
When mercy *seasons* justice. *Shakspeare.*

Season your admiration but a while,
With an attentive ear, till I deliver
This marvel to you. *Shakspeare.*

To imbue; to tinge or taint.

Whatever thing
The sithe of time mows down, devour unspar'd,
Till I, in man residing, through the race
His thoughts, his looks, words, actions, all infect,
And *season* him thy last and sweetest prey. *Milton.*

To fit for any use by time or habit; to mature.

The crow doth sing as sweetly as the lark,
When neither is attended; and, I think,
The nightingale, if she should sing by day
When every goose is cackling, would be thought
No better a musician than the wren:
How many things by season *season'd* are,
To their right praise and true perfection. *Shakspeare.*

The archers of his guard shot two arrows every man together against an inch board of well *seasoned* timber. *Hayward.*

To SE'ASON, *v. n.* To become mature; to grow fit for any purpose.—Carpenters rough-plane boards for flooring, that they may set them by to *season*. *Moxon.*—To betoken; to savour.

Lose not your labour and your time together,
It *seasons* of a fool. *Beaum. and Fl.*

SE'ASONABLE, *adj.* Opportune; happening or done at a proper time; proper as to time.—Mercy is *seasonable* in the time of affliction, as clouds of rain in the time of drought. *Ecclus.* v.

SE'ASONABLENESS, *s.* Opportuneness of time; propriety with regard to time.—A British freeholder would very ill discharge his part, if he did not acknowledge the excellency and *seasonableness* of those laws by which his country has been recovered out of its confusions. *Addison.*

SE'ASONABLY, *adv.* Properly with respect to time.—This is that to which I would most earnestly, most *seasonably* advise you all. *Sprat.*

SE'ASONAGE, *s.* Seasoning; sauce.—Light gives a *seasonage* to all other fruitions, lays open the bosom of the universe, and shows the treasures of nature; in a word, gives opportunity to the enjoyment of all the other senses. *South.*

SE'ASONER,

SE'ASONER, *s.* He who seasons or gives a relish to any thing.

SE'ASONING, *s.* That which is added to any thing to give it a relish.—Some abound with words, without any *seasoning* or taste of matter. *B. Jonson.*—The public accept a paper which has in it none of those *seasonings* that recommend the writings which are in vogue among us. *Addison.*

SEA-SU'RGEON, *s.* A chirurgeon employed on shipboard.—My design was to help the *sea-surgeon.* *Wiseman.*

SEA-SURROUNDED, *adj.* Encircled by the sea.

To *sea-surrounded* realms the gods assign
Small tract of fertile lawn, the least to mine. *Pope.*

SEAT, *s.* [*sett*, old German.] Any thing on which one may sit.

The sons of light
Hasted, resorting to the summons high,
And took their *seats.* *Milton.*

Chair of state.

With due observance of thy goodly *seat,*
Great Agamemnon, Nestor shall supply
Thy latest words. *Shakspeare.*

Dwelling; abode.

O earth, how like to heaven! if not preferr'd
Most justly, *seat* worthier of gods, as built
With second thoughts, reforming what was old. *Milton.*

The promis'd *seat* of empire shall again
Cover the mountain, and command the plain. *Prior.*

Situation; site.—It followeth now that we find out the *seat* of Eden; for in it was Paradise by God planted. *Ralegh.*—A church by Strand-bridge, and two bishops' houses, were pulled down to make a *seat* for his new building. *Hayward.*—He that builds a fair house upon an ill *seat,* committeth himself to prison. *Bacon.*

To SEAT, *v. a.* To place on seats; to cause to sit down.—The guests were no sooner *seated* but they entered into a warm debate. *Arbuthnot.*—To fix in any particular place or situation; to settle.—Should one family or one thousand hold possession of all the southern undiscovered continent, because they had *seated* themselves in Nova Guiana. *Ralegh.*—To fix; to place firm.

Why do I yield to that suggestion,
Whose horrid image doth upfix my hair,
And make my *seated* heart knock at my ribs,
Against the use of nature? *Shakspeare.*

From their foundations loosening to and fro,
They pluck'd the *seated* hills. *Milton.*

To SEAT, *v. n.* To rest; to lie down. *Not in use.*

Him thether eke for all his fearfull threat
He followed fast, and chased him so nie,
That to the folds, where sheepe at night doe *seat,*
And to the litle cots, where shepherds lie
In winter's wrathfull time, he forced him to flie. *Spenser.*

SEA-TE'RM, *s.* Word of art used by the sea-men.—I agree with you in your censure of the *sea-terms* in Dryden's Virgil, because no terms of art, or cant words, suit the majesty of epic poetry. *Pope.*

SEA-THI'EF, *s.* [ræ-ðeoꝼ, Saxon.] A pirate.—The one be *sea-theeves,* suche as lye in the straights and corners of the sea, and take other men's goods from them by force. *Bp. of Chichester.*

SEATHWAITE, a parish of England, in Lancashire; 8 miles west-by-north of Hawkshead.

SEATMOORTHON, a small village of England, in Cumberland, near Cockermouth.

SEA-TO'AD, *s.* An ugly sea fish so named.

SEATON, a fishing village of Scotland, in Ross-shire, on the coast of the Moray frith. Population 380.

SEATON, a township of England, in Cumberland; 3 miles north-east of Workington. Here are very extensive iron-works on the Derwent, and near it there is a considerable salmon-fishery.

SEATON, a parish of England, in Devonshire, much frequented for sea-bathing; 3 miles south of Colyton. Population 726.

SEATON, a river of England, in Cornwall, which rises about 4 miles north-east of Leskeard, and after a course of 12 miles, falls into the English channel, 3 miles east of Loo. A town of the same name formerly stood at its mouth, which was long since swallowed up by the encroachments of the sea.

SEATON, a hamlet of England, in Durham; 4½ miles south-west of Sunderland.

SEATON, a parish of England, in Rutlandshire; 4 miles south-east of Uppingham.

SEATON, a village of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 11 miles north-east of Beverley.

SEATON CAREW, a village of England, on the sea-coast of Durham, much frequented as a bathing place, for which purpose it is accommodated with an inn, on an extensive scale, and several commodious lodging-houses; 10½ miles north-east of Stockton-upon-Tees.

SEATON DELAVAL, a village of England, county of Northumberland, situated on the sea, near Tynemouth. It has an excellent harbour, of artificial construction, called Seaton Sluice, but admitting only vessels of small burden.

SEATON, NORTH, a hamlet of England, in Northumberland; 6 miles east-by-north of Morpeth.

SEATON ROSS, a parish of England, East Riding of Yorkshire; 7 miles west-by-south of Market Weighton.

SE'A-TORN, *adj.* Torn by the sea.

As fair a bay,
As ever merchant wish'd might be the road,
Wherein to ease his *sea-torn* vessel's load. *Browne.*

SE'A-TOST, *adj.* Tossed by the sea.

The ship, upon whose deck
The *sea-tost* prince appears to speak. *Shakspeare.*

SEAVES, *s.* Rushes. *Northern.*

SEAVINGTON, ST. MARY and ST. MICHAEL'S, two adjoining parishes of England, in Somerset, about 3 miles east of Ilminster.

SE'AVY, *adj.* Overgrown with rushes: as, *seavy* ground. *Ray.*

SEA-WA'LLED, *adj.* Surrounded by the sea.

Our *sea-wall'd* garden, the whole land,
Is full of weeds. *Shakspeare.*

SE'A-WARD, *adj.* [peapꝺ, Sax.] Directed towards the sea.—To your *sea-ward* steps farewell. *Donne.*

SE'A-WARD, *adv.* Towards the sea.

The rock rush'd *sea-ward* with impetuous roar,
Ingulf'd, and to the abyss the boaster bore. *Pope.*

SEA-WA'TER, *s.* The salt water of the sea.—By digging of pits in the sea-shore, he did frustrate the laborious works of the enemies, which had turned the *sea-water* upon the wells of Alexandria. *Bacon.*

SEA-WEEDS, *s. pl.* Plants growing in the sea, otherwise called ALGÆ.

But like a rock unmov'd, a rock that braves
The raging tempest, and the rising waves,
Propp'd on himself he stands: his solid sides
Wash off the *sea-weeds,* and the sounding tides. *Dryden.*

SE'A-WITHWIND, *s.* Bindweed, or CONVOLVULUS.

SEA-WORMWOOD, *s.* [*seriphium,* Lat.] A sort of wormwood that grows in the sea.

SE'A-WORTHY, *adj.* Fit to go to sea; applied to a ship.

SEBA (Albert), a native of East Frizeland, was by profession a druggist at Amsterdam, and a member of the Academy Naturæ Curiosorum. He published a descriptive catalogue, in Latin and French, of the vast collection of objects in natural history which he had brought together, in four vols. folio, illustrated with a great number of engravings.

He likewise communicated several papers to the Ephem. Nat. Curios.

SEBA'CEOUS, *adj.* [*sebaceus*, Lat.] Made of tallow; belonging to tallow. Coles writes it *sebacean*. Dict. 1685.

SEBACEOUS GLANDS, in Anatomy, small glandular bodies in the skin, secreting the unctuous matter which covers the surface of the body. They are particularly manifest about the alæ of the nose, and in the folds of the external ear.

SEBACIC ACID. See CHEMISTRY, pp. 361, 364.

SEBÆA, a name given by Dr. Brown, in honour of Albert Seba, to a genus of plants that he formed out of the EXACUM ALBIUS, aureum and cordatum of Linnæus, and the rorarium discovered by Labilliardiere.

SEBAIA, a village of Hedsjas, in Arabia; 33 miles south of Medina.

SEBAKET BARDOIL, or THE LAKE OF KING BALDWIN, a narrow lake on the coast of Egypt, 15 miles long, near the Mediterranean and the borders of Syria; 2 miles east of Catieh.

SEBALA, a village of Hedsjas, in Arabia; 27 miles south of Medina.

SEBANZARRO, a village of Abyssinia; 80 miles east-north-east of Axum.

SEBAR, *s.* [Arabic.] The wood of aloes.

SEBARIMA, a small river of Guiana, which runs towards the north, and enters the Orinoco, at its great mouth called De Navios.

SEBASTE, a village of Palestine, now nearly deserted, about two leagues to the north of Napolose. It is remarkabe as being the site of the ancient *Samaria*.

SEBASTIAN, a town of Mexico, in the intendancy of Sonora, situated on the skirt of a mountainous ridge. It is of a hot temperature, and the surrounding territory abounds in maize and French beans; but the principal commerce of its inhabitants is in its fisheries, which are carried on to a great extent on the river Mazatlan. The inhabitants are numerous, consisting of mulattoes, mestizoes, and Indians. Lat. 24. N. long. 106. W.

SEBASTIAN, a river of the New Kingdom of Granada, in the province of Santa Martha, which runs north, and enters the swamp of Santa Martha.

SEBASTIAN, ST., a considerable town of the north-east of Spain, the capital of the district of Guipuscoa, in the province of Biscay. It stands on a bay between two small inlets, forming a peninsula at the mouth of the small river Urumea. Being at the distauce of only ten miles from the mouth of the Bidassoa, the boundary of France and Spain, it has long been a frontier fortress of considerable strength. The town is fortified with bastions and half-moons; the citadel stands on a conical eminence, accessible only by a path winding round it in a spiral form. The harbour is small, and capable of containing only about thirty merchantmen; but it is perfectly secure, being nearly inclosed by the two moles, and protected from the winds by the adjacent eminences. St. Sebastian is better built than most Spanish towns, the streets being wide, straight, and well paved; the houses also are in general good. Here are three churches, five convents, an hospital, and about 12,000 inhabitants. The trade of the place is partly with the colonial possessions of Spain, and partly with the rest of Europe, to which it exports ships' anchors, cables, and leather, all manufactured in the town, and from materials supplied by the adjacent country. The environs of St. Sebastian are pleasant; the view comprising both the sea and the Pyrenees. The principal walk is in a delightful vale, a little to the north of the town. St. Sebastian has been repeatedly taken by the French; it fell into their hands in the short war of 1719, in the revolutionary contest of 1794, and in Buonaparte's invasion in 1808. On the last occasion it remained five years in their possession; and when the victory at Vittoria, by the British (21st June 1813), opened a prospect of its recapture, the French had time to throw into it a garrison capable of making a very obstinate defence. An attempt on the part of the British to take it by assault on the 25th July, was repulsed with heavy loss. It became necessary to make approaches with great caution, and even to incur a severe sacrifice of lives in the final attack, on 31st August, when it fell into the hands of the British. In this dreadful conflict a fire burst out in the town, which, joined to the preceding bombardment, laid it almost entirely in ashes. It was afterwards rebuilt; 8 miles west of Fontarabia, and 40 east of Bilboa. Lat. 43. 10. 30. N. long. 1. 58. 30. E.

SEBASTIAN, ST., a sea-port, and capital of the island of Gomera, one of the Canaries. It is an agreeable little town, in a plentiful country, with a very good harbour.

SEBASTIAN, ST., a settlement of Mexico, in the province of San Luis de Potosi, containing 166 families of Indians.—There are many other settlements of the same name scattered through Spanish America, most of them inconsiderable, and not requiring particular notice.

SEBASTIAN, ST., an island in the Atlantic ocean, separated from the coast of Brazil by a strait about 3 leagues wide. Lat. 23. 45. S. This island has the reputation of producing the best sugar, rum and pulse, as well as the finest cattle in all Brazil; and these advantages, joined to its convenient situation, must render a plantation upon it highly valuable. It is situated on a low track of ground about 300 yards from the beach. The inhabitants, amounting to 2000 or 3000, are an indigent and not very industrious people; they subsist chiefly on fish. There are some inconsiderable plantations in the neighbourhood, where a little indigo is made, and some tolerably good tobacco is grown. This town is noted (and formerly was much more so) for its very large canoes scooped out of the solid timber; some of them were of almost incredible dimensions. This place is by no means a desirable, or indeed a tolerable residence for a stranger; it is exposed to all the inconveniences peculiar to low and sandy situations; the hot unwholesome weather, seldom refreshed by a breeze, tends to multiply the immense swarms of mosquitos, which constitute one of the plagues of the torrid zone.

SEBASTIAN, ST., a town of Brazil, on the shore opposite to the above island.

SEBASTIAN, ST., DE LOS REYES, a city of the Caraccas, in the province of Venezuela, situated on the shore of the river Guarico. The city was founded towards the end of the 16th century. Its situation is pleasant, but it is rendered rather disagreeable for a place of residence, by the very great heats which the continual and strong breezes from the north-east but faintly temper. The water is abundant. There is, besides the parish church, an insignificant hospital. The soil of its jurisdiction, fit for many commodities, produce scarcely any thing but maize, very little else being planted. Its pastures feed large herds, which the inhabitants prefer to the products of the field. Population 3500; 28 leagues south ¼ south-west of Caraccas. Lat. 9. 54. N.

SEBASTIAN, SAN, DE BUENAVISTA, a town of New Granada; 140 miles south-south-west of Carthagena, at the entrance of the gulf of Darien. It was formerly of much importance, but it is now decayed.

SEBASTIAN'S SOUND, ST., an inlet in the straits of Magellan, on the coast of Terra del Fuego; 48 miles south of Sweepstakes Foreland.

SEBASTIANO, ST., a small town in the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont, district of Turin. It is situated on an eminence near the Po, opposite to Chivaso. Population 1600.

SEBASTIANO, ST., a village of Italy, near Naples, with nearly 1000 inhabitants.

SEBASTIANSBERG, a small town in the north of Bohemia, on the borders of Saxony; 58 miles west-north-west of Prague.

SEBASTIANO, ST., a town of Brazil, in the government of Para: 60 miles west of Pauxis.

SEBASTIAO, ST., a river of Brazil, which runs into the Atlantic. Lat. 23. 40. N.

SEBASTICOOK, a river of the United States, in Maine, which rises near the Piscatiquis, and flows into the Kennebeck

beck on the east side, at Windsor. It passes through a large pond in Harmony, and receives a considerable eastern branch in Palmyra; its whole length is 70 or 80 miles.

SEBASTICOOK, a township of the United States, in Somerset county, Maine. Population 105.

SEBASTOCRATOR, a title of honour given to some distinguished person of the imperial family of Rome. It was introduced by Alexius Commenus, in order to reward the piety of his brother Isaac, without giving himself an equal. The happy flexibility of the Greek tongue allowed him to compound the names of Augustus and emperor (Sebastos and Autocrator), and the union produced the sonorous title of Sebastocrator. He was exalted above the Cæsar on the first step of the throne; the public acclamations repeated his name; and he was only distinguished from the sovereign by some peculiar ornaments of the head and feet. The emperor alone could assume the purple or red buskins, and the close diadem, or tiara, which imitated the fashion of the Persian kings; instead of red, the buskins of the Sebastocrator and Cæsar were green, and on their open coronets or crowns the precious gems were more sparingly distributed. The five titles of Despot, Sebastocrator, Cæsar, Panhypersebastos, and Protosebastos, were usually confined to the princes of the emperor's blood; they were the emanations of his majesty; but as they exercised no regular functions, their existence was useless, and their authority precarious.

SEBATS, in Chemistry, a genus of salts, formed by the union of the sebacic acid with the different saline bases.

SEBAYES, a small port on the north-north-east coast of the island of Cuba.

SEBBA ROUS, or the Seven Capes, a cape of Algiers, the country round which is rugged, inhospitable and inhabited by a brutal and ferocious race, living in caves scooped out of the rocks. When any vessel, either in course of sailing, or by stress of weather, approaches their coast, these Kabyles immediately start out of their holes, and running down to the cliffs on the shore, throw out execrable wishes that God would deliver it into their hands. Lat. 37. 8. N. long. 6. 32. E.

SEBBAH, a considerable town of Fezzan, situated in a fertile country, and containing in its vicinity extensive ruins; 60 miles north of Mourzouk.

SEBEN, or Saben, a castle and village of Austria, in Tyrol; 8 miles south-west of Brixen, which stands on the site of the ancient town of Sabiona, destroyed by Attila.

SEBENICO, a town of Austrian Dalmatia, near the mouth of the river Kerka. It stands on the slope of a rocky hill, extends to the edge of the water, and is surrounded by fortifications of very old date. The Kerka here expands into a lake, which forms an excellent harbour, capable of containing a large fleet, and communicating with the Adriatic by means of a short and narrow strait. Its entrance is protected by a fort, and the town is defended by two forts on the top of the hill. Sebenico contains 6300 inhabitants, is most romantically situated of any town in Dalmatia, and, next to Zara, the best built. It is said to have been more considerable in the 16th century. It has long been a bishop's see, and has a cathedral in the Gothic taste, admired particularly for the bold construction of its roof, which is formed of marble slabs joined together. The environs are fertile; 37 miles south-east of Zara, and 143 north-west of Ragousa.

SEBER (Wolfang), a German philologist, of the 16th century, who published an "Index omnium in Homero verborum," which has several times been reprinted.

SEBES, Also, a small town in the north of Hungary; 3 miles north-east of Eperies.

SEBES, Boros, a small town in the east of Hungary, in the county of Arad, on the river Sebes. Lat. 46. 57. 15. N. long. 22. 17. 30. E.

SEBESE, or Pulo Bicie, a small island in the straits of Sunda. Lat. 5. 50. S. long. 105. 27. E.

SEBESTIN, or Sebestina, the Arabic name, and the generic term adopted by Gærtner, of Cordia. See Cordia.

SEBEZ, a town in the west of European Russia, in the government of Vitepsk, situated near a lake; 48 miles north of Vitepsk.

SEBIFERA [named by Loureiro, from *sebum*, tallow, because it produces a similar substance, used for making candles], in Botany, a genus of the class dioecia, order polyadelphia, natural order of tiliaceæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Male—Calyx: perianth of four roundish, concave, hairy, spreading leaves. Corolla none. Stamina: filaments about one hundred, capillary, longer than the calyx, distributed into ten sets; anthers ovate, of two cells. Female on a separate plant. Calyx as in the male. Corolla none. Pistil: germens about ten, superior, stalked, roundish; style scarcely any; stigmas solitary, obtuse, undivided. Pericarp: berries about ten, globose, of one cell. Seeds solitary, globose.—*Essential Character.* Male—Calyx of four leaves. Corolla none. Stamens an hundred, in ten sets. Female calyx of four leaves. Corolla none. Pistils ten, stalked. Berries as many. Seeds solitary.

Sebifera glutinosa. *Bây loi nhót* of the inhabitants of Cochin-china. *Cien kām xû* of the Chinese.—Native of the woods of China and Cochin-china. A large tree, with spreading branches. Leaves alternate, stalked, ovate-oblong, entire, smooth. Male as well as female flowers lateral, or somewhat terminal; their stalks two or three together. Berries small, smooth, blackish.

The wood is light, pale, easily wrought, used for posts and beams in houses. The branches and leaves exude a glutinous fluid; and being bruised and macerated in water, they make a sort of gum, used for mixing with plaster or stucco, in order to render it more tenacious and durable. A great quantity of thick, white, fatty oil is extracted from the berries, of which the vulgar make candles, resembling those of tallow or wax, but of a disagreeable smell.

SEBIZIUS, or Sebisch, the name of a family which was distinguished at Strasburg by the celebrity of the physicians whom it produced, and who successively adorned the professorial chair in that city for the space of 134 years, without interruption, in the persons of four individuals only. The first, second, and fourth of these professors were named *Melchoir;* the third, *John Albert;* and all, with the exception of the first, succeeded their fathers in the chair. They enjoyed extensive practice and high reputation at the time they lived. But their names have nearly perished; and of the greatest of them, who was a count palatine, and who had "examined one hundred and sixty-three candidates, and imposed the doctorial cap on fifty-five physicians" Haller says that he was "eruditus vir, parum usus propriis experimentis."

SEBNITZ, a small town of Germany, in Saxony, situated in a valley surrounded on every side by lofty mountains; 10 miles east-by-north of Konigstein, and 22 east-south-east of Dresden. It contains 2400 inhabitants, mostly descendants of Bohemian refugees, and employed in the manufacture of silk, cotton, stuffs and linen.

SEBOO, or Sabu, a considerable river of Morocco, which rises in the Atlas, near the frontier of Algiers, traverses the province of Fez, passing a little to the north of the capital, and falls into the sea. The mouth, however, is now so blocked up with banks and bars of sand, as to render it of scarcely any use for the purposes of navigation.

SEBOU, or Sibou, small islands on the coast of Cape Breton island, off the south point of Port Dauphin.

SEBSVAR, a town of Korassan, in Persia, taken in 1381, by Timur, who, after a subsequent revolt, caused 10,000 of the inhabitants to be buried alive; and it has never recovered its former importance; 180 miles north-west of Herat.

SEBUÆI, a sect among the ancient Samaritans, whom St. Epiphanius accuses of changing the time expressed in the law, for the celebration of the great annual feasts of the Jews.

SEBURAI, or Seburæi, a name which the Jews give to such of their rabbins or doctors, as lived and taught some time after the finishing of the Taimud.

The word is derived from *saber*, I think, whence *sabura*, *opinion*,

opinion, sentiment: and thence *seburi*, or *seburai*, *opinionative.*

The reason of this appellation, say the rabbins, is, that the Talmud being finished, published and received in all the schools and synagogues, these doctors had nothing to do but to dispute for, and against, the Talmud, and its decisions.

SEBURGHAM CASTLE, a parish of England, in Cumberland; 6 miles south-east of Wigton. Population 474.

SEBURGHAM CHURCH, a village of England, in Cumberland; 9 miles east-south-east of Wigton.

SECA, a small island on the coast of Brazil, in the province of Porto Seguro.

SECA, a point of land on the coast of Venezuela, and New Kingdom of Granada.

SECACUL, a name given by Avicenna, Serapion, and others, to a root which was like ginger, at this time called *ginseng.*

SECALE [of Pliny. A secando. Frumenta secantur; legumina leguntur. *Vossius.*—Others derive it from the Celtic *segal*], in Botany, a genus of the class triandria, order digynia, natural order of gramina, or grasses; gramineæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: the common receptacle lengthened out into a spike; glume two-flowered, two-leaved; leaflets opposite, distant, erect, linear, acuminate, less than the corolla; florets sessile. Corolla two-valved; outer valve more rigid, ventricose, acuminate, compressed; keel ciliate, ending in a long awn; inner valve flat, lanceolate. Nectary two-leaved; leaflets lanceolate, sharpish, ciliate, gibbous on one side at the base. Stamina: filaments three, capillary, hanging out of the flower; anthers oblong, forked. Pistil: germ turbinate; styles two, reflexed, villose; stigma simple. Pericarp none; corolla embraces the seed, gapes and drops it. Seed one, oblong, semi-cylindrical, naked, pointed at the end. There is frequently a third flower which is peduncled between the two larger sessile ones.—*Essential Character.* Calyx opposite, two-valved, two-flowered, solitary.

1. Secale cereale, or rye.—Ciliæ of the glumes rugged. Root annual. Stem higher and weaker than wheat, sometimes attaining the height of six feet. Leaves a quarter or a third of an inch in breadth, rough to the touch, if the finger be drawn from point to base, but not hairy; they are wider, and form a more considerable tuft than wheat commonly does. Spike very close, of a gray colour from its pubescence, in a good soil and situation having four rows, containing from sixty to eighty grains, which are smaller and more slender than in wheat.

Some say that rye is a native of Crete, and others of Siberia; but there is no reason to think that there is any country in which it is found wild. It flowers in June, and the grain is ripe in England about the middle of July.

Rye is esteemed less nourishing than the other common grains, more susceptible of fermentation, and in a small degree laxative. It is used principally for making bread in northern countries, either alone or mixed with wheat; and for extracting an ardent spirit.

2. Secale villosum, or villose rye-grass.—Ciliæ of the glumes villose; calycine scales wedge-shaped. This is an annual grass.—Native of the South of Europe and the Levant.

3. Secale orientale, or oriental rye-grass.—Glumes hirsute; calycine scales awl-shaped.—Native of the Archipelago.

4. Secale Creticum, or Cretan rye-grass.—Glumes ciliate on the outside.—Native of Candia or Crete.

Propagation and Culture.—Rye is ground in many counties, either alone or mixed with wheat to make bread; though it is evidently inferior to wheat in nutritious qualities. The proper time to sow it is autumn. It is a very useful spring feed for ewes and lambs, and is mown as green fodder for horses, &c. The straw of rye is used for stuffing collars, pack-saddles, &c., being more durable than any other.

SECAMONE [apparently corrupted by the modern inhabitants of Egypt from the Greek σκαμμωνια], in Botany, a genus of plants formed by Mr. Browne, of some species of speriplora: see PERIPLORA SECAMONE.

SE'CANT, *s.* [*secante*, Fr.] in Geometry, the right line drawn from the centre of a circle, cutting and meeting with another line called the tangent without it.—A *secant* cannot be a tangent. *Bp. Berkeley.*

SECAS, some small islands or rocks of the Pacific Ocean, near the coast of the province and government of Varagua; about 38 miles north-west of Quibo islands.

SECATABRAS, a village of Diarbekir, in Asiatic Turkey; 75 miles south-west of Mosul.

SECCHIA, a small river of Italy, which falls into the Po; about 10 miles south-east of Mantua.

SECCHIO, a small river of Italy, which, after traversing the territory of Lucca, falls into the Tuscan sea below Pisa.

To SECE'DE, *v. n.* [*secedo*, Latin.] To withdraw from fellowship in any affair.

SECE'DER, *s.* One who discovers his disapprobation of any proceedings by withdrawing himself.

SECEDERS, an appellation comprehending those who are dissenters from the established church of Scotland. This kind of secession took place in the year 1727, when John Glass, disapproving every establishment of a *national* church, maintained that all churches ought to be *congregational:* or, in other words, that no general church should be formed for a nation, but that each religious society in a kingdom or state should be self-constituted, and controuled only by itself.

To SECE'RN, *v. a.* [*secerno*, Lat.] To separate finer from grosser matter; to make the separation of substances in the body.—Birds are better meat than beasts, because their flesh doth assimilate more finely, and *secerneth* more subtilly. *Bacon.*

SECE'SS, *s.* [*secessus*, Lat.] Retirement; retreat.—Silent *secess*, waste solitude. *More.*

SECE'SSION, *s.* [*secessio*, Lat.] The act of departing.—The accession of bodies upon, or *secession* thereof from the earth's surface, perturb not the equilibration of either hemisphere. *Brown.*—The act of withdrawing from councils or actions.—The cells and cloysters of retired votaries, whose very *secession* proclaims their contempt of sinful seculars. *Bp. Hall.*

SECHE, a small river of the island of St. Domingo, which rises in the mountains on the south coast, and enters the sea between the bay of Ocoa and that of Neiva.

SECHELLES, a cluster of small islands in the Indian Ocean, only three of which are inhabited, called Mahé, Praslin and La Digue. They are high, rocky, and, generally speaking, barren, cotton being almost the only product, the annual amount of which is from 350 to 400 bales, of about 300lbs. each. Besides these larger islands, there are twelve small ones, and about as many islets or rocks. They abound in turtle, oysters, and particularly cocoa nuts, which are imported by the inhabitants of Mauritius, who express an oil from them. The inhabitants have six-decked vessels belonging to them. Lat. 4. to 5. S.

SECHIEN, a town of Persia, in the province of Kerman, on the northern coast of the Persian gulf; 140 miles south of Kerman.

SECHIUM [a name given by Dr. Patrick Browne, we know not wherefore], in Botany, a genus of the class monoecia, order monadelphia, natural order of euphorbiæ *(Juss.)*.—Generic Character. Male—Calyx: perianth inferior, of one leaf, tubular, cloven half way down; tube bell-shaped, spreading; segments of the limb lanceolate, flat, pointed, widely spreading. Corolla of one petal; tube the size and figure of the calyx, and adhering to it; limb cloven into five, ovate, flat, acute segments, nearly twice as long as the calyx, and much spreading. Nectary consisting of ten cavities in the upper part of the tube of the corolla. Stamina: filaments five, formed into an erect cylinder, five-cleft at the top, spreading; anther one on the top of each filament, all the five together forming a continued, undulating, polliniferous line. Female on the same plant. Calyx as in the male, but placed on the germen, deciduous. Corolla as in the male, but with larger cavities in the nectary. Pistil: germen superior, obovate, downy, five-furrowed;

rowed; style cylindrical, erect, the length of the calyx; stigma very large, peltate, reflexed, five-cleft at the margin. Pericarp: apple very large, ovate, turbinate, five-furrowed, fleshy, unequally gibbous at the top, furnished with harmless prickles, one-celled above. Seed solitary, nearly ovate, flat or compressed, fleshy, obtuse at each end.—*Essential Character.* Male—Calyx five-cleft. Corolla five-cleft. Filaments five, forming a cylinder. Female calyx and corolla as in the male. Style five-cleft. Fruit muricated, single-seeded.

Sechium edule, or chocho vine.—Native of the West Indies, where it flowers and fruits in September. Root annual. Stem herbaceous, climbing or procumbent, greatly divaricated, roundish, striated, smooth, thick. Leaves alternate, stalked, angularly heart-shaped, eight or ten-lobed, toothed at the margin, rough on the upper side, rugose beneath, often a span long. Tendrils opposite to the leaves, horizontal, very long. Flowers monoecious, axillary, yellow, scentless.

Jacquin informs us that the chocho vine is used by the inhabitants of Cuba in their soups and puddings; and that it is served up as a vegetable with boiled meats.

SECHOUI, a town of China, of the third rank, in Shantung.

SECHURA, a town of Peru, in the bishopric of Truxillo, and jurisdiction of Piura, situated on the banks of the river Piura, about a league from the coast of the Pacific Ocean. This river is subject to great variations; flowing in the month of February till September, very rapidly, and the water so deep, that it can be passed only by rafts; whereas, it has very little water during the other months, and for some time is entirely dry. Sechura contains about 200 houses, built of cane, and a large handsome brick church. The inhabitants are all Indians, and consist of nearly 400 families, who are principally employed either in fishing or driving mules. The desert of Sechura is a frightful waste of sand, extending thirty leagues. The extent and uniform aspect of this plain, together with the continual motion of the sand, which soon effaces all traces, often bewilder the most experienced guides, who, however, shew their skill in soon recovering the right way, for which they make use of two expedients; the first is to keep the wind directly in their faces as they go out, and the reverse on their return; for the wind here being always at south, they cannot be deceived: the second is to take up a handful of sand, at different distances, and smell to it; for as the excrement of the mules impregnate the sand more or less, they determine which is the true road by the scent of it; 180 miles north-north-west of Truxillo, and 30 south-south-east of Payta. Lat. 5. 33. 33. S. long. 80. 42. E.

SECIUM, among the Romans, a term used to signify every thing the priests cut with the knife *secespita*, as the *libum*, *placenta*, &c.

SECKAU, a petty town of Austria, in Upper Styria; 5 miles north north-west of Knittelfield, and formerly a bishop's see, which is now transferred to Gratz.

SECKENDORF (Titus Louis de), a celebrated German writer, was born at a small village near Nuremberg, in the year 1626. He was at an early period introduced to the court of Ernest, duke of Saxony, where he remained about a year, and then entered himself as a student at the academy of Gotha. In 1645, when he returned to Erfurt, he was said to be completely master of eight languages, viz., the Latin, Greek, Hebrew, French, Italian, Spanish, Danish and Swedish, and had, moreover, acquired a very deep insight into history, geography, theology, philosophy, and several branches of the mathematical sciences. By these means, and by an assiduity rarely surpassed, he became not only a great statesman, but one of the brightest ornaments of the republic of letters. In 1656 duke Ernest gave him the management of a part of his revenues; and in the same year he accepted the place of aulic judge in the tribunal of Jena, which was conferred on him by the duke of Altenburg. He accepted other and profitable places; and having attained to his 66th year, died. His works are very numerous, but the most important and considerable is his "Commentary on Lutheranism," which was undertaken with the view of confuting Maimbourg. Duke Ernest had solicited him to write the History of the Reformation, or at least that part of it which related to Saxony; which, in 1682, he agreed to undertake. So highly were his talents estimated, that as soon as his intention was known, most of the German princes opened to him their libraries and archives, and furnished him with such documents as might be useful to his project. A part of the work came out in 1688; but it was not till 1692 that the whole of it was given to the public, under the following title, "Commentarius Historicus et Apologeticus de Lutheranismo, sive de Reformatione Religionis ductu D. M. Lutheri in magna Germanica, aliisque Regionibus et speciatim in Saxonia recepta et stabilita," &c., 2 vols. fol. This work was received with great applause by the learned of all parties. Bayle, in speaking of it, says, "Whoever is desirous of being thoroughly acquainted with the history of that great man (Luther), needs only to read the extensive work of Seckendorf. *Gen. Biog.*

SECKENHEIM, a large village of the west of Germany, in Baden; 4 miles east of Manheim. Population 1200.

SECKER (Thomas), a celebrated archbishop of the church of England, was born in 1693, at Sibthorp, in Nottinghamshire. He was well educated among the dissenters; then went to Paris, and studied medicine. He took his degree of M. D. at Leyden; but, finding that he was likely to get considerable emoluments in the established church, he left both the doctors and dissenters, and, in 1724 was presented to the valuable rectory of Houghton-le-spring, in Durham; in the year 1733, he was presented with the rectory of St. James; in January 1734, he was consecrated bishop of Bristol; and in 1737, was translated to the see of Oxford; and in 1758, he was raised to the archbishopric of Canterbury. He repaid the givers of these places by zealous defences of the church to which he had conformed: he even went farther than most of his contemporaries in endeavouring to extend the authority of the church of England. For this purpose he advocated the measure of establishing bishops in the American colonies. On this subject he was attacked by Dr. Mayhew, of Boston, to whom he replied with much temper. The subsequent separation of the colonies from the British government, fortunately put an end to this project. He died August 3d, 1768, in the 75th year of his age.

Besides his "Lectures on the Church Catechism," he was author of "Eight Charges delivered to the Clergy of the Dioceses of Oxford and Canterbury; with Instructions to Candidates for Orders, and a Latin Speech, intended to have been made at the opening of the Convocation in 1761;" "Fourteen Sermons, preached on several Occasions;" and "Sermons on several Subjects," in four volumes, published after his death by his chaplains, Drs. Porteus and Stinton. "The various works of this able prelate have established his character as one of the most useful and rational preachers among the English divines. Their style is simple and without ornament: they have no pretence to oratory and fine writing; but they display more knowledge of the human heart, and the real motives of action, than is usually found in those kinds of compositions." *Aikin.*

SECKINGEM, a petty town in the west of Germany, in Baden; 17 miles east of Bale. Population 1000. It is situated on the north bank of the Rhine.

SECKINGTON, a parish of England, in Warwickshire; 4 miles north-east of Tamworth.

SE'CLE, *s.* [*siècle*, Fr., *seculum*, Lat.] A century. *Not in use.*—Of a man's age, part he lives in his father's lifetime, and part after his son's birth; and thereupon it is wont to be said, that three generations make one *secle*, or a hundred years, in the genealogies. *Hammond.*

SECLIN, a small town of French Flanders, containing 2500 inhabitants; 4 miles south of Lille.

To SECLU'DE, *v. a.* [*secludo*, Lat.] To confine from; to

to shut up apart; to exclude.—Some parts of knowledge God has thought fit to *seclude* from us, to fence them not only, as he did the interdicted tree, by combination, but with difficulties and impossibilities. *Dec. of Chr. Piety.*—Inclose your tender plants in your conservatory, *secluding* all entrance of cold. *Evelyn.*

SECLU'SION, *s.* [*seclusus*, Lat.] A shutting in or out. Coles, Dict. 1685. Separation; exclusion or inclusion.—Their women appear to have been devoted to a state of *seclusion*. *Warton.*

SECO, a village of Kaarta, in Central Africa; 65 miles east of Kemmoo.

SECO, a river of the Caraccas, in the province of Venezuela, which enters the sea in the little gulf of Coro.

SECO, a river of South America, in the province of Tucuman, which runs east, and enters the Rio Dulce or del Estero.

SECO, a river of St. Domingo, which rises near the south coast, and enters the sea, between the river Gugua and Mount Chico.

SECO, San Salvador De, a settlement of Mexico, in the province of Tepeaca; 8 leagues north-east of Tepeaca.

SECOMILÆ, in Natural History, the name of a genus of fossils, of the class of the *septariæ*; the characters of which are, that they are bodies of a dusky hue, divided by septa, or partitions of a sparry matter, into several more or less regular portions, of a moderately firm texture, not giving fire with steel, but fermenting with acid menstrua, and easily calcining.

SE'COND, *adj.* [*second*, Fr., *secundus*, Lat. "It is observable, that the English have no ordinal of *two*, as the Latins and the nations deriving from them have none of *duo*. What the Latins call *secundus*, from *sequor*, the Saxons term oðer, or æftera." *Johnson.*]—The next in order to the first; the ordinal of two.

Sunk were their hearts with horror of the crime,
Nor needed to be warn'd a *second* time,
But bore each other back. *Dryden.*

Next in value or dignity; inferior.

None I know
Second to me, or like; equal much less. *Milton.*

SE'COND-HAND, *s.* Possession received from the first possessor.—Se'cond-hand is sometimes used adjectively. Not original; not primary.—Some men build so much upon authorities, they have but a *second-hand* or implicit knowledge. *Locke.*

At SE'COND-HAND, *adv.* In imitation; in the second place of order; by transmission; not primarily; not originally.—They pelted them with satyrs and epigrams, which perhaps had been taken up at first only to make their court, and *at second-hand* to flatter those who had flattered their king. *Temple.*

SE'COND, *s.* [*second*, Fr.] One who accompanies another in a duel to direct or defend him.—Their first encounters were very furious, till after some toil and bloodshed they were parted by the *seconds*. *Addison.*—One who supports or maintains; a supporter; a maintainer.—Courage, when it is only a *second* to injustice, and falls on without provocation, is a disadvantage to a character. *Collier.*—A *second* minute, the *second* division of an hour by sixty; the sixtieth part of a minute.—Sounds move above 1140 English feet in a *second* minute of time, and in seven or eight minutes of time about 100 English miles. *Locke.*

A degree, and an hour, are each divided into sixty minutes, marked thus ′; a minute is subdivided into sixty seconds, marked thus ″; a second into sixty thirds, marked thus ‴, &c.

SECOND, in Music, denotes one of the musical intervals; being only the distance between any sound, and the next sound, whether higher or lower.

To SE'COND, *v. a.* To support; to forward; to assist; to come in after the act as a maintainer.

Though we here fall down,
We have supplies to *second* our attempt;
If they miscarry, theirs shall *second* them. *Shakspeare.*

To follow in the next place.

He saw his guileful act
By Eve, though all unweeting, *seconded*
Upon her husband. *Milton.*

Sin is *seconded* with sin; and a man seldom commits one sin to please, but he commits another to defend himself. *South.*

SE'COND SIGHT, *s.* A superstition that prevailed among the Scotch islanders: the parties gifted with this second sight were said to have the power of seeing things future, or things distant.—As he was going out to steal a sheep, he was seized with a fit of *second sight:* the face of the country presented him with a wide prospect of new scenes, which he had never seen before. *Addison.*

The quality of second-sight, they say, is not hereditary; the person who has it cannot exert it at pleasure; nor can he prevent it, or communicate it to another; but it comes on him involuntarily, and exercises itself on him arbitrarily; and often, especially in the younger second seers, to their great trouble and terror.

There are a great number of circumstances said to attend these visions; by observation of which, the particular circumstances, as to time, place, &c., of the death of the person, &c., are learnt. The method of judging of them, or interpreting them, grows into a kind of art; which is very different in different persons. Second-sightedness is held a discredit in the country; so that none, they say, will counterfeit it; but that many conceal and dissemble it. See *Johnson's Journey to the Western Islands of Scotland.* p. 248, &c.

SE'COND-SIGHTED, *adj.* Having the second sight.—Sawney was descended of an ancient family, renowned for their skill in prognostics: most of his ancestors were *second-sighted*, and his mother but narrowly escaped for a witch. *Addison.*

SECOND, Point, a cape on the east coast of Sumatra, in the straits of Banca. Lat. 2. 12. S. long. 105. 48. E.

SE'CONDARILY, *adv.* In the second degree; in the second order; not primarily; not originally; not in the first intention.—These atoms make the wind primarily tend downwards, though other accidental causes impel them *secondarily* to a sloping motion. *Digby.*

SE'CONDARINESS, *s.* The state of being secondary.—That which is peculiar and discriminative must be taken from the primariness and *secondariness* of the perception. *Norris.*

SE'CONDARY, *adj.* [*secondaire*, old Fr., *secundarius*, Lat.] Not primary.—Two are the radical differences: the *secondary* differences are as four. *Bacon.*—Succeeding to the first; subordinate.—Gravitation is the powerful cement which holds together this magnificent structure of the world, which stretcheth the North over the empty space, and hangeth the earth upon nothing, to transfer the words of Job from the first and real cause to the *secondary*. *Bentley.*—Not of the first order or rate.—If the system had been fortuitously formed by the convening matter of a chaos, how is it conceivable that all the planets, both primary and *secondary*, should revolve the same way from the West to the East, and that in the same plane? *Bentley.*—Acting by transmission or deputation.

That we were form'd then, say'st thou? and the work
Of *secondary* hands, by task transferr'd
From father to his son? *Milton.*

SE'CONDARY, *s.* A delegate; a deputy.—It was tacitly understood, and was very proper in itself, that these *secondaries* [ushers of a school] were not to be greedy in engrossing the rarities, when strangers, which often happened, were at dinner. *Wakefield.*

SE'CONDER, *s.* One who supports or maintains the proposition or assertion made by another.—I do not tell the respectable

respectable mover and *seconder*, by a perversion of their sense and expressions, that their proposition halts between the ridiculous and the dangerous. *Burke.*

SECONDIGLIANO, a small town in the north-west of the kingdom of Naples, not far from the capital, with 4800 inhabitants. Swine are reared in great numbers in the neighbourhood, and the chief trade of the place is in pork.

SECONDIGNY EN GRAND, a small town in the west of France, department of the Two Sevres, on the river Thoue, with 1500 inhabitants; 21 miles north of Niort.

SE'CONDLY, *adv.* In the second place.—First, she hath disobeyed the law; and *secondly*, trespassed against her husband. *Ecclus.*

SECOND MOON, a township of the United States, in Beaver county, Pennsylvania. Population 1245.

SECONDO, St., a small town of the north-west of Italy, in Piedmont, near the river Chiamagna. Population 1600; 2 miles south-by-west of Pinerolo.

SECONDO, St., a small town of Italy, in the duchy of Parma, between the rivers Taro and Parola; 10 miles west-north-west of Parma.

SECONDO, St., a small fortified island of Austrian Italy, near the mouth of the Laguno, at Venice.

SE'COND-RATE, *s.* The second order in dignity or value.—They call it thunder of the *second-rate*. *Addison.*—It is sometimes used adjectively; of the second order.—He was not then a *second-rate* champion, as they would have him, who think fortitude the first virtue in a hero. *Dryden.*

SECOURSSE (Denys-François), was born at Paris, in 1691. He was one of the earliest pupils of the celebrated Rollin, and being brought up to the bar, he was for some time a pleader. This profession, however, he quitted, in order that he might devote himself entirely to literature, in which the study of French history was his principal object. In 1723 he was admitted into the Academy of Inscriptions and Belles Lettres. The office of censor-royal was conferred upon him, and he was appointed, in 1746, to examine the public documents preserved in the newly conquered towns of the Low Countries. He died at Paris, in 1754. His publications were, the Collection of Royal Ordonnances, from the second to the ninth volume inclusive; "Mémoires pour servir à l'Histoire de Charles le Mauvais," two vols. 4to.; an edition of the "Mémoires de Condé," six vols. 4to., in conjunction with the abbé Lenglet; and several dissertations in the "Mémoires de l'Acad. des Inscriptions."

SE'CRECY, *s.* Privacy; state of being hidden; concealment.

In Nature's book of infinite *secrecy*,
A little can I read. *Shakspeare.*

Solitude; retirement; not exposure to view.

Thou in thy *secrecy*, although alone,
Best with thyself accompany'd, seek'st not
Social communication. *Milton.*

Fidelity to a secret; taciturnity inviolate; close silence.—*Secrecy* and fidelity were their only qualities. *Burnet.*

SE'CRET, *adj.* [*secret*, Fr., *secretus*, Lat.] Kept hidden; not revealed; concealed.—The *secret* things belong unto the Lord our God; but those things which are revealed belong unto us. *Deut.*—Retired; private; unseen.

There *secret* in her sapphire cell,
He with the Naïs wont to dwell. *Fenton.*

Faithful to a secret entrusted. *Unused.*

Secret Romans, that have spoke the word,
And will not palter? *Shakspeare.*

Private; affording privacy.

The *secret* top
Of Oreb or of Sinai. *Milton.*

Occult; not apparent.

My heart, which by a *secret* harmony
Still moves with thine, join'd in connexion sweet. *Milton.*

Privy; obscene.

SE'CRET, *s.* [*secret*, Fr., *secretum*, Lat.] Something studiously hidden.

Infected minds
To their deaf pillows will discharge their *secrets*. *Shakspeare.*

A thing unknown; something not yet discovered.—All *secrets* of the deep, all Nature's works. *Milton.*—The Romans seem not to have known the *secret* of paper-credit. *Arbuthnot.*—Privacy; secrecy; invisible or undiscovered state.—Bread eaten in *secret* is pleasant. *Prov.*—In *secret*, riding through the air she comes. *Milton.*

To SE'CRET, *v. a.* To keep private.—Great care is to be used of the clerks of the council, for the *secreting* of their consultations. *Bacon.*

SE'CRETARYSHIP, *s.* [*secretaire*, Fr.] The office of a secretary.—Since your *secretaryship* in the queen's time I believe you were so glutted with the office, that you had not patience to venture on a letter to an absent, useless acquaintance. *Swift.*

SECRETARIUM, among the Romans, a recluse room, where the judges considered the causes that had been litigated before them, and came to a resolution what sentence they were to pass from the tribunal. It was most usually separated from the tribunal by a veil.

SE'CRETARY, *s.* [*secretaire*, Fr., *secretarius*, low Latin.] One entrusted with the management of business; one who writes for another.—That which is most of all profitable is acquaintance with the *secretaries*, and employed men of ambassadors. *Bacon.*

Secretaries of State, are officers attending the king, for the receipt and dispatch of letters, grants, petitions, and many of the most important affairs of the kingdom, both foreign and domestic.

Till the reign of king Henry VIII., there was only one secretary of state; but then, business increasing, that prince appointed a second secretary; both were of equal power and authority, and both styled principal Secretaries of State. Before queen Elizabeth's time, the secretaries did not sit at the council board; but that princess admitted them to the place of privy counsellors, which honour they have held ever since; and a council is never, or at least very seldom, held without one of them. On the union of England and Scotland, queen Anne added a third secretary, on account of the great increase of business, which, as to Britain, was equally and distinctly managed by all the three, although the last was frequently styled Secretary of State for North Britain. We have had also a secretary of state for the American department. But both these offices are now abolished, and there still remain three principal secretaries, viz., one of the Home Department, another of Foreign Affairs, and the third of the Colony and War Department, who have under their management and direction the most considerable affairs of the nation, and are obliged to a constant attendance on the king; they receive and dispatch whatever comes to their hands, be it for the crown, the church, the army, private grants, pardons, dispensations, &c., as likewise petitions to the sovereign, which, when read, are returned to the secretaries for answer; all which they dispatch according to the king's command and direction.

Ireland is under the direction of the chief secretary to the lord-lieutenant, who has under him a resident under secretary.

Each of the three principal secretaries has two under secretaries, and one or more chief clerks, besides a number of other clerks and officers, wholly depending upon them.

Our secretaries of state are allowed power to commit persons for treason, and other offences against the state, in order to bring them to their trial. Some have said that this power is incident to their office; and others, that they derive it in virtue of their being named in the commissions of the peace for every county in England and Wales.

The secretaries of state have the custody of that seal, properly called the signet, and the direction of the signet office; in which there are four chief clerks and three deputies employed, who prepare such things as are to pass the signet, in order

der to receive the privy or great seal. All grants, signed by the king, are returned hither, which, transcribed, are carried to one of the principal secretaries of state, and sealed, and then called signets; which being directed to the lord privy-seal, are his warrant.

On the secretaries of state is likewise dependent another office, called the paper-office; in which all public writings, papers, matters of state, &c., are preserved.

All the under secretaries and clerks are in the choice of the secretary of state, without reserve to any person; the under secretaries receive orders and directions from them, for writing dispatches, foreign or domestic, which they give to the chief clerk, who distributes them to the under clerks.

The Secretary at War belongs to the War-office, and has under him a deputy secretary, with his private secretary, and a number of clerks and other officers.

Secretary of an embassy is a person attending an ambassador, for the writing of dispatches relating to the negociation.

There is a great difference between the secretary of the embassy, and the ambassador's secretary; the last is a domestic, or menial of the ambassador's; the first a servant, or minister of the prince.

To SECRE'TE, *v. a.* [*secretus*, Latin.] To put aside; to hide. [In the animal economy.] To secern; to separate.

SECRE'TION, *s.* [*secretion*, old Fr., *secretus*, Latin.] That agency in the animal economy that separates the various fluids of the body. The fluid secreted: see PHYSIOLOGY.

SECRETI'TIOUS, *adj.* [*secretus*, Lat.] Parted by animal secretion. *Unused.*—They have a similitude or contrariety to the *secretitious* humours in taste and quality. *Elyot.*

SE'CRETIST, *s.* A dealer in secrets.

SE'CRETLY, *adv.* Privately; with intention not to be known.—Give him this letter; do it *secretly*. *Shakspeare.* —Latently; so as not to be obvious; not apparently.—Those thoughts are not wholly mine; but either they are *secretly* in the poet, or may be fairly deduced from him. *Dryden.*

SE'CRETNESS, *s.* State of being hidden; privacy; concealment. Quality of keeping a secret.

I could muster up
My giants and my witches too,
Which are vast constancy and *secretness*. *Donne.*

SE'CRETORY, *adj.* Performing the office of secretion or animal separation.—All the glands are a congeries of vessels complicated together, whereby they give the blood time to separate through the capillary vessels into the *secretory*, which afterwards exonerate themselves into one duct. *Ray.*

SECROLE, a village in the vicinity of the city of Benara, in Hindostan, where all the European inhabitants reside. The houses are detached, like the villas in the neighbourhood of London.

SECT, *s.* [*secte*, French; *secta*, Latin.] A body of men following some particular master, or united in some settled tenets. Often in an opprobrious sense.

The jealous *sects* that dare not trust their cause
So far from their own will as to the laws,
You for their umpire and their synod take. *Dryden.*

A cutting. Of our unbitted lusts, I take this that you call love to be a *sect* or scion. *Shakspeare.*

SECTA *ad curiam*, a writ which lieth against him who refuseth to perform his suit to the county court, or court baron.

SECTA *faciendа per illam quæ habet æniciam partem*, writ to compel the heir that hath the elder's part among co-heirs, to perform service for all the coparceners.

SECTA *ad justitiam faciendam*, is a service which a man is bound to perform by his fee.

SECTA *molendini*, a writ lying where a man by usage, time out of mind, &c., has ground his corn at the mill of a certain person, and afterwards goes to another mill with his corn, thereby withdrawing his suit to the former. And this writ lies especially for the lord against his tenants, who hold of him to do suit at his mill. This is now generally turned into an action of the case.

SECTA *regalis*, a suit by which all persons were bound twice in a year to attend the sheriff's tourn, and was called *regalis*, because the sheriff's tourn was the king's leet; wherein the people were to be obliged by oath to bear true allegiance to the king, &c.

SECTA *unica tantum facienda pro pluribus hereditatibus*, a writ that lies for an heir who is distrained by the lord to do more suits than one, in respect of the land of divers heirs descended to him.

SECTA'RIAN, *adj.* Belonging to sectaries.

SECTA'RIANISM, or SECTARISM, *s.* Disposition to form sects.

SE'CTARIST, *s.* A sectary; one who divides from public establishment.—Milton was certainly of that profession, or general principle, in which all *sectarists* agree; a departure from establishment. *Warton.*

SE'CTARY, *s.* [*sectaire*, French.] One who divides from public establishment, and joins with those distinguished by some particular tenets.—The number of *sectaries* does not concern the clergy in point of interest or conscience. *Swift.*—A follower; a pupil.

The *sectaries* of my celestial skill,
That wont to be the world's chief ornament,
They under keep. *Spenser.*

SECTA'TOR, *s.* [*sectateur*, Fr., *sectator*, Latin.] A follower; an imitator; a disciple.—Hereof the wiser sort and the best learned philosophers were not ignorant, as Cicero witnesseth, gathering the opinion of Aristotle and his *sectators*. *Ralegh.*

SECTILIA, among the Romans, pavements laid with stones cut into various forms. Suetonius distinguishes them from those that were tessellated.

SE'CTION, *s.* [*section*, Fr. *sectio*, Latin.] The act of cutting or dividing.—In the *section* of bodies, man, of all sensible creatures, has the fullest brain to his proportion. *Wotton.*—A part divided from the rest. A small and distinct part of a writing or book.—Without breaking in upon the connection of his language, it is hardly possible to give a distinct view of his several arguments in distinct *sections* *Locke.*

SECTION, in Geometry, denotes a side or surface appearing of a body, or figure, cut by another; or the place wherein lines, planes, &c., cut each other.

The common section of two planes is always a right line; being the line supposed to be drawn by the one plane in its cutting or entering the other.

If a sphere be cut in any manner, the plane of the section will be a circle, whose centre is in the diameter of the sphere.

The sections of the cone are five, viz.:—a circle, triangle, parabola, hyperbola, and ellipsis. See each under its proper article in CONIC SECTIONS.

SECTIS *non Faciendis*, a writ brought by a woman, who, for her dower, &c., ought not to perform suit of court.

SECTOR, the name of two different astronomical instruments, for measuring small angular distances in the heavenly regions; one of which has a motion in or parallel to the equator, and the other is directed to the zenith. The construction and use of each of these instruments may be seen under the respective titles of EQUATORIAL and ZENITH.

SECTOR, in Geometry, a part of a circle comprehended between the radii and the arc.

In order to find the area of any sector of a circle, multiply the radius by half the arc of the sector, and the product will be the area, as in the whole circle.

SECTOR also denotes a mathematical instrument, of great use in finding the proportion between quantities of the same kind; as between lines and lines, surfaces and surfaces, &c.: whence the French call it the *compass of proportion*.

The

The great advantage of the sector above the common scales, &c., is, that it is made so as to fit all radiuses, and all scales. By the lines of chords, sines, &c., on the sector, we have lines of chords, sines, &c., to any radius betwixt the length and breadth of the sector when open.

The sector is founded on the fourth proposition of the sixth book of Euclid; where it is demonstrated, that similar triangles have their homologous sides proportional.

The instrument consists of two rulers, or legs, of brass or ivory, or any other matter, representing the radii, moveable round an axis or joint, the middle of which expresses the centre; whence several scales are drawn on the faces of the rulers. It is usually put up in the small cases of mathematical instruments that are in every body's hands.

The scales commonly put upon the best sectors, are—

Single.	1	a line of	Inches, each inch divided into 8 and 10 parts.	
	2		Decimals, containing 100 parts.	
	3		Chords,	Cho.
	4		Sines,	Sin.
	5		Tangents,	Tang.
	6		Rhumbs,	Rum.
	7		Latitude,	Lat.
	8		Hours,	Hou.
	9		Longitude,	Lon.
	10		Inclin. Merid.	In. Mer.
	11		the Logarithms of Numbers,	Num.
	12		the Logarithms of Sines,	Sin.
	13		the Logarithms of Versed sines,	V. Sin.
	14		the Logarithms of Tangents,	Tan.
Double.	1	a line of	Lines, or of equal parts,	Lin.
	2		Chords,	Cho.
	3		Sines,	Sin.
	4		Tangents to 45°,	Tan.
	5		Secants,	Sec.
	6		Tangents to above 45°,	Tan.
	7		Polygons,	Pol.

In describing the use of the sector, the terms *lateral distance* and *transverse distance*, often occur. By the former is meant the distance taken with the compasses on one of the scales only, beginning at the centre of the sector; and by the latter, the distance taken between any two corresponding divisions of the scales of the same name, the legs of the sector being in an angular position: but in taking these transverse distances, it is to be observed, that each of the several scales hath three parallel lines, across which the divisions of the scale are marked, and that the points of the compasses must be always set on the inside line, or that line next the inner edge of the leg, which is the only line, in each scale, which runs to the centre.

For the use of the logarithmic scale of numbers, see GUNTER'S LINE.

To use the Line of Lines on the Sector.—1. To divide a given line into any number of equal parts; e. g. 9. Make the length of the given line, or some known part of it, a transverse distance to 9 and 9: then will the transverse distance of 1 and 1 be the $\frac{1}{9}$th parth of it; or such a submultiple of the $\frac{1}{9}$th part, as was taken of the given line: or the $\frac{1}{9}$th part will be the difference between the given line and the transverse distance of 8 and 8.

Hence, 2. To make a scale of a given length, to contain a given number of equal parts; e. g. Let the scale to the map of a survey be 6 inches long, and contain 140 poles, and let it be required to open the sector, so that a corresponding scale may be taken from the line of lines. Make the transverse distance 7 and 7 (or 70 and 70, viz. $\frac{140}{2}$) equal to 3 inches ($= \frac{6}{2}$); and this position of the line of lines will produce the given scale.

3. To divide a given line (e. g. of 5 inches) into any assigned proportion, as of 4 to 5. Make 5 inches, the length of the given line, a transverse distance to 9 and 9, the sum of the proposed parts; and the transverse distances of the assigned numbers, 4 and 5, will be the parts required.

4. To two given lines, viz., 2 and 6, to find a third proportional. Take between the compasses the lateral distance of the second term, viz., 6; set one point on the division expressing the first term, viz., 2 on one leg, and open the legs of the sector till the other point will fall on the corresponding division on the other leg: keeping the legs of the sector in this position, take the transverse distance of the second term, viz., 6, and this distance is the third term required, which distance, measured laterally from the centre, will give 18, the number required: for 2 : 6 :: 6 : 18. Otherwise, take the distance 2 laterally, and apply it transversely to 6 and 6, the sector being properly opened: then the transverse distance at 2 and 2, being taken with the compasses, and applied laterally from the centre of the sector on the scale of lines, will give the third term, when the proportion is decreasing; for 6 : 2 :: 2 : $\frac{2}{3}$. If the legs of the sector will not open so far as to let the lateral distance of the second term fall between the divisions expressing the first term, then take $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, $\frac{1}{4}$, or any aliquot part of the second term, that will conveniently fall within the opening of the sector, and make such part the transverse distance of the first term: then, if the transverse distance of the second term be multiplied by the denominator of the part taken of the second term, the product will give the third term.

5. To three given lines, viz., 3, 7, and 10, to find a fourth proportional. Open the legs of the sector, till the transverse distance of the first term, 3, be equal to the lateral distance of the second term, 7, or to some part of it; then will the transverse distance of the third term, 10, give the fourth term, $23\frac{1}{3}$, required; or such a submultiple of it, as was taken of the second term; for 3 : 7 :: 10 : $23\frac{1}{3}$. Otherwise, set the lateral distance, 7, transversely from 10 to 10, opening the sector accordingly; and the transverse distance, at 3 and 3, applied laterally, will give $2\frac{1}{10}$; for 10 : 7 :: 3 : $2\frac{1}{10}$.

6. To diminish a line of four inches, in the proportion of 8 to 7. Open the sector till the transverse distance of 8 and 8 be equal to the lateral distance of 7: mark the point, where four inches, as a lateral distance, taken from the centre, reaches; and the transverse distance taken at that point will be the line required. If the line should be too long for the legs of the sector, take $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{3}$, or $\frac{1}{4}$, &c. part of the given line for the lateral distance, and the corresponding transverse distance, taken twice, thrice, or four times, &c., will be the line required.

7. To open the sector, so that the two scales of lines shall make a right angle. Take the lateral distance from the centre to the division marked 5, between the points of the compasses, and set one foot in the division marked 4, on one of the scales of lines; and open the legs of the sector till the other foot falls on the division marked 3, on the other scale of lines, and then will those scales stand at right angles to one another; for the lines 3, 4, 5, or any of their multiples, constitute a right-angle triangle.

8. To two right lines given, e. g. 40 and 90, to find a mean proportional. Set the two scales of lines at right angles; find the half sum of the given lines, viz., 65, and the half difference, viz., 25, and take with the compasses the lateral distance of the half sum, 65, and apply one foot to the half difference, 25, the other foot transversely will reach to 60, the mean proportional required; for 40 : 60 :: 60 : 90.

To use the Scale of Chords on the Sector.—1. To open the sector so that the two scales of chords may make an angle of any number of degrees, e. g. 40. Take the distance from the joint to 40, the number of degrees proposed on the scale of chords; open the sector till the transverse distance from 60 to 60, on each leg, be equal to the aforesaid lateral distance of 40: then do the scales of chords make the angle required.

2. The sector being opened, to find the degrees of its aperture. Take the extent from 60 to 60, and lay it off on the scale of chords from the centre: the number, where it terminates, shews the degrees of its opening. By applying sights on the scales of chords, the sector may be used to take angles, as a surveying instrument.

3. To protract or lay down an angle of any given number of degrees. 1. Let the number of degrees be less than 60, viz.,

viz., 46. At any opening of the sector, take the transverse distance of 60 and 60 on the chords; and with this opening describe an arc: take the transverse distance of the given number of degrees, 46, and lay this distance on the arc described, marking its extremities; from the centre of the arc, through these extremities, draw two lines, and they will contain the angle required. 2. When the degrees given are more than 60, viz., 148; describe the arc as before; take the transverse distance of $\frac{1}{2}$ or $\frac{1}{3}$ of the given degrees, 148, e. g. $\frac{1}{3} = 49\frac{1}{3}$ degrees: lay this distance on the arc thrice: and from the centre draw two lines to the extremities of the arc thus determined, and they will contain the required angle. N. B. If the radius of the arc or circle is to be of a given length, then make the transverse distance of 60 and 60, equal to that assigned length.

4. To find the degrees which a given angle contains. About the vertex describe an arc, and open the sector till the distance from 60 to 60, on each leg, be equal to the radius of the circle; then taking the chord of the arc between the compasses, and carrying it on the legs of the sector, see what equal number, on each leg, the points of the compasses fall on: this is the quantity of degrees the given angle contains.

5. To take an arc, of any quantity, from off the circumference of a circle. Open the sector till the distance from 60 to 60 be equal to the radius of the given circle; then take the extent of the chord of the number of degrees, on each leg of the sector, and lay it off on the circumference of the given circle. By this use, may any regular polygon be inscribed in a given circle, as well as by the line of polygons: e. g. in a circle whose diameter is given to describe a regular polygon of 24 sides. Make the given diameter a transverse distance from 60 to 60 on the scales of chords; divide 360 by 24, and take the transverse distance of 15 and 15, the quotient, and this will be the chord of the twenty-fourth part of the circumference. In order to prevent errors, where the distance is to be repeated several times, it will be best to proceed thus: with the chord of 60 degrees divide the circumference into six equal parts; in every division of 60 degrees lay down, first, the chord of 15 degrees, and next the chord of 30 degrees, and then the chord of 45 degrees, beginning always at the same point. Thus the error in taking distances will not be multiplied into any of the divisions following the first.

To use the Line of Polygons on the Sector. 1. In a given circle to inscribe a regular polygon, e. g. an octagon. Open the legs of the sector, till the transverse distance of 6 and 6 be equal to the given diameter, then will the transverse distance of 8 and 8 be the side of an octagon, which may be inscribed in the given circle. In like manner may any other polygon, the number of whose sides does not exceed 12, be inscribed in a given circle.

2. On a given line to describe a regular polygon, e. g. a pentagon. Make the given line a transverse distance to 5 and 5: at that opening of the sector, take the transverse distance of 6 and 6; and with this radius, on the extremities of the line, as centres, describe arcs intersecting each other; and on the point of intersection, as a centre, with the same radius, describe a circumference passing through the extremities of the given line; and in this circle may the pentagon, whose side is given, be inscribed. By a like process may any other polygon, of not more than 12 sides, be described on a given line.

3. On a right line, to describe an isosceles triangle, having the angles at the base double that at the vertex. Open the sector till the ends of the given line fall on 10 and 10 on each leg: then take the distance from 6 to 4; this will be the length of the two equal sides of the triangle.

To use the Scales of Sines, Tangents, and Secants on the Sector. By the several lines disposed on the sector, we have scales to several radiuses: so that, 1, having a length, or radius, given, not exceeding the length of the sector when opened, we find the chord, sine, &c., thereto: e. g. suppose the chord, sine, or tangent, or 10 degrees to a radius of three inches required. Make three inches the aperture, or transverse distance, between 60 and 60 on the scales of chords of the two legs; then will the same extent reach from 45 to 45 on the scale of tangents, and from 90 to 90 on the scale of sines on the other side: so that to whatever radius the line of chords is set, to the same are all the others set. In this disposition, therefore, if the aperture, or transverse distance, between 10 and 10, on the scales of chords, be taken with the compasses, it will give the chord of 10 degrees; if the transverse distance of 10 and 10 be in like manner taken, on the scales of sines, it will be the sine of 10 degrees: lastly, if the transverse distance of 10 and 10 be in like manner taken on the scales of tangents, it gives the tangent of 10 degrees to the same radius.

2. If the chord, or tangent, of 70 degrees were required, for the chord, the transverse distance of half the arc, viz., 35, must be taken, as before; which distance, being repeated twice, gives the chord of 70 degrees. To find the tangent of 70 degrees, to the same radius, the scale of upper tangents must be used, the other only reaching to 45: making, therefore, three inches the transverse distance between 45 and 45 at the beginning of that scale; the extent between 70 and 70 degrees, on the same, will be the tangent of 70 degrees to three inches radius.

3. To find the secant of an arc, make the given radius the transverse distance between 0 and 0 on the line of secants; then will the transverse distance of 10 and 10, or 70 and 70, on the said lines, give the secant of 10 degrees, or 70 degrees.

The scales of upper tangents and secants do not run quite to 76 degrees; but those of a greater number of degrees may be found by the sector in the following manner. Thus, the tangent of any number of degrees may be taken from the sector at once; if the radius of the circle can be made a transverse distance to the complement of those degrees on the lower tangent. E. g. To find the tangent of 78 degrees to a radius of two inches. Make two inches a transverse distance of 12 degrees on the lower tangents; than the transverse distance of 45 degrees will be the tangent of 78 degrees. In like manner the secant of any number of degrees may be taken from the sines, if the radius of the circle can be made a transverse distance to the cosine of those degrees. Thus, making two inches a transverse distance to the sine of 12 degrees, then the transverse distance of 90 and 90 will be the secant of 78 degrees. Hence it will be easy to find the degrees answering to a given line, expressing the length of a tangent or secant, which is too long to be measured on those scales, when the sector is set to the given radius. Thus, for a tangent, make the given line a transverse distance to 45 and 45 on the lower tangents; then take the given radius, and apply it to the lower tangents: and the degrees, where it becomes a transverse distance, give the cotangent of the degrees answering to the given line. And for a secant, make the given line a transverse distance to 90 and 90 on the sines: then the degrees answering to the given radius, applied as a transverse distance on the sines, will be the cosine of the degrees answering to the given secant line.

4. If the converse of any of these things were required, that is, if the radius be required, to which a given line is the sine, tangent, or secant; it is but making the given line, if a chord, the transverse distance on the line of chords, between 10 and 10, and then the sector will stand at the radius required; that is, the aperture between 60 and 60, on the said line, is the radius.

If the given line were a sine, tangent, or secant, it is but making it the transverse distance of the given number of degrees; then will the distance of 90 and 90 on the sines, of 45 and 45 on the lower tangents near the end of the sector, and of 45 and 45 on the upper tangents towards the centre of the sector, and of 0 and 0 on the secants, be the radius.

5. If the radius, and any line representing a sine, tangent or secant, be given, the degrees corresponding to that line may be found by setting the sector to the given radius, according as a sine, tangent, or secant, is concerned; taking the given line between the compasses, applying the two feet transversely to the scale concerned, and sliding the feet along

along till they both rest on like divisions on both legs; and the divisions will shew the degrees and parts corresponding to the given line.

6. To find the length of a versed sine to a given number of degrees, and a given radius. Make the transverse distance of 90 and 90 in the sines equal to the given radius; take the transverse distance of the sine complement of the given degrees; if the given degrees are less than 90, the difference, but if greater, the sum of the sine complement and radius gives the versed sine.

7. To open the legs of the sector so that the corresponding double scales of lines, chords, sines, tangents, may make, each of them, a right angle. On the lines, make the lateral distance 10, a distance between 8 on one leg, and 6 on the other leg; on the sines, make the lateral distance 90 a transverse distance from 45 to 45, or from 40 to 50, or from 30 to 60, or from the sine of any degrees to their complement; or, on the sines, make the lateral distance of 45 a transverse distance between 30 and 30.

In Trigonometry, the Sector serves when the base and perpendicular of a right-angled triangle are given, to find the hyphothenuse, Suppose the base 40 miles, and the perpendicular 30; open the sector till the two scales of lines make a right angle; then, for the base, take, 40 parts on the scale of lines on one leg; and, for the perpendicular, take 30 on the same scale on the other leg; then the extent from 40 on the one to 30 on the other, taken in the compasses, will be the length of the hypothenuse; which line, applied to the scale of lines, will be found 50 miles. So also by obvious means, the perpendicular and the angle being given, or the hypothenuse and base being given, find the perpendicular, or the hypothenuse being given, and the angle, find the perpendicular; or with the base and perpendicular, find the angle; or in any right-lined triangle, two sides being given, with the inclined angle, find the third side, &c.

SE'CULAR, *adj.* [*seculare*, old French; *seculier*, modern; *secularis*, Latin.] Not spiritual; relating to affairs of the present world;

Then shall they seek t' avail themselves of names,
Places, and titles; and with these to join
Secular pow'r, though feigning still to act
By spiritual. *Milton.*

[In the church of Rome.] Not bound by monastic rules. —Those northern nations easily embraced the religion of those they subdued, and by their devotion gave great authority and reverence, and thereby ease to the clergy, both *secular* and regular. *Temple.*—[*Seculaire*, French.] Happening or coming once in a *secle* or century.—The *secular* year was kept but once in a century. *Addison.*

SE'CULAR, *s.* Not a spiritual person: a layman. The clergy thought that, if it pleased the *seculars*, it might be done. *Hales.*—An ecclesiastic, in the Romish church, not bound by monastic rules.

SECULAR GAMES, *Ludi Seculares*, in Antiquity, were solemn games held among the Romans, once in an age; or, in a period deemed the extent of the longest life of man, called by the Greeks αιων, and by the Latins *seculum*.

The secular games were also called *Terentine games*, *ludi Terentini*, either because Manlius Valerius Terentinus gave occasion to their institution; for having been warned in a dream, to dig in the ground in a place near the Campus Martius, called *Terentum*, he there found an altar inscribed to Dis, or Pluto and Proserpine.

The secular games lasted three days, and as many nights; during which time sacrifices were performed, theatrical shows exhibited, with combats, sports, &c. in the Circus.

Authors are not agreed as to the number of years in which these games returned; partly because the quality of an age or seculum, among the ancients, is not known; and partly on other accounts; some will have it that they were held once every hundred years; and that the *seculum*, or age, was our century. This Varro and Livy seem to express in very plain terms; yet others will have it, that seculum comprehended a hundred and ten years; and that the secular games only returned in that period, that is, at the beginning of every 111th year; which opinion is countenanced by Horace, in his Secular Poem, ver. 21.

Be this as it will, it is certain they sometimes did not stay for the 111th, nor even for the 100th year, for the celebration of these games. The first were held A. U. C. 245, or 298; the second, A. 305, or 408; the third, A. 518; the fourth, either A. 605, or 608, or 628. Augustus held them in the year of Rome 736, and Claudius again in the year of Rome 800, and of Christ 38, viz., sixty-four years after the former; and Domitian, again, in still less time; viz., in the year of Rome 841, or of Christ 79, at which Tacitus assisted in quality of quindecimvir, as he himself tells us, Annal. lib. xi. cap. 11. and this was the seventh time that Rome had seen them from their first institution. The emperor Severus exhibited them the eighth time, that is, a hundred and ten years after those of Domitian. Zosimus says, these were the last; but he is mistaken, for in the year of Rome 1000, that is, fifty years after those of Severus, the emperor Philip had them celebrated with greater magnificence than had ever been known. Those that were celebrated by permission of the emperor Honorius, after having received the news of the victory of Stilicho over Alaric, were the last recorded in history. Zosimus ascribes the decline of the empire to the neglect of these games among the Romans. We find them represented on many medals.

SECULARE CARMEN, or SECULAR POEM, a poem, sung or rehearsed, at the secular games.

SECULA'RITY, *s.* [*secularité*, Fr. Cotgrave.] Worldliness; attention to the things of the present life. *Unused.* —Littleness and *secularity* of spirit is the greatest enemy to contemplation. *Burnet.*

SECULARIZA'TION, *s.* Act of secularizing.—Religious, that want to be released of their vows, obtain briefs of *secularization* from the pope. *Chambers.*

To SE'CULARIZE, *v. a.* [*seculariser*, Fr.] To convert from spiritual appropriations to common use. To make worldly. *Unused.*

SE'CULARLY, *adv.* In a worldly manner. *Unused.*

SE'CULARNESS, *s.* Worldliness. *Unused.*

SECUNDANS, in Mathematics, an infinite series of numbers, beginning from nothing, and proceeding as the squares of numbers in arithmetical progression.

SECUNDIANS, a sect of Valentinians in the second century, whose chief, Secundus, one of the principal followers of Valentine, maintained the doctrine of two eternal principles, viz., light and darkness, from whence arose the good and the evil that are observable in the universe.

SE'CUNDINE, *s.* [*secondines*, Fr.] The membrane in which the embryo is wrapped; the after-birth.—The casting of the skin is by the ancients compared to the breaking of the *secundine*, or cawl, but not rightly; for the *secundine*, is but a general cover, not shaped according to the parts, but the skin is. *Bacon.*

Future ages lie
Wrapp'd in their sacred *secundine* asleep. *Crawley.*

SECUNDREPORE.—There are two towns of this name in Hindostan, one in the province of Ajmeer, district of Jyepore; the other in the province of Allahabad, district of Gazypoor, but neither of consequence.

SECUNDUS (Johannes), is the literary name of John Everard, a celebrated Latin poet, the son of Nicholas Everard, an eminent jurist, and president of the council of Mecklin under Charles V. He was born at the Hague in 1511, and at an early age studied the law at Bourges. He, however, shewed a decided attachment to polite literature in preference to jurisprudence, and contracted intimacies with some of the most distinguished Latin poets of his time. He travelled into Italy and Spain, and was made secretary to cardinal Tavera, archbishop of Toledo. He followed Charles

Charles V. in his expedition against Tunis, but the delicacy of his constitution not permitting him to undergo the fatigues of war, he returned to the Low Countries, where he died at the early age of twenty-five. Few modern Latin poets have possessed more facility and sweetness than Secundus. A volume of his elegies, epigrams, odes, and miscellaneous pieces, together with a narrative in prose of his different journeys, was published. Of all his poetical works, the "Basia" have been the most popular, on account of their diction, and the delicate voluptuousness of their painting. They are still read, and new editions are frequently printed. Johannes had two brothers, who were also elegant Latin poets, known by the names of Nicolas Grudius, and Adrian Marius. They have united in an affectionate commemoration of their deceased brother, annexed to his poems. Secundus himself practised the art of engraving, and to his volume is prefixed a portrait of a female, with the following inscription: "Vatis amatoris Julia sculpta manu."

SECUNDUS, in Botany, a term not very easy, in the technical sense of Linnæus, to translate. One-ranked may generally express its meaning. This term is applied to a *racemus*, or cluster, whose flowers are all turned to one side, as in *Pyrola secunda*.

SECU'RE, *adj.* [*securus*, Latin.] Free from fear; exempt from terror; easy; assured.

Confidence then bore thee on *secure*
To meet no danger. *Milton.*

Confident; not distrustful: with *of*.

But thou, *secure of* soul, unbent with woes;
The more thy fortune frowns, the more oppose. *Dryden.*

Sure; not doubting: with *of*.

In Lethe's lake souls long oblivion taste;
Of future life *secure*, forgetful of the past. *Dryden.*

Careless; wanting caution.—Gideon smote the host, for the host were *secure*. *Judges.*—Free from danger; safe.

Secure from fortune's blows,
Secure of what I cannot lose,
In my small pinnace I can sail. *Dryden.*

It has sometimes *of* before the object in all its senses; but more properly *from* before *evil*, or the *cause of evil*.

To SECU'RE, *v. a.* To make certain; to put out of hazard to ascertain.—That prince who shall be so wise as by established laws of liberty to *secure* protection to the honest industry of mankind, against the oppression of power, will quickly be too hard for his neighbours. *Locke.*

Deeper to wound, she shuns the fight;
She drops her arms to gain the field;
Secures her conquest by her flight,
And triumphs when she seems to yield. *Prior.*

To protect; to make safe.

I spread a cloud before the victor's sight,
Sustain'd the vanquish'd, and *secur'd* his flight. *Dryden.*

Where two or three sciences are pursued at the same time, if one of them be dry, as logick, let another be more entertaining, to *secure* the mind from weariness. *Watts.*—To insure.

SECU'RELY, *adv.* Without fear; carelessly.

Love, that had now long time *securely* slept
In Venus' lap, unarmed then and naked,
Gan rear his head, by Clotho being waked. *Spenser.*

Without danger; safely.

We upon our globe's last verge shall go,
And view the ocean leaning on the sky;
From thence our rolling neighbours we shall know,
And on the lunar world *securely* pry. *Dryden.*

SECU'REMENT, *s.* The cause of safety; protection; defence. *Unused.*—They like Judas, desire death; Cain, on the contrary, grew afraid thereof, and obtained a *securement* from it. *Brown.*

SECU'RENESS, *s.* Want of vigilance: carelessness. *Unused.*—Which omission was a strange neglect and *secureness*, to my understanding. *Bacon.*

SECURIDACA [so named by Jacquin from the shape of the pod, which greatly resembles a bill-hook, or hatchet, *securis*], in Botany, a genus of the class diadelphia, order octandria, natural order of papilionaceæ *(Linn.)* leguminosæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth inferior, small, deciduous, of three ovate, coloured leaves, the uppermost of which is opposite to the standard, the others accompany the keel. Corolla papilionaceous, of five petals; wings much spreading, very obtuse; standard of two leaves, oblong, straight, united to the keel at the base, reflexed at the tip; keel as long as the wings, nearly cylindrical, its border dilated, bearing a little obtuse plaited appendicle. Stamina: filaments eight, combined at the bottom; anthers oblong, erect. Pistil: germen superior, ovate, terminating in an awl-shaped style; stigma flat, dilated, toothed at the tip. Pericarp: legume ovate, of one cell, ending in a ligulare wing. Seed solitary, oblong. In habit this genus is very nearly allied to polygala, but it is polypetalous, and the fruit has only a single cell, resembling the capsules of banisteria.—*Essential Character.* Calyx of three leaves; corolla papilionaceous, the standard of two leaves within the wings; legume ovate, one cell and one seed, ending in a tongue-shaped wing.

1. Securidaca erecta, or upright shrubby securidaca.—Stem twining; leaves oblong, acute.—Native of stony places in Martinico and St. Domingo: flowering in April. An upright tree, rising to the height of twelve feet, furnished with a few long slender erect branches; leaves oblong; flowers in long purple clusters.

2. Securidaca volubilis, or climbing securidaca.—Stem twining; leaves oblong, acute.—Native of South America and the West Indies. Found in Jamaica by Browne, and at Cathagena by Jacquin. A twining shrub, whose younger leafy branches are changed into very strong tendrils. Leaves alternate, oblong, pointed, scarcely stalked. Flowers in loose lateral clusters; red; scentless.

3. Securidaca virgata, or wand-like securidaca.—Stem twining; leaves roundish, very obtuse.—Native of Jamaica and Hispaniola. Swartz is of opinion, that Browne's first species in his History of Jamaica, must be this, and not securidaca erecta, as Linnæus supposed.

SECURINEGA [so denominated by Commerson, from *securis*, a hatchet, and *nego*, to deny, or refuse to yield; in allusion to the extreme hardness of the wood], in Botany, a genus of the class dioecia, order pentandria, natural order of euphorbiæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Male—Calyx: perianth of one leaf, in five deep segments. Corolla: petals none. Nectary an annular notched gland, surrounding the base of the stamens. Stamina: filaments five, awl-shaped, short, combined at the base; anthers oval, lobed, obtuse. Pistil imperfect. Female, on a different tree. Calyx: perianth as in the male, inferior, permanent. Corolla: nectary as in the male, permanent. Pistil: germen superior, nearly globular, three-sided; styles three, short, permanent; stigmas obtuse, Pericarp: capsule three-lobed, three-celled. Seeds solitary.—*Essential Character.* Male—Calyx in five deep segments. Petals none. Nectary a glandular ring on the outside of the stamens. Female—calyx and nectary, as in the male, permanent. Capsule superior, three-lobed, three-celled.

Securinega nitida, or Otaheite myrtle.—In the Mauritius it is a tall tree with alternate, round, minutely warty branches, and very hard yellowish wood. Leaves alternate, stalked, ovate, various in size and bluntness, from one to three inches long, and about one broad, entire, smooth, with one rib, and many fine interbranching veins. Flowers numerous, in dense, sessile, globular, axillary tufts. Commerson describes six stamens, but we find only five, according to the general observation of the authors above quoted.

SECURIS,

SECURIS (John), an English physician of considerable character. He is chiefly remarkable as the author of "A Detection and Querimony of the daily Enormities and Abuses committed in Physic, concerning the Three Parts thereof." Lond. 1566. This is a little treatise, on the often repeated complaint of the intrusion of irregularly educated persons into the practice of physic, and the presumption of surgeons and apothecaries in taking upon them to act the physician. A peroration in verse, addressed to the two universities, is subjoined.

SECURITATE PACIS, in Law, a writ which lies for one who is threatened with death or danger, against the person who so threatens him.

SECURITATEM *inveniendi quod se non divertat ad partes exteras sine licentia regis*, an ancient writ lying for the king against any of his subjects, to stay them from going out of this kingdom into foreign parts; the ground whereof is, that every man is bound to serve and defend the commonwealth, as the king shall think fit.

SECU'RITY, *s.* [*securité*, Fr., *securitas*, Lat.] Carelessness; freedom from fear.—Marvellous *security* is always dangerous, when men will not believe any bees to be in a hive, until they have a sharp sense of their stings. *Hayward.*—Protection; defence.—If the Providence of God be taken away, what *security* have we against those innumerable dangers to which human nature is continually exposed? *Tillotson.*—Any thing given as a pledge or caution; insurance; assurance for any thing; the act of giving caution, or being bound.—Exchequer bills have been generally reckoned the surest and most sacred of all *securities*. *Swift.*—Safety; certainty.—Some, who gave their advice for entering into a war, alledged that we should have no *security* for our trade, while Spain was subject to a prince of the Bourbon family. *Swift.*

SECURIU, a river of Brazil, mentioned by Mawe, which passes near the town of Villa Bella, and falls into the Juruena.

SECUTOR, among the Romans, most commonly signified an attendant upon great men. In ancient inscriptions we also meet with *secutor tribuni, secutor ducis, secutor Cæsaris*, &c., who were officers attending the tribunes and generals; perhaps like our aids-de-camp.

SECUTORES, a kind of gladiators among the Romans, who fought against the retiarii, so named because they used to pursue the retiarii.

The secutores were armed with a sword and a buckler, to keep off the net, or noose, of their antagonists; and they wore a cask on their head.

SECUTORES was also the name given to such gladiators as took the place of those killed in the combat; or who fought the conqueror. The post was usually taken by lot.

SED CAPE, a promontory on the north side of the island of Cuba, and 18 leagues from the Havannah.

SEDAB, a name given by the Arabian physicians to the wild, or mountain rue.

SEDAKI, a township of Niphon, in Japan; 40 miles north-west of Niphon.

SEDA'N, *s.* A kind of portable coach; a chair. "I believe because first made at Sedan." *Johnson.*—They were first introduced into this country in the time of king Charles I. The duke of Buckingham is said to have occasioned the introduction of them. In 1634, Sir Sanders Duncombe had the sole privilege allowed, for fourteen years, of letting these portable chairs.

SEDAN, a considerable town in the north-east of France, department of the Ardennes. It is situated on the right bank of the Meuse, and is strongly fortified, being surrounded with walls, bastions, ditches and other works, constructed partly by Vauban. The old castle, in which Turenne was born, is now converted into an arsenal, and is one of the best in France. The town is divided into Upper and Lower, and though not badly built, is, from the uneven and rocky nature of the ground which it occupies, very irregular. Of the population, in number nearly 11,000, a part are Protestants. Sedan has been long noted for its manufactures of superfine woollens, and for a very different branch of industry, the making of fire-arms and copper articles: it has likewise a cannon foundry. Sedan was formerly the seat of a Protestant university; 37 miles south-east of Charlemont, and 170 north-east of Paris. Lat. 49. 42. 29. N. long. 4. 57. 50. E.

SEDANG, a town on the north-west coast of the island of Borneo. Lat. 2. 15. N. long. 110. 48. E.

SEDASIER, a town of the south of India, province of Mysore, district of Coorg. In the year 1799, a battle was fought here between the troops of Tippoo Sultan and the British, in which the latter were successful. It is situated 7 miles north-west of Periapatam.

SEDA'TE, *adj.* [*sedatus*, Lat.] Calm; undisturbed; serene.

With countenance calm and soul *sedate*,
Thus Turnus. *Dryden.*

Disputation carries away the mind from that calm and *sedate* temper which is so necessary to contemplate truth. *Watts.*

SEDA'TELY, *adv.* Calmly; without disturbance.—That has most weight with them that appears *sedately* to come from their parents' reason. *Locke.*

SEDA'TENESS, *s.* Calmness; tranquillity; serenity; freedom from disturbance.—There is a particular *sedateness* in their conversation and behaviour that qualifies them for council, with a great intrepidity that fits them for action. *Addison.*

SEDA'TION, *s.* Act of composing. *Unused. Coles.*

SEDA'TIVE, *adj.* [*sedatif*, Fr. Cotgrave.] Assuaging; composing.

SEDATIVE, [from *sedare*, to *still*, or *allay*, a term which was used by the older writers, nearly in the same acceptation with *anodyne;* namely, to denote such medicines as were calculated to assuage pain. But among the moderns it has been employed in another sense, and stands in opposition to *stimulant.* In the modern pathology, all the actions of the animal frame are ascribed to the agency of the nervous power; and whatever increases or excites that power, or its actions, is thence called a *stimulant;* and those agents, on the contrary, which diminish or restrain that power, or its actions, are therefore denominated *sedatives.*

SEDBERGH, a market town of England, in the West Riding of Yorkshire. Here is a free school, but neither it nor the church contain any thing remarkable. The place owes its chief support to the manufacture of iron articles. It contains 346 houses, and 1805 inhabitants. Market on Wednesday; 27 miles north-west of Settle.

SEDE, a name sometimes given to the lake of Maadie or Aboukir, in Lower Egypt; which see.

SEDE, the name of one of the small natron lakes, situated on the western frontier of Egypt; 55 miles north-west of Cairo.

SEDEFE, a village of Upper Egypt, on the left bank of the Nile; 7 miles south of Abutige.

SE DEFENDENDO, in Law, a plea for him who is charged with the death of another; alleging, that he was forced to do what he did in his own defence, the other so assaulting him.

SEDEM ATTOLLENS, a name given by Vesalius to the *levator ani.*

SE'DENTARINESS, *s.* The state of being sedentary; inactivity.—Those that live in great towns, together with the wealthier sort in the country, are inclined to paleness, which may be imputed to their *sedentariness*, or want of motion; for they seldom stir abroad. *L. Addison.*

SE'DENTARY, *adj.* [*sedentaire*, Fr., *sedentario*, Ital., *sedentarius*, from *sedeo*, Lat.] Passed in sitting still; wanting motion or action.—The blood of labouring people is more dense and heavy than of those who live a *sedentary* life. *Arbuthnot.*—Torpid; inactive; motionless.

The *sedentary* earth,
That better might with far less compass move,
Serv'd by more noble than herself, attains
Her end without least motion. *Milton.*

The soul, considered abstractedly from its passions, is of a remiss *sedentary* nature, slow in its resolves, and languishing in its executions. *Addison.*

SEDER OLAM, in Philology, a Hebrew term, literally signifying, order of the world; being the title of two chronicles in that language.

They are both very short, though the one more so than the other; for which reason the one is called *seder olam rabba*, that is, the great *seder olam;* and the other, *seder olam zuta*, i. e. little *seder olam.*

SEDER OLAM, the Great, commences at the creation of the world, and comes down as low as the war of the pseudo-messiah Barchochebas, under Adrian, fifty two years after the destruction of the temple of Jerusalem; and of consequence to the hundred and twenty-second year of Christ. It is almost all taken from the Scripture, excepting the end. It is the work of R. Josa, son of Hhelpeta of Tsippora, who lived in the second century, about the year 130, and was master of the famous R. Juda Hakkadosch, the compiler of the Mischna.

SEDER OLAM, the Lesser, is an abridgment of the former, brought down as far as Mar Sutra, who lived 450 years after the destruction of the temple, or 522 years after Christ. F. Morin, continually bent upon diminishing the antiquity of the principal books of the Jews, endeavours to prove this to have been written about the year of Christ 1124, as indeed it is expressed in the beginning; but R. Dav. Gantz has overthrown this opinion in his Tsemahh David, and shewn that the date in the beginning is an interpolation.

These two chronicles were first printed at Mantua in 1514, 4to.; again at Basil, by Frobenius, in 1580, 8vo.; at Venice, in 1545, 4to.; and at Paris, with a Latin version of Genebrard, in 12mo. They have been since reprinted at Amsterdam, in 1711.

SEDFE, or ZIPHTE, a village of Lower Egypt, on the left bank of the eastern branch of the Nile; 3 miles south of Bata.

SEDGBERROW, a parish of England, county of Worcester; 4 miles south-south-west of Evesham.

SEDGBROOK, a parish of England, in Lincolnshire; 4 miles west-north-west of Grantham.

SEDGE, *s.* [ȝec, Saxon; whence, in the provinces, a narrow flag is called *sag* or *seg.*] A growth of narrow flags; a narrow flag.

Adonis, painted by a running brook,
And Cytherea all in *sedges* hid;
Which seem to move and wanton with her breath,
Even as the waving *sedges* play with wind. *Shakspeare.*

SE'DGED, *adj.* Composed of flags.

You nymphs, call'd Naiads, of the wandring brooks,
With your *sedg'd* crowns and ever harmless looks
Leave your crisp channels. *Shakspeare.*

SEDGFIELD, a township of England, and formerly a market town, in the county of Durham, which has a well-endowed alms-house, and a free grammar-school; 11 miles south-east of Durham, and 255½ north-by-west of London. Population 1307.

SEDGEFORD, a parish of England, county of Norfolk; 9 miles north-north-east of Castle Rising.

SEDGELEY, a parish of England, in Staffordshire, near Dudley; 3 miles south of Wolverhampton. Here are considerable iron manufactures. Population 13,937.

SEDGEMOOR, a track of country in Somersetshire, England, lying north of the river Parret, between King's-Weston and Bridgewater, rendered memorable by the defeat of the duke of Monmouth and his party, in 1685, by the forces under king James II.

SEDGER RIVER, a river of Patagonia, which runs into the straits of Magellan. The water of this river is excellent; but the boats cannot get in till about two hours flood, because at low water it is very shallow for about three quarters of a mile. Commodore Byron says, "I went up it about four miles in my boat, and the fallen trees then rendered it impossible to go farther: I found it, indeed, not only difficult, but dangerous to get up thus far. The stream is very rapid, and many stumps of trees lie hidden under it: one of these made its way through the bottom of my boat, and in an instant she was full of water. On each side of this river there are the finest trees I ever saw; and I make no doubt but that they would supply the British navy with the best masts in the world: some of them are of a great height, and more than eight feet in diameter, which is proportionably more than eight yards in circumference; so that four men joining hand in hand, could not compass them. Among others, we found the pepper tree or winter's-bark in great plenty. Among these woods, notwithstanding the coldness of the climate, there are innumerable parrots, and other birds of the most beautiful plumage. I shot every day geese and ducks enough to serve my own table and several others; and all on board might have done the same; we had, indeed, great plenty of fresh provisions of all kinds; for we caught as much fish every day as served the companies of both ships. As I was much on shore here, I tracked many wild beasts in the sand, but never saw one; we also found many huts and wigwams, but never met with an Indian. The mouth is in the west part of Port Famine."

SEDGEWICK, a hamlet of England, in Westmoreland; 4½ miles south of Kendal.

SEDGHILL, a hamlet of England, in Northumberland; 6 miles from Newcastle.

SEDGHILL, a parish of England, in Wiltshire; 5 miles south-west of Hindon.

SEDGWICK, a sea-port and post township of the United States, in Hancock county, Maine, on the east side of Penobscot bay; 260 miles north-east of Boston. Population 1352.

SE'DGY, *adj.* Overgrown with narrow flags.

On the gentle Severn's *sedgy* bank,
In single opposition, hand to hand,
He did confound the best part of an hour,
In changing hardiment with great Glendower. *Shakspeare.*

SEDHOUT, a celebrated fortress of Hindostan, province of Golcondah, and district of Cuddapah. It is the capital of a small district of the same name, and was taken by the celebrated Meer Joomla, about the year 1650. At this period, Sedhout and the adjoining district, were celebrated for their diamond mines, but which do not now exist. The fortress is situated 6 miles north-east of Cuddapah, and belongs to the British.

SE'DIMENT, *s.* [*sediment*, Fr., *sedimentum*, Lat.] That which subsides or settles at the bottom.—It is not bare agitation, but the *sediment* at the bottom, that troubles and defiles the water. *South.*

SEDISZOW, a small town of Austrian Poland; 44 miles south of Sendomir.

SEDI'TION, *s.* [*sedition*, Fr., *seditio*, Latin.] A tumult; an insurrection; a popular commotion; an uproar.

That sunshine brew'd a show'r for him,
That wash'd his father's fortunes forth of France,
And heap'd *sedition* on his crown at home. *Shakspeare.*

SEDI'TIONARY, *s.* An inciter to sedition; a promoter of insurrection. *Unused.*—Barabbas was a thief, murderer, *seditionary. Bp. Hall.*

SEDI'TIOUS, *adj.* [*seditieux*, Fr., *seditiosus*, Lat.] Factious with tumult; turbulent.

The cause, why I have brought this army hither,
Is to remove proud Somerset from the king,
Seditious to his grace and to the state. *Shakspeare.*

Thou return'st
From flight, *seditious* angel. *Milton.*

SEDI'TIOUSLY, *adv.* Tumultuously, with turbulence.

SEDI'TIOUSNESS, *s.* Turbulence; disposition to sedition.

SEDLESCOMB, a parish of England, in Sussex, where there is a medicinal spring, similar to that at Tunbridge Wells; 3 miles north-east of Battle. Population 506.

SEDLEY,

SEDUM.

1. S. album. 2. S. rupestre. 3 S. reflexum. 4. S. anglicum. 5. S. villosum.

Engraved for the Encyclopædia Londinensis, 1826.

SEDLEY (Sir Charles), a dramatic writer, born in 1639. He was educated at Wadham College, Oxford, and after leaving the university, he passed his time in retirement till the restoration. On that event he came to court, and was one of the licentious circle round Charles II. His first essays in writing were some amatory poems, chiefly distinguished by their voluptuous cast. At this period of his life he was guilty of some public indecency, on account of which he was fined 500*l*. Sir Charles's fortune being impaired by this course of life, he got into the House of Commons, and he sat in three parliaments during that reign, in which he was frequently speaker. In the following reign, he took a patriotic part, which would have been highly to his credit, if private pique had not been the principal motive of his conduct. It appears, notwithstanding the laxity of his own morals, that he was much offended with James II. for taking his daughter for a mistress, in which quality she was raised to the title of countess of Dorchester, an elevation that, as her father indignantly said, only rendered her infamy the more conspicuous. Sir Charles joined the Earl of Dorset in a steady opposition to the design of keeping up a standing army after Monmouth's rebellion, and he concurred in all the measures which produced the revolution. For the latter he gave the humourous reason, that as the king had made his daughter a countess, he would in return do all in his power to make his majesty's daughter a queen.

Sedley long continued to be regarded as a fine gentleman, a lively companion, and a judge and patron of poetry, in which last capacity he was instrumental in bringing Charles Montague, afterwards Earl of Halifax, into notice. He is supposed to have lived beyond his eightieth year. His works, in two vols. 8vo., consist of poems, speeches in parliament, and a number of dramatic pieces, none of which are retained on the stage. *Biog. Brit.*

SEDLITZ, a village of the north-west of Bohemia; 17 miles west of Leutmeritz, well known for its mineral waters.

SEDLITZ, or GREAT SEDLITZ, a village of Germany, in Saxony; 2 miles south-west of Pirna. Here is a palace, with elegant gardens and water-works, erected by the elector Augustus III., but now neglected.

SEDLNITZ, a small town of the Austrian states, in Moravia, circle of Prerau, with 1500 inhabitants.

SEDR, or SEDRE, the high priest of the sect of Ali, among the Persians.

The sedr is appointed by the emperor of Persia, who usually confers the dignity on his nearest relation.

The jurisdiction of the sedr extends over all effects destined for pious purposes, over all mosques, hospitals, colleges, sepulchres and monasteries. He disposes of all ecclesiastical employments, and nominates all the superiors of religious houses. His decisions, in matters of religion, are received as so many infallible oracles; he judges of all criminal matters, in his own house, without appeal; and is, without contradiction, the second person in the empire.

The sedr, however, has not any indelible character, but frequently quits his post for another purely secular one. His authority is balanced by that of the mudsitchid, or first theologue of the empire.

SEDRE PASSAGE, a narrow channel of the Eastern seas, on the north coast of Sumatra, between Pulo Nancy and King's point.

To SEDU'CE, *v. a.* [*seduco*, Lat., *seduire*, Fr.] To draw aside from the right; to tempt; to corrupt.

'Tis meet
That noble minds keep ever with their likes;
For who so firm that cannot be *seduc'd*. *Shakspeare.*

Me the gold of France did not *seduce*,
Although I did admit it as a motive,
The sooner to effect what I intended. *Shakspeare.*

SEDU'CEMENT, *s.* Practice of seduction; art or means used in order to seduce.

Her Hero's dangers touch'd the pitying power,
The nymph's *seducements*, and the magic bower. *Pope.*

SEDU'CER, *s.* One who draws aside from the right; a tempter; a corrupter, generally of women.—Grant it me, O king; otherwise a *seducer* flourishes, and a poor maid is undone. *Shakspeare.*—There is a teaching by restraining *seducers*, and so removing the hindrances of knowledge. *South.*

The soft *seducer*, with enticing looks,
The bellowing rivals to the fight provokes. *Dryden.*

He whose firm faith no reason could remove,
Will melt before that soft *seducer*, love. *Dryden.*

SEDU'CIBLE, *adj.* Corruptible; capable of being drawn aside from the right.—We owe much of our errour to the power which our affections have over our so easy *seducible* understandings. *Glanville.*

SEDU'CTION, *s.* [*seduction*, Fr., *seductus*, Lat. The act of seducing.—Helen ascribes her *seduction* to Venus, and mentions nothing of Paris. *Pope.*—A woman who is above flattery, and despises all praise, but that which flows from the approbation of her own heart, is, morally speaking, out of reach of *seduction*. *Richardson.*

SEDUCTION, POINT, a cape on the west coast of North America, which separates two arms in the north part of Lynn canal. Lat. 59. 2. N. long. 224. 48. E.

SEDU'CTIVE, *adj.* Apt to seduce; apt to mislead. *Sheridan.*—You ask me if I know such a word as *seductive*. It is used perpetually in conversation, and I feel a consciousness of having met it often in elegant writing. *Seward's Lett.*

SEDU'LITY, *s.* [*sedulitas*, Lat.] Diligent assiduity; laboriousness; industry; application; intenseness of endeavour.—Man oftentimes pursues, with great *sedulity* and earnestness, that which cannot stand him in any stead for vital purpose. *Hooker.*

SEDULIUS (Caius Cælius, or Cæcilius), a priest and poet, who flourished about the year 430. He is known only by his writings, of which the principal is a Latin poem in heroic verse, entitled "Paschale Carmen," in five books, the first of which relates to the histories recorded in the Old Testament, and the last four to the life and miracles of Christ. This work is chiefly esteemed for its subject, though the style is flowing, and, for the age in which it was written, is tolerably pure. It has been printed several times, and is contained in Mattaire's "Corpus Poetarum."

SE'DULOUS, *adj.* [*sedulus*, Lat.] Assiduous; industrious; laborious; diligent; painful.

Not *sedulous* by nature to indite
Wars, hitherto the only argument
Heroick deem'd. *Milton.*

SE'DULOUSLY, *adv.* Assiduously; laboriously.

All things by experience
Are most improv'd; then *sedulously* think
To meliorate thy stock, no way or rule
Be unessay'd. *Philips.*

SE'DULOUSNESS, *s.* Assiduity; assiduousness; industry; diligence.—By their *sedulousness* and their erudition they discovered difficulties. *Boyle.*

SEDUM [of Pliny; *a sedendo in rupibus*, from its sitting or growing close to rocks], in Botany, a genus of the class decandria, order pentagynia, natural order of succulentæ; sempervivæ *(Juss.)*—Generic Character. Calyx: perianth five-cleft, acute, erect, permanent. Corolla: petals five, lanceolate, acuminate, flat, spreading. Nectaries five: each a very small emarginate scale: inserted into each germ at the base on the outside. Stamina: filaments ten, awl-shaped, length of the corolla. Anthers roundish. Pistil: germs five, oblong, ending in more slender styles. Stigmas obtuse. Pericarp: capsules five, spreading, acuminate, compressed, emarginate towards the base, opening on the inside longitudinally by a suture. Seeds numerous, very small.—*Essential Character.* Calyx five-cleft. Corolla five-petalled. Scales nectariferous, five, at the base of the germ. Capsule five.

I.—With

I.—With flat leaves.

1. Sedum verticillatum, or whorled stonecrop.—Stem a foot high, erect, round. Leaves in fours, lanceolate, scarcely a finger's length, equally serrate. Racemes axillary, small, solitary. Flowers small.—Native of the most southern parts of Europe and of Siberia.

2. Sedum telephium, or orpine stonecrop.—Leaves flattish, serrate, corymb leafy, stem erect. Root perennial, tuberous. Corymbs terminating, many-flowered, close or heaped together. Flowers deep purple, very rarely white in England; though that seems to be the most common colour in some foreign countries.

This is the only English sedum with flat leaves. Being a handsome plant and easily cultivated, it is met with in most gardens, where it will sometimes grow a yard high.—Native of Portugal, Spain and Switzerland: there are several varieties.

3. Sedum anacampseros, or evergreen orpine.—Leaves wedge-shaped, attenuated at the base, subsessile, stems decumbent, flowers in corymbs. Roots fibrous, perennial.—Native of Germany, Switzerland, the south of France, Italy, China, Cochin-china and Japan, growing out of the crevices of rocks.

4. Sedum divaricatum, or spreading stonecrop.—Leaves wedge-rhombed, emarginate, petioled, stems branched, panicles terminating, spreading.—Native of Madeira.

5. Sedum Aizoon, or yellow stonecrop.—Leaves lanceolate, serrate, flat, stem erect, cyme sessile, terminating. Root perennial, composed of many thick fleshy fibres, from which come out several stalks rising near a foot high. Embryo the size of the seed.—Native of Siberia.

6. Sedum hybridum, or germander-leaved stonecrop.—Leaves wedge-shaped, concave, somewhat toothed, aggregate, branches creeping, cyme terminating. This rises with very numerous slender stems of about two feet in height, and often of a red cast on the upper part.—Native of Tartary, at the foot of the Uralian mountains, about Trebisond.

7. Sedum populifolium, or poplar-leaved stonecrop.—Leaves flat, cordate, toothed, petioled, corymbs terminating.—Native of Siberia. When the plant grows in an open situation, exposed to the sun, the leaves and stalks become of a bright red colour. It is the only hardy sedum cultivated with us that has a shrubby stalk: the leaves are deciduous.

8. Sedum stellatum, or starry stonecrop.—Leaves flattish, angular, flowers lateral, sessile, solitary. This is a low annual plant.—Native of Germany, France, Switzerland, Italy, and, according to Loureiro, of China, about Canton.

9. Sedum alsinefolium, or chickweed-leaved stonecrop.—Root biennial. Stem erect, branched. Flowers white, on long peduncles.—Native of Piedmont, in shady stony places.

10. Sedum cepæa, or purslane-leaved stonecrop.—Leaves flat, lanceolate, stem branched, flowers panicled, petals acute, awned. Root annual.—Native of Germany, France, Switzerland and Italy. This has a variety.

11. Sedum libanoticum.—Root-leaves in bundles, spatulate-lanceolate, stem almost naked, quite simple. Raceme terminating, length of the stem; pedicels scattered, commonly two-flowered.

II.—With round leaves.

12. Sedum dasyphyllum, or thick-leaved stonecrop.—Leaves opposite, ovate, obtuse, fleshy, stem weak, panicle glutinose. Root perennial, composed of small white fibres.—Native of many parts of Europe, as France, England, Switzerland, Austria, Spain, Portugal and Italy; also of Barbary; in the fissures of rocks and on walls: flowering in June. This pretty little sedum, introduced into a garden, propagates itself freely upon walls, in waste places, and about garden pots. No plant is better adapted to the purpose of decorating rock-work; where it grows without any trouble, in any aspect, multiplying very much by young shoots, and looking beautiful throughout the year.

13. Sedum reflexum, or yellow stonecrop.—Leaves awl-shaped, scattered, loose at the base, the lower ones recurved. Root perennial. Flowers in a terminating subcymed panicle, with many flowered branches, for the most part recurved.—Native of Europe: it has two varieties: common in England on walls and thatched roofs; and on rocks in the northern counties: flowering in July.

14. Sedum hispidum, or hispid stonecrop.—Branches filiform, panicled, villose, leaves half-round. Flowers numerous; each on a capillary pedicel. Annual.—Native of Barbary.

15. Sedum virens, or green stonecrop.—Leaves awl-shaped, scattered, loose at the base, flowers in cymes, petals half as long again as the lanceolate calyx.—Native of Portugal. Perennial.

16. Sedum rupestre, or rock stonecrop.—Leaves awl-shaped, erect, clustered in five rows, loose at the base, flowers sub-cymed. This is a little smaller than the reflexum.—Native of England and Wales, Germany, Carniola, Silesia, Dauphiné, and Piedmont, on rocks and walls: flowering in July. Perennial.—There are 13 more species, of which the most remarkable are—

22. Sedum album, or white stonecrop.—Leaves oblong, round, blunt, spreading, smooth, panicle very much branched. Root perennial, fibrous.—Native of Europe, on rocks, walls and roofs: flowering in July.

23. Sedum acre, biting stonecrop, or wall pepper.—Leaves alternate, subovate, fleshy, adnate-sessile, cyme trifid, leafy. Root perennial, fibrous. Cymes terminating, solitary, few-flowered. Flowers erect, sessile. Petals acute, yellow, twice the length of the calyx. The whole plant is acrid, and chewed in the mouth has a very hot biting taste, whence, and from its common place of growth, it has the name of wall pepper.—Native of Europe, in dry sandy and gravelly pastures, on houses, walls, banks and rocks. Common in England: flowering in June. This plant has been used in medicine; but its operation is very rough and violent: it makes, however, an excellent cataplasm, producing all the effects of the most powerful blister.

25. Sedum Anglicum, English, or mild white stonecrop.—Root annual, fibrous. Stems in tufts, decumbent at the base, smooth, red, leafy. Leaves mostly alternate, somewhat glaucous. Cymes terminating, solitary, almost leafless, racemed. Flowers erect, five-cleft.—Native of Britain and Norway, on rocks, sandy coasts, roofs and walls.

28. Sedum villosum, or hairy stonecrop.—Leaves alternate, linear, flattish, somewhat hairy, as are also the peduncles, stem erect. Root perennial, small, fibrous. Petals white, or rose-coloured, with a red rib.—Native of Britain, Germany, France, Italy, Switzerland and Denmark. In bogs and moist meadows in the northern counties of England, and in Scotland. It flowers in June and July.

Propagation and Culture.—The Orpines may be easily increased by cuttings during the summer months.—All the sorts of stonecrop are easily propagated, by planting their trailing stalks either in spring or summer, which soon put out roots; both thrive much better upon rocks, old walls or buildings, than in the ground. They may therefore be disposed upon rock-work in such a manner as to have a good effect.

SEDUNOVA, a village of Asiatic Russia, in the government of Irkoutsk, on the Lena; 12 miles north of Orlenga.

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PRINTED BY GUNNELL AND SHEARMAN,
13, SALISBURY-SQUARE.